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CORPORATE POLICY: THE IMPACT UPON CEO ROLES

Patricia B. Abels, The University of Findlay Joseph T. Martelli, The University of Findlay

ABSTRACT

Corporate scandals, fraudulent financial reporting and recent turmoil in the United States have heightened stakeholder's attention concerning corporate governance policies. The corporate demise has devastated the public confidence in these powerful firms. Boards of Directors have a fiduciary responsibility to protect the interests of shareholders from the conflicting interests of management. In response, the Federal government, the Security and Exchange Commission, the American stock exchanges and shareholders have requested public companies to reform its governance structure into a two-tier system. Concentrating on the agency and stewardship theories, this paper investigates the compliance status within the largest 500 firms in the United States. The analysis reveals the most frequent title held by the Chief Executive Officer in 2008 is CEO/Chairman and 60.6 percent of CEOs serve in the capacity of Chairman. The analysis further reveals that in 2010, the most frequent title held by the Chief executive officer is and 38.4 percent of CEOs serve in the capacity of Chairman. The practice of a two-tier system improves profits, sales revenue or shareholder returns. However, the practice of a two-tier system appears to becoming a reality within the United States, whether on a voluntary or mandatory basis.

JEL: C1; K2; L5; M1

KEYWORDS: Descriptive study, governance regulation, duality policy, board of directors

INTRODUCTION

Corporate scandals, fraudulent financial reporting and recent turmoil in the United States (US) have heightened stakeholder's attention concerning corporate governance policies, e.g. Enron and WorldCom. The corporate demise has devastated public confidence in these powerful firms. In order to re-establish the public's confidence, President George W. Bush signed into law the Sarbanes Oxley Act (SOX) in 2002. The act intends to regulate the financial activity and corporate governance of public companies. The board of directors has a fiduciary responsibility to protect the interests of shareholders from the conflicting interests of management. Duality positions can permit CEOs to exercise control over the board of directors, which weakens the oversight power of the board. In response, the Federal government, the Security and Exchange Commission, the American stock exchanges and shareholders have requested public companies to reform its governance structure into a two-tier system.

Concentrating on the agency and stewardship theories, this paper investigates the two-tier compliance status within the largest 500 firms in the US, as reported by Fortune Magazine in 2008 and 2010. The discussion begins by examining the legislation fueling the change to implement a two-tier governance system within public organizations. Following is a discussion of the theories (agency and stewardship) that explain the relationship between management and shareholders. The research design is quantitative and descriptive and analyzes the conformity within the US concerning the governance structures practiced within the largest 500 US firms. There is a discussion addressing the results of the analysis followed by concluding remarks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Legislation

The organizational structure of a corporation defines a firm's policies and its relationships between the board of directors, management, stockholders and stakeholders. The board of directors has a fiduciary responsibility to protect the interests of shareholders and legally the board of directors should work as a fiduciary agent to protect the shareholder from conflicts of interest with management. CEOs are responsible for running the daily activities of corporations whereas Chairmen are responsible for the board of directors, including corporate governance, senior management recruitment and CEO succession (Lublin, 2009). The foundation of corporate governance relies on the disclosures that enhance trust in corporations by allowing public confidence to increase within those organizations. The control mechanism, which governs the activities of management and overseen by the board of directors, is termed corporate governance (Bozec, 2005).

The monitoring function of the board of directors has intensified because of the mayhem of recent corporate scandals. The board of directors has a responsibility to shareholders, which includes monitoring the actions of management and taking any necessary corrective actions against management, such as dismissal (Fairchild and Li, 2005). The most important external party of a corporation is its shareholders (Van Ees, Gabrielsson and Huse, 2009). In the eyes of stakeholders, the independence of the board of directors diminishes when a CEO holds the title Chairman. As a result, companies are beginning to split the role of CEO and Chairman.

In order to re-establish the public's confidence level in public companies, President George W. Bush has signed into law the Sarbanes-Oxley Act (SOX) in 2002. The act did have an overwhelming approval in the House and in the Senate (SOX, 2002). The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) regulates corporate compliance of SOX. All publicly traded companies exchanging in the US markets that have registered debt securities or equity ownership must comply with the requirements of SOX (SOX, 2002). The act has increased the accountability of both the board of directors and the management team. The act requires management to supply additional supplementary disclosures that ensures the accuracy and representation of the financial reports.

The New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) and the National Association of Security Dealers Automated Quotations (NASDAQ) considered the adoption of an amendment to the regulation that would mandate and forbid a dual CEO role. The stock exchanges expectations are to make the board of directors appear more independent in the eyes of investors while at the same time strengthening a corporation's corporate governance policy. The amendment requires board membership of listed public companies to be predominately composed of independent directors, not management (SEC, 2003).

In order to provide adequate information sought by shareholders, an amendment proposal by the SEC surrounding corporate governance transpired. The 2009 amendment enhances the corporate disclosure policies surrounding the corporate leadership structure. The proposal restricts CEOs from also serving as Chairman of the board of directors. Under the proposal, public corporations need to justify and disclose the reason why the firm has selected a CEO and Chairman combined position instead of implementing separate roles (SEC, 2009).

Theory: The prime rationalization of the agency theory was to explain the relationship between the principal (stockholders) and its agents (management). Underlying the agency theory, the owners of the corporation elect agents to perform the daily operating decisions on their behalf (Abdullah and Valentine, 2009). A relationship exists between principal and agent through delegation, which conceivably could create a conflict of interest (Hendry and Kiel, 2004). The agency theory assumes that a principal or agent

opts for the best alternative that increases his or her own personal benefit (Davis, Schoorman and Donaldson, 1997; Kochhar, 1996). Agency theory expects an agent's behavior to be opportunistic and self-serving with motivation that satisfies their personal goals (Podrug, Filipovic and Milic, 2010). The conflict creates an opportunity and financial incentive for dual CEOs to neglect the best interests of principals (Kochhar, 1996). CEO duality undermines the oversight power of the board of directors, since management dominates the board (McGrath, 2009; Nicholson and Kiel, 2007).

The stewardship theory disputes the self-serving interest of agents as suggested under the agency theory (Hendry and Kiel, 2004). The theory proposes that stewards (management) are inclined and motivated to conduct themselves in a manner that prioritizes the interests of shareholders (Davis, Schoorman and Donaldson, 1997). The stewardship theory challenges the agency theory because stewards (management) are inclined to implement decisions benefiting the entire organization rather than for personal gratification (Filipovic, Podrug and Kristo, 2010; Hendry and Kiel, 2004; Nicholson and Kiel, 2007). Management selects the alternative considered pro-organizational instead of self-serving in nature (Davis, Schoorman and Donaldson, 1997).

The agency theory considers duality as a hindrance to firm performance because independence is lacking and agency costs are increasing within firms. The separation of duality positions does restrict CEO authority to influence the board of directors (Finkelstein and Mooney, 2003). On the other hand, proponents of the stewardship theory consider dual representation enhances firm performance because the organization is more efficient and effective in reaching the goals within organizations. The agency theory has been the prevailing paradigm and the stewardship theory should be a complimentary model rather than superior model to agency theory (Anderson, Melanson and Maly, 2007).

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The research design selected was a quantitative and descriptive research in order to analyze compliance with a two-tier governance structure within the US. The investigation seeks to uncover the status of the extent in which CEO duality exist within the US. Secondary data acquired from various business-related databases and other online sources permitted a complete coverage of the 500 cases under analysis for this study. The 500 cases selected were the top revenue-producing firms within the US based upon the 2008 Fortune 500 listing. For comparison purposes, the newly appointed CEOs in 2010 were included for firms that had remained on the Fortune listing with the original 2008 firms. The selection process permitted CEOs managing the top 500 companies in the US to be included in the study along with newly appointed CEOs. The collection of data resulted in 100 percent of the CEO population for 2008 and 2010 to be included in the study. In order to establish the principal industry sector for companies under analysis, the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) at the two-digit level was the product classification system used. Descriptive statistics permitted the analyzing and summarizing of the reported observations.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The analysis revealed the most frequent title held by a Chief Executive Officer in 2008 was CEO/Chairman and 60.6 percent of Fortune 500 CEOs served in the capacity of Chairman. The analysis further revealed that in 2010, the most frequent title held by a Chief Executive Officer was CEO/President and 38.4 percent of Fortune 500 CEOs served in the capacity of Chairman. The decline in CEO duality was consistent with the agency theory. There was little evidence to support that a two-tier system improved profits, sales revenue or shareholder returns. However, the board of directors has a legal fiduciary responsibility under common law to protect principals from conflicting interest of management. The practice of a two-tier system appears to becoming a reality within the US, whether on a voluntary or mandatory basis.

CONCLUSION

Government, SEC, stock exchanges and shareholders alike have suggested that companies in the U.S. should convert and implement a two-tier system for corporate governance. Legislation has been introduced that would forbid CEOs from also serving as Chairmen; and the SEC has pushed a move which would require public corporations to justify its board leadership structures (News Editor, 2009). Additionally, the NYSE and the NASDAQ have considered the adoption of a new regulation that would mandate and forbid a dual CEO role. Investors have submitted proxy proposals that would also ban this type of dual policy. The stock exchanges expectations are to make the board of directors appear more independent in the eyes of investors (News Editor, 2009).

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Patricia B. Abels is an Assistant Professor of Business at The University of Findlay. She can be contacted at: The University of Findlay, College of Business, 1000 North Main Street, Findlay, Ohio 45840, US. Email: <u>abels@findlay.edu</u>.

Dr. Joseph T. Martelli is an Associate Professor of Business at The University of Findlay. He can be contacted at: The University of Findlay, College of Business, 1000 North Main Street, Findlay, Ohio 45840, US. Email: <u>martelli@findlay.edu</u>.

Farideh A. Farazmand, Lynn University Robert D. Green, Lynn University

ABSTRACT

Accrediting organizations and employers' expectations of skill development for college students' learning and employment are challenging to educators. As a result, educators are increasingly using experiential learning pedagogy to improve learning (knowledge and skills). Two highly effective experiential methods are live-case study projects and internships. This study compares the learning outcomes of courses with live-case study projects for students who have had a prior internship experience and those who have not. The results find that prior internship experience does improve applied project learning outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Two highly effective experiential learning pedagogies are internships and live-case projects (Farazmand, Green, and Miller, 2010; Gupta, Burns, and Schiferl, 2010; Karns, 2005). Internships are perceived by students as being successful if they have positive experiences, gain personal benefits, and improve their employment prospects (Gupta et al., 2010). However, student internships are likely a one-semester experience and an optional (elective) course. On the other hand, live-case projects may be experienced in multiple courses and perceived as being successful by students and businesses (Elam and Spotts, 2004; Farazmand et al., 2010). Integrating skills and knowledge is an important focus of experiential learning (Elam and Spotts, 2004; Lamb, Shipp, and Moncrief, 1995). With the same importance, skills development in different types of experiential courses should be integrated (Lamb et al., 1995). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine prior internship experience and live-case projects. Hence, does an internship experience improve live-case project learning outcomes?

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In recent years, many higher education institutions have integrated learning by doing experiential methods of teaching-learning to their curricula to enhance learning outcomes of their programs (Aldas, Crispo, Johnson and Price, 2010). Accreditation organizations, educators and students have reported experiential learning activities effective in enhancing students' knowledge, skills and developments for future career success (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2010a; Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2010a; Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2010b).

Business schools, particularly marketing discipline have implemented the experiential methods of teaching by incorporating hands on real projects to different courses. Titus and Petroshius (1993) assess the learning outcomes of an undergraduate consumer behavior course with an experiential project. The students' learning from the course and implication of the project include, hands-on experience, analytical skill in the market place, synthesizing theory and practice and relating marketing concepts to real world application, design and execution of a marketing project, and appreciation for marketing research.

Geringer, Stratemeyer and Canton (2009) integrate a service project for a non-profit organization to thirty-eight sections of marketing concept course. Geringer et al. (2009) state that the service project learning outcomes showed enhancement and development in students' academics knowledge, skills, attitudes, career development and civic responsibilities.

Furthermore, Walsh (2002) explains how a SUNY College at Oneonta undergraduate student Marketing Club has successfully conducted a number of major marketing research projects and consulting services for the community private and public organizations. Walsh points out that most of their Marketing Club projects have been presented to the community organizations as written projects resulted in enhancing students' learning objectives. Students have acquired valuable skills such as collaborative and creative processes, consulting, teamwork and communication, in addition to personal growth and self-esteem and motivation development.

Experiential learning can be incorporated into a college curricula in various forms, among them are live case projects and internship (Aldas et al., 2010; Farazmand et al., 2010; Gupta et al., 2010; Karns, 2005). Business schools have been using internship programs as a linkage between academic program and work to prepare students for transition from academia to the business world (Walker, Turner, Shoffner and Gibson, 2001).

The current study examines the relationship of prior internship and live-case projects. The positive impacts of internship experience on learning outcomes of an academic course could indicate the academic value of internship. Walker et al. (2001) suggest that integration of multiple experiential learning projects into different courses during the four year college curricula enhances the impact of the internship in junior-senior year. This study examines the learning outcomes of courses with live-case study projects for students who have had a prior internship experience and those who have not.

THE STUDY: DATA, METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

The live-case projects were conducted at Lynn University (LU), Boca Raton, Florida. LU is an independent, coeducational, residential institution with 2,224 students (1,786 undergraduate and 438 graduate) from 46 states and 81 nations. LU has a 17:1 student-to-faculty ratio and offers baccalaureate, master and doctoral degrees. The University has six colleges of which the College of Business and Management is the largest (Lynn University, 2010).

The projects for this study were for five upper level marketing courses (Consumer Behavior, Marketing Communications, Global Marketing, Marketing Research, Business Marketing Management) in the College of Business and Management during three consecutive semesters (Fall 2009, Spring and Fall 2010). Each course was structured exactly the same with the exception of the type of marketing project. Generally, class sessions met on Tuesdays and Thursdays for 75 minutes. Depending on the semester, examinations were 30% of the course grade, course project ranged from 30% to 50%, and other assignments 20% to 40%. The courses allocated time of approximately 60% classroom meetings and 40% field research and project development.

Although the semester was in two parts – textbook (assignments and examinations) and project (field research and presentations), the two were integrated with knowledge content and skills development by specific requirements (Lamb, et al, 1995). The first part of the semester was focused on textbook assignments and the last part was only for developing the course-learning project. During the field research and project development period, there were no class sessions for one day of the week. The teams used the classroom for meetings and the instructor was available for assistance. In addition, required business/project meetings were held with the businessperson and the instructor during the second scheduled class day each week. These meetings were to report (project status) and for informational (ask questions) purposes. For the last week of the semester, each team made an oral presentation using PowerPoints and submitted a written plan to the instructor and businessperson. The projects were evaluated (graded) and returned to students during the scheduled Final Week class session. This provided an opportunity for students to ask questions/make comments for timely feedback.

Lynn University requires all undergraduate students to complete a 3 credit hour (150 hours of work) internship at a student-selected organization. Generally, the internship course is completed during the junior year or the first semester senior year. Therefore, students in the upper level marketing course might have completed an internship. In this study, 132 students participated in the live-case projects during the three semesters of which 55 had completed an internship and 77 had not. There were 73 males and 59 females. The vast majority was College of Business and Management students (94.7%), and only six students were from the College of International Communications (4.5%) and one for the College of Liberal Studies (0.8%). The students tended to be juniors in academic level (56.8%). While there was a large representation of international students (37.1%), U.S. students were the majority (62.9%). More than two-thirds of the students lived off-campus (68.9%) and the remaining students lived on-campus (31.1%). About one-half of the students (53.8%) did not belong or were associated with a University organization, e.g., student government, fraternity or sorority, athletic team. About four out of ten students did not have a paying Summer job (42.4%) but most of those who did worked 30 or more hours (28.8%). During the semester of the course, most students did not work (73.4%) but most of those who did worked less than 20 hours (19.0%). At the end of the semester for a post-test six items were asked to the students. See Table 1, Panel A for the post-test items. As shown in the table, these items were developed measuring students' applied project perceptions and experiences as (1) knowledge, (2) skills, (3) personal development, or (4) both knowledge and skills.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship of a prior internship experience and live-case projects. The data were analyzed and the findings are reported by a comparison between students who had completed an internship (n=55) and those who had not (n=77) using t-Tests. In Table 1, Panel A, the internship and non-internship experienced students' post-test results are compared using the t-Test method in which the items were measured by a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). Four of the six items and the total mean score (unweighted for the six items) show significant differences. Students who had an internship course had a better learning experience, e.g., knowledge, skills, and knowledge and skills, than those who did not have an internship experience. The positive impact of an internship by enhancing students' knowledge and skills shows (1) the academic value of an internship and (2) that the integration of an internship and courses with live-case project enhances the impact of experiential teaching pedagogy. The two items in which there were no significant differences, e.g., personal development and skills (team experience), were consistent with the significant items in that the internship experienced students had a more positive experience (lower mean scores). In Table 1, Panel B the project grades (1 = A to 5 = F) were not significantly different between the two groups. However, students without internship experience did better (lower mean scores).

IMPLICATIONS

An important pedagogical strategy to address and develop better student skills is experiential learning, e.g., internship experiences, live-case study projects (Karns, 2005). As with content knowledge, skills development experiences should be integrated (Lamb et al., 1995). Internships usually occur with only one experience (course), while live-case studies may be integrated into multiple courses. Therefore, this study examines, does an internship experience improve live-case project learning outcomes? The findings are that an internship does improve live-case project learning outcomes. The results from this study are supported in three specific areas.

First, from the comparison of the two groups, students with prior internship experience reported lower mean scores (strongly/somewhat support) for all six items for their live-case project learning experience

Item	Students with Internship Mean	Students without Internship Mean	Mean Difference
Learned more about Marketing in this course than a Marketing course without a service (applied) learning project. (<i>Knowledge</i>)	1.56	1.87	-0.31**
Developed better or new skills in this course than a Marketing course without a service (applied) learning project. (<i>Skills</i>)	1.55	1.92	-0.37*
Look forward to doing another service (applied) learning course project in the future. (<i>Personal Development</i>)	2.00	2.26	-0.26
Look forward to working in a team in the future. (Skills)	2.24	2.43	-0.19
Did better in this course that had <u>both</u> examinations and a service (applied) learning course project than without such as project. (<i>Knowledge and Skills</i>)	1.87	2.26	-0.39**
A service (applied) learning project has benefited me more in meeting my career goals than a course without such a project. (<i>Knowledge and Skills</i>)	1.74	2.07	-0.33**
Mean Score for the 6 student-reported items	1.83	2.14	-0.31**
Panel B: Instructor-Reported			
Item	Students with	Students without	Mean
	Internship Mean	Internship Mean	Difference
Project grade	2.15	1.88	0.27

Table 1: Project Score Related Results Comparison between Internship and Non-Internship Experienced Students

Note: * (p < 0.01) and ** (p < 0.05) indicate significant differences.

than those without an internship. See Table 1. Second, of the six items four were significantly different between the two groups. Students with a prior internship "developed better or more skills" with the project (p < 0.01). They also "learned more" in a course with a project (p < 0.05). Interesting in that these students recognized the importance of knowledge and skills in which they "did better in this course that had both examinations and a service (applied) learning project" (p < 0.05). Students with an internship course also realized that the live-case project "benefited (them) more in meeting (their) career goals than a course without such a project" (p < 0.05) than students without an internship experience.

Third, the highest mean score (somewhat agree) related to working in teams. While not significant, students with an internship had a lower mean score (looked more favorable to another team project) than the other students. This may have been a result of the internship experience with an organization that involved them in team situations, a "real world," out-of-classroom/off-campus experience.

Not only have professional accrediting organizations, e.g., Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, recognized the need for experiential learning but other higher education organizations have too, including those that have liberal education focuses, e.g., Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU). In a recent survey of employers, AACU found revealing results – 79% of the employers wanted more college emphasis on integrative and applied learning (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2010b). Furthermore, they also found employers wanted more intellectual and practical skills, e.g., written and oral communication (89%), critical thinking and analytic reasoning (81%), complex problem solving (75%), teamwork in diverse groups (71%), creativity and innovation (70%), information literacy (68%), quantitative reasoning (63%).

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of prior internship experience and live-case projects; does an internship experience improve live-case project learning outcomes? The results were that prior internships do improve live-case course projects learning outcomes, indicating the academic value of an internship. The results also complements Walker et al. (2001) in that integration of an internship and multiple experiential learning projects into different courses during the four year business school curricula has a stronger effect on student learning. The two most effective experiential learning

experiences are live-case projects and internships, and this study has provided a better understanding of each and their inter-relationship.

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APPLYING GRADIENT ESTIMATION TECHNIQUE TO ESTIMATE GRADIENTS OF EUROPEAN CALL FOLLOWING VARIANCE-GAMMA

Lingyan Cao, University of Maryland Zheng-Feng Guo, International Monetary Fund

ABSTRACT

Assuming the underlying assets follow a Variance-Gamma (VG) process, we consider the problem of estimating gradients of a European call option by Monte Carlo simulation. In this paper, we compare indirect methods (finite difference techniques such as forward differences) and two direct methods: infinitesimal perturbation analysis (IPA) and likelihood ratio (LR) method. We conduct simulation experiments to evaluate the efficiency of the different estimators and discuss the advantage and disadvantage of each method.

JEL: G13, G15, G17

KEYWORDS: Greeks, IPA, LR, Variance-Gamma

INTRODUCTION

Gradient estimation technique was first applied to option pricing using infinitesimal perturbation analysis (IPA) for both European and American options by Fu and Hu (1995). Broadie and Glasserman (1996) applied both IPA and LR methods to European and Asian option with respect to (w.r.t.) Geometric Brownian motion; see also Glasserman (2004) reviews various Monte Carlo Methods for financial engineering. Fu (2007) reviews various methods of gradient estimation in stochastic simulation, including both direct and indirect methods; see also Fu (2008). Cao (2011) compares results from delta hedging of a European call option w.r.t. a VG process and a geometric Brownian motion (GBM), respectively, using deltas by IPA method; see also Cao and Guo (2011) by LR method.

The Variance Gamma (VG) Process was introduced to the finance community as a model for log-price returns and option pricing by Madan and Seneta (1990), and developed in Madan and Milne (1991) and Madan et al (1998). Fu (2007) gives a general introduction to the VG process in the context of stochastic (Monte Carlo) simulation and shows how to price and simulate the stock price. Cao and Fu (2010) estimate Greeks of Mountain Range options w.r.t. Variance Gamma process. This paper develops gradient estimates of a European call option w.r.t. a VG process. We first price a European call option and then turn to gradient estimation to calculate the Greeks by indirect method: forward difference (FD), the direct methods of IPA and LR. Finally, an analysis of the strengths and weakness of each method is provided.

Greeks

Greeks are quantities representing sensitivities of derivatives, such as options, see Hull (2003). Each Greek letter measures a different dimension to the risk in an option position and the aim of a trader is to manage the Greeks so that all risks are acceptable. In this paper, we study the Greeks such as Delta, Rho and Theta defined in the following:

Delta: Δ is defined as the rate of change of the option price w.r.t. the underlying asset price. It is the

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial V}{\partial S}$$

Vega: v is the rate of change of the value of the portfolio of option w.r.t. the volatility of the underlying asset price. It measures the sensitivity of the value of a portfolio to the volatility.

$$\upsilon = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma}$$

Rho: ρ is the rate of change of the value of the portfolio of option w.r.t. the interest rate. It measures the sensitivity of the value of a portfolio to interest rates. It is defined as:

$$\rho = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}$$

Theta: θ is the rate of change of the value of the portfolio of option w.r.t. the passage of time with all else remaining the same. It measures the sensitivity of the value to the passage of time. It is defined as:

$$\theta = \frac{\partial V}{\partial t}.$$

Variance-Gamma Process

The Variance Gamma Process is a Levy process, which is of independent and stationary increments. There are two ways to define the VG process:

The VG process can be defined as Gamma-time-changed Brownian motion with the subordinator being a gamma process, say GVG. Let W_t denote the standard Brownian motion, $B_t^{(\mu,\sigma)} = \mu t + \sigma W_t$ denote the Brownian motion with constant drift rate μ and volatility σ , $\gamma_t^{(\nu)}$ be the gamma process with drift $\mu = 1$ and variance parameter ν . The representation of the VG process is:

$$X_t = B_{\gamma_t^{(\nu)}}^{(\theta,\sigma)} = \theta \gamma_t^{(\nu)} + \sigma W_{\gamma_t^{(\nu)}}.$$
(1)

The VG process is the difference of two gamma processes, say DVG. Let $\gamma_t^{(\mu,\nu)}$ be the gamma process with drift parameter μ and variance parameter ν , the representation of the VG process as difference of gamma process is:

$$X_{t} = \gamma_{t}^{(\mu_{+},\nu_{+})} - \gamma_{t}^{(\mu_{-},\nu_{-})},$$
where $\mu_{\pm} = (\sqrt{\theta^{2} + 2\sigma^{2}/\upsilon} \pm \theta)/2$, and $\upsilon_{\pm} = \mu_{\pm}^{2}\upsilon.$
(2)

Under the risk-neutral measure, with no dividends and constant risk-free interest rate r, the stock price is given by

$$S_t = S_0 \exp((r+\omega)t + X_t),$$

where $\omega = \ln(1 - \theta \upsilon - \sigma^2 \upsilon / 2) / \upsilon$ is the parameter that makes the discounted asset price a martingale.

The density function of the log-price $Z = \ln(S_t / S_0)$ as proposed by Madan and Seneta (1990) is:

$$h(z) = \frac{2\exp(\theta x/\sigma^2)}{\nu^{t/\nu}\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma\Gamma(\frac{t}{\nu})} \left(\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2/\nu + \theta^2}\right)^{\frac{t}{2\nu} - \frac{1}{4}} K_{(\frac{t}{\nu} - \frac{1}{2})}(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\sqrt{x^2(2\sigma^2/\nu + \theta^2)})$$
(3)

where K is the modified Bessel function of 2nd kind, and $x = z - rt - \frac{t}{\upsilon} \ln(1 - \theta \upsilon - \sigma^2 \upsilon/2)$.

Gradient Estimation Technique

In this paper, we focus on calculating gradient estimates of the price of a European call option depending on various parameters of the VG model. We then calculate the derivatives of the price with respect to these parameters separately.

We begin with $J(\xi)$, the objective function which depends on the parameter ξ , and calculate

$$\frac{dJ(\xi)}{d\xi}$$

Suppose the objective function is an expectation of the sample performance measure L, that is:

$$J(\xi) = E[L(\xi)] = E[L(X;\xi)],\tag{4}$$

where X is dependent on ξ . By the law of the unconscious statistician, the expectation can be written as:

$$E[L(X)] = \int y dF_L(y) = \int L(x) dF_X(x), \tag{5}$$

where F_L is the distribution of L and F_X is the distribution of input random variables X.

Indirect Methods

The indirect method of estimating a gradient at ξ is simply to use finite difference, i.e., perturbing the value of each component of ξ separately while holding all the other components still.

The one-sided forward difference gradient estimator in the i-th direction is:

$$\frac{\hat{J}(\xi+c_ie_i)-J(\xi)}{c}$$

where c_i is the scalar perturbation in the i-th direction and e_i is the unit vector in the i-th direction.

Direct Methods (IPA and LR)

IPA estimates require the integrability condition which is easily satisfied when the performance function is continuous with respect to the given parameter. Assume we can interchange the expectation and differentiation, the IPA estimate is:

$$\frac{dE[L(X)]}{d\xi} = E\left[\frac{dL(X)}{d\xi}\right] = \int_0^1 \frac{dL}{dX} \frac{dX(\xi)}{d\xi} du, \qquad (6)$$

and the estimator is:

$$\frac{dL}{dX}\frac{dX(\xi)}{d\xi}\tag{7}$$

From the Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem, the condition of uniform integrability of $\frac{dL}{dX}\frac{dX(\xi)}{d\xi}$ must be satisfied to make the interchangeability.

For LR, the probability density function f of X is differentiable. The Likelihood Ratio method is:

$$\frac{dE[L(X)]}{d\xi} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} L(x) \frac{df(x;\xi)}{d\xi} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} L(x) \frac{d\ln f(x;\xi)}{d\xi} f(x) dx$$

and the estimator is

$$L(x)\frac{d\ln f(x;\xi)}{d\xi}$$

where $\frac{d \ln f(x;\xi)}{d\xi}$ is the score function. From the Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem, the

condition of uniform integrability of $L(x) \frac{d \ln f(x;\xi)}{d\xi} f(x)$ must be satisfied to make the

interchangeability.

We employ indirect methods (FD) and direct methods (IPA and LR) to calculate the gradient estimation in the following paper.

Gradients of an European Call Option

Call option gives the buyer the right, not the obligation to buy certain amount of financial instrument from the seller at a certain time for a certain price. The payoff function of the European call option with expiring time T, strike price K and risk free interest rate r is:

$$V_T = e^{-rT} (S_T - K)^+,$$

where $S_T = S_0 \exp((r + \omega)T + X_T)$, and X_T follows the VG process. We have 2 different ways to represent the VG process X_T as in Equation (2) and Equation (3). We estimate the Greeks in these two ways.

IPA for European Call Option

The gradient w.r.t T does not satisfy the condition of interchangeability, which means IPA method can not be applied to this gradient. The estimators for other gradients of a European call option for IPA method are as follows:

Vega (Gradient w.r.t. S_0):

$$\frac{dV_T}{dS_0} = e^{-rT} \mathbf{1}_{\{S_T \ge K\}} \frac{dS_T}{dS_0}.$$

Rho (Gradient w.r.t. *r*):

$$\frac{dV_T}{dr} = -Te^{-rT}(S_T - K)^+ + e^{-rT}\mathbf{1}_{\{S_T \ge K\}} \frac{dS_T}{dr}$$

Gradient w.r.t. σ :

$$\frac{dV_T}{d\sigma} = e^{-rT} \mathbf{1}_{\{S_T \ge K\}} \frac{dS_T}{d\sigma}$$

Theta (Gradient w.r.t. *T*):

$$\frac{dV_T}{dT} = -re^{-rT}(S_T - K)^+ + e^{-rT}\mathbf{1}_{\{S_T \ge K\}}\frac{dS_T}{dT}$$

Gradient w.r.t. θ :

$$\frac{dV_T}{d\theta} = e^{-rT} \mathbf{1}_{\{S_T \ge K\}} \frac{dS_T}{d\theta}$$

Note that X_T could follow GVG or DVG process.

LR for European Call Option}

Since the density doesn't contain S_0 and r, we could not use LR to estimate vega and rho. The gradient w.r.t. θ does not satisfy the condition of interchangeability, which means LR method can not be applied to this gradient. The other gradients could be calculated as follows:

Gradient w.r.t. σ :

$$\frac{dE[V_T]}{d\sigma} = \int_0^\infty e^{-rT} \cdot (S_0 e^z - K)^+ \frac{d\ln h(z)}{d\sigma} \cdot h(z) dz.$$

Gradient w.r.t. *T* :

$$\frac{dE[V_T]}{dT} = \int_0^\infty e^{-rT} (S_0 e^z - K)^+ \cdot (-r + \frac{d \ln h(z)}{dT}) \cdot h(z) dz$$

NUMERICAL EXPERIMENT

Using the formulas of estimators above, we apply Monte Carlo to do the estimation from 10000 sample paths. With K = 10, $r - \delta = 0.057$, v = 0.2686, $\theta = 0.1436$, $\sigma = 0.1213$, and T = 0.2, we get the numerical results in the table below:

Table 1: Numeral Results of Gradients

GVG	Delta	Rho	Vega	dV_T	dV_T
FD	0.4746	0.9010	1.3703	0.6443	0.4713
StdErr	0.0052	0.0097	0.0349	0.6559	0.0212
IPA	0.4707	0.8862	1.3578		0.4621
StdErr	0.0052	0.0098	0.0349		0.0211
LR			1.7603	0.7012	
StdErr			0.2036	0.0236	
DVG					
FD	0.4794	0.9100	1.3883	0.5942	0.5022
StdErr	0.0052	0.0097	0.0320	0.7987	0.0171
IPA	0.4746	0.8925	1.1200		0.5512
StdErr	0.0052	0.0098	0.0013		0.0120
LR			1.3651	0.6792	
StdErr			0.1688	0.0317	

CONCLUSIONS

From the results in the table, we could draw the following conclusions: FD method is closest to the true value of gradients, but sometime may get large standard error which means not stable.

FD method is time-consuming, since it requires running the simulation on one sample path twice.

IPA method is more accurate than LR method.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Zheng-Feng GUO is with International Monetary Fund. She got her Ph.D. in the Department of Economics at Vanderbilt University. She received the B.S. degree and M.S. degree in the business school at Jilin University. Her research interests lie in the area of time series econometrics and financial econometrics. Her email address is: zguo@imf.org.

Ms. Lingyan Cao is a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Mathematics, University of Maryland. She received the B.S. degree in mathematics from Nanjing University in 2005, and M.S. in applied math from New Jersey Institute of Technology in 2008. Her research interests lie in the area of financial engineering. Her email address is: lycao@math.umd.edu.

BECOMING A LEADER: WHAT DOES IT TAKE?

Joseph T. Martelli, The University of Findlay Patricia B. Abels, The University of Findlay

ABSTRACT

The Chief Executive Officer is an important position within organizations. CEOs control the management staff of a firm and acts as the liaison between company employees and the Board of Directors. CEOs are responsible for planning and implementing the strategy of a firm and held accountable for the success or failure of a firm through the Board of Directors and shareholders. Top executives held 2,133,500 positions in the United States in 2008, with 400,400 executives holding the title of CEO. The Bureau of Labor Statistics states that many top executives hold at least a bachelor's or master's degree and majored in business administration, liberal arts or specialized disciplines. The specific level of education often depends upon the nature of the industry. This paper investigates the educational credentials and other demographic variables associated with becoming the top executive within the largest 500 firms in the United States. Secondary data covering 500 cases has been collected and analyzed. The analysis reveals that CEOs are predominately male and Caucasian with an average age of 55.1 years old. Furthermore, 93 percent of CEOs hold at least a bachelor's degree and 55 percent of CEOs hold at least a master's degree primarily in business administration.

JEL: C1; I2; J0; M1

KEYWORDS: Descriptive study, executive education, executive demographics, executive credentials

INTRODUCTION

The Chief Executive Officer is an important position within organizations. CEOs control the management staff of a firm and acts as the liaison between company employees and the Board of Directors. CEOs are responsible for planning and implementing the strategy of a firm and held accountable for the success or failure of a firm through the Board of Directors and shareholders. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, top executives held 2,133,500 positions in the United States (U.S.) in 2008, with 400,400 executives holding the title of CEO.

Martelli, Abels and Ward (2009) found 2008 Fortune 500 companies to be located in 39 of the 50 U.S. states and in D.C. Furthermore, the states of Texas, New York and California are the home headquarters to 165 (33 percent) of Fortune 500 companies. The manufacturing sector is the dominant industry on a regional basis and firms in the manufacturing sector dominated eight of the nine U.S. divisions. In total, these 500 firms employ a workforce of 25.26 million employees and they generate \$10.6 trillion in annual sales revenue while earning \$645 billion in profits (Martelli, Abels and Ward, 2009). These 500 firms represent only a small fraction of the businesses in the U.S., however, these firms contribute significantly to the overall productivity of the nation (Martelli, Abels and Ward, 2009).

The Bureau of Labor Statistics states that many top executives hold at least a bachelor's or master's degree and majored in business administration, liberal arts or specialized disciplines. The specific level of education often depends upon the nature of the industry. This paper investigates the educational credentials and other demographic variables associated with becoming the top executive within the largest 500 firms in the United States, as reported by Fortune Magazine in 2008. The discussion begins by examining the key demographics, such as age, gender, and diversity of CEOs. Following is an understanding of how firm diversity within the U.S. is determined. The research design is quantitative and descriptive and it analyzes prominent leaders within the U.S. There is a discussion addressing the results

of the analysis followed by concluding remarks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Key Demographic Variables

Experts have determined that there is a variety of demographic variables used that reliably describes the composition of the top executives within organizations. Within this list of distinguishing traits, age and educational status are among those characteristics (Papadakis and Bourantas, 1998). Age and education attainment have been used in past studies in order to explain the performance of firms, the type of strategic decision making utilized, the course of new product innovation, etc. (Papadakis and Bourantas, 1998). In 1976, Fortune Magazine published a survey comprising 800 Chief Executive Officers, which encompasses 500 CEOs managing Fortune 500 companies, and 300 CEOs running the largest banks, financial businesses, insurance firms, retailers, transportation, and utility companies (Burck, 1976).

Burck (1976) found that the leaders of Fortune 500 companies was consistently Caucasian males, well educated, with 85.9 percent of CEOs possessing at minimum a bachelor's degree, with 33.7 percent of the CEOs between the ages of 55-59, and on a larger scale, 82.1 percent of the CEOs placing into the age bracket of 50-64. Business Week (1991) probed into the composition of the Corporate Elite and found similar results. The average age of the Corporate Elite CEOs was exclusively Caucasian males, in their middle 50s, and all 1,000 leaders carried the title CEO behind their name, with the exception of one company, where there was no CEO-titled officer. Furthermore, approximately 50 percent of the Corporate Elite held the title of Chairman within their respected organizations, with an additional 20 percent of the CEOs serving as President for the firms they manage. Nearly 25 percent of the Corporate Elite also held a triple title of CEO, Chairman, and President (Business Week, 1991).

In 2008, the results are similar in that 60.7 percent of Fortune 500 CEOs held the title of Chairman and 55.7 percent of CEOs also held the title of President, while 28.1 percent of Fortune 500 CEOs held a triple title of CEO, Chairman, and President (Martelli and Abels, 2009). In 1995, Catalyst began tracking employment data pertaining to women. At the beginning of the tracking process, women CEOs accounted for 6 percent of all U.S. CEOs, simultaneously women represented 5 percent of congressional lawmakers, 8.7 percent of corporate officers and the Fortune 500 employed just one female CEO (Vaida, 2004). Today, women comprise approximately 50 percent of the U.S. workforce, while still maintaining a low representational headcount within the high-end positions that are running U.S. organizations. For example, the National Journal conducted a survey of 575 association groups, and found that females head 88 (15.3%) associations (Vaida, 2004). The pattern continues within Fortune 500 companies. In 2002, 15.7 percent of all the top officers are women, and when isolating the CEO position, women CEOs comprise 1.2 percent of the total number of CEOs (Vaida, 2004). Attributing to the lack of women holding the title of CEO might be a mother's desire to balance the amount of time spent with her children and that of employment. This is not just an issue within the U.S.

According to research conducted by Catalyst, the number of women holding the top positions within Canada's top 500 firms is less than 15 percent, even though the women heading these Canadian firms outmanaged and out-performed their dominating male counterparts (Holloway, 2005). Board members do make the final selection on who fills the seat of CEO within companies. Many boards are comprised mainly of men, and Mullen suggests, "people tend to hire people who look and sound like them" (Vaida, 2004, p. 529). A contributing factor to the lack of women within these larger firms was the lack of females earning an MBA in order to pursue these high profile positions. As more females enroll into business schools, there should be an increase in the number of qualified females becoming CEOs, which will end up enhancing the bottom line and returns for shareholders (Holloway, 2005).Women occupying executive management positions are still quite low, despite the fact that female enrollment in business-

oriented degree programs at both the undergraduate and graduate level is increasing. Business Week (2001) reported that over one-fourth of students in the top 30 MBA programs are female. Female enrollment in colleges and universities within the U.S. has grown, from less than 20 percent in the early 1970s, to over 54 percent in 2005. At the graduate level, females now exceed the number of males. Between 1995 and 2005, male full-time graduate students increased by 27 percent while there have been a 65 percent increase for female graduate students (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). The increase in female graduates could explain why females who are running Fortune 500 companies grew from one CEO back in 1996 to 12 CEOs in 2007, which is 2.4 percent of the current Fortune 500 executives (Jones, 2008). Additionally, as witnessed in Canada, U.S. female CEOs managing Fortune 500 companies in both 2006 and 2007 performed identical in terms of stock performance as compared to those organizations ran by the U.S. male CEO's (Jones, 2008).

Diversity of Firms

The comparison of the composition of Fortune 500 companies can include distinguishing factors such as geographic location, industry sectors, revenues, profits and products/services offered. Numerous authors have conducted research in order to enhance the understanding of such firm diversity. According to Pitts and Hopkins (1982, p. 620), "there is no generally accepted definition or measure of diversification". As such, a complete comprehensive review of the literature surrounding corporate diversity is unavailable (Ramanujam and Varadarajan, 1989). The lack of an acceptable measurement permits researchers to develop his/her definition(s) in order to investigate and analyze firm diversity.

In order to analyze Fortune 500 companies, the first pressing task is to identify or categorize a firm's Different approaches utilized in order to achieve this undertaking include resource diversity. independence, market discreteness, and product difference (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982). Resource independence is a classification scheme concentrating on grouping firms based upon the organizations availability of internal resources. An organization is claimed to be unrelated if "different production facilities and separate distribution channels were likely to be needed to properly run the two businesses" (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982, p. 621). A lack of available public information that identifies the internal resources of these organizations, forces a researcher to employ his/her subjectivity (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982). Because of the difficulty experienced in measuring consumer preferences and other market characteristics, researchers rarely use the second approach of market discreteness (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982). Variations of this classification scheme are in studies that concentrate on the magnitude of a firm's market by utilizing geographical characteristics in order to classify the diversity (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982). The last approach, product difference, is the technique utilized for this research addressing Fortune 500 companies.

Product difference concentrates on the type of products or services offered by companies, which differs between organizations. According to Pitts and Hopkins (1982), this diversity technique does blend the fundamentals of the resource and market approaches since products fulfill a different set of consumer needs. To utilize this approach, a researcher should employ a "highly detailed product classification system [that has been] established by the Statistical Policy Division, Office of Management and Budget of the Federal Government" (Pitts and Hopkins, 1982, p. 621). In the past, this product classification system was termed the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system within the U.S. The SIC classifies the numerous products and services within the U.S. into various categories and subcategories. The SIC has been replaced in order to enhance the statistical comparability and to provide statistical consistency for companies located not only in the U.S., but also for those organizations located in Canada and Mexico.

The North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) is a group of six digit codes, which has replaced the four digit codes of the SIC (Weir, 2004). NAICS is used by the federal and state government

for statistical purposes and NAICS is used by other interested parties, such as academics, researchers, business organizations, and the public (Arbuckle, 1999). The six digit coding scheme permits a comparison of organizations in North America. The first five digits of the code are uniform and standard in its utilization throughout North America, and digit six is restricted specifically for use in the home country for that organization. As a result, digit six can vary from country to country within North America. In analyzing Fortune 500 companies, the use of the NAICS coding scheme is appropriate in order to categorize a firm's diversity.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The research design selected was a quantitative descriptive research in order to analyze these prominent leaders within the U.S. The investigation included the educational credentials and other demographic variables associated with becoming the top executive within the largest 500 firms in the United States. Secondary data acquired from various business-related databases and other online sources permitted a complete coverage of the 500 cases under analysis for this study. The 500 cases selected were the top revenue-producing firms within the U.S., based upon the 2008 Fortune 500 listing. Our selection process permitted CEOs managing the top 500 companies in the U.S. to be included in the study. The collection of data resulted in 100 percent of the CEO population to be included in the study. Descriptive statistics permitted the analyzing and summarizing of the reported observations.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The analysis revealed that in 2008, Fortune 500 companies were represented 18 of the 20 NAICS industry sectors, with the manufacturing sector dominating the U.S. industries. In addition, 499 companies have a designated CEO while one firm in the retail sector does not.

CEOs in 2008 were in the age range of 38 to 81, with 380 CEOs falling into the age bracket of 50-64, yielding an average CEO age of 55.1 years old. The Caucasian male continued to dominate Fortune 500 CEO positions within the U.S., as reflected by 472 CEOs that were Caucasian and male. Overall, 487 CEOs were male while 13 CEOs were female and 483 CEOs were Caucasian while 17 CEOs were not.

Thirty-two of the 2008 CEOs had a high school or less education and one CEO held an associate's degree. Four hundred sixty seven CEOs held at least a bachelor's degree, with 221 of those CEOs, majoring in the discipline of business. More specifically, 181 of the CEOs majored in accounting, business administration or economics with finance, marketing and other making up the remaining 40 business degrees. Two hundred ninety seven of the CEOs held a master's degree, with 197 of the CEOs holding a master's degree in business administration. Few CEOs have doctorate degrees.

CONCLUSION

Utilizing a detailed classification system (NAICS), the categorization of Fortune 500 firms based upon the diversity in the type of products or services rendered was capable. These influential organizations were highly concentrated within the manufacturing sector, which translates into these corporations being a large contributor of employment and sales revenue within the U.S. The top executives managing these huge conglomerates were predominately Caucasian and male. The twenty-first century CEOs continue to be educated and in their middle 50's, while at the same time, non-Caucasian, females, and younger CEOs have been growing in number within Fortune 500 companies.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Joseph T. Martelli is an Associate Professor of Business at The University of Findlay. He can be contacted at: The University of Findlay, College of Business, 1000 North Main Street, Findlay, Ohio 45840, US. Email: <u>martelli@findlay.edu</u>.

Dr. Patricia B. Abels is an Assistant Professor of Business at The University of Findlay. She can be contacted at: The University of Findlay, College of Business, 1000 North Main Street, Findlay, Ohio 45840, US. Email: abels@findlay.edu.

REVISITING THE EFFECT OF DIVERSIFICATION ON FIRM PERFORMANCE

Zheng-Feng Guo, International Monetary Fund Lingyan Cao, University of Maryland

ABSTRACT

A firm's diversification decision is likely to be a response of two interacting effects, one is the agent problem and the other is the economies of scale. Whether diversification causes a discount or a premium depends on the interaction of the two effects. This paper re-evaluates the effect of diversification on firm performance by examining firms with different degrees of diversification. We found the evidence that the diversification premium gets smaller if a firm engages in more than three industries.

JEL: G30, G34, L22, L25

KEYWORDS: Tobin's q, firm performance, diversification

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between diversification and firm performance has inspired a large literature in many fields, including Industrial Organization, Corporate Finance and Strategic Management. However, after several decades of research, there is still disagreement as to whether diversification causes a premium or a discount. Lang and Stulz (1994) showed that Tobin's q and firm diversification are negatively related. Firms that choose to diversify are poor performers relative to specialized firms.Berger and Ofek (1995) also found that diversified firms trade at a discount relative to single segment firms. Conversely, recent research shows that the diversification discount disappears when we control for the self selection problem. Campa and Kedia (2002) found that firm characteristics, which make firms diversify, might also cause them to be discounted. Villalonga (2004a) estimated the value effect of diversification by matching diversifying and single-segment firms on their propensity score and found that diversification does not destroy firm value. In the same direction, Graham Lemmon and Wolf (2002) pointed out that segments acquired by diversifying firms already traded at a discount before the acquisition, thus refuting the post acquisition negative relationship between diversification and firm performance.

Despite being a central topic in the corporate finance literature, we have not reached a consensus on the effect of diversification on firm performance. Thus, the issue whether diversification improves or worsens firm performance is still worthy of further research. A diversification discount or premium may be a balance of the costs of diversification and the benefits of diversification. If the costs of diversification outweigh the benefits of diversification, there may exist a diversification discount and vice versa. The gains generally can rise from: (1) managerial economies of scale; (2) efficient resource allocation in internal capital market; (3) firms' current resource may be exploited in other industries. On the other hand, the costs may arise from : (1) inefficient resource allocation in internal capital market; (2) opportunities for managers to use firm resource for their own benefits; (3) difficulty of motivating divisional managers. The main purpose of this paper is to re-evaluate the effect of diversification may intensify agency problem between corporate insiders and small shareholders. On the other hand, diversification may boost firm value due to the economies of scale. Whether diversification causes a discount or a premium depends on the interaction of the two effects.By focusing on the degrees of diversification, we may find new evidence on the diversification issue.

METHODOLOGY

To investigate the dominating effect of the benefits and the costs, we will model the relationship between firm performance and diversification as

$$Y_{it} = \alpha + X_{it}\beta + \delta_2 I_{\{\text{seg=1}\}} + \delta_3 I_{\{\text{seg=2}\}} + \delta_4 I_{\{\text{seg=3}\}} + c_i + e_{it}$$
(1)

where Y_{it} is firm performance, which is measured by Tobin's q. $I_{(\bullet)}$ is an index function. Seg denotes the

number of divisions a firm owns. c_i denotes unobserved heterogeneity, X_{it} are some control variables.

To estimate the parameters δ_2 , δ_3 , δ_4 , we may evaluate the dominating effect on firm performance. Therefore, we might cast some new insights into the firm's diversification issue. Intuitively, when a firm starts to diversify, the benefits should be greater than the costs. Up to certain degree, larger firms would be much more difficult to monitor, which increases the costs. When the costs outweigh the benefits, a diversification premium would become a diversification discount. By dividing firms into four groups, we may detect the critical point that the costs start to outweigh the benefits.

In this paper, we use Tobin's q as a measure of firm performance. Tobin's q is calculated as the sum of the market value of common equity plus the book value of preferred shares plus the book value of total debt divided by the book value of total asset. As is pointed by Lang and Stulz (1994), q is designed to measure the present value of future cash flows divided by the replacement costs of tangible asset. One advantages of using Tobin's q is that there is no theoretical reason to adjust for risk or leverage to compare firms.

The Data

The sample consists of all firms with data reported on the COMPUSTAT Industry Segment database and Industry Annual from 1996 to 2002. We exclude all financial firms (6000-6999). Financial firms are difficult to value with the methodology being used due to their special characteristics. We also exclude firms whose sales are below \\$20 million to prevent distortions caused by small firms.Table 1 shows some summary statistics, where we divide all the firms into four groups: (1) Firms operating in two industries; (2) Firms operating in three industries; (3) Firms operating in more than three industries. As we can observe from this table, large firms are more likely to engage in multiple industries, which is an important characteristic of diversified firms. Roughly speaking, more firms are engaging in multiple industries. In this table, we report the observations instead of the number of firms in different groups since diversified firms may become specialized firms for this period or vice versa.

Seg	Obs	Ave_asset	Ave_sales	Med_asset	Med_sales	Std_asset	Std_sales
1	11126	3404	1510	332	233	27818	5477
2	5492	6543	3358	671	548	34157	11935
3	4669	9332	5468	1493	1047	42961	15991
4	4345	32358	15256	4246	2944	105211	33622

Table 1: Summary Statistics

Notes: Seg is the number of industries one firm is operating on. Obs are the number of observations. Ave_asset, Ave_sales are the average of total asset and sales. Med_asset and Med_sales are the medians of assets and sales. Std_asset, Std_sales are the standard deviations of assets and sales.

RESULTS

Table 2 shows the pooled OLS estimation result. We find a significant diversification discount. All the

estimators of δ_2 , δ_3 and δ_4 are negative and significant, which is a strong evidence of a diversification discount, which is consistent with Lang and Stulz (1994) result.

Independent Variables	Coefficient	t-statistics
Data2	-0.345	(4.99)**
Data3	-0.500	(6.49)**
Data4	-0.748	(7.95)**
log of assets	-0.024	-1.25
book leverage ratio	-1.022	-0.38
EBIT/Sales	0.899	(3.47)**
R&D/Sales	1.552	(4.57)**
invest/Sales	0.146	-0.85
Constant	2.262	(26.42)**
Observations	12006	
R-squared	0.03	
Robust t statistics in parentheses		
* * significant at 5%; * significant at 10%		

Table 2: Pooled OLS Estimation Results

Table 3 shows the fixed effect estimation result, which vary substantially from Table 2. As we can observe from this table, we find strong evidence of a diversification premium. All the estimators of δ_2 , δ_3 and δ_4 are positive and only the estimator of δ_4 is insignificant. We found the evidence that the diversification premium gets smaller if a firm engages in more than three industries. As is predicted theoretically, this is due to the increase in the costs of diversification and reduction in the benefits of diversification. At this stage, the costs of diversification start to outweigh the benefits of diversification, which is justified by the serious agency problem in large firms due to information asymmetry.

Table 3: Fixed	Effect Estimation Results
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Dependent Variable: Tobin's Q				
Independent Variables	Coefficient	t-statistics		
Data2	0.192	(1.76)**		
Data3	0.23	(-1.80)**		
Data4	0.196	1.21		
log of assets	-0.697	(12.28)**		
book leverage ratio	0.393	0.17		
EBIT/Sales	0.837	(5.02)**		
R&D/Sales	-0.039	-0.02		
invest/Sales	-0.593	(2.66)**		
Constant	0.308	(17.74)**		
Observations	12006			
R-squared	0.02			
Robust t statistics in parentheses				
* * significant at 5%; * significant at 10%				

CONCLUSION

Firms choose the extent of their operations and decide whether to operate in a single industry or diversifying into multiple industries. A firm's diversification decision is likely to be a response of two interacting effects, one is the agent problem and the other is the economies of scale. By studying the firms with different diversifying degrees, we find that diversified firms operate on a premium. In other words, although diversifying may be a result of empire building, a serious agent problem, it contributes to the firm performance.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Zheng-Feng GUO is with International Monetary Fund. She got her Ph.D. in the Department of Economics at Vanderbilt University. She received the B.S. degree and M.S. degree in the business school at Jilin University. Her research interests lie in the area of time series econometrics and financial econometrics. Her email address is: zguo@imf.org.

Ms. Lingyan Cao is a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Mathematics, University of Maryland. She received the B.S. degree in mathematics from Nanjing University in 2005, and M.S. in applied math from New Jersey Institute of Technology in 2008. Her research interests lie in the area of financial engineering. Her email address is: lycao@math.umd.edu.

Matjaz Irsic, University of Maribor Slovenia

ABSTRACT

In the paper we investigated a relationship between some qualitative elements of relational exchanges and purchasing marketing strategies of the companies in food industry in Slovenia. Therefore, four groups of qualitative relational exchange factors have been determined: attractiveness of supplier, attractiveness of total purchasing market for the buyer, competitive position of the buyer on the purchasing market, and the bargaining orientation of the buyer toward its strategic supplier. Drawing on emerging perspectives on companies in food industry with more than 50 employees in Slovenia and their relationship with strategic suppliers, the author proposes that a buyer's perception of qualitative elements of relational exchanges influences employment of particular marketing strategies towards its strategic supplier. Results of empirical study show some correlation between the groups of variables investigated. The influence of measured factors on the implementation of particular group of marketing strategies exists, although the strongest impact is prevailed especially by factors, which are characteristic for shortterm relationships. Hence the surveyed companies are oriented much more toward achieving short-term efficiency instead of long-term effectiveness. This research makes a contribution to the strategy literature and to the practitioners, and has important implications for purchasing managers by offering guidelines for mixing the various aspects of partnering according to their objectives and strategies in order to improve the level of relational approach of companies in food industry to their strategic suppliers.

JEL: M310

KEY WORDS: qualitative elements of relational exchange, transactional marketing, relationship marketing, purchasing marketing strategies.

FORECASTING THE ECONOMIC GROWTH

Tiberiu Stoica, Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies

ABSTRACT

This paper presents different econometric models used in forecasting the economic growth. Predicting the real GDP growth is a difficult task, as economists have to use variables available on a daily, weekly, monthly or quarterly basis, published at different periods. Models used could be univariate or multivariate and provide different results depending on their specification, estimation technique and variables used.

JEL: C22, C32, C53

KEYWORDS: Forecasting, Economic growth, Multivariate models, Univariate models

INTRODUCTION

Charles Sarle was one of the pioneers of econometric forecasting, his ideas being several decades ahead of his time. In 1925, he used an equation with lagged explanatory variables in order to forecast the price of hogs. His essay won the Babson prize and was published in a special supplement of the *American Economic Review*. Unfortunately, Sarle's ideas were ignored, economists showing high interest in developing statistical and mathematical models to forecast the future path of macroeconomic variables after mid 1950s. In the past six decades, specialists discovered different types of econometric models and techniques, in order to reveal the correlation between macroeconomic variables and to improve their forecasts. Nowadays, econometric forecasting has become very popular, as economists are aware of the fact that expert judgment should be supported by mathematical models, while the specialized modern programs provide complex calculations using the click of a button. Therefore, central banks, governments, private companies and academic researchers use econometric forecasting in order to look beyond.

Nowadays different institutions provide dozens of macroeconomic variables about specific industries and markets. Unfortunately, the indicators offer divergent answers regarding the state of the economy. Therefore, economists need a single aggregate indicator that shows the overall performance of the economy, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) being the most popular indicator of this type.

GDP has several important disadvantages. It is an indicator that is available only quarterly. In Romania, the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) publishes the first GDP figures forty days after the quarter ends and the detailed results after two months. For policymakers as well as business planners this is a big problem, as they are informed after an important lag if there was an acceleration or the beginning of a recession in the economy. In conclusion, policymakers and business planners have to rely on GDP forecasts in order to take timely decisions.

Forecasting the economic growth is a very difficult task for professional forecasters despite the computational power available at present, as the economists have to combine the information provided by daily, weekly and monthly indicators in order to predict the future evolution of GDP, which is a quarterly indicator.

I consider that forecasting the economic growth has three important steps. At first, economists have to choose the economic variables that have high explanatory power in revealing the future real GDP evolution. Those variables could be the industrial production, the volume of construction works or the

retail trade. Survey indicators like confidence and sentiment indicators are also very important, as they quantify households' and companies' perception regarding the state of the economy and its future trend. At the second and the third step, the forecaster should select the econometric model and should test its performance.

CHOOSING THE ECONOMETRIC MODEL

The development of time series econometrics permitted specialists to test the forecasting performance of different models, univariate or multivariate. The models provided different in-sample and out-of-sample forecasts depending on their specification and the variables used.

The most popular multivariate models used in econometric forecasting are the Vector Autoregressive Model (VAR) and the Vector Error Correction Model (VEC). In May 2007, the National Bank of Romania (NBR) presented the "Short-term forecasts on inflation and GDP. Aspects of NBR forecasting process and the analysis and medium-term forecast model". According to the presentation, NBR uses VEC models in order to predict the performance of different GDP components. The economic growth forecast is obtained by adding the individual forecasts taking into consideration their weights. Unfortunately VARs and VECs have an important disadvantage. They use only a limited number of macroeconomic variables, usually six or eight, due to the degrees of freedom problem.

Therefore, economists passed to univariate models and then combined the individual forecast in order to obtain the final prediction. John Kitchen and Ralph Monaco (2003) forecast the GDP for the U.S. Treasury combining certain predictions. They select specific variables that are considered to be very important in forecasting GDP and make regressions with GDP and each key indicator. Finally, Kitchen and Monaco calculate the GDP forecast using an average of each separate forecast weighted by R² (the coefficient of determination). Barhoumi, Brunhes-Lesage, Ferrara, Pluyaud and Rouvreau (2008) forecast the GDP of France using an autoregressive-distributed-lag (ADL) bridge model. Zheng and Rossiter (2006) forecast the GDP of Canada using an ADL bridge equation. This approach permits the use of much more variables, the major disadvantage being the fact that the macroeconomic variables are used in a rather scattered way, and therefore important information could be lost.

BAYESIAN VAR

VAR is an *overparameterized* model that could be estimated using the Cholesky decomposition. According to this method, some variables do not have contemporaneous effects on other variables, Enders (2004) considering that this assumption is not generally compatible to the economic theory. The Cholesky decomposition requires imposing a certain established number of zero-restrictions, so as to decompose the residuals in a triangular way.

Those limits of VAR determined specialists to develop new forms for this type of model that could use much more information. Therefore, the specialists of the Reserve Bank of Minneapolis pioneered the Bayesian VAR at mid 1980s and the method used was called the Minnesota prior. BVAR requires imposing prior distribution for the parameters to be estimated, specifying the mean and the standard deviation.

Iacoviello (2001) describes Bayesian VAR and use this model in order to forecast the Italian GDP. Kasuya and Tanemura (2001) use a BVAR optimized using a Posterior Information Criterion (PIC) for making forecasts of the Japanese economy. They find that BVAR outperforms the ordinary VAR models in their forecasting exercise.

BACK TO A MULTIVARIATE APPROACH

The development of Dynamic Factor Models (DFMs) brought the econometric forecasting in a new era, as professional forecasters were able to use dozens of macroeconomic variables in a single multivariate model, surpassing the degrees of freedom problem. The curse of dimensionality was finally broken. The main idea of DFMs is that the influence of many macroeconomic variables that are highly collinear, could be quantified using only a few factors.

Nowadays, DFMs are used in a wide range of research activities, from monetary policy analysis to forecasting. According to Breitung and Eickmeier (2005), DFMs surpass the degrees of freedom problem, eliminate idiosyncratic movements which could be the result of measurement errors and do not rely on tight assumptions regarding the economy as in structural VARs. DFMS have another important advantage as they provide good results when the number of macroeconomic variables surpass the number of available observations for each variable. James Sock and Mark Watson (2002) use a static approach of DFM in their forecasting exercise, while Jakaitiene and Dees (2009) predict world GDP using different methods and found that factor models (DFM and Diffussion Indices (DI)) are the best for this task. Angelini, Camba-Mendez, Giannone, Reichlin and Runstler (2008) show different ways of predicting euro area GDP, DFM being one of the methods used. Barhoumi, Benk, Jakaitiene, Rua, Runstler, Ruth and Van Nieuwenhuyze (2008) find that econometric models that use monthly data are better in forecasting GDP than models that use quarterly variables. Ajeskis and Davidsons (2008) make projections of Latvia's GDP using a DFM.

FORECASTING WITH VARMA

Autoregressive moving-average (ARMA) models are widely-used in forecasting. The success of the univariate model determined specialists to extend it to a multivariate form, called vector autoregressive moving-average (VARMA). Unfortunately, it was much more difficult than expected, as identifying and estimating a VARMA is a tremendous challenge.

Today several methods are used to estimate VARMAs as following: 1) Hannan-Rissanen method (HR) 2) Hannan-Kavalieris Procedure (HK) 3) Generalized Least Squares (KP) 5) Iterative Least Squares (IHR) and 6) Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE). Despite of the existence of six estimating methods none provides adequate results. Kascha (2010) compares different methods of estimation VARMAs in order to judge the relative performance of the methods. He found that Hannan-Kavalieris Procedure, which is the closest to the maximum likelihood approach is superior to other methods. Kascha (2010) considers that there should be discovered another method for estimating VARMAs.

The introduction of stochastic components in multivariate time series could provide better results, especially during periods of crisis when there is a higher volatility of the economic data.

FORECASTING ECONOMIC GROWTH IN EMERGING MARKETS

Most of the econometric models were first used for developed regions like U.S. or Euro area countries and adapted for emerging economies. But emerging markets present certain features described bellow:

- Shorter available timeframe
- Lower number of variables provided by the specialized institutions
- Higher volatility of the macroeconomic variables
- Periods of instability are much frequent

Therefore econometric forecasting for emerging markets is much more difficult. The global crisis that started in 2007 brought new challenges for the econometric forecasting for both developed and emerging markets, as the macroeconomic models that were reliable before faced difficulties during periods of financial turmoil. Certain institutions adapted quickly and formed specialized departments for the research of real-time data.

In August 2008, the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia launched the Real-Time Data Research Center that will study monetary policy and macroeconomic forecasting. Research areas of interest in forecasting at Philadelphia Fed are the following:

- The impact of monetary policy on economic forecasts
- Accuracy of macroeconomic forecasts
- Development of forecasting models like DSGE and new types of VAR
- Constructing forecasts with data that are subject to revisions

In January 2009, the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia constructed a high-frequency business indicator that summarizes the impact of many economic variables. The indicator, called the Aruoba-Diebold-Scotti (ADS) business indicator, is revised at least once a week and was constructed using a DFM. Therefore, Philadelphia Fed constructed an indicator that was able to signal in due time the path of the economy as the monetary authority could not rely only on GDP which is published with an important lag.

CONCLUSION

Forecasting the economic growth is a difficult challenge, especially during periods of turmoil when the variables present high volatility. In the past decades, economists tried different models for predicting the future path of real GDP, from univariate models like ADL bridge models or simple regressions to multivariate models like VARs, VECs and DFMs.

Nowadays Dynamic Factor Models have become very popular in forecasting GDP, as they use dozens of macroeconomic variables. Recent research revealed that factor models provide better results in forecasting as compared to other models. The development of new estimation techniques, as well as new criteria for determining the optimal number of factors can further improve the forecasting performance of DFMs.

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BIOGRAPHY

Tiberiu Stoica is a Ph.D. student at the Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies and a financial analyst at Volksbank Romania. He can be contacted at: tiberiusstoica@yahoo.com; Tiberiu.STOICA@volksbank.ro, Mobile Phone: +40 742 290 325.

ACCOUNTING NORMALIZATION: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK SYSTEM

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Laura Sarac Aldea, Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest

ABSTRACT

The accountancy has as essential finality to the economic value-control of a company. From here comes out also the dependence of users' decisions on then quality of the accountancy information and also the necessity that those have to reflect a real image upon the company's patrimony, based on the actual market- prices. The accounting normalization exists in the most of the countries nowadays. Each of them has a terminology and rules which lead to an identical presentation of the financial situations for all companies. The new concept of harmonization or convergence is a preoccupation of professional organizations, standard setters and users of financial – accounting information.

INTRODUCTION

The normalization is the activity thereby norms are established and applied with the final purpose to obtain reference documents that bring solutions to technical or commercial issues repeatedly appearing in the relations between economic, technical, scientific and social partners. The accounting normalization has as objective and aim to apply "identical accounting norms in the same geopolitical space and aims to create uniform accounting practices". Yet a global normalization is utopical at present, if not perpetual. On the other hand, at international level, the opinion according to which: "every generation must rewrite its history according to its specific problems and aspirations" and "for our generation, the globalization is one of the essential problems". – A. Richardson, L. MacDonald, is well defined.

The accounting normalization is a process of elaboration of accounting norms, also known as standards in Anglo-Saxon accounting systems, as well as accounting directives in EEC concept. The French author Bernard Colasse has defined in 1996 the normalization of accounting as the process of conceiving an ensemble of norms and rules which must be observed by enterprises, both to elaborate, as well as to submit accounting information.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The prime factor that imposed the normalization of accounting is the increase of accounting information's social role in the substantiation of economic decisions by accounting information users, such as: the state, suppliers, clients, banks, auditors, tax department, and national statistics. Currently, in the circumstances of transition from the industrial to the information society, we can talk about a market of accounting information with information supply and demand and as any market, it should be organized, that is be subjected to norms, principles. The concept of globalization embodies a multitude of complex processes with a variable dynamic aiming various fields of a company, including accounting. The evolution known by the multinational companies in the last years, which takes effect on each country, government and person within the European Community, the complexity of running their business outside the national borders (from the point of view of financial reports) represents an important change for the individual accountants and also for the professional organizations which are assessing and verify the accounting regulations. At this day, we are witnessing a convergence process between US GAAP and ISA norms, influenced by the pressure exercised by IOSCO. The fact THAT THE European Commission has supported the IASB work and attended the meeting as observer can be considered a response to the need of convergence of the accounting norms.

The new concept regarding harmonization or the convergence is concerning all together the professional organizations and the users of this financial- accountable information If the accountability normalization is the process through which the presentation of the financial reports, the accountability methods and the terminology are being harmonized, the accounting convergence is the process through which the accountability regulations are elaborated in such manner that they are capable to lead to the same fact or target by highlighting the affinity between national- regional – international. From here it derives the struggling for obtaining a common language in order to obtain a better knowledge of a certain aspects regarding the convergence in the process of implementing the standards of the financial reporting. The convergence is realized on two plans:

- the convergence between the national and international standards;
- international convergence IAS/IFRS US GAAP

The problem of the accounting normalization has arisen from the need to homogenize the accounting practices used by different projectionists in the field in order to publish information which can allow their understanding and carrying out adequate comparisons. The necessity of the accounting normalization is especially connected to the credibility of the accountancy. To be credible, the "products" of the accountancy must be measured, evaluated on unitary bases. Applying different accounting standards leads to different results, with implications on the analogies and credibility of the financial information.

Being preoccupied all the time by standards, convergence, accountant reflecting of the reality, the professional accountants are being preoccupied, in fact, by the economics, by companies, by people; it is, maybe, the most beautiful face of the accountancy profession; it is one of the reasons why the European Community took into consideration the opportunity of recognizing the accounting profession at an international level. The accounting normalization instruments are ordered on three levels: national, regional and international.The normalization at international level represents a superior development of the regional normalization imposed by the phenomena of globalization and financialization of the savings.The uniformity and accounting normalization are necessary due to the economic agent's diversity which contributes to define the accounting information demand and offer but also to the unbalances which can exist between demand and offer.

The competition between the American reference and the international one results in the improvement of the accounting norms, namely that they become more and more comparable, compatible but also more and more convergent. A first dimension of convergence in accounting it is represented by the convergence between the USA Accounting Standards (Usgaap) an INTERANTIONAL STANDARDS OF ACCOUNTING (IAS/IFRS). Even if there were major differences between the two accounting referential, with the Norwalk agreement, IASB and FASB agreed to identify all the points of disagreement in order to insure in a reasonable period the necessary convergence As it results from the strategy of the Council for Accounting International Standards, the objectives are oriented to 3 directions:

- the elaboration of high quality international accounting standards, which can be understood and applied and which also impose high quality, transparent and comparable information. Thus, the participants on different capital markets and other information users can take efficient economic decisions;
- the promotion for the elaborated standards rigorous utilization and application;
- the collaboration with the national standards in order to maximize the accounting national standards convergence with the IFRS.

An accounting anchored in the XXI Century it request and unique value. As a solution to the accounting harmonization is being represented by the improvement of the quality of the accounting information which, second to some experts, it is the real value. This tool has been introduced by the accounting

formalizers as an answer to the deterioration of the trust in the financial reports and it aims to a new system of evaluation of the assets and debts of a company.

The insurance of the quality of the information in the accounting convergence context has the next starting points:

- in the last period the mistrust in the financial reports came to light;
- the necessity of the uniformisation of the financial information in order to cope with the globalization requests;
- the accountancy appear more and more as a social play in which the cast may be represented by the theory, norms and fiscal and juncture interests at a certain point;
- most of the times the practice is not the coping with the accounting regulations.

To this we may also add the fact that the harmonization of the accounting is aiming to an economic domain in which there are no borders, in which the accountant information to be subject of comparison between countries and to be used as it is by the international users. Either way the approach is being made in the case of the accounting convergence, one should take into consideration the nature, the content and the values of each accounting referential.

METHODOLOGY RESEARCH

The normalization on regional level represents a development of the accounting normalization dimension at the level of some groups of countries, determinate by their economic, financial and social objectives. The most representative case is that of the accounting normalization at the level of the European Union carried out through directions. Therefore, in order to harmonize the European accountancy and to recreate the proper accounting reference system, Europe has decided to adopt rather the IAS standards than the US GAAP American standards. Europe chose IFRS standard between the only two recognized international reference systems (IFRS and US GAAP). The explanation for this choice can be motivated:

- through the IFRS intrinsic characteristics: the standards are elaborated by an international company, IASB, having the advantage to be world-wide spread, they are oriented to the investors' necessities, being recommended by the International Organization of the Securities Commissions (IOSCO) for all the international quotations;
- also through the political decision to separate from the American standards (US GAAP), Europe not being able to have an influence in the elaboration of these conceived standards, first of all, for the American economy.

Because it didn't have the expected results in the process of accounting harmonization the European Community decided to apply the IASB norms having as target on one side to apply the existent international norms to European countries and on the other side to have an influence over the norms that will be elaborated in the future. At the European level, the aspects regarding the convergence in the accounting are aiming to identify the disagreement point between the European directives except the 4th, the 7th directives and the International Accounting Standards (IAS/IFRS); these two directives have been already summoned by introducing in the year 2002 of the just value and in 2003 of the options regarding the evaluation. It should be underlined the importance of the documents issued by the European Commission in this matter from which I will mention the works "The European Union Strategy of Financial Reporting - the path to be followed" published in June 2000 and also "The decision of the European Parliament regarding the use of the International Standards of Accounting" published in May 2002. In the last years, in the European Union countries big important steps have been done in order to improve the financial reporting system and Europe is the firs world major region which has asked the use

of IFRS till 2005. Thus, to be applied, Europe has implemented a new "IFRS" judicial, political and control general frame:

1. the European accounting directions modernization – in order to eliminate the possible incompatibilities with IFRS standards. The European accounting directions keep their principal role within the European companies. In fact, for the quoted companies, they play an important role in the IFRS adoption mechanism, as it is stipulated in the European Regulation and for the unquoted companies; they remain the main accounting legislation for the companies which do not apply IFRS. In addition, for the uncovered fields by IFRS, they will continue to settle the important aspects (as for example, drawing up a financial administration report and the obligations concerning the financial reports authorization).

2. the creation of the IFRS adoption mechanism in order to apply these standards homogenously and rigorously, established on the bases of the European Commission decisions.

At the national level, the European Parliament has decided: the International Standards of Accounting (IAS/IFRS) will be mandatory starting with the year 2005 for the companies which activate on the Stock Market and the companies that consolidate – consolidate accounts.

There are two companies at European level which are charged with the supervision of the new standards application:

EFRAG – which has a technical role of IASB projects and interpretations analyze and evaluation

ARC – normalization political entity – which has to offer an opinion concerning the IAS standards authorization at European level.

IFRS standards cannot be adopted and applied within the European Union, only if they answer to the criteria strictly defined by this one. To achieve this thing, the following process must be supervised:

- the technical evaluation of the process by EFRAG the technical accounting committee;
- the adoption by the Accounting Reglementation Committee (ARC);
- the applicability decision taken by the European Commission;
- the translation in each of the official languages of the EU;
- the publishing as a regulation in the European official journal;

The normalization on national level is the main dimension of the accounting normalization. It is carried out, for the moment, through the normalization instrument, respectively the general accounting plan. One of the problems that Romania, member of European Union, is now facing, is generated by taking the start to late in this race for accountancy convergence. The Romanian accounting is undergoing a process of assimilation of the accounting norms resulted from the convergence between the two referential at the international level. For Romania, this convergence will imply just one set of standards and to the professional accountant will be left the opportunity to think, to reflect to the financial treatment of each transaction, to deepen the processes and the phenomenon's which he is supposed to find in the financial reports, heaving the right to choose between several forms of accounting treatment, meaning that he will have the opportunity to use the professional reasoning. European integration may trigger two types of consequences to the Romanian accounting. The first ones are the positive ones.

An advantage of the convergence will be the communication in an unique language which implies a high level of trust and leads to the raise of the access ways to the markets and give the opportunity to the multinational groups to apply common accounting principles in all their branches.

The content of the convergence with the International Standards of Financial Reporting underwent big debates and the conclusion was that it is essential and a lot of financial and accountant users desire to see it accomplished.

This desire derives from the urge to stop the orientation of the Romanian accounting to provide information only to one user, meaning the State. Through this the target is to establish a new system opened to professional judgments, with transparent financial reports and reaching the compatibility between the accounting rules and IAS/IFRS. Adopting IAS/IFRS is a new system of evaluation of performances which changes crucially the accountant and strategic management of one organization and the effect upon the financial reports may vary depending on the field of activity. This comes from the fact that the process of evaluation will be more transparent and the management will be able to identify more easily the critical aspects. At the same time one should not neglect the negative consequences and the risks of normalization. Unfortunately, the Romanian accounting system is still a system which cannot be used by the external users but for the fiscal authorities. Thus, through convergence it is aimed the detachment of the accounting norms from the fiscal ones and the implementing the European norms taking into consideration the Romania existing financial and economic facts.

The Romanian national regulations concerning accounting also assume the concept of accounting policies stated in IFRS. These are defined as representing the specific 'principles, foundations, conventions, rules and practices adopted by an entity in developing and presenting financial statements'. If Romania will not be able to evolve fastly it will be for sure left aside. The European Integration will mean a passage to an acceptable level of IAS/IFRS.The accounting convergence for Romania should be understood as a "physical" process which one cannot decline or avoid: but it is mandatory to understand it from all points of view, advantages and disadvantages; and use it, mostly in the case of small nations, like Romania is. Understanding and applying this phenomenon on accounting convergence will make the difference between winners and losers.

CONCLUSIONS

Accounting normalisation, which takes place on the grounds of a necessity for universality in accounting, also enforces its complement, namely international harmonisation (the harmonisation between national, regional and international). This does not imply that there is a unification of accounting at an international level, but it entails universality in the accounting doctrine, not in the accounting procedure as a system of correlating signs, which is exercised within a previously codified conventional framework that cannot be available everywhere, and at the same time.

By means of the harmonisation process, which is a flexible and an open process, the national accounting norms and practices, often differing or even contradictory from a country to another, undergo certain improvements so as to reduce the major differences, aiming at facilitating the comparability of the financial statements which are elaborated and published by companies from different countries. Romania is facing irreversible processes of normalization and convergence which are aiming the production and the reporting credible, relevant financial information which should use an accounting language common to all the categories of users. The future will show if, in the context of European Integration, the convergence will be an obstacle or a impulse for a change in our accounting system.

The establishing by IASB of the year 2009 as first date of the implementation of the new standards will provide the countries which have not already adopted the IFRS a clear target date for the adoption.

So, major existing differences between accounting practices in the Anglo-Saxon countries and the European continental ones, e.g. referring to the aspects connected to the assessment of patrimonial elements, the recognition of incomes and debts, the accounting of special contracts or the elaboration of consolidated accounts remain obstacles on the way towards accounting normalization

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THE IMPACT OF THE ROMANIAN AGRO TOURISM IN THE SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES' DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Florin Razvan Oncioiu, University of Agronomic Sciences and Veterinary Medicine of Bucharest Matei Agaton Dan, Tomis University from Constanta

ABSTRACT

Small and Medium Enterprises' (SME's) from agro tourism are becoming increasingly important for supporting the sustainable development of rural communities at international and European level. The purpose of this paper is to highlight the current challenges and SME's role met in the development of agro tourism in Romania. My goals in this paper are threefold. Firstly, I will provide a brief overview of potential and challenges for SME's agro tourism in Romanian because this sector is the only service sector that provides concrete and strong opportunities for economic development. Secondly, I will present case studies regarding the contribution of SME's in the development of the agro tourism sector in different regions from Romania. Thirdly, I will summarize what we have learned and try to outline what it is really feasible in the specific Romanian context reported to Lisbon strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Agro-tourism is seen as a regenerative factor of rural economies and, at the same time, as an element for preserving the rural environment. This form of tourism uses for the accommodation and dining only the touristic pensions and the agro touristic farms, benefiting from a not polluted and pictorial environment, from natural attractions and cultural historical values, and from traditions.

In the Report of the Project about European Charta of the rural space, The Commission of the Agricultural and rural development of the Council of Europe, appreciated that the rural space of Europe represents 86% of the total surface and that more than half of European population live there. In spite, fast globalization, as a consequence of industrialization at the end of the century and millennium, in the conditions of diminishing number of the people from agriculture, silviculture, pisciculture (without reducing the rural population too) and diminishing the relative importance of every culture in the GDP, the importance of the rural space doesn't reduce, on the contrary, it's more and more studied, researched and supposed to be a complex and developing system.

The Council of Europe raised the problem of the rural space at the level of European policy. The Parliament meeting within the European Council adopted the Recommendation 1296/1996, regarding the European Charta for the rural space. It is a basic document that, from political and juridical point of view, defines the rural development and management in Europe.

Thus, agro-tourism is a tourist activity meant to help farmers to get some benefits by help of capitalization their own resources from agriculture, which is their main profit source. Through the prism of these considerations, Romania proves to be a country with touristy vocation of notoriety, comparable with that of some European states that are in the hierarchy's first places in the domain: Austria, Switzerland and Greece.

In Romania, 'rural areas' were defined in 2005 as areas belonging to communes and to the periurban areas of towns and cities (MAFRD/MAI Ordinance no. 143/610/2005 published in the Romanian Official Journal no.382/6 May 2005). However, agro tourism and related activities appear as especially appropriate tools to revitalize rural areas aiming to a sustainable future through people retention and

employment maintenance (or even job creation), as well as increasing job diversity, retaining services, supporting farms exploitations, broadening cultural provision, and also by maintenance of landscape, nature resources, and rural art and handicraft as attractions for visitors (Naghiu, Vázquez and Georgiev, 2005).

According with these authors, agro tourism can be considered as one of key-tools for an ambitious and effective rural development system in Romania. This system is a result of an analysis of the internal factors formulated in the local government policy of the agro tourism sector. Such policy had some positive impacts because the rural economies interact with the national economy to shape a system of relationships between cities, suburbs, surrounding countryside, small towns and villages and allowing a substantial contribution to the improvement of life quality.

At the same time, agro tourism activities perform as a way of alternative income for farming communities either directly (by diversifying into, e.g., providing accommodation or holiday cottages for visitors) or indirectly through environmental stewardship to create and maintain the sort of countryside that visitors want to enjoy. Further from additional jobs and incomes, agro tourism provides a wide range of valuable social and cultural benefits to the population.

World trends show the great increase of the agro-tourism form of tourism although the organizational differences influence its stronger and more systematic growth to a certain extent.

IMPLICATION OF AGRO TOURISM SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Romanian rural area cover almost the entire country surface, with a share of 93.7% from the Romanian total surface and the rural population counts 10,245 million inhabitants, representing in 2009, 57,2% from total.

Administratively the rural area is organized in 2686 communes and 12863 villages. The number of households from rural is about 3311 thousand (45% from total number of households) and 3656 thousand houses (46, 8% from total number). This space is the depositary of major economic resources: raw material for industry, agricultural, forestry, touristy, and spa resources. Agriculture along with forestry and timber exploitation – the main economical activities from rural area – has a large contribution to GDP, accounting 16.4% in 2009. The occupied labor force covers over 1/3 from total population.

Even though there are a lot of underdeveloped rural areas in Romania, the underdeveloped rural notion is not regulated. Thus in European Union, in order to apply within sustaining measures of disadvantaged areas for grants from the community budget, Regulation 205271988 defines underdeveloped areas as regions where PIB represents less than 75% of the EU average.

We suggest that this EU directive should be adopted in our country by taking in consideration 75% of GDP average of Romania. Applying this criterion of classification on counties, the counties rank as follow: Olt, Bistrita, Vaslui, Ialomita, Botosani, Calarasi, and Giurgiu (in a decreasing order). The reform strategy in the field of medium and long term sustainable development of agriculture and rural areas, named RURAL ROMANIA XXI, is meant to be a Romanian project, designed by the Romanian Academy (Institute of Agricultural Economics from the National Institute of Economic Research in collaboration with the specialized faculties and departments and the Academy of Agricultural and Forestry Sciences "Gheorghe Ionescu Şişeşti") and assimilated by the parliamentary political parties, by Romania's Presidency, Romania's Government through the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Economy and Finance, employers' organizations, trade unions and professional associations from the agri-food system, etc.

The research emphasizes the existence of certain valuable items regarding the human potential (large number of labor force, partially qualified in other activities than agriculture, youth resources which ensure work force replacement), territorial potential (agricultural land with high production potential, allowing the crops' diversification and high yields, rich timber stock, natural reservations, natural monuments, areas with special landscape) and heritage (historical, cultural, architectural and ethnographic).

The map of the underdeveloped areas should be much more diversified; perhaps every county might have areas with various income levels.

The main implications of the promotion of the agro tourism Small and Medium Enterprises' in rural areas are:

Creating new workplaces on the condition that local involvement in rural tourism is realized successfully. The creation of work places is associated to the hotel and catering services, but their success creates hope for the ramification of the activities towards food production, commerce and handcraft that capitalizes on cultural heritage.

- 1. Variety of ways of using manpower. Most of the rural areas present a low diversity in the use of manpower who is employed almost exclusively in agriculture.
- 2. Plural activity –At individual family level, existential security is realized by making some extra activities apart from fulfilling the basic activities. Thus, a farmer may have available rooms to let, or can help the local administration by making tourist services (guide, animator, ski instructor).
- 3. The extra product request due to an increase of customers may enable the development of commerce and the improvement of the habitat (modernization of the roads, electricity supply and tourist signs) and communication facilities.

On the other hand, attraction of new investments for agro tourism Small and Medium Enterprises' represents "the success key" and the sustainability of these activities. But, changing the economic activities when the agricultural one become insufficient for creating profits corresponding to those generated by productive activities in other areas. Starting from specific natural qualities of different regions from Romania, the rural policy must support sustainable rural development as a factor of economic growth, diminishing of poverty and passage to an acceptable economic and social standard in rural areas.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The survey based on statistical sources data and information is currently used in field researches. As an instrument for data gathering, statistical figures are the most important and "diplomatic" element, determining the success of a selective research performed in a rural environment, subject of profound transformations. The analytical methods were organized considering the number the number of considered data etc. The proposed targets were knowledge about agro-tourism objectives and management. Considering its potential contribution to the general economic recovery agro-tourism is approached as one of the priority sectors of the Romanian economy. If it is compared the Romanian agro-tourism with the organization of agro-tourism in other European countries we can see that non-existence of a unique model of agro tourism in today's Europe because each model is reflected in the diversity of its organization both at national and regional levels. The reasons are: popularity and demand of this type of a holiday and the rapid development of agro tourism in accordance to the market needs. Examples of agro tourism in Italy, Austria, France, Great Britain, Cyprus and Romania

show different models in the organization of rural tourism. Italy is one of the rare countries which operate within a national legal framework but also practices regional laws which regulate it locally/regionally. In all presented countries, rural tourism operates within various associations be they governmental organizations (Cyprus Agro tourism Company), non-governmental organizations (Agriturist in Italy, Farm Holidays in Austria, Gites de France in France, ANTREC in Romania) or professional organizations (Farm Stay UK in Great Britain). Different laws regulate some aspects of rural tourism but not its organizational aspect. Some counties are more active in this form of tourism (such as County of Istria or Dubrovnik and Neretva County) which affects also the geographical distribution of rural tourism households. Besides guesthouses, there are also the farms that offer agro-tourism services; at the 2002 GAC for 1,453 farms, agro-tourism was an alternative source of income (2002 GAC, p. 370). A greater concentration of accommodation for tourists can be observed in the Center, North-East and North-West regions. The main attractions are Bucovina (with the valuable monasteries), Maramures (ethnography, wood architecture), Transylvania with the Carpathian Mountains (hiking, skiing, gastronomy, wine etc). The Danube Delta (in the South region) has also become an important tourist attraction that brings significant incomes and of course the Black Sea (National Strategic Plan for Rural Development 2007-2013, p.16-17). These are mainly the places where rural tourism and agro-tourism can be considered really an opportunity.

CONCLUSIONS

Agro tourism is an actual and old phenomenon at the same time. The interest for the recovery of the rural environment started to grow beginning with the 19th century, as a response to the stress owned to urbanism and the expanding industrialization. The important aspect is that the agro tourism from our period is different if we refer only to the number of tourists involved which has grown significantly and the tourism which has developed in all types of rural settlements, without being limited to areas of an exceptional beauty. In the same time, this kind of tourism affords the capitalization of accommodation availabilities of the farmhouse prepared and arranged properly for welcoming the guests, provision of services for having meals and complementary activities, dependent on the economic specificities of the farm (like leisure, initiation of some traditional activities, riding, therapeutic treatments, etc.).

Concerning the actual size of the Romanian agro-tourism we can notice the fact that in the present days only about 8% of the country population uses touring services compared to 88% in Sweden, about 76% in Austria, 69% in Belgium, 68% in France, 48% in Poland, 35% in Slovakia and 20% in Hungary. Almost 37% of the Romanian population does not use any touring services because of the financial situation. According to the opinion of managers in the agro tourism Small and Medium Enterprises', in Romania, one of main barriers in order to promote a suitable development of agro tourism aiming environmental respect and sustainability refers to the bad condition of a number of ways and transit spaces in rural areas.

So, here, there is an old claim for infrastructure time ago, and then making possible the reception of tourists, but the real fact is that nature care has become a real concern, not only due to environmental reasons, but also taking in mind the use as resource for current guests as well as to attract visitors in future. Offering priority, support to agro tourism as a complementary form of social tourism. On the other hand, it seems to be clear that identification of opportunities will simplify the implementation of environmental management strategies, but fall of barriers becomes the right starting point to make it possible, also increasing self-confidence of business owners and, even, public responsible who are expected to support the agro tourism system. To conclude, particular aspects in implementing the principles of strategy from Lisbon regarding the development of the agro tourism sector was made regarding four categories, as follows: i) capacity to have influence on business results; ii) importance of environmental protection; iii) aspects of environmental strategy; and iv) barriers to and opportunities from implementation of an environmental management system.

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Programul Operational Sectorial - Dezvoltarea Resurselor Umane 2007-2013 (Sectorial Operational Program 2007-20013 - Development of the Human Resources). (2006). Project. Ministry of Work, Social Solidarity and Family.

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Daniela Simona Nenciu, Dimitrie Cantemir University from Constanta Dan Balamaci, The Free University from Moldova

ABSTRACT

The intangible assets is a resource with which count all organizations, conforming different stocks of knowledge as they can be: the singular, collective and organizational that should not be left as such, but the interesting thing it is that this is used, is mobilized and developed, that is to say to negotiate it on different forms. The global objective of the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) support is to enhance the competitiveness of businesses, maintain the attractiveness of Romania, its regions and towns for investors, promote innovation, stimulate demand for research and development results, foster a spirit of entrepreneurship and encourage the growth of the knowledge-based economy by means of the capacities for the implementation of new technologies and innovated products, including new information and communication technologies. This paper wants to show that the intangible assets are fundamental for the creation of the wealth since with an appropriate one administration a series of benefits take place. Also, it intends to answer the following question: is it important for Romanian SMEs to improve potential, quality and excellence operational innovation?

INTRODUCTION

The intangible assets have become increasingly important in the modern economy, financial accounts produces insufficient information about them, with the result that investors are uninformed and managers leading the allegations. Together with its collaborators, Lev (2002) has argued grounds, showing that economic development requires that the intangible assets to be more recognized in the financial statements: "we use a system to take decisions than 500 years in a business complex; the essential assets that create value have fundamentally changed." Recognition of an element of intangible asset requires the company to demonstrate that the item meets the definition above: to have identifiable character, to be controlled, to obtain future economic benefits and can to be able to asses at a reliable cost.

In final years the concept of competitive advantage started to occupy the central place in the SMEs' strategies. These firms learned to speak more and more about the notion of competitive advantage like something they must have. Once gained, the competitive advantages can be eroded, can be copied or counterattacked by competitors, therefore for a company is important to gain these advantages, but more important is keeping them over vast periods of time, allowing the firm to situate itself in front of the competition for a long time. A competitive advantage can be born by implementing a strategy of value creation that hadn't been implemented before by other competitors or can be born by realizing the same strategies by competitors, but in a superior way. Maintaining the competitive advantages over long periods of time transform them in strategic or sustainable competitive advantages.

The Romanian SMEs competitiveness is basically a function of two factors. First, it is determined by the extent a company can identify those value dimensions that are important for their customers. These are the main characteristics of the firm's complex product and service package a customer expects and respects. On the long run a company can be competitive only when it is able to create value for their customers and as a consequence contribute to their competitiveness as well. These value

dimensions are the aspects of supplier selection. The second factor of firm competitiveness is the sum of resources and capabilities that makes a firm able (capable) to create and deliver the identified important value dimensions for the customer. A company can possess a very wide range of resources and capabilities. Those subsets of resources and capabilities have the biggest importance which is fundamental to the firm's performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the opinion of (Canals, 2003), "the new economy", generated by the new technologies, the one denominated "it was digital" and/or "it was of the information and the knowledge" he has made that the administration of the knowledge goes acquiring more and more importance. It assures the author that the knowledge, just as he/she understands each other nowadays, it is a resource that not so alone it allows us to interpret our environment, but rather he gives us the possibility to act. In the same way (Serradell, 2003), he observes that in the last times, the scientific community has come showing a growing interest for the administration of the knowledge, interest that he gone even to the study of such topics as the new economy, the vision of the companies like organizations able to generate competitive advantages by means of the knowledge, the intellectual capital, the intangible assets among others.

Prescott and Vischer authors of the "organizational capital" you/he/she is considered therefore that you/he/she is necessary to check if the strategy of some companies has been changed that have administered, in the past, the knowledge, and if they recognize its advantages when valuing its personnel and to recognize that the administration of the knowledge can be the key of the competitiveness, of the sustained growth and of the consolidation of the Society of the one knowledge looking for an administration of effective knowledge.

We have different ways to communicate, the transmission of the knowledge is taken from immemorial times and historically he/she has moved of generation in generation through the humanity's history the man he/she has always looked for to know; although the conscience and the studies on the new position of the knowledge - and their organized generation - in the economic systems they had their beginnings in the beginnings of the XIX century, as he/she refers (Rivero, 2002), where he/she also affirms that nowadays the knowledge constitutes the main source of sustainable competitive advantages in the time it is not an utopia; it is already an axiomatic true. The antecedents of the knowledge are looked for in the Greek philosophy, they are carried out from times of Plato who distinguishes the knowledge in several levels and grades in a process of discursive intellect. Aristotle explains to it as logical relationship among subject expert and I object well-known, in a passive form of reception of the cosmic thought, according to appointment in their investigation (Pacheco, 2004).

Should understand these multi-teams that the application of the new technologies to their managerial contexts, they will allow them the power to delegate or to program through these, certain tasks that allow the success of the synergy in order to generate value and that, in turn demand creativity and innovation.

By the middle of the decade of the siestas, H. Igor Ansoff, grateful as the father of the modern strategic thought, the main Fade introduces in the analysis of strategic options. But it is starting from the decade of the eighty that Michael E. Porter becomes the most outstanding author in competitive strategy, where the same one proposes a new focus for the strategic plantation, and he/she writes that the "competitive advantage is born fundamentally of the value that a company is able to create for their buyers". These advantages have varied in the context those from concepts like leadership in costs, differentiation to concepts like competitive strategy based on capacities and resources due to the ability of the organization of facing the dynamism of the internal means (to operate) and the external means (market) in which seeks to participate.

THE PRESENTING OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES AS INTANGIBLE ASSETS AT FAIR VALUE

According to International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS, 2005) competitive advantages as intangible asset is defined as an "identifiable non-monetary asset that has no tangible substance and that is used in manufacturing or delivering of goods and services, in renting to other subjects or in administration." The asset is being governed by an accounting unit which then expects an economic advantage in return. A paradox of intangible assets is that the more incorporates, the more volatile is its valuation. Thus, in traditional accounting systems, if an intangible asset does not meet the criteria above, then it will not appear in the accounting books of the company. However, as time passed, the traditional accounting concepts and systems became improper for the purposes of the new company models form the post-industrial economy (organizations based on knowledge, immaterial, with a low number of employees with high qualification).

Furthermore, the use of fair values, with a small number of exceptions, mirrors long-standing requirements of United Kingdom (UK) GAAP. UK GAAP has long required the use of fair values for the initial measurement of assets and liabilities or the allocation of the cost of the acquisition in a business combination to the acquired assets and liabilities. The options to measure property, plant and equipment and investment property at fair value at each balance sheet date are long-standing UK treatments that have been incorporated into IFRS. More significantly, the extensive use of historical cost-based amounts, in particular for the measurement of many financial assets, and financial liabilities and as the dominating practice for tangible and intangible assets, is common to both UK GAAP and IFRS.

Practical, IFRS use the term 'fair value' as a generic term that may be applied to all assets, liabilities and equity instruments irrespective of whether they are quoted or traded on active markets. In other words, IFRS use market value as a subset of fair value - it is fair value as determined in an active market. More and more, the basic representations of the accountancy evaluations including competitive advantages as intangible asset, excepting the historical cost, are real values.

But the process doesn't stop here. After getting the accountancy information it must be furnished to the interested one and has to be interpreted in the scope to take decisions. Look, there is obtained accountancy information, based on the concept of real value, with the destination of evaluating the interest and solvability of a patrimonial entity. Because of the high variety of information, that are requested by the users or furnished from the patrimonial entity, there are some qualitative characteristics of the financial measurements that are strictly limited. Even with an understanding of the definition and what is not fair value, IFRS are unclear whether fair value should be based on an entry price or an exit price of an asset, liability or equity instrument.

In other words, conventional financial statements and management reports presently provide insufficient information on the competitive advantages as intangible asset that really contributes to a company's success. That increased importance of competitive advantages to business competitiveness has driven change in the accounting treatment of intangibles and accounting standards try to improve disclosures about them. On top of that, the current lacks of investment in intellectual capital have several consequences. If we can develop a better way to account for such investments, we will achieve a more efficient allocation of resources and benefits will accrue to the economy.

As a result it is some problems of credibility and meaningfulness vis-à-vis these new reports according with IFRSs. Also the intangibles phenomena represented by the date which can be in conflict with their reliability.

Today, IFRS and specific national modifications also deal with the question of compatibility of the standards within the EU. This question should be resolved by the Common Consolidated Corporate Tax Base project that is to be finished by 2011. The EU aims at creating a unified approach as far as establishing one's income tax is concerned; the individual member countries would be in charge of establishing the rate then.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FOR ROMANIA SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES

The Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) sector is also important in overcoming social tension brought about by the globalization tendencies connected with the rapid transfer of certain industrial programs to countries with lower wage costs and with a high intensity of global competition. SMEs are of particular significance for the development of the national economy, for job creation, and for the development of individual municipalities and regions. They help to create a healthy business environment and increase market dynamism. SME development is generally considered to be a principal factor of economic development, irrespective of how economically advanced a country is. SMEs play a decisive role in the creation of new jobs and, in general, operate as a factor contributing to social stability and economic development. However, their development may be limited by objectively existing trends in the operation of the market. More often than large businesses, they face difficulties in the financing of their current activities, especially development plans, due to fears connected with the increased risk of investing in these companies and the limited possibilities of securing loans. Also, SME access to information, in particular information on new technologies, potential markets and changes in legislation, is more difficult.

SME support in the next programming period, i.e. 2007-2013, will be based on the Policy adopted by the government on 12 April 2006. With a view to fostering a positive business environment necessary for the development of entrepreneurship and for the sharper competitiveness of SMEs, measures in the following areas will gradually be implemented. Simplification of tax legislation and a reduction in administration as factors helping to foster a more favorable business environment, with the support of the administrative registers of public support (a basic economic register, a basic register of area identification and properties, a basic population register). The impact of proposed legislative is changes on SMEs as an integral part of the legislative process, reflection of the requirements of EU legislation in the field of ecology. Adherence to a regime for the import of goods and to customs, tax, technical and health regulations though the consistent activities of Customs Administration bodies. The stimulation of enterprises and employees to develop their skills, including tax allowances, the promotion of the development of standardization, metrology and testing in keeping with the requirements of the market and society, with the aim of enhancing the competitiveness of SMEs.

Direct financial assistance for the projects of small and medium-sized enterprises will be based on the following principles, for example on preservation of an expedient level of continuity with programmers whose functioning proved its worth in the 2004-2006 period. An increase in the application of instruments ensuring the access of SMEs to capital, especially private capital, based on the principle of full or partial return and the principle of risk distribution. The focus of grants on the development of the knowledge economy and the promotion of consulting, information and training services, the integration of the blanket oriented support of business projects increasing the competitiveness of small and medium-sized enterprises with regional aid, facilitating the necessary differentiation of aid intensity and increased support for projects with high benefits for the economy and development of the regions (e.g. job creation in selected regions, especially areas with intensive State aid, energy conservation, the development of selected branches), on support for the development of products with higher finality and better enhancement of inputs and a more favorable environmental impact.

CONCLUSIONS

The global objective of SME support is to enhance the competitiveness of businesses, maintain the attractiveness of the Romania, its regions and towns for investors, promote innovation, stimulate demand for research and development results, foster a spirit of entrepreneurship and encourage the growth of the knowledge-based economy by means of capacities for the implementation of new technologies and innovated products, including new information and communication technologies. These all factors lead to the very important social role and social responsibility of SME, mainly in the regions with economic problems. On the other hand, the intangible assets is a resource with which count all the organizations, conforming different stocks of knowledge like they can be: the singular, collective and organizational that should not be left as such, but the interesting thing it is that this it is used, it is mobilized and develop, that is to say to negotiate it of different forms. The different visions around the topic they have generated a series of proposed models that they believe expectations, activities, lists and technologies, that they have pointed to give support to the development of the human resource in the organizations, but without fixing a direction or mark that it allows to settle down clearly as implementing the administration of the intangible assets. Of there the necessity to identify the different forms in that it is in the organization.

These us it motivates to continue revising the state of the art in order to contribute a pertinent model to our environment. The evaluation of current intangible assets is made at their just value which, according to IFRS 2007, is a concept similar with that of market value. An intangible element, reported as a current expenditure, cannot be later on recognized as a part of a current intangible asset's cost. However, the influence of intangible assets is mixed, both negative, by the superior concurrence, the increase of the turbulence of the businesses environment, and positive, facilitating the access at new markets of provision and sale, the acceleration of the know-how transfer, the access at new technologies, partnerships and strategic alliances at international level, etc. In conclusion, the Romanian SMEs bring a significant contribution in what concerns competitiveness, research, innovation, employment as well as the solution to particular problems. We should strive to develop a dynamic and competitive SME sector, which will contribute to economic growth, employment and reduction of poverty.

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PUBLIC RELATIONS VERSUS ADVERTISING IN THE KNOWLEDGE-BASED ECONOMY

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Mariana Forfolea, Free International University from Moldova Mihail Silviu Pocora, Alexandru Ioan Cuza Police Academy

ABSTRACT

Systematic effort to create and maintain goodwill of an organization's various publics (customers, employees, investors, suppliers, etc.), usually through publicity and other non-paid forms of communication. These efforts may also include support of arts, charitable causes, education, sporting events, etc. Publicity is more effective than advertising, for several reasons. First, publicity is far more cost-effective than advertising. Even if it is not free, your only expenses are generally phone calls and mailings to the media. Second, publicity has greater longevity than advertising. Publicity also reaches a far wider audience than advertising generally does. Sometimes, your story might even be picked up by the national media, spreading the word about your business all over the country. Finally, and most important, publicity has greater credibility with the public than does advertising. Readers feel that if an objective third party-a magazine, newspaper or radio reporter-is featuring your company, you must be doing something worthwhile.

INTRODUCTION

Public relations are now a profession with a scientific body of knowledge. In addition, public relations become a managerial function rather than a communication technique. Problems and challenges that public relations will face in the future are manifold. We agree with the fact that public relations now have a scientific body of knowledge and that quickly becomes a managerial than technical communicational function. The authors say that the strongest trend in public relations is a strategic move towards a managerial role. Ironically, the key problems and challenges are closely intertwined forces limiting the role of public relations have to face the confusion caused by what is actually means strategic public relations. The idea that public relations should be strategic rather than tactical is very popular today in professional circles. However, Swiss scientists, led by Francesco Lurati University of Lugano, noted that most practitioners' public relations define public relations as strategic communication supports rather implement organizational objectives. Term strategy does not change the nature of the tasks performed by tactical communication ... communicative function has no contribution to defining the strategy corporate.

We believe that this misunderstanding of the concept of strategic public relations is most prevalent among practitioners who are guided by what we call the interpretive theory of public relations. Believe that there are two major theories contrasting public relations, both in practice and in academia. These perspectives can be called symbolic paradigm, interpretive and strategic management paradigm or behaviorist.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholars and practitioners following the symbolic paradigm generally assume that public relations tend to influence how the public perceives the organization. These perceptions are theorized in cognitive concepts such as image, reputation, brand and identity impressions. Practitioners following the interpretive paradigm emphasize advertising (publicity), relations with media and media effects. Communication tactics, which they maintain this theory, creates an impression in the minds of publics that allow the organization to be separated from its environment, using theories of Cees van Riel, Danish

specialist in communication. Separation involves creating an "artificial screen" positive message to mask the true organizational behavior, which allows the organization to establish a behavior. Unlike the symbolic, behavioral paradigm, strategic management is focusing on participation by public relations directors in making strategic decisions to help manage organizational behavior. According to the scholar Van Riel, the public relations function of a connection than separation. Intended for building relationships with stakeholders rather than a set of activities has aimed at separating transmitting messages to their organization. The strategic approach, public relations directors are involved in managerial decisions. Their role is to identify potential consequences that decision might have on stakeholder consequences that create audiences. They communicate before making decisions and with audiences, because they may have reasons for decisions and to take account of their interests. PR people build relationships with these audiences to improve the quality of managerial decisions and to reduce risks and costs of these decisions.

Interpretive paradigm is the belief that strategic rather than tactical appears in discussions on public relations evaluation. For example, research firms have tried to establish the idea that favorable media placements are closely linked to business objectives, such as sales, profits or consumer preferences. Others have tried to demonstrate that money spent on publicity have a higher investment return than money spent on advertising. In contrast, strategic management approach necessary measurements are deceptively simple. Should measure the nature and quality of relationships between organizations and publics and should monitor the value of public relations. It is necessary to evaluate public relations strategies and tactics to determine which are most effective in building these relationships.

This difference in thinking on the strategic role of public relations and the controversy is the link between public relations and marketing and management. Communication has always been a part of public relations specialist and practitioners are obviously more of a marketing budget. However, such research, including Strategic Public Relations Center at the University of Southern California shows that it is unlikely that public relations executives to play a strategic role and be understood and appreciated by other executives when relations limited public support to a management role. In general, when public relations are limited to marketing support, do so by emphasizing a role separately messaging. Research shows also that public relations should not avoid collaboration with marketing. Rather, public relations seem to play the most important strategic role when marketing public relations component is part of a greater strategic role (integrated communication) public relations rather than be subsumed Marketing (Integrated Marketing Communication).

METHODOLOGY RESEARCH

I therefore consider that there are three key challenges that public relations profession has to face: a) change the way in which practitioners, their colleagues and customers perceive the public relations management from an interpretative role, insulator, a role strategic management, 2) conducting a survey to identify theories and tools to perform a strategic role management, and 3) educating both practicing and future managers on the strategic role of public relations and management tools of its application.

The socio-political role the public relations is profession. Currently, most companies / organizations have too high expectations from public relations professionals. Most people seem to perceive public relations as having a symbolic function, interpretive and that their aim is to prevent them understand how they may affect corporate actions, governments and other organizations. The general public assumes that public relations are immoral and unethical nature. We believe that companies should expect to provide public relations publics a voice in decisions affecting them. We believe that companies should expect professional public relations advisers to the ethics of taking decisions, both consultations on the consequences that their decisions may have on others and on moral obligation to communicate with those affected by those decisions.

Public relations are to develop relationships, and society is a network of relationships. As individuals, have fewer conflicts in life if we develop good relationships with spouses, children, neighbors, colleagues, bosses, teachers, friends and even our enemies. The same is true for organizations that interact with each other and with audiences in society. In general, both individuals and organizations develop better relationships (characterized by trust, control exercised by parties, communication should be characterized by openness, authenticity and transparency - what we call symmetric communication.

Should also behave in a responsible manner and should in a way to serve both the interests of others and their own. Thus, the strategic role of public relations management is a socio-political role. Public Relations develop relationships with audiences and organizations in society, interacting in the political system to determine decisions in a collective manner, serving to meet the interests of as many elements of a democratic system. Courage comes from a sound knowledge of the power of belief and acceptance of our role by others. Most professionals today lack at least one, if not more of the conditions needed to develop the courage to be what we call "an activist in-house". As an activist in-house, a public relations professional would support transparency and authenticity in communication. He or she would appeal the decisions of socially irresponsible and unethical behavior. And when he or she would think that management is mistaken, suggests that public's welfare. Although many have the courage to play that role should go martyrs of the cause rather than champions of public relations profession, if not enhance their knowledge, faith in their beliefs and if they do not accept others to him. PR professionals should develop more knowledge on social responsibility, ethics, strategic management and symmetrical communication. You must really believe in these values of the profession of public relations, to develop confidence in their beliefs, joining the public relations firm. Equally important is to convince the others both managers and organizations in the population itself - that it is their role.

Journalists, academics and many critics dispute the value and values of public relations. We believe that most journalists dispute the value and values of public relations as all practitioners are guided by the symbolic paradigm, interpretive public relations. As I explained in an earlier response, we believe that many practitioners follow and believe in this interpretative approach. When practitioners follow this approach indeed, journalists and scholars disputing critics are right values and behavior of public relations people. Meanwhile, journalists and academics same critics refuse to recognize that there is a type of practitioner seeking behavioral paradigm, strategic management. Their criticism is focused on the most unethical and efficiency of practitioners, thus overshadowing the company valuable role played by the best practitioners. Thus, we believe that their critical attitude of many practitioners reflect actual behavior which in turn is based on a lack of understanding of excellence in public relations.

This behavior of practitioners and how the profession can be exchanged is understood. We demonstrated that the interpretative approach to public relations was established in the minds of most practitioners of public relations. Public Relations community must work to be restored as a strategic management function. Establishing is long lasting. One can only gradually changing our course. And we think we can do this by changing the behavior of many public relations practitioners by changing how public relations are described in textbooks and university curricula and society gradually showing that this is a responsible and valuable profession, by providing a number of increasingly great examples of responsible practices.

CONCLUSIONS

Public relations are the opposite of advertising. In advertising, you pay to have your message placed in a newspaper, TV or radio spot. In public relations, the article that features your company is not paid for. The reporter whether broadcast or prints write about or film your company as a result of information he or she received and researched.

If we see public relations as a management function that uses communication to cultivate relationships with audiences who have a say in the conduct of the organization. Today's public relations help in management decisions socially responsible. Edward Bernays demonstrate that: "Public relations are the practice of social responsibility." We agree with him. We believe that the ideal public relations organizations to be more socially responsible. Identify and realize the negative consequences of their decisions and behavior management on publics. "Negative" are clearly the result of decisions and irresponsible behavior. Professional PR can identify negative consequences only listening and communicating with audiences before deciding to identical explaining the possible consequences and nature management consequences publics. Scenarios can be developed on the consequences of which affect how the public and affected public can organize to address these consequences through litigation, legislation, adverse publicity, etc.., Actions that have negative consequences for the organization.

These scenarios can be used to help management make decisions knowingly. Professional public relations can then arrange symmetrical communication programs to assist management and the public to negotiate reciprocal behavior, so as to minimize mutual behavioral consequences. I really think that modern public relations can be public "activist in-house" which helps the management to adopt socially responsible decisions. However, to do so, practitioners must develop knowledge, confidence and belief in their acceptance by the other things described.

We underline, that practitioners who are addressing the symbolic, interpretive programs often perceive very different way. Instead of seeing CSR as something related decisions and behavior daily management, they see corporate social responsibility as philanthropy or business image with very little to do with strategy and organizational behavior. In this approach, CSR activities are only used to create positive messages in hopes of protecting the organization from accusations and criticism of irresponsible or unethical behavior. Such image making activities should not equate with corporate social responsibility. There is nothing wrong in doing charity, but charity should be made for strategic stakeholder that are valuable as employees, communities, consumers and government and not only because it provides positive publicity.

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THE MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICTS IN THE KNOWLEDGE-BASED ORGANIZATION

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Nelu Mocanu, Tomis University from Constanta

ABSTRACT

Conflicts that inevitably occur in the knowledge society can seriously affect relations between staff and sometimes irreparably. A proper management of conflicts can eliminate the danger of disunity, lack of communication and understanding between employees. This paper shows that interpersonal conflict can occur within the knowledge society and conflict management styles for dealing with interpersonal conflict avoidance.

INTRODUCTION

The term "conflict" is a complex concept that refers generally to the misunderstanding, the clash of interests, disagreement, antagonism, and quarrel, conflict between ideas, interests and feelings of two or more parts. The conflict involves a disagreement or inconsistent behavior between the parts, perceived by them. This definition illustrates a wide range of conflicts experienced by people in knowledge-based organization, such as incompatible goals, differences in interpretation of facts, disagreements on behavioral expectations, etc.

A conflict can be competitive or cooperative. In the competitive conflict, parts seek entirely different purposes. Each of them has no confidence in the intentions of the others and discredits their words. Both parts deliberately avoid constructive dialogue and have a win-lose attitude. Inevitably, every disagreement persists following separate paths. This is as dysfunctional or destructive conflict. By contrast, the cycle represented by conflict of cooperation is an experience that best serves the interests of both parts which support each other. The purpose of cooperation, the trust between parts and the win-win approach are the main features of cooperative conflict. From all the types of conflicts that can arise in human relationships within a knowledge-based society, this paper will discuss the interpersonal conflict and ways of solving this kind of conflict situations.

INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT

Most times, interpersonal conflict is manifested through the process in which an employee frustrates another from reaching his purposed aim. The manager must notify as soon as possible the appearance of such conflict, so that it can be stopped. The existence of the conflict does not necessarily lead to inefficiency. There are three viewpoints of the conflict: one positive, one negative and one balanced. Conflicts can have positive effects on knowledge, as the initiation and resolution of conflicts often leads to a constructive solution to the problem. The conflict's solution is often an incentive for a positive change in the company. A positive view on the conflict encourages people to solve their quarrels and engage in a development of an ethical and equitable organization. The intentionally introduction of the conflict in the process of taking decisions can be beneficial. For example, it sometimes happen that group members think the same way when the group should make decisions. This danger can be reduced by entering the conflict as one or more dissenting opinions.

On the other hand, conflicts can have serious adverse effects or harm the efforts in achieving goals. Instead of directing organizational resources primarily to achieve desired goals, conflict may exhaust the resources, particularly time and money. Conflict can also harm the psychical comfort of employees. Ideas, thoughts, opinions can lead to resentment, conflict, tension, anxiety. On the other hand, conflicts and strong competition negatively affect the results when cooperation between employees is needed.

The most effective people have a balanced way of looking at the conflict. They recognize that a conflict may be necessary in some extreme cases, in others destructive. Balanced point of view promotes the idea that conflict in some way, is not only a positive force in a group, but it is absolutely necessary to be effective as a group. This approach encourages managers to maintain a moderate level of conflict - enough to maintain staff viable, critical with himself and creative.

Research has shown that managers often act as mediators in conflicts between employees on a wide range of issues, such as failure of specified tasks, usurping responsibility, misunderstandings on the policies pursued by the company and discrimination. Given the significance of these issues is important for managers to act in a manner that contributes to the effective functioning of the company. But often, these managers are informal arbitrators, rather than highly trained professionals. Unlike the "mediators" and "judges" professionals, these managers do not come from outside the organization or conflict, but have an ongoing relationship with the parties in conflict. Their effort to come between is often a part of their everyday role of leadership, a role that requires experience and interaction between the parts involved.

This not only limits the applicability of recommendations for the involvement of managers from research conducted by professional judges, but also highlights the difficulties that managers have when they are trying to identify the most appropriate form of intervention they can use when they must solve a conflict between subordinates. Framework is needed to help managers choose appropriate intervention strategy in a given conflict situation. However, the implementation of this framework, it is necessary to identify what constitutes a successful intervention, the various intervention strategies available to the manager and key short term factors that influence the choice of appropriate strategy.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES

Professor Kennet Thomas argues that there are five types of behavior concerning the behavior of people in conflict resolution strategies:

- 1. Detour style is characterized by the reduced ability to assert their own interests and on the other hand, by very little collaboration with the negotiation partner. Strategy can be called "ostrich with its head in the sand". Although it is not the most appropriate strategy, however, it may be a good policy if it is followed by practical measures to improve the situation. In other words, is the best way to save time, provided that it is well used.
- 2. Accommodating style assumes a minimal realization of personal interests and achieves maximum cooperation. Thus there are laid the foundations of a partnership, if desired, which is likely to continue. This style can be explained as follows: an employee claims to help another without anything for the moment, having more to win in the future. Some appreciate that such management is a sign of weakness but it can be considered a good model of cooperation, but also a debt.
- 3. Competitive style refers to a method that requires management and also self-interest which reduces any form of cooperation. This provides a dictatorship of one who is stronger and is in no way interested in working with lower-class partners. The only condition for such a style to be effective in both the future and the present is that he would be now adopted by a person or company that has a majority market share, and have accurate estimates of market and company development.
- 4. Concessive style. In negotiating the concession of two companies, or between two parts seeking to impose both high rates of interests and expand, where possible, cooperation. The key element of the

whole system is compromised and the compromise is not the most appropriate solution if it is asymmetrical division of power. As power between two companies or two sides of the same company is almost never symmetrical, conflict management style is the least advisable.

5. Collaborative style is the best because it entails maximizing both personal interests and communication. It is the style most appropriate between two companies that share a problem. So the problem is the agreement by both parts. By this method of collaboration, productivity can be enhanced.

STYLES OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

People attempt to solve interpersonal conflicts in a variety of ways. A first way, avoiding, involves inassertive and uncooperative behavior. People use this style to keep away from conflicts, misunderstandings or ignoring the natural remains. When unsolved conflicts affect achieving aims, this style will cause negative results for the company. In certain circumstances, however, it can be desirable when:

(1) the problem is minor and only transient importance, and it does not justify the time and energy spent on the appearance of a conflict;

(2) information made available to individuals is insufficient to worry during that conflict;

(3) individual power is too small compared to the other, so there is unlikely to make a change;

(4) other individuals are more likely to solve the conflict.

Forcing involves assertive and uncooperative behavior and reflects a win-lose approach to interpersonal conflict. Those who use this style seek to achieve their purposes, without thinking about others. Often, forcing involves coercive power. The attitude "me against you" does not go too far, especially when parts need a long term relationship. However, there are situations in which forcing may be required when:

(1) emergency cases require rapid action;

(2) accepting more unpopular action to ensure organizational effectiveness and survival;

(3) the person must act to protect itself and to stop others taking advantage of him.

The style of accommodation is a cooperative behavior, but inassertive. The accommodation can be an act of altruism, a long-term strategy towards encouraging cooperation with others, of acceptance of others' wishes. In general, the accommodation is well regarded by others, but can sometimes be seen as a weakness or as an act of obedience. The accommodation can be effective in the short term, when:

(1) individuals are in a potentially explosive situation of conflict that should avoid emotional calm;

(2) preserving harmony and avoiding breaks are important, especially in the short run;

(3) conflicts are caused primarily by the personality of individuals and can not be solved so easily.

Collaboration is a strong assertive behavior of cooperation. It reflects a win-win approach to interpersonal conflicts. It occurs when the conflicting parts seek to satisfy every need of all parts and search a full win outcome for everyone. People close to this style tend to have the following characteristics:

(1) consider the conflict normal, useful and even leading to a much more creative solution if it is properly managed;

(2) trust in others;

(3) believe that a conflict solved in favor of all leads to an unanimous acceptance of the solution.

Collaboration is particularly useful in situations in which:

(1) it is required a high degree of interdependence, so it is justified spending time and energy to solve disputes between individuals;

(2) individuals have equal powers, so they feel free to interact with each other;

(3) chances of success are mutual, especially on long term, to solve the dispute through a win-win process;

(4) there is sufficient organizational support for the acceptance of time and energy necessary to solve the dispute through cooperation.

Compromise is the behavior at an intermediate level between cooperation and assertiveness. It is based on the "give and receive" and involves a series of concessions. Compromise is often used and generally accepted as a method of resolving the conflict. Here there is no clear winner or loser. Rather, it demonstrates a desire to rationalize the subject of a conflict and to accept the solution that provides an incomplete satisfaction of the needs of the parts. Therefore, the distinguishing feature of the compromise is that each side intends to give up something. Compared with the collaboration, compromise tends to maximize the aggregate satisfaction, but rather reaches a moderate satisfaction, for each part.

The style is used when the situation improves understanding the parts or even preventing deterioration that could occur due the misunderstandings and it is not possible to reach a win-win agreement, partial for each part. Studies show that people tend to approach conflict in a certain way. Therefore, faced with a conflict situation, some people want to win everything at any cost, some want to find an optimal solution, some want to retire, others will be helpful, while others want to share differences.

The five styles of conflict resolution are in fact an intention to resolve a dispute between the parts. But the behaviour of the parts in the conflict may be different from their intentions because of the errors that include statements, actions and reactions. Conflict behavior is a dynamic process of interaction. For example, you make a request, I give a negative answer, you threaten me, I threaten you, and so on. In the meantime there are all kinds of conflicts.

CONCLUSIONS

Conflicts are inevitably present in all human activity subjects that are in change. Conflicts are inevitable during the change and challenge of the established positions in social structures. The conflict is a natural result of the interaction and interdependence of social actors. In conclusion, most people regard the conflict as an inevitable evil, undesirable and that it was better not to appear at the outset. But the conflict itself is neither good nor bad; it just shows the perception of divergent interests. Negotiating differences is not necessarily unpleasant or unproductive. In fact the differences can often improve the welfare of the parts and organizations.

The parts in conflict often have a tendency to evaluate their interests as diametrically opposed. Possible outcomes are limited to a situation of win-loss (gain of one party automatically becomes the loss of the other) or compromise. But in the violent conflicts both sides may lose. If neither side is able to impose an outcome or to propose a compromise, both sides can lead to higher costs of conflict so that both would have been better if it had been approved a different strategy. Conflict resolution analysis shows that results are much more common than it is believed by the parts. It is usually too late when the parts realize that their interest is to choose other alternatives and strategies that lead to compromise or negotiate winwin.

If a conflict is destructive, parts and policy makers need to decrease it and vice versa. If the level is too low, it is necessary to intensify the conflict situation. It is generated through the techniques of conflict management, resolution and stimulation techniques that allow managers to control the level of conflict. Therefore, we ca conclude that conflict management is a process of recognition of the exact role of conflict between individuals of the crew and guide decision-making techniques and stimulation in order to increase efficiency organization based on knowledge.

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ENVIRONMENTAL ECONOMICS DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL EXPERIMENTS MANAGEMENT

Ionica Holban (Oncioiu), Academy of Economies Studies from Bucharest Mariana Panaitescu, Constanta Maritime University Anca Nedea, Free International University from Moldova Gabriela Claudia Oncioiu, Lucian Blaga High school from Constanta

ABSTRACT

The experiment is the research method by which changes (amendment) to one or more explanatory variables is controlled by the researcher, and then measuring its effect on the variable / outcome variables. Variable affecting the experimental results will denote by X, with values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and the variables results in Y having values $y_1, y_2, ..., y_n$. Due to the difficulties of producing exactly the real working conditions, experimental errors appear. To minimize systematic errors randomization experiment are used, involving random arrangement of "processing procedures" on "objects experiment". For related real conditions, appeared the experimental errors. The paper presents how we can minimize the experimental errors to obtain realistic dates processing methods using statistical methods. The experiments are unifactorial or multifactorial, with qualitative factors or with attributive factors and by analyzed aim are preliminary, critical or demonstrative experiments. We present: the mathematical model of factorial experiments with four applications; the randomized blocks method with three applications; the Latin and Greek squares with four applications. These methods are very good for correct and quickly managerial decisions and for economical or environmental staff.

INTRODUCTION

For analysind environmental economics data are used specific methods of experiments. The experiments are clasified :

1.Following the factors considered, experiments may be: a) simple (unifactoriale);b) multiple (multifactorial).

2. After the type of variables, experiments may be: a) experiments on quantitative factors;b) experiments on the factors conferring;

3. After the purpose of analysis are distinguished:

a) preliminary experiments; b) the critical experiments; c)demonstration experiments.

A. Factorial experiments are procedures to reduce the number of tests, of rushing to obtain "the answer", thus requires a lower volume of information. General mathematical model is one of that bifactorial model with interactions and repetitions. The statical assumption is: for H_a all $\alpha_i^a = 0$ and for H_r all $\rho_k = 0$.

• Building F statistics are based on convenient partitioning of the sum:

$$r\sum_{i=1}^{I}\sum_{j=1}^{J} \left(\overline{x}_{ij}, -\overline{x}_{...} \right)^{2} = rJ\sum_{i=1}^{I} \left(x_{i..} - \overline{x}_{...} \right)^{2} + rI\sum_{j=1}^{J} \left(\overline{x}_{.j}, -\overline{x}_{...} \right)^{2} + r\sum_{i=1}^{I}\sum_{j=1}^{J} \left(\overline{x}_{ij}, -\overline{x}_{i...} - \overline{x}_{.j} + \overline{x}_{...} \right)^{2}$$
(1)

Thus obtained squares summ for A factor, squares summ for B factor and squares summ for interaction between factors (I-1)(J-1) and (I-1)(J-1) degrees of freedom.

Factorial experiments can be classified as:

- 1. After a number of levels of factors
- a) at two levels and "n" factors –
- b) at several levels;
- 2. After the number of observations (experiments) that run:
- a) with one observation in the cell,

b) with multiple observations (repetitions) in the cell;

In such an experiment, two levels of each factor is labeled "0" and "1". Experiment verifies three factors, labeled A, B and C, each having different values at different levels are.

• Mathematical model is as follows:

$$x_{ijkl} = \mu + \alpha_i^A + \alpha_j^B + \alpha_k^C + \alpha_{ij}^{AB} + \alpha_{ik}^{AC} + \alpha_{jk}^{BC} + \alpha_{ijk}^{ABC} + \rho_1 + \varepsilon_{ijkl}$$
(2)

• Order standard experimental conditions coded as follows:

Table 1: Standard experimental corelation between conditions-factorial levels. Codification for experiment -23

Conditio experimentală	Niveluril	Nivelurile factorilor				
Condiția experimentală	а	b	c			
0	0	0	0			
a	1	0	0			
b	0	1	0			
ab	1	1	0			
с	0	0	1			
ac	1	0	1			
bc	0	1	1			
abc	1	1	1			

BLOCKS RANDOMIZE METHOD

This method of testing is recommended if the material is relatively heterogeneous and presents experimental variability depending on factors. The experiment was conducted in j = 2 blocks, on the modes of presentation assessed as "inadequate" and "appropriate" and i = 4, the variety of products. The experiment aims to identify whether the decision to option a type of organic product is related to the presentation of their. Note yi averages for the types of organic products, the types of presentation media yj and y. The overall mean yield of all experiments. The results obtained from the experiment after a program organized in randomized blocks are shown in the Table no.5.

Greek-Latin Method and Latin Squares

Latin squares is an incomplete experimental plan for analysis using a three factors ANOVA trifactorial model, where no interaction factors. In this way they have measured the effects of different levels of certain variables, while the effects of other variables are kept at a constant level. The building of Latin squares based on Galois Theory bodies and the name is from Latin letters used.

Treatments will be distributed at random in table cells, but the first line and column symbols used will be ordered naturally: A, B, C, and D.

Table 2: Examples for Latin squires

Α	В	С	D
В	С	D	А
С	D	Α	В
D	А	В	С

For example, this means that the table above will be: 4 rows x 4 columns x 4 forms of treatment = 64 observations. These are for 4 treatments forms. Finally will be 16 observed forms in the table: $4^2 = n^2 = \text{test units.}$

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A-Factorial Experiments

The applications for factorial experiments are:

- In a behavior research on "green" of a company is identified if there is any significant relationship between firm size, average monthly turnover and the average age of top management.
- The factors are:

A - size business

A1 - small

A2 - sized enterprise

- A3 large enterprise
- A4 holding
 - The effects of factors are as follows:
 - The direct effect of factor A: $\alpha_i = y_{i..} y_{...}$
 - The direct effect of factor B: $\beta_i = y_{j} y_{...}$

• The direct effect of factor C: $\gamma_i = y_{t.} - y_{...}$, where $y_{...} = \frac{1}{abk} \sum_i \sum_j \sum_k y_{ijt}$ -is general

observations average; $y_{i.i} = \frac{1}{bk} \sum_{i} y_{ijt}$ -is A factor observations average for; $y_{.j.} = \frac{1}{ak} \sum_{j} y_{ijt}$

-is B factor observations average for; $y_{t.} = \frac{1}{ab} \sum_{i} y_{iji}$ -is C factor observations average

for.

Interactions between factors are: a) between factors A and B is $\rho_{ij} = y_{ij}$ -yi-y_{.j.+}y_{...} b) between factors A and C is $\rho_{it} = y_{i.t} - y_{i..} - y_{..t} + y_{...}$; c) between factors B and C is $\rho_{kt} = y_{.jt} - y_{.j.} - y_{..t} + y_{...}$;

Between factors A, B, C, interaction is identified with the influence of random factors not taken into account represented by the residual error (because the experiment is without repetition - thus with one observation in each cell), the error is given by:

$$\rho_{ijt} = y_{ijt} - y_{ij.} - y_{i.t} - y_{.jt} + y_{i..} + y_{.j.} + y_{..t} + y_{..t}$$
(3)

The table presents the results of the processing percentage for the three factors extracted from a random sub-sample of completed questionnaires mass.

					Bj				
B/C		B ₁		B	B ₂	B	3	В	4
		C ₁	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂	C_1	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂
	A_1	6,95	7,74	20,81	15,34	13,27	15,23	7,65	10,02
Α	A_2	7,62	8,67	20,82	25,67	13,54	16,05	9,76	10,16
А	A_3	10,53	11,96	25,67	25,84	14,62	16,02	16,28	17,13
	A_4	9,76	11,14	25,58	25,15	16,15	17,57	16,70	18,13

Table 3: Results of the Processing Percentage for Different Factors

C - Average age top management

C1 – young C2 - mature

• To obtain data necessary calculation dispersion analysis is necessary to establish the factors and sums of squares deviations on a combination of factors resulting in the table:

Table 4: The factors and summs of squares deviations, dispersions and statistics.- Conclusion about influences

Sursa variatiei	Suma patratelor abaterilor	Nr. grade libertate	Dispersia $S_2 = \frac{SP}{df}$	Statistica $F = \frac{S_{heater}^2}{SPE}$	$F_{\alpha,df1,df2}$	Concluzia asupra influentei
А	SPA=123,03	a-1=3	41,01	18,14	3,86	semnific.
В	SPB=623,35	b-1=3	207,78	91,93	3,86	semnific.
С	SPC=6,21	k-1=1	6,21	2,74	5,12	nesemnific.
AB	SPAB=45,29	(a-1)(b-1)=9	5,03	2,22	3,20	nesemnific.
AC	SPAC=4,03	(a-1)(k-1)=3	1,34	0,59	3,86	nesemnific.
BC	SPBC=3,47	(b-1)(k-1)=3	1,15	0,50	3,86	nesemnific.
Eroare	SPE=20,41	(a-1)(b-1)(k-1)=9	2,26	1,00	-	-
Total	SPT=825,79	abk-1=31	26,63	-	-	-

B. Application for Blocks Randomize Method

Procedeo de prelucrar	1 2 i		$\sum_{j=1}^{b}$	У _{ij}	yi		$\left(\sum_{j=1}^{b}y_{ij}\right)^2$
1	y11 y12 y	1ј У1ь			\overline{y}_1		
2	y ₂₁ y ₂₂ y	2ј У2ь			\overline{y}_1 \overline{y}_2		
·							
i	yi1 yi2 yij	Yib					
a	y _{a1} y _{a2} y	aj Yab			, y _a		
$\sum_{i=1}^{a} y_{ij}$			$\sum_{i=1}^{a} \sum_{j=1}^{b}$		х		$\sum_{i=1}^{a} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{b} y_{i} \right)^{2}$
y _i		У _в	Х	C C	ÿ		x
$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{a} y_{ij}\right)^2$					х		х
Procedee	Blo	curi (j))	Σ	y _{ij}		$\left(\Sigma\right)^{2}$
(i)	Coresp.	Nec	oresp.	j	- J IJ		$\left(\sum_{j} y_{ij}\right)$
1	208		110		318		159
2 3	407		13		420		210
3	178		156		334		167
4	156		81		237		118,5
$\sum_i y_{ij}$	949		360	$\sum_i \sum_j$	y _{ij} =1309	$\sum_{i} \left(\sum_{j} \right)$	$)^2$
$\left(\sum_i y_{ij}\right)^2$	237,25		90	$\sum_{j = j} \left(\sum_{i} y_{ij} \right)$	² =1030201	$\left(\begin{array}{c} \Sigma \Sigma \\ i \end{array} \right)$	$\left(v_{ij}\right)^2 = 1713481$

Table 5: Blocks Randomize Method Results

Interpretation of results is achieved using dispersion analysis, according to organize data in the table no.6:

Table 6: Interpretation by Dispersion Analysis

Sursa variatiei	Suma patratelor abaterilor	Nr. grade libertate	Suma patratelor ponderata	Statistica F
Tip produs (R)	$b\sum_{j} (y_{i.} - y_{})^2 = 3439,375$	(a-1)=3	MPR=2813,125	$F_{R} = \frac{MPR}{MPE} = 0,200$
Mod prezenta- re (C)	$a\sum_{i} (y_{,j} - y_{,.})^2 = 43365,125$	(b-1)=1	MPC=43365,125	$F_{C} = \frac{MPC}{MPE} = 3,089$
Eroarea reziduala (E)	$\sum_{i=j}^{\sum} (y_{ij} - y_{i.} - y_{.j} + y_{})^{2} =$ =42109,375	(a-1)(b-1)=3	MPE=14036,46	-
Variatia totala	$\sum_{i} \sum_{j} (y_{ij} - y_{})^2 = 93913$	(ab-1)=7	-	-

Because $F_c = 0.39 < F_{0.5;1;3} = 10.13$, we conclude that presentation of ecological products don't influence the options for different ecological products.

C. Greek-Latin Method and Latin Squares Applications

It will try to determine whether or not the four factors influence the decision to purchase a clean machine:

- *Rows*. The area occupied by equipment
 - a. 400 dm2.
 - b. 1000 dm2.
 - c. 1.6 m2.
 - d. another area

Columns. Number of employees needed to operate equipment:

1 person 1

2-3 people 2

3-4 persons

over 4 people 4

- Latin. Turnover of company
- up to 600,000 \$ A
- 6000001-1250000 \$ B
- 1250001-1750000 \$ C
- 1,750,001 \$ and over D
 - Greek. Generation equipment
 - 4 the latest generation
 - 3
 - 2
 - 1

In a *factorial approach*, the organization should call 256 *combinations*. The use of *Greek-Latin squares* will be sufficient only 16 *combinations*, according to the table that follows.

2 3 1 4 Τi β C αD А δ В γ a 51 9 14 17 11 В С αD β Α δ γ 48 b 15 10 10 13 С βD δΑ В α γ 69 с 20 25 11 13 δ С D В α А γ β d 83 25 9 13 36 74 42 53 82 T.j 251

 Table 7: Greco-Latin square Example

Mathematical model of experimental design as this method is as follows:

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of these statistical analysis methods are presented in the table no.7:

Sursa variatiilor	Suma patratelor	Nr. grade libertate	Suma patratelor ponderata	Statistica F	F _{tabelar}
Rând	201,1875	3	67,0625	9,06	9,28
Coloana	255,6875	3	85,2291	11,52	9,28
Latine	213,6875	3	77,2291	10,44	9,28
Grecesti	220,6875	3	73,5625	9,94	9,28
Eroare	22,1875	3	7,3958	1	-
Total	913,4375	15	-	-	-

Table 9 Example of Greek Latin squire

		1			2			3			4		Ti
a	А	14	δ	В	9	β	С	17	α	D	11	γ	51
b	В	15	γ	С	13	α	D	10	β	A	10	δ	48
c	С	20	β	D	11	δ	А	13	γ	В	25	α	69
d	D	25	α	А	9	γ	В	13	δ	С	36	β	83
T.j		74			42			53			82		251

For all calculus we used Microsoft Excel method. Comparing the calculated values with an equivalent of the spreadsheet, the resulting factors of the turnover are the number of employees and the generation equipment that significantly affect the decision to buy a clean machine, while its surface has an influence on the decision to buy adequate. The new generation of machines must have an overwhelming influence than the last generation.

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MANDATING USE TAX COLLECTION BY INTERNET VENDORS: A CONSTITUTIONAL AND POLICY ANALYSIS

Sara Linton, Roosevelt University

ABSTRACT

Forty five US states and the District of Columbia impose a general retail sales tax. These taxes are a significant source of state revenues (second only to individual income taxes), accounting for almost one third of state tax collections in the US. In seven states, they account for over half of tax revenues. States have long grappled with how to deal with the revenues lost when their residents purchase goods from out of state vendors. Although consumers remain liable to the state for use tax on such sales, as a practical matter compliance is virtually non existent. State taxing authorities have attempted to compel these sellers to collect and remit use taxes but have faced constitutional challenges. This piece discusses the evolution of case and statutory law in this area, the Streamlined Sales and Use Tax Agreement, and considers related policy issues.

JEL: H2; H7

KEYWORDS: sales and use taxes, remote sales, electronic commerce

INTRODUCTION

The first general retail sales tax was adopted by Mississippi in 1930. (The Tax Foundation, 2005). At present forty five states impose a general sales tax, and thirty three of those permit localities to add their own levies. (Padgitt, 2011). In 2009, general sales taxes accounted for 31.9% of all state tax collections (second only to the individual income tax at 34.4%). In seven states such taxes provided over 50% of tax revenues. (Federation of Tax Administrators, 2010).

A use tax is imposed in lieu of a sales tax, when a state resident purchases goods out of state. Each state has provisions for its residents to voluntarily pay use taxes, but compliance is low. Many taxpayers are unaware of their responsibility to pay use taxes, and even if the public had a greater awareness of and willingness to meet these obligations, the necessary record keeping would be burdensome (Menhart, 2007). Revenues lost on unpaid use taxes have long been an issue with regard to catalog and so called "border" sales (see next section), but with the proliferation of internet based retailing the amounts have skyrocketed. Researchers at the University of Tennessee have estimated that state and local governments lost \$45.2 billion in revenue to remote sales in 2006, and that the number could be as much as \$54.8 billion in 2011. (Institute on Taxation and Economic Policy, 2008).

What is clear, in any event, is that the states' best way to ensure collection of the taxes is for the remote vendors to collect and remit them. There are some constitutional issues involved, however.

NEXUS: THE KEY

In order to enforce a statutory obligation on an out of state vendor to collect and remit use taxes on sales to state residents, a state must prove that the seller has a sufficient "nexus" (connection) with the state. Failure to satisfy the nexus requirement will cause the tax collection to run afoul of the U.S. Constitution's Commerce Clause and 14th Amendment Due Process Clause, and render it unconstitutional. In the case of the Commerce Clause, imposing such a requirement on a taxpayer with insufficient contacts might be

considered to unduly burden interstate commerce. <u>South Carolina State Highway Dept. v. Barnwell</u> <u>Bros., Inc.</u> 303 US 177 (1938). As regards the Due Process Clause, the Supreme Court has stated that the "simple but controlling question is whether the state has given anything for which it can ask return." <u>Wisconsin v. J.C. Penney</u>, 311 US 435, 444 (1940).

A long standing historical requirement was that the nexus requirement was met if the taxpayer had some sort of physical presence within the state. With regard to mail order sales, two 1941 cases upheld Iowa's use tax collection requirement on out of state vendors with retail stores in that state. <u>Nelson v. Sears</u>, <u>Roebuck & Co.</u>, 312 US 359 (1941), reh'g denied, 312 US 715 (1941); <u>Nelson v. Montgomery Ward & Co.</u>, 312 US 373 (1941), reh'g denied, 312 US 716 (1941).

Existence of retail outlets within the taxing jurisdiction is not necessary, however. Other cases have held that lesser presences are sufficient. In <u>Scripto, Inc. v. Carson</u>, 362 US 207 (1960), the Court found that the Georgia vendor's contracts with a small group of independent wholesalers who were Florida residents were adequate to establish nexus. The wholesalers' sole function was to forward contracts to Scripto in Georgia, and in most cases the customers paid Scripto directly. The court's rationale was that the salesmen "secur[ed] a substantial flow of goods into Florida." <u>Scripto</u> at 211.

"Border sale" situations involve foreign sellers whose proximity to a state border results in sales consummated out of state coupled with deliveries to state residents, either by common carrier or the seller's own vehicles. In <u>Miller Brothers Co. v. Maryland</u>, 347 US 340 (1954), reh'g denied, 347 US 964 (1954), a merchant in Delaware (a state with no sales tax) marketed to Maryland residents via print and electronic media, including quarterly mailings to former customers. The Supreme Court held that the facts in that case were insufficient for Maryland to require the vendor to collect use taxes. The opinion stated that

"was no invasion or exploitation of the consumer market in Maryland. On the contrary, these sales resulted from purchasers traveling from Maryland to Delaware to exploit its less tax burdened selling market. That these inhabitants incurred a liability for the use tax when they used, stored or consumed the goods in Maryland, no one doubts. But the burden of collecting or paying the tax cannot be shifted to a foreign merchant in the absence of some jurisdictional basis." <u>Miller Brothers</u> 347 US at 346-347

Some state courts have reached different results when the border seller's marketing was more aggressive. In one case, an out of state vendor was held to meet the nexus standard because "Good's Furniture directly solicited a large amount of Iowa sales by intensive television advertising, then regularly serviced its Iowa customers by delivering merchandise in its own trucks with its own employees." <u>Goods Furniture House</u>, Inc. v Iowa State Board of Tax Review, 382 NW 2d 145 at 150 (Iowa, 1986), cert. Denied, 479 US 817 (1986).

Two other states cited additional factors in cases involving sellers of furniture and/or carpeting. In <u>Cooey-Bentz. Co. v. Lindlely</u>, 66 Ohio St 2d 54, 419 N.E.2d 1087 (Ohio 1981), the court considered not only that the West Virginia carpet merchant specifically advertised to Ohio residents, but that by "making deliveries, installations and repairs in Ohio with company owned vehicles, [the seller] regularly took advantage of the state's police protection as well as the roads provided by the state for the use of its residents." <u>Cooey-Bentz Co.</u>, 66 Ohio St 2d at 56, 419 N.E.2d at 1988. In <u>Rowe-Generaux Inc. v.</u> <u>Vermont Dept of Taxes</u>, 138 Vt. 130, 411 A.2d 1345 (Vt 1980), a merchant located in neighboring New Hampshire (a state without a sales tax) was held to meet the nexus standard not only because of its use of Vermont roads and media, but also the local police and court system in Vermont. The court there

concluded that Vermont had provided the seller with "something for which it can ask return." Rowe-Generaux, Inc., 138 Vt 1t 135, 411 A.2d at 1350.

Not all state courts have sided with their taxing authorities, however. <u>In Burkee & Sons Oil Co. v.</u> <u>Director of Revenue</u>, W.D. No. 39, 774, slip op. (Ct. App. Mo. July 26,1988), a Missouri court refused to uphold a use tax collection requirement against a Kansas fuel oil merchant whose sole contact with Missouri was making deliveries in its own trucks to Missouri residents.

The two most significant cases with relevance to the Internet use tax collection issue are <u>National Bellas</u> <u>Hess v. Dept. of Revenue</u>, 386 US 753 (1967) and <u>Quill Corp. v. North Dakota</u>, 504 US 298 (1992).

The Bellas Hess case featured a out of state vendor whose only contact with Illinois was mailing semiannual catalogs and occasional flyers to Illinois residents. All orders were mailed to the seller in Missouri, and goods were shipped via mail or common carrier. Based upon Ill. Rev. Stat. C 120 § 439.2 (1965), which stated that any retailer who engaged in "soliciting orders within this State by means of catalog or other advertising, whether such orders are received or accepted within or without this State" was "maintaining a place of business in this State", the Illinois Dept. of Revenue obtained a judgment against Bellas Hess in the Illinois Supreme Court, requiring Bellas Hess to collect and remit Illinois use tax. The US Supreme Court overturned that judgment, holding that the Illinois statute violated both the 14th Amendment Due Process Clause and the Commerce Clause.

A quarter century later, a similar fact pattern arose in the Quill case. North Dakota amended its tax code in 1987 to expand the definition of "retailer" (those entities required to collect and remit tax) to include "every person who engages in regular or systematic solicitation of a consumer market in the state." N.D.Cent.Code § 57-40.2-01(6). Per that statute, Quill's activities were sufficient to meet the state's definition of "regular or systematic solicitation". North Dakota's Tax Commissioner filed suit against Quill to remit taxes, interest and penalties on all sales made after July 1, 1987. The North Dakota Supreme Court ruled in the state's favor, 470 N.W. 2 d 203 (1991). It justified ignoring the US Supreme Court precedent of Bellas Hess based on a number of factors. First, it referred to "wholesale changes" in the economy, stating that the mail order business had grown "from a relatively inconsequential market niche" in 1967 to a "goliath" decades later. Second, it noted that advances in computer technology greatly eased the burden of compliance. Quill Corp. v. North Dakota, 504 US 298 (1992).

Although the Quill court invalidated the North Dakota statute, its holding differed from Bellas Hess in one salient aspect. Bellas Hess had ruled that the Illinois statute violated both the Due Process and Commerce Clauses. But Quill distinguished the nexus requirements for the Due Process and Commerce Clauses, and concluded that the North Dakota statute did not violate the former.

"Our due process jurisprudence has evolved substantially in the 25 years since Bellas Hess... In this case, there is no question that Quill has purposefully directed its activities at North Dakota residents, that the magnitude of those contacts are more than sufficient for due process purposes, and that the use tax is related to the benefits Quill receives from access to the state. We therefore agree with the North Dakota Supreme Court that the Due Process Clause does not bar enforcement of that State's use tax against Quill." <u>Quill Corp. v. North Dakota</u>, 504 US 298 (1992)

With regard to the Commerce Clause, the Quill court justified continuation the "bright line" rule of Bellas Hess, in part for purposes of clarity for taxpayers. But it also made clear that it welcomed legislation to that end.

"Bellas Hess... created a safe harbor for vendors 'whose only connection with customers in the [taxing] State is by common carrier or the United States mail.' Under Bellas Hess, such vendors are free from state imposed duties to collect sales and use taxes....Like other bright line tests, the Bellas Hess rule appears artificial at its edges... This artificiality, however, is more than offset by the benefits of a clear rule... the underlying issue is not only one that Congress may be better qualified to resolve, but also one that Congress has the power to resolve."

In February 1994, Senator Dale Bumpers of Arkansas (R) introduced the "Tax Fairness for Main Street Business Act of 1994" (S. 1825, 103d Cong., 2d Sess. (1994)). The bill would have required retailers to collect state taxes but contained a number of measures to ensure that collection and remission of local taxes would be reasonably commercially manageable. The bill failed.

In 1999, Senator Ernest Hollings attempted to introduce a bill imposing a five percent national sales tax on Internet sales (S. 1433, 106th Cong. (1999)). The bill never made it out of committee. (Menhart, 2007)

STREAMLINED SALES AND USE TAX AGREEMENT

In 1999, the National Governor's Association and the National Conference of State Legislatures created the Streamlined Sales and Use Tax (SSUT) project. The SSUT website states "This agreement is the result of a cooperative effort of 44 states, the District of Columbia, local governments and the business community to simplify sales and use tax collection and administration by retailers and states. The agreement minimizes costs and administrative burdens on retailers that collect sales tax, particularly retailers operating in multiple states." At present twenty-four states have passed legislation conforming to the agreement. In nine other states such legislation is pending. (Streamlined Sales Tax Governing Board, 2011). According to the National Conference of State Legislatures, Colorado is the only state that is not working toward compliance with the agreement. (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2011).

The Quill decision suggests that the Commerce Clause (avoiding an undue burden on taxpayers to comply with the law) is the sole remaining barrier for requiring remote vendors to collect and remit use taxes, and the SSUT provides the solutions to those concerns.

SSUT has certified software sales and use tax packages from six different vendors (there will be more in the future) for the use of sellers who which wish to participate. These are essentially "turnkey" packages which will automatically calculate all state and local taxes, incorporating entity and item-based exemptions, and take care of tax returns and remittances (once approved by the merchant). The packages are self updating with regard to legal changes. Overall, they operate seamlessly and invisibly. The states will pay the cost of this software for any remote seller (those lacking a physical presence within the state). As an additional incentive, the use of one of these packages will immunize a seller from audit liability with regard to any sales processed through it. (Streamlined Sales Tax Governing Board, 2011, 2011a)

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The Director of the Minnesota Department of Revenue wasted no words: "Tax avoidance is why [Internet sellers] are in business" (Smith, 2005). A remote vendor who is not required to collect and remit use

taxes enjoys a substantial competitive advantage over local brick and mortar merchants. In light of the SSUT, remote sellers are now able to administer use taxes with ease. The audit immunity offered by registering with SSUT and using the free software pretty much eliminates any reasonable assertion that use tax collection and submission is burdensome. We do not rely on local purchasers to voluntarily comply with sales tax laws but require merchants to collect and remit such taxes. There is no longer any compelling reason that remote purchasers and sellers should be treated any differently.

A larger policy question is whether states seeking to increase revenues should be looking toward general sales and use taxes at all. Such taxes are naturally regressive.

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IP V 6: THE NEXT INTERNET PROTOCOL

Sara Linton, Roosevelt University

ABSTRACT

The present Internet Protocol, IP v 4, was designed decades ago to be used primarily for email and file transfers by a small consortium of research universities. No one imagined the explosion of use once that would occur once the world wide web was introduced. In 1994 the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) realized we would eventually run out of ip addresses and commissioned the ALE (Address Lifetime Expectation) working group to find an appropriate solution. On August 10, 1998, IP v 6 became the IETF draft standard for the new internet protocol. While the expanded address capability is clearly the most salient feature of IP v 6, the drafters took the opportunity to address other concerns (the workload on routers and support for mobility, among others). This paper addresses the mechanics of the new system, along with the improvements over IP v 4 facilitated by IP v 6.

JEL: O3

KEYWORDS: Internet

INTRODUCTION

The present Internet Protocol, IP v 4, was designed decades ago for an internetwork that is nothing at all like today's internet. The original internet was a small consortium of research universities (the first addressing scheme provided for only 255 networks, which at the time was felt to be more than sufficient for future expansion) and it was used primarily for email and file transfers.

However, sea changes in technology and society have transformed the internet into a truly public network of millions of commercial and individual users who not only send email and files but share information and conduct business. It is nothing short of amazing that we have managed to "patch" up the original addressing schemes and other features so that they could stand up to the demands of today's traffic. However, even those fixes have a limited lifespan. In 1994 the IETF realized that it was no longer an issue of whether we would run out of addresses using the 32 bit scheme of today's IP v 4. Rather, though its IPng (Internet Protocol Next Generation) area, commissioned the ALE (Address Lifetime Expectation) working group to study whether there would be time to create a new, improved internet protocol or, in the alternative, merely make a "fast track" to an extended address space while continuing with IP v 4.

At this time a number of teams worked on developing a new internet protocol. Among them were CNAT, IP Encaps, Nimrod, PIP, SIP, and TP/IX. These were eventually consolidated into TUBA (TCP and UDP with Bigger Addresses), SIPP (Simple Internet Protocol Plus), and CATNIP (Communication Architecture fore the Intenet – essentially TP/IX with a changed name). And on August 10, 1998, IP v 6 became the IETF draft standard for the new internet protocol (Hagen, 2002).

Given the extraordinary creativity with which the lifetime of IP v 4 has been extended, it seems intuitive that without the address space problem, we would probably continue using it indefinitely. But that problem will not go away, and as technology changes will grow in the future.

While the expanded address capability is clearly the most salient feature of IP v 6, the drafters took the opportunity to address other concerns (the workload on routers and support for mobility, among others). These will be addressed as well.

THE ADDRESS SPACE ISSUE

The 128 bit address size proposed by IP v 6 would theoretically facilitate the existence of 2^{128} , or 340,282,366,920,938,000,000,000,000,000,000,000 addresses. To put this in proper perspective: the US census bureau has projected that the world's population will reach 7.5 billion in 2020 (Rosengrant, Paisner, Meijer, and Witcover (2001). That would mean that in 2020, IP v 6 would provide 43,370,982,256,125,100,000,000,000 (over 43 billion billion billion) addresses for every man, woman and child on the planet.

At first glance that might sound like extraordinary overkill. However, a review of the internet's history reveals that time after time, those involved with planning for its future have consistently underestimated its growth. A significant portion of this unexpected growth came from unforeseen advances in technology. Aggravating the problem is the fact that errors have been made in the manner of allocating addresses. Let us proceed by looking back on what has occurred up to now.

When ARAPNET was launched, computers were large, expensive and scarce. Planners expected at most that there would be a few dozen hosts and therefore used an eight bit address, permitting up to 255 locations, each of which would accommodate a huge number of hosts (about 16 million each). Soon, though, the demand for a greater number of networks of different sizes emerged. The decision was altered to permit 128 "Class A" networks (each supporting over 16 million nodes), 16,384 "Class B" networks (with over 65,000 nodes each) and about 4 million relatively small "Class C" networks (each capable of handling only 255 nodes) (Klensin, 2002).

Unfortunately, the class C networks were insufficient to meet the needs of many organizations who instead sought class B licenses. However, those were so large that much of their capacity was wasted. In the early 1980's, the adoption of subnetting, which permitted larger networks to be subdivided, provided some relief to this problem.

Two major technological developments meant huge changes in the demand for IP addresses. The first was the introduction of the personal computer. Previously, the organization model consisted of a small number of large computers (having IP addresses) with individual workers accessing these computers through "dumb" terminals using a different protocol. In this new vision, each worker had a computer of his or her own requiring an IP address (Klensin, 2002). The second was the explosion of demand for Internet services fueled by the combination of the world wide web, the ever increasing performance of personal computers at ever declining costs, and the increase in availability, affordability and speed of dial-up (and later broadband) access to Internet Service.

Engineers developed several techniques to cope with the increased demand. The need for more IP addresses for workstations to be "connected" was quelled by the adoption of private address space and Net Address Translation technology. And dial-up service providers used dynamic address assignment, which permitted them to provide access to more subscribers than they had addresses.

The most recent change to the improve efficient use of the current 32 bit address scheme of IP v 4 was replacement of the old "Classful" addressing with "CIDR" (Classless Inter-Domain Routing). In essence, CIDR replaced the old system (in which a network prefix could only be represented by some factor of a full octet of numbers – 8 (Class "A"), 16 (Class "B"), or 24 (Class "C") with a system in which partial octets could be used.

Another reason for the shortage of addresses in IP v 4 was that many unused addresses are held by organizations which obtained Class "A" and "B" licenses early on. They are reluctant to return those addresses for reassignment because doing so would necessitate the not inconsiderable cost of

renumbering their hosts. In fact, so far only one class "A" licensee, Stanford University, has returned any addresses (Klensin, 2002).

It is worth noting that the IP v 6 Address Allocation and Assignment Policy (dated June 26, 2002) states in section 4.1

It is contrary to the goals of this document and not in the interests of the Internet Community as a whole for address space to be considered as freehold property. The policies in this document are based upon the understanding that globally based IP v 6 unicast address space is licensed for use rather than owned. Specifically, addresses will be allocated and assigned on a license basis, with licenses subject to renewal on a periodic basis (Asia Pacific Network Information Center, 2002).

Consider also that 74% of IP v 4 address space is held by licensees in the United States. One entity alone, Genuity, holds three Class "A" licenses representing more than 48 million addresses. That is more than twice the total number of addresses (approximately 20 million) held by the entire country of China (Hagen, 2002a).

In all likelihood, the growth in demand for IP addresses will continue to accelerate. It is not unreasonable to expect that applications which are presently inconceivable will exist in the future. For example, vehicle based or "wearable" hardware of various descriptions are being developed (Ebina, Owada, Ohinata, Adachi and Fukushima , 2001) and in the near future there may be a ratio of even hundreds of devices per person . Maintaining contact for such machines requires implementation of a "roaming" protocol (similar in concept to that used by cellular telephones, which can be seamlessly handed off from one tower to another). It is possible to implement this in IP v 4, but the details still need to be worked out. In contrast, IP v 6 was designed with such support in mind and is ready to work with such mobile devices "out of the box".

THE MECHANICS OF IP V6: THE ADDRESS

IP v 6 addresses are 128 bits long. Generally they are divided into 8 groups of 16 bits each (written as four hexadecimal digits) divided by colons. For example: *FEDC:0000:0000:0076:0000:1234:5678:9ABC*

There are several techniques to shorten this. First, within an four digit hex group, leading zeros may be dropped. So the above becomes: *FEDC*:0:0:76:0:1234:5678:9ABC

Addresses may be further shortened in cases where a four digit hex group is composed of all zeros. Any number of continuous groups of all zeros may be dropped and replaced with one double colon (::), subject to the constraint that this can be done only once in any given address. When seeking to read a shortened address, the portions to the left and right of the double colons are aligned with the "ends" and the area represented by the double colon is filled in with as many groups of zeros as are necessary to complete the 128 bit length. So, our number above may be shortened to either: FEDC::76:0:1234:5678:9ABC

or EEDC.0.0.7(...1234.5(79.)

FEDC:0:0:76::1234:5678:9ABC

In the first case, the double colon stands for two groups of all zeros, while in the latter it stands for only one. Note that using this type of shorthand twice in the same address provides a contraction which <u>cannot</u> be accurately expanded. Consider

FEDC::76::1234:5678:9ABC

We have two sets of double colons, and the fact that there are five remaining quartets tell us that a total of three all zero quartets have been removed. But which of the two double colons is to be replaced with one quartet and which with two? It cannot be determined.

Let us examine the Global Unicast Address (which is comparable to today's IP v 4 address). Of the 128 bits in the address, the first 64 allow for a multi-tiered hierarchy. The first 48 are assigned by the provider. In order, they include (1) a three bit formal prefix, (2) 13 bits for a top level aggregation ID (assigned by the IANA), (3) 8 bits which are reserved, and (4) 24 bits for a next level aggregation ID (assigned by the ISP). The next 16 bits are a "site level ID" which can be used by the licensee for as many as 65,536 subnets. The last 64 are reserved for host identifiers ("interface ID" is the official name). In the case of an Ethernet network (the most common), the interface ID is the "EUI64" address, which is generated by inserting "ffee" in the middle of the 48 bit MAC address. Thus, a MAC of 01:23:45:67:89:AB generates an EUI64 address of 01:23:45:FF:FE:67:89:AB.

IMPROVEMENTS OVER IP V4

We have already discussed the expanded addressing capability of IP v 6 which will make a change in protocol necessary. Beyond that, there are a number of other improvements. These may be summarized into three categories. First, there are those which are aimed at increasing the efficiency of routing. This goal was achieved by making significant changes to the nature of the header in IP v 6. Second, IP v 6 was designed with built in support for IP Sec. However, since IP Sec has already been "retrofitted" to work, and is currently being used within IP v 4, it does not really represent a feature of the new protocol. Because of this and the space limitations of this piece, we will not address it further. Third, with an eye toward the obvious trend of more and more mobile hosts, IP v 6 was designed to offer better and more efficient support for mobile computing.

The most sweeping and significant changes are in the organization of the header, which affects the amount of work done by the routers. The IP v 4 header contains 13 fields and is of variable length. Not all of the fields were relevant for every message, but the routers needed to read and process them nevertheless. In comparison, the IP v 6 header contains only 8 fields and is always 20 bytes long. Some of the information contained in the "optional" fields has been moved from the main header to the newly created "extension headers." Extension headers are considered part of the payload in IP v 6 and therefore an en router will not waste time reading them, unless it is specifically flagged to do so (by the presence of the "Hop by Hop" and "Routing" extension headers, discussed later.

The first and most obvious change is the simple elimination of the checksum from the header. Since TCP and UDP calculate header checksums, this field was deemed unnecessary. For those who wish to use them, there are new extension headers for authentication and encryption.

Another clear advantage to the new system is the elimination of the need for routers to calculate the size of the payload. IP v 4 headers contain fields for Header Length and Datagram length, and each router encountering the packet needed to subtract the former from the latter. But in IP v 6, since all headers are 20 bytes long, there is no need for a Header Length field. It and the Datagram Length field have been replaced by a Payload length field.

Two more "optional" fields – "Flags" and "Fragment Offset" – are eliminated in the header of the new protocol. These fields are only relevant if the message is fragmented. The flag field indicates whether there are more fragments remaining, while the fragment offset field tells the destination host where the specific payload of that datagram should be placed in the sequence when the fragments are reassembled. If the entire message were contained in one datagram these fields were wasted.

IP v 6 moves the Fragment Offset and Flag fields to the "Fragment" extension header. If the message is not fragmented, the extension header is not used. This works because of another change in the IP v 6 protocol. Under the present system, en route routers will (unless otherwise instructed) further fragment messages to fit within the MTU limits of the next hop. Under IP v 6, fragmentation occurs only once, at the origin. This is another way in which the new protocol reduces work on en route routers.

The "Hop by Hop" header implies the existence of an accompanying "Routing" header. These are the two extension headers which must be read and processed when encountered by a router other than the destination router. If these headers are not present, the job of the router is easier. It need only read the main header and immediately forward the packet toward its destination using its programmed algorithm. However, the sender may use these extension headers to specify that certain routers are to be visited along the way, in a certain sequence. Intermediate routers need to read and process the information, to update the "segments left" field of the Routing header appropriately, and to dispatch the packet towards the next designated stop. Both header extensions provide for a variable length field for additional options and information. Perhaps future applications will realize great utility by being able to specify paths.

Some changes in the header do not have any effect on efficiency. For example, IP v 4's "Type of Service" field is rarely used (perhaps because no one knows exactly what to do with it). It has been changed to "Traffic Class" in IP v 6, but so far there have been no definite determinations of how this parameter might be used. The "Time to Live" field in I P v 4 was supposed to represent the number of seconds a packet should remain in the system. Ostensibly, it was to reflect the amount of time since a message entered the internet, but in practice most routers merely decremented the TTL field by one second. In I P v 6 Time To Live has been replaced by "Hop Limit" which, if nothing else, is a more honest representation of reality. It also removes any need to find an accurate way to measure the elapsed time of a packet's journey. Since the Hop Limit field is one byte long, the de facto maximum will be 255 hops.

SUPPORT FOR MOBILE COMPUTING

Part of the anticipated explosion in the number of internet hosts is an expected proliferation of mobile devices. Whether these are "traditional" hand held or carried devices, "worn" devices or devices embedded in vehicles, it is a near certainty that the internet of the future must support efficient roaming. A mobile internet protocol has been developed which can operate on IP v 4 as well as IP v 6. However, IP v 6 supports mobile computing with less network overhead.

The basic setup of mobile IP is the same for both versions 4 and 6. A mobile node has two IP addresses: the home address (which is static) and the "care of" address (which fluctuates as the device roams and attaches to different networks). A "Home Agent" collects packets and forwards them to the care of address when it knows the device is roaming. In order for this to work, each time the node enters a new network it must register the care of address along with a "registration lifetime" with the home agent. This registration is known as "binding".

Beyond this, the advantages of the newer protocol become clear. First, in IP v 4, all forwarded packets must go through a "Foreign Agent" (this is known as "triangular routing"). The Foreign Agent is eliminated in IP v 6. Second, under IP v 6, packets sent from the mobile node show the care of address as

the source, while the home address is contained in the Destination Options header. In IP v 4, this information is sent in separate packets. A third advantage lies in the manner of detecting the home agent. In IP v 4, the roaming node broadcasts to the home network and gets responses from all home agents. In IP v 6, mobile IP uses the new anycast feature to detect the home agent, which generates only one response (thus reducing unnecessary traffic).

CONCLUSION

While computer engineers have done an admirable job in adapting the original IP v 4 protocol to meet the increased and varied demands of the present, it is clear that there is a limit to what can be done. It is unlikely that IP v 4 can be "patched" sufficiently to meet the demands of the future.

The designers of IP v 6 have attempted to prepare for expansion far beyond what might be foreseeable today. In doing so, they may well have produced a protocol which will survive for decades.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Sara Linton is the Specthrie Assistant Professor of Accounting at Roosevelt University. She can be contacted at: Roosevelt University, Walter E. Heller College of Business Administration, 1400 N. Roosevelt Blvd., Schaumburg, IL 60173. US. Email: slinton@roosevelt.edu

CUSTOMER LOYALTY: A COMPARISON STUDY OF RETAIL STORES

Mei-Lien Li, Lynn University Boca Raton, Florida Robert D. Green, Lynn University Boca Raton, Florida Farideh A. Farazmand, Lynn University Boca Raton, Florida Erika Grodzki, Lynn University Boca Raton, Florida

ABSTRACT

This study compares shoppers at three types of retail stores as to their perceptions of marketing strategy, customer value and relationship quality on customer loyalty (word-of-mouth communication, price insensitivity, purchase intentions). Seven independent variables had significant differences between the three stores. For customer loyalty, the hypermarket shoppers had significantly higher word-of-mouth communications than the convenience and department stores. On the other hand, the convenience store shoppers had significantly higher purchase intentions than the hypermarket customers. The study has specific limitations but offers future research opportunities.

INTRODUCTION

Loyalty is linked to the success and profitability of a firm (Eakuru and Mat, 2008). Customer loyalty provides a foundation to examine the relationship between customer relationship activities, value creation programs and marketing strategies (Reichheld and Teal, 1996). Relationship quality reduces buyers' uncertainty and strengthens the relationship between customers and the firm. This includes (1) customer satisfaction, (2) trust and (3) commitment (Caceres and Paparoidamis, 2007). Customer satisfaction is an important driver to customer loyalty and to the success of businesses (Oliver, 1997). Studies have found positive evidence showing the direct relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty (repeat purchase) as being less price sensitivity, having cross-buying behavior and increasing profit (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder, 2002; Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008; Oliver, 1997).

However, several studies show that satisfied customers do defect (Dimitriades, 2006; Jones, 1996; Woodruff, 1997), and some customers say they are satisfied, but they still purchase elsewhere (Jones, 1996). Customer satisfaction defection is attributed to two factors. First, firms do not deliver enough or the appropriate value to satisfy customers' needs or wants (Roig, Garcia, Tena and Monzonis, 2006). Thus, customer satisfaction measurement without fulfillment of customer perceived value (customer needs and wants) cannot really meet the customer's expectations (Woodruff, 1997). Second, customers can feel a great deal of uncertainty concerning their relationships with firms. Trust and commitment are two critical factors that enable customers to overcome uncertainty and strengthen their relationship with the firm (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), and in turn, these lead to customer loyalty.

Marketing, as a purpose, is to deliver more value to satisfy customers as well as to build a long-term and mutually profitability relationship with a customer (Kotler, 2005). Lemon, Rust and Zeithaml state that, "value is the keystone of the customer's relationship with the firm" (2001, p. 22). Value is delivered from three key factors: (1) quality, (2) price and (3) convenience (Lemon et al., 2001). Quality is viewed as goods and services quality. Price is the monetary sacrifice. Convenience (non-monetary sacrifice) relates to all the benefits customers received, such as time saved and effort to do business with the firm (Lemon et al., 2001). Marketing strategies (product, price, place, promotion) create customer perceived value (quality, sacrifice) (Kotler, 2005; Lemon et al., 2001).

The purpose of this research is to advance the understanding of customer loyalty by comparing consumer perception of marketing strategy (product, price, place, promotion), customer value (quality, sacrifice) and relationship quality (customer satisfaction, trust, commitment). Therefore, what are the differences between retail shoppers' perceptions of marketing strategy, perceived value and relationship quality to customer loyalty?

STUDY FRAMEWORK

Viewing loyalty as an attitude-behavior relationship allows integrated investigation of antecedents of customer loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994). Studies measure customer loyalty by the behavioral dimensions of word-of-mouth communication, purchase intentions and price insensitivity (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder, 2002; Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008). Attitudinal components such as perceived value, satisfaction, trust and commitment are the antecedents of customer loyalty (Donio, Massari and Passiante, 2006; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, and Gremler, 2002; Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008; Liang and Wang, 2004; Wulf, et al., 2001).

Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder (2002) examine causal relationships between the marketing mix elements (store image, customer relationship proneness, positive affect), store satisfaction, trust, commitment and customer loyalty (word-of-mouth communication, price insensitivity, purchase intentions) in Belgium mid-sized supermarket stores. The results show that (1) store image, consumer relationship proneness and positive affect have a significant effect on customer satisfaction; (2) trust and commitment play an important mediating role between satisfaction and customer loyalty; and (3) commitment has the strongest impact on customer loyalty. The authors recommended future studies measure the marketing mix elements as product, price, place and promotion, rather than store image, customer relationship proneness and positive affect.

Furthermore, studies show that customer perceived value directly influences customer satisfaction (Moliner, Sanchez, Rodriguez and Callarisa, 2006) and customer loyalty (Dagger, Sweeney and Johnson, 2007). Perceived value has either a direct impact on trust (Kim, Zhao and Yang, 2008) or an indirect impact on trust through customer satisfaction (Moliner et al., 2006). Value also has an indirect impact on commitment through trust (Kim et al., 2008) or through customer satisfaction (Moliner et al., 2007), and is a mediator between marketing mix elements and customer behavioral intentions (Dagger et al., 2007; Yoo, Donthu and Lee, 2000). Moreover, there is a relationships between marketing mix elements and total brand equity through the mediating role of three brand equity dimensions (perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand associations combined with brand awareness) (Yoo et al., 2000). Yoo et al. (2000) found four specific results. First, no direct path is between marketing mix variables and total brand equity but is indirectly affected through the mediating brand equity dimensions of perceived quality. Second, frequent price promotions, such as price deals, have a negative relationship to brand equity. Third, customers perceive high quality products from high advertising spending, high price, good store image and high intensive distribution. Lastly, lowering price decreases customer perceived quality. For example, consumers may perceive that a lower price is a result of reducing quality to maintain profit margins.

Moreover, researchers state that value is a tradeoff between benefits (quality) received and sacrifices made (Cronin et al., 2000; Moliner et al., 2007). Besides receiving benefits of quality, monetary and nonmonetary sacrifices are customer value measures. Cronin et al. (2000) conduct a study to examine the effects of service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intention. Three items measure customer perceived value, (1) the price charged to use this facility, (2) the time required to use the facility and (3) the effort that the customer must make to receive the services. The results indicate that there is not a significant relationship between sacrifice and perceived value. However, the value is primarily received from perceptions of quality. That is, consumers view quality of greater importance than the sacrifices they make. Therefore, prior customer loyalty studies have examined the relationship between marketing strategy, satisfaction, trust and commitment (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder, 2002; Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008; Liang and Wang, 2004). Other studies have found relationships between perceived value and satisfaction (Moliner et al., 2006), trust and commitment (Kim et al., 2008). This study extends the literature by comparing retailer shoppers' perceptions of marketing strategy (price, store image, distribution intensity, advertising spending, price deals), customer perceived value, relationship quality (satisfaction, trust, commitment) on customer loyalty (word-of-mouth communication, price insensitivity, purchase intentions).

DATA, METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Three retail stores – 7-Eleven (convenience), Hanshin (department), Carrefour (hypermarket) – in Kaohsiung, the second largest city and in the south region of Taiwan, were the study setting. The sampling frame was quota in that there were an equal number (unweighted) of participants from each store, or 100 respondents for each retailer for a total of 300 participants. The sampling scheme had a balance of participants during the day, e.g., morning, afternoon and evening, and for the 24-hour convenience stores, there were late night shoppers (after 12:00AM) included. Furthermore, this is a proportionate sample of weekday and weekend shoppers for each retailer.

Respondents completed a four-part, 56-item questionnaire. First, the questionnaire included a researcher developed 12-question shopper demographic information and shopping characteristics section. Second, a 15-item retail marketing mix instrument developed by Yoo, et al. (2000) was the measure for marketing strategy. The retail marketing mix elements (price, advertising spending, price deals, store image and distribution intensity) were adapted and had three items for each marketing mix element with a 9-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 9 = Strongly Agree). Third, nine items were adapted and measured perceived value, 6 items for perceived quality and 3 for sacrifice. A 6-item perceived quality instrument developed by Yoo, et al. (2000) was used for one measure of perceived value.

The other measure of perceived value was sacrifice, and had 3 items from a questionnaire developed by Cronin et al. (2000). Perceived quality and sacrifice were measured by a 9-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 9 = Strongly Agree). Four, 20 items were adapted and measured relationship quality (11 items) and customer loyalty (9 items). Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder (2002) developed the instrument. Relationship quality included customer satisfaction (5 items), trust (3 items) and commitment (3 items). Customer loyalty included word-of-mouth communications (3 items), price insensitivity (2 items) and purchase intentions (4 items), the dependent variables. Relationship quality and customer loyalty were measured by a 9-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 9 = Strongly Agree).

As a comparative study, this research design examines the relationship of marketing strategy, customer perceived value, relationship quality to customer loyalty. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the three retail stores (7-Eleven, Hanshin, Carrefour) were performed that include significantly difference criterion ($p \le 0.05$) to determine the comparative stores' customer loyalty. The sample (N=300) and each of the three sample subsets (n=100 for each store) exceed the 50 respondent group minimum for mean comparison analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006).

To find significant differences (p < 0.05) between convenience (7-Eleven), department (Hanshin) and hypermarket (Carrefour) stores, analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post hoc tests (Scheffé method) was completed for the independent variables – marketing strategy, perceived value, relationship quality with seven variables having significant differences (see Table 1, Panel A). First, Carrefour had better prices than the other two stores. Second, 7-Eleven had greater advertising spending than the other two stores.

Variables	7-Eleven Stores	Hanshin Stores	Carrefour Stores
Marketing Strategy			
Price	5.5567*	4.7000*	5.5733*
Advertising Spending	6.8633*	5.9533*	5.4933*
Price Deals	4.4900*	5.1300*	4.2800*
Distribution Intensity	6.2650	5.7950*	6.3400*
Store Image	5.7000*	5.0667*	6.8967*
Perceived Value	5.3838*	5.0425*	5.9150*
Relationship Quality			
Satisfaction	5.8360	5.6360	5.5940
Trust	6.2967*	5.5367*	6.0267*
Commitment	3.6467	3.7933	3.7267
Panel B: Dependent Variables	-		
Variables	7-Eleven Stores	Hanshin Stores	Carrefour Stores
Customer Loyalty			
Word-of-Mouth Communications	5.1133*	4.5467*	5.2467*
Price Insensitivity	4.2200	3.6100	3.9100
Purchase Intentions	5.1350*	4.4600	4.7100*

Table 1: Retail Stores' Group Comparisons for Independent and Dependent Variables

Note: * *indicates significances of* ≤ 0.05

Third, 7-Eleven and Hanshin had significantly better price deals than Carrefour. Fourth, Carrefour had much higher distribution than Hanshin. Fifth, while Carrefour had a better store image than 7-Eleven and Hanshin, 7-Eleven had a better store image than Hanshin. Sixth, Carrefour had greater perceived value than 7-Eleven and Hanshin stores. Furthermore, 7-Eleven had higher perceived value than Hanshin. Seventh, while 7-Eleven had higher customer trust than Carrefour, Carrefour had significantly higher trust than Hanshin. For the three dependent customer loyalty variables – word-of-mouth communications, price insensitivity, purchase intentions, two were significant for the three retail stores (see Table 1, Panel B). First, Carrefour had greater word-of-mouth communications than 7-Eleven and Hanshin. Second, 7-Eleven customers indicated significantly higher purchase intentions than Carrefour customers.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study is to advance the understanding of customer loyalty by examining and empirically testing consumer perception of marketing strategy (product, price, place, promotion), customer value (quality, sacrifice) and relationship quality (customer satisfaction, trust, commitment). Data were collected from 300 Taiwanese shoppers at three different types of retail stores – convenience (7-Eleven), department (Hanshin) and hypermarket (Carrefour). From the comparative (ANOVA) results, significant differences were found between convenience, department and hypermarket stores' customer loyalty. In comparison, Carrefour (hypermarket) had significantly higher word-of-mouth communications than 7-Eleven and Hanshin (department) stores. On the other hand, 7-Eleven shoppers had significantly higher purchase intentions than Carrefour customers.

While this research has found specific relationships between shoppers' characteristics and behaviors, marketing strategy, perceived value and relationship quality to customer loyalty, the results have limitations. The sample was in one country, in one city and cannot be generalized. Moreover, only one convenience, department and hypermarket retailer was included in the study. However, this does provide a basis and the opportunity to further an understanding of retail store customer loyalty. For example, future research should be completed in other Asian countries or in other global regions. Convenience, department and hypermarket competitors should be included to determine if the results from this study is unique (different) or consistent (same) with other same retail store types. These opportunities would advance customer loyalty knowledge and provide marketing managers the strategy to retain customers and to build customer loyalty.

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BIOGRAFIA

Mei-Lien Li, PhD Candidate College of Business and Management Lynn University, 3601 North Military Trail, Boca Raton, Florida 33431 USA Telephone: 561/237-7812, Fax: 561/237-7014, E-mail: mli@email.lynn.edu

Robert D. Green, DBA* Professor of Marketing, College of Business and Management Lynn University, 3601 North Military Trail, Boca Raton, Florida 33431 USA Telephone: 561/237-7812, Fax: 561/237-7014, E-mail: rgreen@lynn.edu

Farideh A. Farazmand, PhD Professor of International Business, College of Business and Management Lynn University, 3601 North Military Trail, Boca Raton, Florida 33431 USA Telephone: 561/237-7847, Fax: 561/237-7014, E-mail: ffarazmand@lynn.edu

Erika Grodzki, PhD Associate Professor of Advertising and Public Relations, College of International Communications Lynn University, 3601 North Military Trail, Boca Raton, Florida 33431 USA Telephone: 561/237-7348, Fax: 561/237-7097, E-mail: egrodzki@lynn.edu

ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP A CODE OF MULTIPLE COLORS: THE RISING OF FEMALE LEADERS

Mahmoud A. Elgamal, Kuwait University

ABSTRACT

The issue of the basic differences between male and female managers has been debatable for a long time. The traditional gender role stereotypes indicate that males are masculine, that is self – reliant, aggressive, competitive and decisive. females are feminine, that is sympathetic, gentle, shy, and sensitive to the needs of others. However the critical issue is to what extent are these differences manifested by male and female managers.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of the basic differences between male and female managers has been debatable for a long time. The traditional gender role stereotypes indicate that males are masculine, that is self – reliant, aggressive, competitive and decisive. females are feminine, that is sympathetic, gentle, shy, and sensitive to the needs of others. However the critical issue is to what extent are these differences manifested by male and female managers. Three distinct perspectives emerged (Powell, 1990):

1- No difference. The feminine stereotype is rejected by the females who pursue managerial career. Thus females mangers have the needs, values and leadership styles that are similar to males who pursue the same career.

2- Stereotypical differences. Female and male managers differ in ways that are consistent with the stereotypes. Thus life experience and traditions reinforce masculinity in males and femininity in females.
 3- Non-stereotypical differences. Female and male managers differ in ways that are not consistent with the stereotypes. Thus female managers my enact managerial styles that are unique, in the sense that they include masculine and feminine stereotypes.

But it seems that there a lot of evidence that indicate that the third perspective is a more accurate presentation of reality (Eagly and Carli,2003; Eagly and Karau,2002;Eagly and Johnson,1990; Erkurt,2009; Grant, 1988;Gupton and Slick,1966;Heglesen,1990; Kotiranta and associates,2007).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The year 2000 witnessed joint study by the change foundation and the center for research on woman at Wellesley College (Erkut, 2009). This study thought to learn from the experiences of successful female leaders , in order to help other females rise to the top leadership positions. The study included 60 eminent and prominent female leaders, The interviewed leaders were elected politicians, college presidents , independent authors and scientists , university professors , leaders in industry, medicine ,law and other professions. The study results indicated that the leaders achieved prominence by leading in a variety of ways, depending on their work environment context. Their leadership styles reflect the differences in racial and ethnic backgrounds, career paths, and their fields among other things. This study showed that the general characteristics of female leaders were as follows: they were tenacious, paid little attention to obstacles in their work life, optimistic and have a sense of mission that propelled their actions . The female leaders in the current study adopted a general Philosophy that says "know and value yourself and let others know". They capitalized on their strengths and emphasized the need to be assertive in gaining visibility.

Some of the leaders identified a framework for understanding the roots and practices of leadership as emerging from mothering (Erkut, 2009).

The mothering metaphor serves as a foundation for training and for describing leadership behavior

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study has two research questions as follows:

1-What empirical evidence for the rise of the female leaders in the Arab World?2-What is the assessment of the success strategies adopted by female leaders in the Arab World?

Method

Measures: The data were collected in two phases: A set of questionnaires was administered to a sample of 101 successful Arab female leaders and in depth interviews were carried out with one third of the sample. The

questionnaire items(five point Likert type scale) and interview guidelines were borrowed from Gupton and Slick (1996), slightly adapted and translated into Arabic and French.

Sample: A sample of 101 females was used and they occupied high ranking positions in their organizations. They were Kuwaiti, Tunisian and Egyptian nationals who were working in their native countries and were regarded in their communities as "successful leaders".

RESULTS

It is important to indicate that the results reported in this current study is based on the whole sample of 101 female leaders. Some differences were found with respect to the issues in hand among the three Arab countries, Kuwait, Egypt and Tunisia. However the difference were judged not to affect the findings and conclusions presented in this study, since the main objective of it is to present the general view in The Arab world.

An Assessment Of The General Situation Of Female Arab Leaders

The factor analysis of the general situation facing female leaders (26 items in the questionnaire) produced nine clean factors. The findings reported below include the findings with respect to only two factors, that are more relevant to the current study; namely human orientation and task orientation. The descriptive statistics of the items of each of the two factors indicate a strong orientation for both human and task orientations. Five out of the six items considered are equal to or more than 4 points on a five points Likert type scale.

Comparing the Leadership Characteristics of Female and Male Leaders

The female leaders were asked to compare between female and male leaders along a number of leadership characteristics. The results of the self-reported perceptions of female leaders indicate superiority in all leadership characteristics except motivated by power. That is female leaders perceive themselves to be more cooperative, care more about family, care more about job, more in control but human oriented, more careful in selecting words, more competitive, more aggressive and cares more about human relations. Although the self-reported perception does not constitute a strong evidence. It is however an indication of the very positive mood of thinking and the spirit among the female leaders.

Success Strategies Adopted by Female Leaders

The data collected from the interviews showed that the Arab Female leaders adopted a wide range of varied success strategies. These strategies included the following domains: Self-development and reading, training programs, Effective communication skills, Work commitment, Decision making skills, Team work skills and Honesty and self-confidence.

DISCUSSION

The reported superiority of female leaders in some studies (ex. Kotiranta, Kovalainen and Rouvinen ,2007) has potentially multiple explanations. The first :female may be better leaders than males . The second :it is more likely that due to the more thorough selection process, female leaders constitute a more exclusive and thus more competent group than their male peers. The third: The female leaders phenomenon may be associated with overall cultural diversity and good governance and management practices.

The empirical results indicate that rising of the Arab female leaders can happen, because of the confidence and the positive attitudes these leaders have about themselves. The Arab female leaders reported superiority not only in feminine characteristics, but as well in masculine characteristics; and reported superiority not only in human orientation but also in power orientation. In addition it seems that they adopted well selected and wide range of success strategies.

The major limitations of the current study include using perceptual data and relying on self-reported perceptions. It is not unlikely that female were not objective in their evaluations of their leadership characteristic.

It is extremely important to point out that the reported superiority of female leaders in some studies, does not lead us to suggest replacing male leaders by female leaders. Rather it dos suggest that organizations as well as scholars should focus on understanding the numerous mechanisms and practices and networks that favor male and hinder females from getting to the top of the organization hierarchy. In addition organizations should strive to take full advantage of the unique leadership styles that females are able to enact.

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To be furnished upon request revised

BIOGRAPHY

Mahmoud A. Elgamal, Management & Marketing , College of Business Administration Kuwait University

HOLISTIC MODELLING OF THE STRATEGY OF INTERNATIONALISATION: QUANTITATIVE INDICATOR OF THE GRADUALIST APPROACH

Rubén Fernández-Ortiz, Universidad de La Rioja Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, Universidad de La Rioja Leonor González Menorca, Universidad de La Rioja

SUMMARY

The goal of this research is to create a holistic and global model, integrating therein the main theories and approaches, which consider company internationalisation, as subject matter of research. In view of the export strategy, the resource and capacity approach has shown the greatest capability in explaining the deciding factors of said strategy. In turn, the gradualist model of the Scandinavian school of thought has been widely utilised as an adequate explanation of the appropriate methods and momentum for gradual export abroad. Likewise, and as second goal of the research, we present the implementation of the gradualist models. The manner of entering each of the different international markets on the part of the companies, though being an easily understood intuitive concept, nevertheless generates, quite a bit of confusion from the operating point of view. There is not a quantitative variable that can tell us if a specific company, or sector, adheres to the guidelines of the gradualist model or not. For this purpose, we have desired to generate an easily measured quantitative, continuous variable, which indicates to what extent companies are adapting or not to the thesis proposed by the Scandinavian school of thought.

MODELIZACIÓN HOLÍSTICA DE LA ESTRATEGIA DE INTERNACIONALIZACIÓN: INDICE CUANTITATIVO DEL ENFOQUE GRADUALISTA

BIOGRAPHY

Rubén Fernández-Ortiz, ruben.fernandez@unirioja.es Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, monica.clavel-san@unirioja.es Leonor González Menorca, leonor.gonzalez@unirioja.es

INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE COMPANIES OF THE WINE-PRODUCING SECTOR: ANALYSIS THE UPPSALA MODEL

Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, Universidad de La Rioja Rubén Fernández-Ortiz, Universidad de La Rioja Leonor González Menorca, Universidad de La Rioja

SUMMARY

For decades, the internationalisation process has been identified as a process model defined by the Scandinavian or Uppsala model, whereby companies directed their international activities toward countries psychologically distanced from them, using, likewise, formulae that involved greater commitment of resources as they acquired greater experience in the international environment. Nevertheless, since the rise of globalisation as a phenomenon, which is our current situation, different internationalisation processes on the part of companies can be observed. Thus, in line with the aforementioned, and given the importance of company internationalisation as an ongoing improvement of competitiveness, the main goal of this research lies in the analysis of the internationalisation process strategy performed by companies of the wine-producing sector, according to the possession or control of certain resources and internal capacities carried out by the same, that is to say, once the company decides to expand its scope of action abroad, how do they carry out this internationalisation strategy? Do all of them do it the same way? Does it influence the configuration of resources and capacities available to the company?

PROCESO DE INTERNACIONALIZACIÓN DE LAS EMPRESAS DEL SECTOR VITIVINÍCOLA: ANÁLISIS DEL MODELO DE UPPSALA

BIOGRAPHY

Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, monica.clavel-san@unirioja.es Rubén Fernández-Ortiz, ruben.fernandez@unirioja.es Leonor González Menorca, leonor.gonzalez@unirioja.es Leonor González Menorca, Universidad de La Rioja Rubén Fernández-Ortiz, Universidad de La Rioja Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, Universidad de La Rioja

SUMMARY

For decades, terms such as born global, global start-up or international new venture are being utilised by different researchers to define a new typology of companies, characterised mainly by an international projection of their activities from the start-up of the same. Nevertheless, very few studies have been performed focusing on the study of the internal configuration of this typology of companies, as well as on the identification and analysis of possible differences in the provision of resources and capacities between traditional companies and global start-up companies. Therefore, from the resource and capacity approach, the main goal of this research has to do with the identification of the profile of those companies. By the application of a multivariate analysis to a sample of 257 companies, pertaining to the Spanish wine-producing sector, the significant existence of a differentiated resource and capacity profile, for the two typologies of companies under study, becomes evident, mainly in financial resources, human resources, and those relational resources connected with the positioning system of the company.

PERFIL DE LAS GLOBAL START UP DESDE EL ENFOQUE DE RECURSOS Y CAPACIDADES: APLICACIÓN AL SECTOR VITIVINÍCOLA ESPAÑOL

BIOGRAPHY

Leonor González Menorca, leonor.gonzalez@unirioja.es Rubén Fernández Ortiz, ruben.fernandez@unirioja.es Mónica Clavel San Emeterio, monica.clavel-san@unirioja.es

COMPANIES

Rikard Smistad, Mount Royal University Igor Pustylnick, SMC University

ABSTRACT

Using archival data, this paper presents the results of analyzing a sample of twelve western Canadian energy (primarily oil and gas) firms (ranging in size from small to large in size based on total assets and revenue) and their use of financial derivatives to manage primarily commodity price risk. All observed companies document and disclose their risk strategies and the derivative products they use to manage risk. Regardless of size, all companies make use of common commodity price risk strategies using derivatives. The large energy companies are more likely to utilize hedge accounting than their small and mid-sized peers. All companies, except for the largest ones, claim that derivatives are not used to speculate. However, by clarifying the definition of speculation, all of the energy firms attempt derivative speculation to a different extent.

KEYWORDS: Hedging, hedge accounting, speculation

INTRODUCTION

Based on data taken from the Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers' website, Canada ranks as the world's 3rd largest producer of natural gas and 7th largest producer of crude oil (CAPP, 2011). In 2007 and 2008, being the 5th largest energy producer in the world, the energy industry in Canada invested CDN \$50 billion into the Canadian economy, making it the largest private sector investor in Canada (CAPP, 2011). Comprising 25% of the market value of the Toronto Stock Exchange, the energy industry in Canada, directly and indirectly, employs nearly half a million people (CAPP, 2011). Geographically, the largest producing area of crude oil in Canada is the western provinces and this is followed by the Northwest Territories and Atlantic Canada (CAPP, 2011). In 2006, oil production from the tar sands area of northeastern Alberta surpassed conventional oil production, and though mature field production is declining, Canada's oil reserves are estimated to be the second largest in the world, exceeding 175 billion barrels (CAPP, 2010).

The objectives of this paper are to determine whether Canadian, publicly-held, energy companies (primarily oil and gas, and pipelines) i) have documented risk management strategies for dealing with financial risks, ii) make use of derivatives to help manage their financial risks, iii) make use of common strategies with derivatives in managing their risks, iv) practice hedge accounting in conjunction with their risk management strategies, and v) speculate, as a result of the manner in which they use derivatives.

These questions are of interest for a number of reasons. (Whaley, 2006) points out that most of the major problems that have arisen as a result of derivatives have been caused by inadequate oversight and lack of knowledge by management. Although derivatives have been in existence for thousands of years (Whaley refers to asset-or-nothing put options used by grain farmers around 1750 BCE, for example), their use has come under increasing scrutiny in the last several years (for example, see the misuse of derivatives leading up to the demise of Barings Bank (Stein, 2002), or the Metallgesellschaft AG controversy (Krapels, 2001)). Questions remain as to whether the benefits of risk management at the entity level are realized when there is variation between financial theory and how it is put into practice (Servaes &

Tamayo, 2009). It is important that management address these risk management issues in their annual financial statements and annual reports. Omitting discussion around the topic of financial risk management, for example, would suggest management is not aware of the issues, considers them to be immaterial, or does not understand them sufficiently to address them. Examining the financial risk management strategies employed by companies in the Canadian energy industry will also show whether energy producers are consistent in the strategies used to manage commodity and other risks.

The use of hedge accounting is of interest since Canadian public companies are in the midst of transitioning from the use of Canadian Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (Canadian GAAP) to International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) in preparing and disclosing their annual and interim financial statements. Canadian public companies with reporting year-ends ending after December 31, 2010 will be required to use IFRS. Although the current Canadian rules for accounting for derivatives and hedge accounting are similar to the current IFRS rules, the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) has released an exposure draft dealing with hedge accounting, with comments to be received by March 9, 2011 (IASB, 2010). If this exposure draft is published in final form in 2011, it should make hedge accounting a more realistic option for companies reporting under IFRS since the objective is to better align the objectives and requirements of hedge accounting with the economics of hedging. Finally, it is of interest to know whether the companies examined here, and that use derivatives, only do so to hedge or do they also use derivatives to speculate. Finally, in the analysis of the impact of derivative accounting on risk management, the use of archival data does not lend itself to the determination of whether companies use derivatives for hedging purposes rather than for speculation (Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2008). However, there is enough information provided in the annual financial statements of the companies examined in the current study to conclude on whether they are hedging and/or speculating. The paper is constructed in the following manner. It offers a literature review followed by the method and data used in the research. The paper presents results of the observation upon the data and conclusions based on the observations. The paper is concluded by the reference to the future direction of the research based on the larger data sample.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Speculation is defined by Whaley (2006) as "a trading position established to profit from a directional move in the price of an asset" (p. 887). It is worthwhile examining this question since assertions by management in annual reports and financial statements typically state categorically that management does not enter into contracts for trading or speculative purposes should be examined.

Much of the current literature dealing with hedging, hedge accounting, risk management and speculating is empirical in nature (Lins et al., 2008; Servaes & Tamayo, 2009) and consists of surveys of companies and their management practices vis-à-vis financial risk. Others have looked at the impact of hedge accounting on corporate risk management (Panaretou, Shackleton, & Taylor, 2009) and others consider the motivations behind why firms create and maintain costly derivative programs when their impact on overall risk at the entity level is minimal (Guay & Kothari, 2003).

(Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2008) surveyed approximately 4,000 firms across 48 countries, which resulted in 354 firms answering at least a portion of their survey. One of the key questions they were studying was whether changes to accounting rules regarding derivatives (i.e., the introduction of Statement of Financial Accounting Standards (SFAS) 133 in the U.S., and International Accounting Standard (IAS) 39 internationally) impacted firms' risk mangement activities (Moore, 2002). The most significant impact of the change in accounting principles required that all derivatives be recorded at their fair values on the balance sheet (Siegel, 1996), and any changes in those fair values be recorded either through the income statement or through Other Comprehensive Income and Accumulated Other Comprehnsive Income (i.e., in Shareholders' Equity). Prior to these changes, derivatives were recorded at historical cost with no changes recorded should those fair values change. Under the new accounting rules embodied in SFAS 133, increased financial statement note disclosure around the extent of derivative acivity was also required.

(Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2008) found that 42% of those firms that responded to the question of whether changing accounting rules impacted their risk management function, indicated the change in standards affected one or more of their risk management activities. It appeared that the major reason for this affect was firms' increasingly compromised ability to hedge (from an economic viewpoint). The new accounting rules required firms to increase their documentation surrounding hedging transactions (Welch, 2003), and document, typically on a monthly basis, that the hedges they employed had been effective, and on a go-forward basis, were expected to continue to be effective. If hedges were determined to be effective, then any gain or loss on the hedging item (typically a derivative) could be offset either in net income or shareholders' equity, against the loss or gain on the hedged item (Sandor, 1973). Any portion of designated hedges where the change in fair value or cash flows of the hedged item, was required to be recorded in net income. In addition, any changes in the fair values of derivatives that were not designated as hedges were now to be recorded in net income (Berkman & Bradbury, 1996).

(Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2008) determined that those firms most likely to have their risk management practices impacted by the changes in accounting standards were those listed on stock exchanges, resident in countries with high accounting standards (e.g., U.K., Canada, U.S.), where accounting rule compliance was enforced, and were most interested in managing income statement volatility. These companies, along with those operating in environments where contracts (e.g., management compensation contracts) were based on accounting numbers, were the firms most interested in qualifying for hedge accounting. (Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2008) also found that the reduction in ability to hedge from an economic viewpoint also supported a decline in the use of derivatives for speculative purposes.

In their survey of 234 large corporations, (Guay & Kothari, 2003) found their median firms to hold derivatives that could hedge only three to six percent of the firm's total interest rate and foreign currency exposures. This led them to question why these firms even bother to create whole risk management departments, since these departments are not costless. Indeed, (Brown, 2001), in his case study of the corporate treasury department of a large multinational corporation, found the annual costs to maintain the company's foreign currency hedging program to be U.S. \$3.8 million, and the impact on net earnings to be in the area of U.S. \$5.0 million. The net savings of U.S. \$1.2 million were hardly enough to explain the motivation for continuing the program. In their analysis of firms surveyed (Guay & Kothari, 2003) found the costliness of hedging/derivative programs to be consistent with firms using derivatives as an additional layer of financial risk management and as part of an overall risk management program that includes other ways of managing financial risks (e.g., diversified operations geographically, long term purchase and sale contracts, etc.), helping to manage decentralized decisions based on accounting numbers used for performance evaluation, for example, or using derivatives for speculation.

(Brown, 2001; Servaes & Tamayo, 2009) raise the question of why companies even bother to enter into hedging activities. Providing the example of a jeweler purchasing gold for production, is it not irrelevant for the jeweler to hedge price risk exposure since investors would have access to the same derivative products as the jeweler and be able to manage risk just as easily from their own investment portfolio level. In an article critical of the generalized definitions applied to the terms arbitrage, hedging and speculation, (Moosa, 2010) argues stereotyped definitions have led to confusion as to what the terms really mean. Using a basic futures contract applied to a typical commodity, Moosa demonstrates that both speculators and hedgers act identically upon the same variables. Given that E_tS_{t+1} represents the expected commodity spot price at time t+1, and F_t^{t+1} represents the price of a one-period futures contract on the same commodity, the expected cost for a firm buying a futures contract for hedging purposes would be

 $F_t^{t+1} - E_t S_{t+1}$. This also represents the profit expected by a speculator who buys the commodity at the spot price and sells a futures contract. Similarly, for a hedger who is selling short a futures contract, his expected cost is $E_t S_{t+1} - F_t^{t+1}$, which also represents a speculator's expected profit for selling short the commodity at the spot price and buying the futures. Moosa's point is that financial models don't distinguish between speculators and hedgers as they make their decisions based on the same expectations and variables. The stereotype that speculators seek out risk with an expectation of profit, and hedgers avoid every identified risk is not true. The actual act by a hedger of contemplating the options of hedging or not (either full or partial) has him assuming the same risk as a speculator.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Appendix 1 summarizes the companies examined to support this paper. The data was taken from the annual audited financial statements and management discussion and analysis reports published by 12 publicly held energy (primarily oil and gas and/or pipeline) companies with head offices in Calgary, Alberta. Four of the companies were classified as small in terms of asset size (total assets less than Cdn \$1 billion), four companies were classed as mid-size (total assets greater than Cdn \$1 billion) but less than Cdn \$10 billion), and four were classified as large (total assets greater than Cdn \$10 billion). The smallest company examined was Crew Energy Inc. (Crew Energy Inc., 2010), with total assets of Cdn \$963 million at December 31, 2009. The largest company examined was Suncor Energy Inc. (Suncor Energy Inc., 2010) with total assets approaching Cdn \$70 billion as at the same date. All twelve companies examined had December 31, 2009 fiscal year-ends and all were audited by one of the large, international accounting firms (Deloitte & Touche LLP, Ernst & Young LLP, KPMG LLP, and PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP). The financial statements of all twelve companies were prepared in accordance with Canadian GAAP.

Hedge Accounting

Canadian GAAP requires that all derivatives be reported at their fair value at each balance sheet date and any changes in the fair values of those derivatives be recorded in either Net Income (NI) or Other Comprehensive Income for the period (CICA Handbook, Part V, Section 3855.76, 2011). This does not create an issue when the accounting rules are consistent with the economics of hedging. For example, a Canadian company may have a US \$1 million receivable due in 60 days from a U.S. company. When payment is received, the economic value of the receivable will likely have changed in terms of Canadian dollars, since the value of the Canadian dollar has changed vis-à-vis the U.S. dollar during that one month period. For example, if the Canadian dollar has strengthened from Cdn \$1.02 /US \$1.00 to Cdn \$.98/US\$ 1.00, this would be reflected in the accounts by decreasing the value of the US \$1 million receivable to Cdn \$980,000 and recording a \$40,000 foreign currency loss on the income statement at time of collection. If the Canadian company chose to hedge this receivable by entering into a forward contract to sell US \$1 million in 60 days for Cdn \$1.02 million, any decrease in value of the US dollar receivable over the 60 day period would be exactly offset by the gain in the forward contract. When recording the Canadian dollar loss on collection of the receivable through the income statement, the offsetting gain on the forward contract would also be recorded through the income statement and would exactly offset the recorded loss. In such a situation, there would be no need to choose to hedge account for this transaction. Assume the same Canadian company enters into an agreement to sell a portion of its natural gas production in twelve months to customers in the U.S. and doesn't want to take the risk of natural gas prices declining over the coming year. The company could enter into a series of monthly futures contracts to sell a portion or all of its twelve month production at a US dollar price determined today. The company could also enter into a series of monthly forward contracts to sell the US dollars received from its sales of natural gas, at a Cdn \$/US \$ exchange rate determined today. Thus any uncertainty surrounding the company's twelve month sales revenue, denominated in U.S. dollars, and its sales revenue denominated in Canadian dollars, is effectively eliminated.

Although these hedges make sense from an economic viewpoint, the accounting rules do not mirror the economics in terms of the timing of recognition of gains or losses. At each balance sheet date over the coming year, the company must mark-to-market its derivatives and any resulting change in fair value must go through the income statement. However, the actual sales of the natural gas will not be recorded until anywhere from one to twelve months hence. As a result, any of the interim gains or losses on the derivatives will be recorded through NI and not be offset by the losses or gains on the actual sales of the natural gas and collection of the receivables.

Under current Canadian GAAP, to remedy this accounting versus economic difference, the company can choose to hedge account (CICA Handbook, Part V, Section 3865.08, 2011). In doing so, the company would designate each of their forward sales contracts, or futures contracts, as hedges of their actual sales. When the contracts are marked-to-market, any gains or losses on the derivatives would be recorded in OCI. When the actual sales are recognized in the accounts, the accumulated gains and/or losses previously recorded in OCI and held in Accumulated OCI would be transferred to NI where they will offset revenue from the hedged items in the natural gas revenue account. The requirements for hedge accounting are onerous however. Canadian GAAP recognizes two types of hedges: fair value hedges and cash flow hedges. Fair value hedges are those designed to offset changes in the fair value of an underlying asset or liability. Cash flow hedges are designed to offset the variability of future cash flows (CICA Handbook, Part V, Section 3865.07, 2011). In our Canadian company examples, the forward contract to protect the value of the US dollar receivable would be designated as a fair value hedge.

Under Canadian GAAP, in order to qualify for hedge accounting, at hedge inception, the company would need to identify and document: i) The method of accounting for the hedge, ii) The company's risk management objectives and strategies, iii) The nature of the specific risk exposure, iv) The nature of the hedge, the hedging and hedged items, and the hedge term, and v) The method for assessing hedge effectiveness (CICA Handbook, Part V, Section 3865.08 (a) and (b), 2011). Throughout the term of the hedge and typically on a monthly basis, the company must also document the ongoing effectiveness of the hedge: i) By reliably measuring that the hedge has been effective over the past month, and ii) The hedging relationship is expected to continue to be effective into the future (CICA Handbook, Part V, Section 3865.08 (c), 2011).

Hedge accounting is onerous and costly. Depending on the amount of hedging a company does, the hedging transactions can be numerous and each transaction must be documented separately and measured regularly to demonstrate past, and forecast future, effectiveness. All hedge documentation must be updated in the same timely manner. In addition, should the variability of the hedging item offset less than 80% or more than 125% of the variability of the hedged item, this excess, or hedge ineffectiveness, must be measured and recorded through NI (Accounting Standards Board, 2003).

RESULTS

Each of the twelve companies examined makes reference in their annual reports and financial statements to their risk management policies and strategies. All companies are fairly consistent in their disclosure surrounding risk management. For example, Crew Energy (Crew Energy Inc., 2010) characterizes the company's management of risk by: (i) Highlighting the company's exposure to market, credit and liquidity risks, (ii) Recognizing that the company's Board of Directors has overall responsibility for creating and overseeing the company's risk management framework, (iii) Stating that the Board of Directors has implemented risk management policies and actively monitors compliance with these policies, and (iv) Clarifying that risk management policies are in place to identify and analyze risks facing the company, set risk controls and limits, to monitor company adherence to policies, and monitor market conditions.

The company then goes on to explain in more detail, the nature of the various risks faced by the company and the strategies followed to manage these risks. With regard to credit risk, for example, Crew Energy Inc. describes market risk as a situation where a "customer or counterparty to a financial instrument fails to meet its contractual obligations" (p. 33). All companies examined described the business practices they employ to manage their credit risk. These included policies such as establishing business relationships with only large, creditworthy purchasers and the marketing of their production through many purchasers. Crew Energy Inc., for example, also incorporates into its contracts with joint venture partners, the ability to withhold production in the event that a partner is not paying.

All companies examined made reference to liquidity risk in the notes to their financial statements and/or in their annual reports. Suncor Energy Inc. (Suncor Energy Inc., 2010) is typical, describing liquidity risk as "the risk that an entity will encounter difficulty in meeting obligations associated with financial liabilities" (p. 79). In managing liquidity risk, all companies made reference to their cash management practices and their use of high quality corporate or government short-term money market securities as investments for their excess cash. Reference is also typically made to the management of working capital to ensure there is cash available to meet current obligations, and should the need arise, the company's ability to draw on unused lines of credit.

For the 12 companies examined, it is in the management of market risk (commodity price risk, foreign currency risk, and interest rate risk) that derivatives are typically employed. Each of the energy companies examined makes use of derivatives to help manage their financial risks. Regardless of entity size, each company uses a variety of derivative instruments, as deemed necessary, and from time to time, to help manage financial risks resulting from fluctuations in commodity prices, interest rates and foreign exchange rates. The most common types of hedging transactions entered into by energy companies examined were oil and/or natural gas swaps, collars and/or forward contracts (including futures contracts) and interest rate swaps.

An oil or natural gas swap is similar to an interest rate swap. For example, a crude oil producer may wish to reduce the variability of its crude oil selling prices over the next twelve months. The producer can do this by entering into a series of forward contract payments through a swap dealer. The producer pays a notional amount multiplied by a floating price, and receives in return, a series of payments at a fixed price, multiplied by the same notional amount. The floating rate payments made by the producer to the swap dealer should approximate the same amounts paid to the producer by its customers for the actual physical delivery of oil. By netting the swap with the payments received for physical delivery, the producer should receive the fixed price per barrel negotiated with the swap dealer. By entering the swap, the producer gains control over crude oil sales revenues and eliminates, depending on the notional amount hedged and the hedge's effectiveness, some or all of the company's revenue variability. The hedge may not be entirely effective if the grade of oil in the swap contract does not share the same characteristics of that physically sold by the producer.

Costless collars can be structured by an oil or natural gas producer desiring to protect its production from falling prices. For example, a producer wishing to receive no less than US \$75.00 per barrel (/bbl) for its monthly oil sales, and willing to cap its monthly revenues at US \$85.00/bbl over the upcoming year, could purchase a series of out-of-the-money put options with an exercise price, say, of US \$75.00/bbl, while simultaneously selling out-of-the-money call options with an exercise price of, say, US \$85.00/bbl with the same maturity dates and quantities as the put options. By so doing, the producer effectively ensures its production revenues will be no less than US \$75.00/bbl, or more than US \$85.00/bbl. The collar is considered costless since the payments for purchasing the put options will be offset by the proceeds from selling the call options. The producer continues to sell its oil to customers at market prices, but if actual crude oil prices fall below US \$75.00/bbl, the "gain" on exercise of the put option will offset the "loss" on the actual sales of crude. If actual sales are made for amounts in excess of US \$85.00/bbl,

the "gain" on the crude sales will be offset by the "loss" on the written call options. For any actual sales between the upper and lower bounds, the call and put options will be out-of-the money and will not be exercised.

Forward contracts are entered into by 4 of the 12 companies examined, to fix the amount of revenue to be received from their oil and/or natural gas production. It is not unusual for these contracts to extend up to 2 years into the future. By fixing the future prices today, management gains control and certainty around at least a portion of future revenues. The counterparties to these agreements are typically end users who also gain certainty around a portion of their future costs.

Four of the companies examined make use of interest rate swaps from time to time. These swaps are employed as cash flow hedges in situations where one party to the contract "swaps" payments with the other contracting party. Typically a bank is used as the intermediary between the contracting parties. In a market of rising interest rates for example, a company may have issued new debt at floating rates in response to investor demand. Management might be concerned about rising interest rates and the impact on variable rate debt. A common course of action in this situation is for management to enter into a swap agreement whereby the company will make fixed interest payments to the counterparty and receive in return, floating rate interest payments. These payments are generally netted. In those instances where the fixed interest payment is larger for a given payment period than the floating rate interest payment, the company holding the floating rate debt will make a payment of the net difference to the intermediary. The intermediary, in turn, makes the net payment to the company holding the fixed rate debt. The net impact on the company holding the floating rate debt is, it will make its normal interest payment to investors and, if the floating interest rate is higher than the swapped fix rate, it will receive from the intermediary, the difference between the fixed and floating rates multiplied by the notional amount of the debt. This receipt will be netted with the company's floating rate interest expense on its income statement, effectively recognizing interest expense at the fixed rate.

With regard to hedge accounting, 9 of the 12 companies examined do not use hedge accounting, while 3 of the largest 4 corporations do hedge account. Suncor (2010), for example, does not use hedge accounting for derivatives related to commodity price risk (options and swaps) and any fair value changes to these derivatives are "immediately recognized as a gain or loss in the same revenue or expense account where the hedged transaction is recorded" (p. 76). For some cash flow hedges, such as forwards, futures and collars used to help manage changing market prices, hedge accounting is used by Suncor.

TransCanada Corporation (TransCanada Corporation, 2010), another large energy company, applies hedge accounting to transactions that qualify for such treatment. Any derivative instruments that do not qualify for hedging treatment are treated as held-for- trading investments and any fair value changes are recorded through NI. Cenovus Energy Inc., (Cenovus Energy Inc., 2010) does document certain transactions as hedges for hedge accounting treatment. All other derivatives not designated as hedges, are recorded using the same mark-to-market accounting treatment as that applied by TransCanada Corporation. Penn West Energy Trust (Penn West Energy Trust, 2010) is the one large oil and gas producing company examined which does not use hedge accounting. Penn West states in their financial statements "All risk management assets and liabilities are derivative financial instruments designated as held-for-trading" (p. 8). As such, any fair value changes in these derivatives are recorded through NI. This is the same classification and treatment that mid-sized Pengrowth Energy Trust uses for its derivatives: "All derivatives are classified as held-for-trading which are measured at fair value with changes in fair value over a reporting period recognized in net income." (p. 41). Another mid-sized company, Bonavista Energy Trust (Bonavista Energy Trust, 2010) states that "all derivative contracts are classified as heldfor-trading and are recorded on the balance sheet at fair value, with changes in the fair value recognized in net income, unless specific hedge criteria are met" (p. 6). For the remaining two mid-sized and for all the small companies examined, derivatives used for hedging purposes are classified as held-for-trading

with changes in fair value recorded in NI for the period in which the changes occur. These companies do not use hedge accounting.

With regard to whether those companies using derivatives speculate, 11 of the 12 companies examined state outright that they do not use derivatives to speculate. For example, Crew Energy Inc. (Crew Energy Inc., 2010), when referring to how it accounts for financial instruments, states that "The Company does not use these derivative instruments for trading or speculative purposes" (p. 29). Similarly, in accounting for its derivative financial instruments, Birchcliff Energy Ltd. (Birchcliff Energy Ltd., 2010) states that the company's "policy is not to utilize derivative financial instruments for speculative purposes" (p. 70). Fairborne Energy Ltd. (Fairborne Energy Ltd., 2010) states in its annual financial statement that the "Company's practice is not to utilize financial instruments for trading or speculative purposes" (p. 28). Of the 12 companies examined, only Suncor Energy Inc. (2010) explicitly stated in their financial statements that they utilize derivatives for trading as well as non-trading activities. In the notes to their annual financial statements, Suncor states that the company "also uses derivatives for trading purposes" (p. 74), and "When used in a trading activity, the company is attempting to realize a gain on the fluctuations in the market value of the derivative" (p. 74).

All companies examined were consistent in their understanding of the financial risks facing their companies. Without exception, each company identified commodity price, foreign currency, interest rate, liquidity and credit as the main risks that their risk management programs and strategies dealt with. In addition, all companies basically shared the same view as to what derivatives were best used to manage their financial risks, especially commodity price risk. Derivatives of choice were oil and natural gas swaps, collars and forwards. Larger companies also used interest rate swaps; while those in broader energy related lines of business also used electricity swaps and specific transaction hedges. However, in terms of managing commodity price risk, all firms were consistent in their derivative use.

With regard to hedge accounting, 9 of the 12 firms examined do not use hedge accounting. The cost of hedge accounting is onerous, and depending on the number of hedging transactions a company enters into, hedge accounting costs can escalate rapidly. Each hedge must be documented fully in terms of the accounting method to be followed in accounting for the hedge, how the hedge aligns with the company's risk management objectives and strategy, the risk exposure being hedged, the nature of the hedge, and how hedge effectiveness will be measured. Throughout the term of the hedge, the hedge's effectiveness must be measured regularly and its ongoing effectiveness as a hedge must be assessed. During the measurement process and the life of the hedge, any portion of hedge ineffectiveness must be measured and recorded in NI. The majority of the small and mid-sized companies examined do not use hedge accounting and one reason is likely the ongoing cost to do so. Only the large oil and gas companies employ hedge accounting. Arguably, since small and mid-sized oil and gas companies are measured against their peers by analysts and shareholders, as long as they are consistent in their accounting and presentation, the fact they don't use hedge accounting is likely not an issue. If failing to use hedge accounting introduces volatility to their reported earnings, it is not so much an issue if all their peers are reporting in like manner. For the large oil and gas companies, the costs of compliance with hedge accounting are not as significant as they are to the smaller energy companies, so they are more likely to see the benefits of hedge accounting and not just the costs.

With regard to speculation carried out by oil and gas company management, only one company, Suncor (2010), specifically refers to its trading of derivatives for profit. The other companies examined, it is specifically stated in their financial statements that they do not use derivatives to speculate. However, referring again to Whaley's (2006) definition of speculation: "a trading position established to profit from a directional move in the price of an asset" (p. 887), there is a strong argument to be made that these companies do in fact, speculate. Although all companies are consistent in their view of what constitutes commodity price risk, and the strategies and derivatives to use to mitigate that risk, they are inconsistent

in what portion of that risk to hedge. For example, Crew Energy's (2010) policy is to "enter into commodity price contracts when considered appropriate to a maximum of 50% of forecasted production volumes for a period of not more than two years" (p. 33). Iteration Energy Ltd. (Iteration Energy Ltd., 2010), another smaller oil and gas company "may commit up to 35% of its production hedged spanning up to two years forward" (p. 6). The Board of Directors of Bonavista Energy Trust (Bonavista Energy Trust, 2010) one of the mid-sized oil and gas companies examined "has approved a commodity price risk management limit of 60% of forecast production" (p. 5). One of the large energy companies, Penn West Energy Trust (Penn West Energy Trust, 2010) in their MD&A report state they will use derivatives to manage their commodity price risks up to 50 percent of forecasted sales volumes up to two years out and up to 25 percent for one additional year thereafter.

Not only is there variance in risk management oversight in terms of a limit in the percentage of production allowed to be hedged, there is variance in the actual percentages hedged. For example, Iteration Energy Ltd. (2010), with a 35 percent hedging limit on commodity risk, had hedged 23 percent of forecast 2010 production at its December 31, 2009 year end. Pengrowth Energy Trust (Pengrowth Energy Trust, 2010) as at the same date had 34 percent of 2010 oil production hedged and 45 percent of natural gas volumes.

The variances between companies in terms of hedge limits and the production volumes hedged gives rise to the question of what exactly is the purpose of having hedge limits approved by the Board of Directors. In addition, once limits are established, why do companies not hedge right to the Board approved limit? In regard to the first question, it is not clear what the reason is behind different companies setting different hedge limits. If all management teams are in the same industry, with the same price, demand and supply information, how do they each arrive at a different hedge limit? If the goal of hedging is really to manage financial risk, why do these companies not hedge 100 percent of their forecasted production for the year? By analogy, if a Canadian company was purchasing new equipment manufactured in the United States and they were concerned about foreign currency risk, management of the Canadian company would likely fully hedge the transaction and not simply a portion of it. If management were to hedge, say, 50 percent of the purchase on the basis that they felt there was a probability the Canadian dollar was going to strengthen and they would end up paying fewer Canadian dollars than if it were fully hedged, they would be speculating. If they hedged 100 percent of the transaction, then subsequently determined the Canadian dollar was going to strengthen vis-à-vis the U.S. dollar and they lifted a portion or all of the hedge in anticipation of a gain, they would be speculating. Extending this example to the oil and gas industry, if the management teams in these energy companies really wanted to remove price risk on their oil and gas commodities, why are they not hedging 100 percent of their forecasted production? Assuming that the Boards of Directors of these companies understand the strategies of risk management using derivatives, it is not clear why they are not fully hedging their production, if their goal is to eliminate price risk. Also, the management teams in these companies consistently state they do not use derivatives for hedging, yet they vary from year to year the percentage of their production that they hedge.

Effectively these companies are speculating by deciding to stay exposed to a portion of their identified risk. If they were not speculating, they should constantly and consistently be hedged to the full hedge limit authorized by their respective Boards of Directors? These various management teams must be using their own judgment regarding current and future commodity prices and deciding at different points in time, how much of their production to hedge. It is possible the companies' Boards of Directors set maximum hedging percentages to limit the amount of speculation that management carries out.

Guay & Kothari (2003) provide several reasons explaining why companies might maintain a derivatives program even though that program has a relatively small impact on total company risk. One of the applicable reasons for oil and gas companies use of derivatives might be to manage internal decisions (e.g., performance evaluation). Another might be to use derivatives "for purposes other than those

predicted by traditional risk-management such as to speculate on asset prices or to mitigate the likelihood that changes in asset prices increase analyst forecast errors" (p. 453). It is difficult to determine from external financial statements how the use of derivatives might impact internal decisions such as performance evaluation, since that type of information is not disclosed in annual reports and financial statements. However, there is a strong argument to be made that management teams in the energy industry use derivatives in a manner not only to hedge but also to speculate. It is not clear from examining annual financial statements whether derivatives are used to manage analyst forecast errors as, again, this type of information or management decision making is not disclosed in annual financial reports.

It is interesting that it is the largest company examined (Suncor Energy Inc.) that states clearly it does trade in derivatives for profit. Perhaps, being one of the largest oil and gas companies in Canada with total assets approaching Cdn \$70 billion and total revenues of Cdn \$25 billion, Suncor is in a much better financial position to take on more financial risk and absorb more losses, should they occur. It may also be a situation where, being such a large company with a significant internal trading group, it may attract more talent in the derivative area than its peers in the energy industry. F. A. Hayek (Hayek, 1945) observed that in any given economy, no single mind is given all knowledge necessary to understand and manage that economy. However, there is "knowledge of the particular circumstances of time and place" (p. 521). By attracting experienced and knowledgeable employees around which to build a trading department, the likelihood of having the necessary expertise within the company for successful (profitable) trading activities is increased.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The goals of this paper were to answer the following questions regarding companies operating in the oil and gas industry in western Canada: i) whether these companies have documented risk management strategies for dealing with financial risks, ii) whether they make use of derivatives to help manage their financial risks, iii) whether they make use of common strategies with derivatives in managing their risks, iv) whether companies employing derivatives as part of their risk management strategies practice hedge accounting, and v) whether companies employing derivatives also speculate.

In answering these questions, annual financial statements and MD&A reports of twelve publicly held energy companies (primarily oil and gas, and piplines) were examined. There was sufficient publicly available information to conclude that i) all companies examined have documented risk management strategies; ii) all companies examined use derivatives to help manage their financial risks; iii) common risk management strategies using derivatives are employed by all companies examined; iv) 9 of the 12 companies examined do not employ hedge accounting, and the three that do are large companies, and; v) all companies may not use specific derivatives to speculate but they do in fact speculate by choosing not to hedge all of their risks.

The benefit of these results includes the acknowledgement that all oil and gas companies deem it important to have a documented risk management strategy disclosed to shareholders and other users of the company's financial statements. The results of this paper show that financial managers of publicly held oil and gas companies do hedge a portion of their commodity price risks and use common derivatives and derivative strategies to do so. The results with regard to the lack of hedge accounting employed in the oil and gas industry are a useful benchmark to help measure the oil and gas industry impact of the current IASB exposure draft on hedge accounting, once it is implemented. It will be interesting to see if the the exposure draft's objectives of better aligning hedge accounting with risk management practices is acknowledged by Canadian energy companies through increased use of hedge accounting. In the IASB's strategy to have financial statements better reflect economic reality (e.g., fair values on the balance sheet rather than historical cost), it will be interesting to see whether the small and medium sized oil and gas companies do adopt hedge accounting. This paper demonstrates there is a

disconnect between oil and gas companies financial statement disclosures surrounding whether or not a firm speculates versus whether in fact they actually do or do not. This may simply require a more clear definition and understanding in the financial statements of what constitutes hedging and speculation, in order to more accurately portray the actions and positions financial risk managers take when they decide to hedge only a portion of an identified risk.

Relying on archival data (i.e., audited annual financial statements and annual reports) does not provide all the information necessary to draw definitive conclusions on some of these research gestions. For example, in trying to determine why companies hedge, it would be necessary to actually immerse oneself in a company's operations, and engage with those involved in company risk management activities to understand the motivations, analysis and thought processes behind their decisions as to why they hedge. There are many opportunities for future research in the area of financial risk management, financial accounting, and the use, measurement, recording and disclosure of derivative activity in publicly available information such as company annual reports and financial statements. For example, there are research opportunities in determining the true motivation(s) for entity-level hedging and derivative use, versus the individual shareholder/investor level. Also, there are real opportunities to measure the impact of hedge accounting changes and whether and how they influence the oil and gas industry. There are also tremendous opportunities to educate company management including Directors, investors, analysts and other users of financial statements about the financial risks companies face and how derivatives can be used to mitigate or eliminate these risks. There are also real opportunities to investigate why there is such variability between firms as to commodity hedge limit percentages, and why and how firms choose to hedge less then their authorized limits.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research envisions the use of a larger sample of companies. The types of derivatives used by those companies can yield a number of potential correlations between the company size and the type of hedging used by the members of the companies of each size. This research can also verify the validity of the division of the companies using size criteria.

Appendix 1

Firm	Total Assets (Cdn or US \$mill)	Total Revenues (Cdn or US \$mill)	Derivative products utilized		
Crew Energy Inc.	\$963.2	\$162.2	Natural gas swaps, collars, options, interest rate swaps.		
Birchcliff Energy Ltd.	\$837.1	\$135.3	Commodity price risk contracts.		
Fariborne Energy Ltd.	\$940.4	\$223.3	Collars.		
Iteration Energy Ltd.	\$897.6	\$163.8	Costless collars, oil and gas swaps.		
Progress Energy Resources Corp.	\$2,458.4	\$295.4	Crude oil and natural gas swaps, options or collars, US dollar and natural gas forward contracts.		
ARC Energy Trust	\$3,914.5	\$842.1	Crude oil collars, three way collars, natural gas swap contracts, basis swaps, US dollar forward contracts, electricity swaps.		
Bonavista Energy Trust	\$3,092.1	\$628.6	Costless collars, put options, natural gas swaps and electricity swaps.		
Pengrowth Energy Trust Penn West Energy Trust	\$4,693.6 U.S. \$13,876	\$977.4 U.S. \$2,154	Forwards, futures, crude oil and natural gas price swaps. Collars, forwards, interest rate swaps, foreign currency forwards, foreign currency swaps.		
Cenovus Energy Inc.	US \$20,552	US \$648	Crude oil and natural gas futures contracts to sell production, crude oil fixed price swaps, put options.		
TransCanada Corporation	\$43,841	\$8,966	Forwards and futures, commodity swaps, interest rate swaps, options.		
Suncor Energy Inc.	\$69,746	\$25,480 Revenue hedge swaps, collars, interest rate swaps, hedges of transactions, puts, collars.			

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THE ROLE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN QUALITY SERVICES IMPROVEMENT

Kozeta Sevrani, University of Tirana Klodiana Gorica, University of Tirana

ABSTRACT

This paper analyze the increased role and impact that ict has on the whole services sector. Special analyze is done for tourism sector as a very important and vital part of the global economy, transferring Albanian economy in "the knowledge economy". Sector evolution has direct impact on service growing, in quality and quality aspects, improving in this way the management of destination. A quality system applied in a certain industry must be able to guarantee minimum levels required and to update such levels in line with changing trends in demand and offer improvement tools to companies for quality implementation purposes. Being both customer-oriented and result-centered, the quality system will allow for identification of tourism accommodation which complies with the minimum quality levels and so guarantee that the expectations of the different market segments will be met. The impact of IT is very crucial in these definitions.

KEYWORDS: ICT, service, quality, sector, destination

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is most commonly understood as the provision of services for people traveling to and staying outside their usual environment for less than one consecutive year for leisure or for business purposes. The operational definition of the tourism sector for the official statistics record is ambiguous. If one defines tourism from the consumer's point of view, all products and services consumed by tourists should be taken into account. Yet, the standard NACE classification does not always provide distinct boundaries to other sectors: Whereas accommodation establishments, travel agents and tour operators are incontestably an inherent part of the tourism sector, the question to what extent restaurants, cafes and bars, fair and amusement parks and transportation should be included is unclear. Official statistics do not allow to judge whether a guest in a bar is a tourist or a local person, nor whether a restaurant or a bar is located in a tourist destination and therefore probably mainly visited by tourists or not. The role of the transport sector in the broader tourism economy is obvious, but on the basis of the NACE classification it cannot be evaluated properly because the extent to which its capacities are used by tourists and other passengers cannot be distinguished.

The tourism sector as a whole is one of the fastest growing economic sectors in Europe and worldwide. In recent years, the growth rates in the tourism sector have been higher than in the overall world economy and this tendency do not seem to be slowing down in the near future. In the EU more than 1.4 million tourism enterprises employ about 8.1 million people contributing more than 419 billion \in of production value. The sector is dominated by SMEs. 99% of companies in the tourism sector are micro and small enterprises. In absolute numbers of production value, the United Kingdom, Italy, France, Germany and Spain generate the highest revenues in tourism, but the sector also contributes sizeable added value to national economies of small countries such as Austria, which is one of the countries most intensely engaged in tourism worldwide.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Role of Internet in the Tourism Sector

The world tourism industry has certainly been one of the first to make large-scale use of the new information technologies; focusing on information and communication technologies it appears that technological progress over the past thirty years has allowed the most innovative tourism enterprises to redefine not only their own organizational structure but their relationships with partner organizations, thus achieving the twin goals of optimizing operating costs and increasing ability to generate value for their customers. There have been three main innovation waves impacting the tourism scenario in recent decades:

- The development of the Computer Reservation System (CRS) in the 70's;
- The development of the Global Distribution System (GDS) in the 80's;
- The Internet in the 90's.

• One of these developments was the introduction of the *Computer Reservation System (CRS)* in the 70s, which was originally designed and operated by airlines. Today, it is used for inventory management, mainly by airlines, tour operators and international hotel chains. CRS are computerized systems that allow direct access through terminals for intermediaries to check availability, make reservations and print tickets.

• In the 80s, based on Computer Reservation Systems (CRS), *Global Distribution Systems (GDS)* were developed, incorporating a broad range of services and products and providing a global distribution "infostructure" for the entire industry. There are currently four major GDS systems used by airline companies: Amadeus, Galileo International, Sabre and World span.

• Since the development of the internet in the 90s, CRS and GDS have become less important, but they provided tourist enterprises competitive advantages for many years in the transfer of information within the tourism industry. Today, the *internet*, as the third wave of ICT impact on this sector, promises to have the greatest impact on the tourism sector.

The advent of the Internet changed the scenario: all categories of players are now directly accessible and have implemented their Internet strategy. The Internet provides all players with a means of reaching end users and being reached by them.

The big tourist organizations rapidly implemented Internet strategies and set up their own internet business areas or, in some cases, specific divisions or companies. In addition, the Internet has extended this possibility to the end user, redefining the business system and the notion of the channel of tourism products, in that it gives access to technologies to large masses of potential consumers and tourism enterprises of all sizes.

The most innovative enterprises began working in the years 1996/1997, setting up an Internet strategy; after this, in 1998/1999, they undertook intensive investment in broadening their customer base, pushing the online market with special initiatives and promotions; at present, these companies are already investing in *customer retention*, aimed at obtaining the loyalty of the customers they have obtained and setting up a long-term relationship with them.

The exploitation of opportunities related to the Internet, however, is not automatic as it requires the definition of a marketing strategy calling for changes in structure and organization, not to mention the importance of a communication strategy. Many Internet-based organizations had unrealistic expectations and inadequate business models and eventually failed. Large providers using the Internet as both a new sales channel and a network for communication can rely upon a number of strong points: organization structure and financial assets allowing them to deal with big projects, technical and managerial skills, availability of intangible assets facilitating access to the market and a base of loyal customers. On the

other hand, the implementation of an Internet strategy has to take into account a number of challenges, including the compatibility of pricing strategies over different channels and the channel conflicts that may arise.

In the tourism industry, more and more tourist service providers rely on the internet as a *key communication tool* that is enabling them to save costs and increase the number of customers. On the one hand, consumers are able to interact directly with tourism providers in order to identify and satisfy their ever-changing demands for tourism products, and on the other hand, suppliers can deal more effectively with the increasing complexity and diversity of consumer requirements.

Internet distribution of travel and tourism products can generate substantial *cost reductions* and *advantages* for providers of tourism services, to reach customers in a more *efficient and effective* way.

The tourism sector is a *slow adopter of ICT solutions* to support internal work processes, and this situation has not changed.

From all 10 main worldwide sectors, tourism registers the lowest internet diffusion rate of only 92%, while the other sectors range between 95% und 100%, i.e. full coverage level. This is due to the

enormous dominance of SMEs in the tourism sector, which constitutes the vast majority of employment. Yet, even large companies in tourism with more than 250 employees record an internet diffusion of only 95%. Given that internet connection costs are not prohibitively high, there appears to be a lack of awareness of the potential benefits of the internet by many enterprises in tourism. Revealing results indicate that Polish tourism companies are leaders in the adoption of internet connectivity (98%) well ahead of French (88%) and British enterprises (89%).

By 2003, tourism was already the leading sector in online sales among all ten sectors. In the tourism sector the individual website is the most important platform for e-commerce, followed by electronic marketplaces. E-marketplaces are understood as internet based travel platforms. In 2003, only about 50% of enterprises that allowed customers to order services online offered online payment and secure transaction. Online purchasing via the internet is relatively well-used in the tourism sector. 47% of people employed in the tourism sector work in enterprises using the internet for online procurement.

ISSUES OF QUALITIES IMPROVEMENT IN SERVICES SECTOR

A quality system applied in a certain industry must be able to guarantee minimum levels required and to update such levels in line with changing trends in demand and offer improvement tools to companies for quality implementation purposes. Being both customer-oriented and result-centered, the quality system will allow for identification of tourism accommodation which complies with the minimum quality levels and so guarantee that the expectations of the different market segments will be met. The impact of IT is very crucial in these definitions.

The concept of quality is as old as the human race. Written references about quality can be found going back thousand of years. A number of gurus studied the concept of quality extensively and produced a variety of definitions such as the extent to which output meets/exceeds expectations, conformance with requirements or specifications that have been agreed between two parties, etc. The new approach to quality has many names. In Japan, it is called Total Quality Control or Company – Wide Quality Control. In the USA, it is called Quality management, Total Quality Management, or more simply Quality Leadership.

A related concept is that of quality assurance which was raised by dissatisfied customers who requested that industries / businesses would develop and use standards on supplies and production methods in order to manage the quality of their goods or services and provide the relevant assurance on product quality to

their customers. Quality assurance includes all those planned and systematic actions necessary to provide adequate confidence that a structure, system or component will perform satisfactorily in service. In a market where consumer -tourists are increasingly more demanding in terms of service quality and in their expectations, a global approach must be taken, based on a model. In general terms, the model could comprise the following elements:

- 1. Phase one Process of growth towards quality: definition of the objectives, review of the organization and personnel training and awareness.
- 2. Phase two Company construction and consolidation: analysis of the processes, definition of the control parameters, process control, personnel involvement, research elimination of the causes of errors and service audit.
- 3. Phase three Continuous Quality Improvement: optimizing the processes, increasing competitiveness and increasingly better understanding of tourist's needs.

Quality in hospitality industry requires a special approach, due to the unique nature of the industry and its output. The hospitality sector consists of a wide spectrum of non-homogenous enterprises, which serve the needs of tourists visiting a destination. The unique nature of the hospitality industry and its output has a direct impact on the type of quality assurance principles and practices applied in tourism and necessities the adoption of a comprehensive approach to quality to which all parties involved conform.

Customer-facing E-business Services

The main application of e-business in tourism is the field of e-marketing or online tourism marketing, and sales, i.e. communication and transactions with customers. Initially, tourism companies used the internet primarily for information and communication, however recently they are applying ever more online transaction services. This common strategy is well-reasoned: Online-marketing – especially at the international level – is cheaper than traditional marketing activities and allows tourism companies to reach new user segments previously too costly to address. Furthermore, online transactions enable tourism enterprises to interact with end customers directly avoiding intermediaries which reduce their profit margins. This kind of dis-intermediation takes place simultaneously with developments towards reintermediation, where new entrants engage in tourism, e.g. online travel agencies.

Tourism is one of the leading economic sectors regarding customer-facing e-business activities. Again, the internet as a sales channel is more frequently used by large companies than by smaller ones, although the difference is less pronounced than across the other e-business indicators: a sizeable 30% of micro enterprises in tourism declared making online sales.

The high uptake of online sales activities as illustrated in exhibit 2-10 is an average of different subsectors of tourism: hotels, restaurants, travel agencies and tour operators. This indicates that the adoption rate of online sales in the accommodation sector is most probably even higher; restaurants, for example, are likely to be less engaged in online sales activities due to the nature of their products and services.

Innovative Mobile And Location-Based Services For Tourists

The use of ICT in tourism is most advanced in the field of customer-facing e-business activities. This applies particularly to e-marketing and online sales. Yet, most of these activities occur in the pre-trip phase. The provision of e-services for customers is already a mature market - in the sense of sophistication of applications on offer, not in the sense of customer demand, which is expected to show enormous growth further on. But the situation changes in the next phase of a holiday or business trip - on

the location of the destination during the trip itself. The provision of mobile e-services on-the-spot is still at an early stage of market development. Similar to other immature markets, this provides a multitude of business opportunities – with often risky investments, but considerable prospects of success alike.

	Make online sales	Sell more than 5% of products online	Sell more than 25% of products online	Website	Content Management System
Tourism (EU-7)	36	26	10	77	36
1-9 empl.	30	21	10	60	36
10-49 empl.	32	23	9	82	31
50-249 empl.	39	29	9	84	45
250+ empl.	45	32	11	91	42
Total (10 sectors, EU-7)	17	10	3	69	35
Food & beverages	12	4	1	65	28
Textile	14	4	1	71	28
Publishing & printing	37	17	3	81	44
Pharmaceutical	18	8	3	85	37
Machinery, equipment	11	4	0	88	32
Automotive	6	2	1	89	41
Aeronautics	8	2	0	63	15
Construction	4	2	0	49	28
Tourism	36	26	10	77	36
IT services	25	14	7	92	54
Base (100%)	all	all	all	all	Companies having a website
•			ment. Figures for siz m, EU-7, all), N = 52		

Source: e-Business W@tch (e-Business Survey 2005)

One of the most promising mobile applications for tourism is location-based services. Beyond the individual localization such services may also use a customer-specific profile, which may act as a filter delivering personalized information. Recently, numerous systems have been developed for usage in a tourism environment. Among the most important ones are WHAM, PALIO, CRUMPET, AMBIESENSE, ESTIA, ETOUR and LOVO. Systems like ESTIA, WHAM, LOVO and TRAVELSMART also provide back-office solutions which may Conduct bookings, payments and invoicing as well as functions for marketing and CRM. All examples presented above shall give an idea of the market in which mobile eservices for tourists must operate.

In most European countries, the market for mobile voice telephony is already saturated. The current and future development on the market goes towards a shift from predominantly classical telephony services to data services, which are increasingly used by ever more consumers. This evolution is accompanied by a transition from simple mobile devices designed primarily for voice telephony towards ever smarter user devices – be it some kind of smart-phone or some kind of PDA with network connectivity. Thus, restrictions regarding the technical capabilities of mobile devices and – with the introduction of 3G networks, which are currently being rolled out – limitations in mobile bandwidth, are diminishing.

This opens up opportunities for new innovative services in a promising market, with plenty of chances for the tourism sector. There is a need for upcoming mobile e-services by tourists, especially when travelers are on their way to or at the destination. Yet, similar to any immature market, there are still some barriers to overcome. Many potential users will be skeptical at the beginning in adopting innovative new services. However, if the new mobile service provides them with useful and affordable content that enhances their experience then it might be adopted (cf. Ghandour / Buhalis 2003). This assumption is shared by many experts (e.g. Kräutler et al. 2003).

"Tourism can be a vector for rapid development of so-called third generation (3G)"

Mobile services. Compatibility problems need to be overcome, but so long as attractive services can be offered at reasonable prices, there is a huge market among tourists for information delivered to mobile phones and devices." (European Commission, DG Enterprise 2005)

Two categories of services can be considered:

• The mobile access to the usual internet web sites. The content remains the same; it is the terminal which is different. If that evolution represents an improvement compared with current internet services, it is seen as an ICT sector responsibility to invest in networks and promote their services.

• Services dependent on localization. It is in that category of services that tourism can benefit most. Localization opens a large domain for innovative applications (security and alert, real time information, guiding services, etc)."

CONCLUSIONS

So, at the end we can conclude that there is a lack of well-established sustainable business models for mobile services in tourism as this market is still in its infancy. Currently, there are some indications that e.g. navigation and tour guide services are appreciated by users if they do not have to pay for these services separately, but they are part of some 'package' with other services the users pay for. Second, due to the immaturity of the market early adopters may gain the competitive

Advantage of the first mover. Tourism destinations offering innovative mobile

Services to their guests may gain an important lead over competing regions. Especially, location-based services seem very promising.

Third, the market is in a constant state of flux, especially regarding user devices, where PDAs, mobile phones and GPS devices tend to converge. Today, the multitude of user devices is a big technological barrier for providers of mobile services. Therefore, many providers rely on business models where they rent user devices in order that they can design their software for only one type of hardware. Yet, in the long term these providers might limit their activity to the supply of software and contents and the user might use his personal mobile device – whatever kind of device this may be.

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INTERACTIVE HUMAN REOURCES EDUCATION SOLUTIONS - THE PROVEN PATH TO SUCCESS

Elvira Nica, the Academy of Economic Studies, Bucharest

ABSTRACT

Electronic performance support systems are computer-based systems that improves worker productivity by providing on-the-job access to integrated information, advice, and learning experiences. While traditional universities are struggling with their complex missions, the world of e-learning further expanded. Specialist thinking is bringing more and more expertise on many aspects of e-learning. Books, papers as well as many projects funded by the EU explain what is necessary to come to efficient and effective e-learning, create virtual campuses and make virtual universities function. Nowadays, the organizations are confronted with more than obvious technical realities: the accessible information stocks are growing exponentially, in direct relation with a market of adequate demands; today's computers process enormous data quantities and the data tele-transmission is performed at amazing speed. Within an organization there are pre-eminently social spaces where the human and the spiritual coexist. It is here that the members of the organization permanently cooperate in the fulfilling of several joint tasks.

JEL: J24; J81; O15; O33

KEYWORDS: interactive education, resourceful solutions, successful variables, progress pathways, educational systems.

INTRODUCTION

The effect of education as component of human capital on economic growth is difficult to quantify, although trials have been made through the residual method. Thus, Edward Denison evaluated the contribution of physical capital and of other factors to economic growth, on the example of the United States of America through the "disintegration" method of the concept of productivity. In his survey "The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives Before US" reaches the following fundamental conclusion: out of the increase of labor productivity, meaning of the product on each individual worker, only 10% is assigned to the invested physical capital, while the rest 90% is due to knowledge, education and the organization of the economic activity, meaning the technological progress which thus becomes the main factor of development nowadays.

Nowadays, the organizations are confronted with more than obvious technical realities: the accessible information stocks are growing exponentially, in direct relation with a market of adequate demands; today's computers process enormous data quantities and the data tele-transmission is performed at amazing speed. Within an organization there are pre-eminently social spaces where the human and the spiritual coexist. It is here that the members of the organization permanently cooperate in the fulfilling of several joint tasks.

Classroom use of interactive video is discussed in terms of its benefits as an educational strategy and the drawbacks of teacher preparation. It is noted that there are currently three levels of interactive video use: (1) a monitor and videodisc player with interaction accomplished manually by manipulating the videodisc player; (2) a videodisc player with a built-in microprocessor which executes precoded programs on the disc; and (3) a videodisc player interfaced with a computer and controlled by a program authored by the user. Other advantages of interactive video discussed include use of color, motion, branching, feedback,

data storage, information presentation, and slide presentation. Other disadvantages noted include cost, lack of courseware, and teacher attitudes toward their changing role in the classroom.

THE EVOLUTIONARY TREND OF INTERACTIVE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

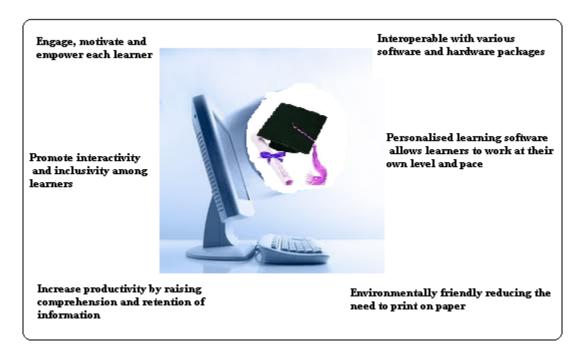
The Internet represents both the medium of distribution of the materials, and also the communication channel between the involved actors. Functionally, for the time being, only at the level of higher education and in adults' education, the training system via Internet adapts the components of the traditional didactic method / face – to – face: planning, specific content and methods, interaction, support and evaluation. E-

Learning type portals are real data storages that allow the interconnection of various types of activities in order to obtain automation and render efficiency to the decisional process. Distributed learning allows the performance of an educational process of the highest quality, substantiated by a modern education and having a great perspective, personalized depending on the individual needs that are becoming more and more exigent and complex.

In an economy based on knowledge the farmers have to be as well trained as the industrial workers, according to the specific features of work, of course. The technological development and the productivity of the factors imply lifelong training (education) and higher and higher investments in human capital.

E-learning comprises all forms of electronically supported learning and teaching. The information and communication systems, whether networked or not, serve as specific media to implement the learning process. The term will still most likely be utilized to reference out-of-classroom and in-classroom educational experiences via technology, even as advances continue in regard to devices and curriculum.

Figure 1: Interactive Human Reources Education Solutions Benefits



The process of professional training and the industrial models have some elements in common; more and more often we hear the term "industrialization of training". The changes of the job market impose a continuous modernization of the training structures. Practically, the modernization of education triggers the apparition of new professional demands (which imply new professional skills). In the domain of cultural services, the emphasis falls on vocational qualities of the human resources.

The skill required will affect all kinds of jobs al all levels, not only in the tourism industry. As skill requirements change because of the technology, the education and training needed by workers must also change.

Another important modification that the Internet produced is the making of a new ecosystem, in which the learning process is more and more accomplished in real time, the working spaces becoming less and less important. Thus the learning process must align to the advanced technologies, to the purposes of the organizations and institutions and to the concept of sustained development.

Taking into account the perpetual development of human capital within this new economy we can say that the use of new technologies is an evolutionary process, which allows improving business processes, provided there is a primordial ongoing review of strategies, techniques and tools to companies who choose the path to this new digital economy.

Special role it plays, of course, globalization through the generalization of technological changes creating a substantive dimension of competitiveness between firms. But at the same time, it can not be obtained sustainable competitive advantages in the long term. Examples from the global market, demonstrates the validity of this concept.

In conclusion, most ergonomy's field specialists consider that achieving an interdisciplinary found, in its profound sense, in all of the ergonomic researches preparation, realization and finalization phases need an significant team effort, from which depends the development of these researches itself.

This fact is mentioned because virtual's research team founds the organizational and institutional framework in which it develops a permanent scientifically and compartmental education, through revealing the team's cognitive, attitudinal and affective dimensions and also revealing the importance of the interdisciplinary attitude during the ergonomic research, as a premise to growing its contribution to creating a scientifically foundation of labor projection, generally, and job's projection, especially.

Meanwhile, the optimal communication technologies are also increasing the degree of innovation through the possibility of aggregating virtual human resources and their ideas, generating tangible effects at the microeconomic and macroeconomic scale. The mission of the Continuing Education Department is to provide opportunities and activities to promote lifetime learning. The student of today is anyone at any level or age who wants to be at their best in their personal or professional lives and we are committed to delivering an array of programs to suit every need.

Abbreviations like CBT (Computer-Based Training), IBT (Internet-Based Training) or WBT (Web-Based Training) have been used as synonyms to e-learning. Today one can still find these terms being used, along with variations of e-learning such as elearning, Elearning, and eLearning. The terms will be utilized throughout this article to indicate their validity under the broader terminology of E-learning.

In conclusion, human capital has become in the new digital economy, a factor of strategic enterprise with a significant share of the capital, requiring the development of human capacities at all levels of society, locally and nationally.

EUROPEAN FOUNDATION FOR QUALITY IN E-LEARNING

The European Foundation for Quality in eLearning (EFQUEL) is a membership organisation which is based in Brussels, Belgium. It is a network with over 100 member organisations from Europe and beyond such as other networks, universities, corporations and national agencies.

The Foundation serves as sustainable and proactive network and provides valuable services to the worldwide eLearning community.

EFQUEL provides support, transparency, open participation and leadership for a broad range of topics. The purpose of the foundation is to involve actors in a European community of users and experts to share experiences on how eLearning can be used to strengthen individual, organisational, local and regional development, digital and learning literacy, and promote social cohesion.

Decision makers in universities have to be involved in discussions and convinced about the real possibilities of ICT. This should be done in a non-technical way and in the context of their own cultural context taking into account their current preoccupations. It is necessary to overcome the gap between the converted and the non-believers. If this process is neglected, bottom up ICT initiatives in teaching and learning will not blossom.

E-learning is essentially the computer and network-enabled transfer of skills and knowledge. E-learning applications and processes include Web-based learning, computer-based learning, virtual classroom opportunities and digital collaboration. Content is delivered via the Internet, intranet/extranet, audio or video tape, satellite TV, and CD-ROM. It can be self-paced or instructor-led and includes media in the form of text, image, animation, streaming video and audio.

Thus, defined more as e-education, the semantic area of the e-learning concept interferes with and is superposed variably indefinitely upon a multitude of terms rendering the variety of the didactic experiences that can beneficiate of technological support: computer – assisted / mediated training or digital / mobile / online learning / education (digital / mobile / online education / assignment), multimedia training etc. Under the name of didactic / educational software, a large scale of electronic materials (on digital / multimedia support) are developed in order to simplify the process of education: maps, dictionaries, encyclopedias, didactic films, presentations in various formats, books (e-books), tests, tutorials, simulations, software that forms abilities, software of practicing, didactic games, etc.

Lately, there has been a more and more significant focus on the selection of open-source multimedia technologies (free source) because of the very wide public to whom the educational materials are destined. The accessibility is a major request of everything that is published on the Web, and the use of any proprietary technology limits from the start the number of beneficiaries.

This is one of the major reasons for which the multimedia specialists developed languages of opened multimedia technologies. XHTML and SMIL languages are two of these technologies useful in developing the e-learning sites. XHTML and SMIL languages are adopted by many educational sites first of all for its accessibility. XHML needs the popular navigator Internet Explorer, and SMIL – as standard recommended by the Web Consortium – enjoys the attention of many implementers offering free players as for example RealPlayer.

Electronic performance support systems (EPSS) is a computer-based system that improves worker productivity by providing on-the-job access to integrated information, advice, and learning experiences. While traditional universities are struggling with their complex missions, the world of e-learning further expanded. Specialist thinking is bringing more and more expertise on many aspects of e-learning. Books,

papers as well as many projects funded by the EU explain what is necessary to come to efficient and effective e-learning, create virtual campuses and make virtual universities function.

The advantages of education via Internet are multiple: the necessity of storage spaces, the numerous personnel is eliminated, the dispatches costs are considerably reduced, there is a flexible system for each student in the sense that the student has the possibility to choose the parts to be printed and those to remain in electronic format, the dispatch in time of the material to the student – the student can access as many times as he wants, whenever and wherever the material is required, integration of some variety of learning media: text, graphics, static and animated image, sound, short films, access to materials from other hundred thousands sources, some of them by means of directs links from the origin site, integration of the connections with the tutors and with other students, by means of the web site.

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INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PUBLIC ORDER EMPLOYEES BY EMPOWERING TRAINING PROCESS CO-FINANCED BY THE EUROPEAN FUND

Elvira Nica, the Academy of Economic Studies, Bucharest Catalina Carmen Huba (Stefanescu), Academy of Economic Studies in Bucharest Alexandra Mironescu, Romanian-American University

ABSTRACT

The effectiveness of public services provided by state administration is determined by higher qualification of the personnel; since is common knowledge that public administration institutions albeit financially and materially resourceful do not obtain the estimated results precisely because they lack highly trained officers. Not even a law founded on the best of intentions will perform on the behalf of the public interest but for the instructed, specialized officers to put into practice what they have been learning through the process of constant up to date training. Without a massive input of European non-refundable funds, the Romanian unbending public budget cannot be perceived as having a stimulating function in the economy, on the whole. Starting from this point, the following survey aims at providing an analysis of the level of European pre-accession and post-acccession funds input existent in Romania, with a particular look on the European funds already absorbed and of the projects which have either been implemented or are currently being implemented.

JEL: J24, J81, H55.

KEYWORDS: European Funds, effectiveness of public services, public order employees, training process cofinanced, human's professional needs.

INTRODUCTION

The society evolved and with it also the human's professional needs. Employees want and need to be acknowledged for their valuable and extra contributions. Rewards and recognition are powerful tools for demonstrating appreciation and reinforcing those behaviors that lead to superior products, outstanding support, strong supplier relationships, and lifelong customers. Digitalized societies primary tool for providing spot rewards is new total rewards process, a resource for global compensation, benefits, variable pay, equity and rewards plus recognition program information as well as job architecture valuable information.

The analysis of the conceptual elements of reforming public administration starts from the premise that the respective concept implies action programs, new interfaces between the managerial methods and a new spirit that facilitates the adaptation of the enterprise to new tendencies. Every institution should organize its activities from a global perspective and increase its capacity of observation and, through its employees, partners and agents, be able to foresee changes that will take place in its business environment. All these imply that the institution should find and capitalize on unknown or neglected competences, taking into account hypotheses sustained by ignored employees and, therefore, promoting knowledge growth.

Knowledge, information and communication are new factors of development, while the industrial speed of changes is determined by a global factor, also called the technical and scientific revolution. Now, knowledge is the most important strategic resource of material wealth and social development, and the computer is the technical symbol of change. Without a massive input of European non-refundable funds, the Romanian unbending public budget cannot be perceived as having a stimulating function in the economy, on the whole. Starting from this point, the following survey aims at providing an analysis of the level of European pre-accession and post-accession funds input existent in Romania, with a particular look on the European funds already absorbed and of the projects which have either been implemented or are currently being implemented.

THE ECONOMIC FOOTPRINT OF EU ACCESSION FUNDS DRAWN BY ROMANIA

Without a massive input of European non-refundable funds, the Romanian unbending public budget cannot be perceived as having a stimulating function in the economy, on the whole. Starting from this point, the following survey aims at providing an analysis of the level of European pre-accession and post-accession funds input existent in Romania, with a particular look on the European funds already absorbed and of the projects which have either been implemented or are currently being implemented.

According to the objective designed by the Romanian Goverment for 2010, the total sum of the preaccession and post-accession funds is of 4,3 billion euro. The financial aid granted to Romania between 1991 and 2006 has risen to aprox. 6810 billion euro. These pre-accession funds will continue to finance the implementing of the current projects by 2011. From these funds, the Phare assistance has meant 3618 billion euro, which have been mainly invested in the alignment with the EU acquis, enhancing the administrative capacity and financing necessary investments. Starting with 2000 onwards, the Phare program has supported activities and investments concerning Economic and Social Cohesion.

For the period 2000-2006, a sum of 2975 billion euro were earmarked for the Phare, Transition Facility, Sapard and ISPA programs. According to a EU Commission Report concerning the administration of the European funds, for the 2004-2006 period, a total sum of 1,3 billion euro was granted to Romania through Phare funds, out of which the EU Community has so far disbursed 980 billion euro, representing aprox. 72%; as a consequence, 169 billion euro have yet to be contracted, until the deadline. Following 2007, corresponding to the transition period, Romania has continued to the benefit from temporary financial assistance through the Transition Facility, in the sum of 46,5 billion euro and oriented towards the development and enhancing of the administrative and judicial capacity, in view of implementing and enforcing EU legislation.

According to the 2010 project budget, at the chapter dedicated to the Phare programs, annex no. 3/15 coresponding to the Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism, the allocated budget of 739 billion euro was contracted in proportion of 97,31%. The Phare 2003 Economic and Social Cohesion concluded on the 31st of May 2009, that is, a 91,31 % input degree. For the 2004 Economic and Social Cohesion Program, planned to conclude on the 31st of May 2010, 1358 billion euro have been disbursed so far – an input rate of 87,39 %. The other PHARE programs are due to finish in November 2010 and November 2011. For the projects currently under implementation, 221 billion euro have been paid – an input degree of 52%.

For the 2007-2010 period, Romania was given 35,86 billion lei, out of which, on the 28th of February 2010, for the 7 operational programs, 15.620 projects have been submitted; a number of 3.962 projects, summing up 36,95 billion lei (1 euro = 4.2325 lei) were approved, 2.333 projects are being financed (24,86 billion lei – out of which 15,15 billion lei is EU contribution). At present, comparing to the situation dated the 31st of January 2010, 52 more contracts/financing decisions have been registered, summing up 24,84 billion lei EU financing and representing 69,27 % of the EU contribution to the approved projects, with respect to the money allocated by EU for 2007 -2010.Payments to the beneficiaries have been made - 2,84 billion lei, divided as follows:

- pre-financing payments – 1,94 billion lei;

- EU contribution – 0,85 billion lei;

- state budget contribution – 0,05 billion lei .

The payments register an input rate of only 7,79 % of the entire value allocated for the 7 operational programs approved by the EU for 2007 - 2010. Education is the fundamental social phenomenon of transmitting life experience and knowledge from a generation to another. It endows the employee both with a group identity and an individual one, encouraging the efforts directed to the group's target which facilitates the information flow inside the organization.

PUBLIC ORDER EMPLOYEES BY EMPOWERING TRAINING PROCESS CO-FINANCED BY THE EUROPEAN FUND

Continuous learning represents the means for modern citizen to better provide for himself from both from a quantitative and a qualitative standpoint through additionally developing his skills and aptitudes. The ways to realize this are somewhat different, ranging from formal education to non-formal or informal education. The effectiveness of public services provided by state administration is determined by higher qualification of the personnel; since is common knowledge that public administration institutions albeit financially and materially resourceful do not obtain the estimated results precisely because they lack highly trained officers. Not even a law founded on the best of intentions will perform on the behalf of the public interest but for the instructed, specialized officers to put into practice what they have been learning through the process of constant up to date training.

Regarding, public order in Romania represents the state authority invested by law with duties and competences in the field of public order and safety and with police responsibilities. Public expenditures represent a financial concept that translates the economical and social relations between the state (on one hand) and the legal and natural persons (on the other hand) into financial terms when it comes to using the state financial resources and to putting into practice its responsibilities and duties. Public expenditures refer to the allocation of the public finance, namely the division and use of the state financial resources.

It is important to establish some important financial funds in order to satisfy the general needs of the society. These funds will benefit from the gross domestic product and shall be used to support the national and local social needs.Public order represents an important element of the Romanian security policy meant to safeguard both the citizen and the state. The Ministry of Administration and Interior of Romania includes the police and the gendarmerie, the two structures responsible of securing public order in peace time or during states of emergency. The Ministry of Administration and Interior plays an important role in adjusting the objectives of the Romanian development to the objectives of the European security and stability. Reforming public administration in Romania is one of the top priorities of the current government; one of the key solutions to this much looked-for reform is to employ the continuous learning approach in training public officers.

The government reaction to lifelong learning wishes to highlight the importance of continuous learning for Romanian public officers; the substance of this all lies in the fact that continuous learning and the development of human capital facilitate the fulfillment of the main objective of both the central and the local public administration – that is, complying with public interest. Constant training and continuous learning seem to picture the solution so that today's employee might keep its post and at the same time maintain a competitive position on the labor market, given the fact that the upgrading of knowledge takes place every 5 to 6 years now. Innovation holds the key to ongoing improvements in living standards, as well as to solving pressing social challenges. Skilled people play a crucial role in innovation through the new knowledge they generate, how they adopt and develop existing ideas, and through their ability to learn new competencies and adapt to a changing environment.

As of September the 29th, 2009, the project "SMIS 4427 – Implementation of a E- learning type system for the continuous training and retraining of the Romanian Gendarmerie employees" is in progress, co-financed by the European Fund of Regional Development, based on the financing agreement signed with the Ministry of Communications and Informational Society, Intermediary Body for the 3rd Priority Axis – " Information and Communications Technology for Private and Public Sectors" of the Operational Sectorial Program "Economic Competitive Growth". The total value of the project is lei 23,258,047.52, out of which the financial nonredeemable assistance is of lei 19,544,577.75. the project objective is to "Increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the training process for the Romanian Gendarmerie employees by implementing an e-learning system to allow the employees access to online and off-line courses at the highest technological level, using the information technology, in 62 different locations throughout the country", which shall lead to the provision of high quality services for the population. The non-refundable support is meant to accelerate the implementation of the project, because the financing has been done from the beginning at the level of all 62 locations so as to cover 690 training sessions.

This financing is essential to the implementation of the project. As it can be seen from the project analysis (which does not provide income), it represents a significant saving source with regard to the organisational activity (the social costs of the public services decreases when we consider a single item), and, at the same time, an important social value source. Both benefits have money equivalents, but do not produce income which could allow the implementation and the exploitation of the system. In the current context of maintaing public order in our society, any savings and any public service efficiency growth should have the same target – extending the capacity of ensuring and managing public order and safety. Consequently, the non-refundable financial assistance for the project implementation, as well as the issue of financing the administration of the system with local resources are sine qua non conditions for attaining the goals established in the beginning. Following the project implementation, when the non-refundable financing finishes, the financing sources will continue to be provided by the Romanian Gendarmerie's own and private budget.

The new Member States have joined the internal market in the condition of poor economic competitiveness and insufficient reform of their national economies, to be able to connect without asymmetric shocks. The non-reimbursable structural assistance gives a chance to speeding up the processes of gaps recovering and structural differences tumbling. The more the support replaces an important part of the financial effort that should be done by a state on its own, the more helpful and precious is.

While there are a number of types of training that could be chosen, in-service training remains the most common. For more junior personnel these could include training at a local training college, or second, while for mid-level and senior personnel, specialized training has proven helpful. Study trips abroad are generally popular, and can bring benefits, but are expensive and can easily be abused. All training provides a form of perk, and scrupulous transparency is required in the selection of candidates. However, it is rarely cost effective to invest in training civil servants unless there is a program to improve employment conditions.

Public order represents an integral part of the social life, a safety and stability element and a feed back effect of the social action. Public order finance is included in the public finance, a field of economics concerned with the administration and design of the funds needed to operate the public order institution and with paying the contributions to the state budget. The public order and national security institutions are the beneficiaries of one of the highest budgetary allowance and they are mainly funded from the redistribution of the gross domestic product. Public order expenditures are non-productive expenditures that absorb a part of the gross domestic product.

Today's Europeans live in a complex social and political world. More than ever before, individuals want to plan their own lives, are expected to contribute actively to society, and must learn to live positively with cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity. Education, in its broadest sense, is the key to learning and understanding how to meet these challenges.

Due to the economic development and modernization, the need for goods and services increase and new requirements regarding the way in which the resources are used appear. It becomes clear that the public order expenditures are rather high for the state budget. This is the reason why all countries should manage and design their public order expenditures very rationally. Such an institution needs not only time to become operational but also financial and moral support, alongside with technical and professional compatibility. The topic of the present article deals with the identification of an assessment model for the actual expenditures on the public order in Romania.

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INSTILLING CONFIDENCE IN EMPLOYEES IN ORDER TO INCREASE LOYALTY AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Elvira Nica, the Academy of Economic Studies, Bucharest Viorel Lefter, the Academy of Economic Studies, Bucharest Gheorghe H. Popescu, Dimitrie Cantemir University, Bucharest

ABSTRACT

The organizations must ensure a motivational environment for generation loyal employees that can easly acces professional and personal progress, job ascension, as well as a support for progress in the careers of those loyal employees who have managed to make themselves respected by their colleagues through their hard work and worldwide recognized results. The beneficiaries of thefinancial and non-financial new motivational strategie, research and development results are firstly the members of the entities, who increase, thus, their chances of professional success, then the organizations that take advantage of the exploitation of a loyal specialized human capital, from their own financial sources or other legal ways, and, last but not least, the state/nation by rising the living standard of a well-prepared population.

JEL: J24; J81; O15; O33.

KEYWORDS: human capital, loyalty, motivational systems, acces professional and personal progress, employee retention.

INTRODUCTION

In the current economic framework we should focus on ensuring optimal efficiency of staff motivation system by obtaining a report that rates the optimum allocated resources – results report and developing policies to promote increased labor loyalty, as occupational type (between jobs) and the geographic type (between regions and countries), because this phenomenon contributes to motivational progress to greater employment and work in a balanced and sustainable loyalty development.

In light of these policies, to ensure balance withinmativational processes, in its all, we can get, claiming the fair insurance of employment function, the function of efficient use of workers loyalty, increasing the function of motivational effects per capita, as well as professional and personal progress. The contemporary transition from a traditional working environment to a loyalty based work environment has revolutionized working processes in a unique manner in which transactions of financial capital, information and last but not least human capital is realized. The experience reveals although that the business itself is adapting slowly to new opportunities. The successful implementation of strategies for elearning also involves, first, a reengineering of the culture and management of the entire organization starting with the methods for initiating and promoting staff motivation, and continuing with the redesign of new business models based on strategies for optimizing the management of human capital in the context of stochastic spreading of the opportunities and benefits of employee retention.

There are circumstances when the leadership neglects professional motivation of employees and thus maintains in office a larger number of bureaucrats, trading quantity for quality. One cannot help but notice the stringent need to train employees so that they can make use of those pieces of newly acquired knowledge in their special field of expertise. Moreover, it is equally necessary to pay attention to the professional motivation of those employees who hold management positions. What is required is a basic motivation level for any workerer in respective of the position he actually holds in the institutions.

Additionally to this, specialized motivations should be developped for different administrative positions, in regard to distinct area of instruction, the motivation in promoting management and psycho-sociology elements.

INCREASE LOYALTY AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION

As recognition is being known worldwide as the greatest motivator and one of the greatest strengths of any organization are the people who work there, the necessity of implementing the new total motivational process becomes acute. Long-service employees provide the knowledge, experience, and attitudes that are responsible for much of successful societies. In recognition of this, new total motivational retributions are presented to eligible employees in celebration their career milestones loyalty and to acknowledge their contribution to the company.

The organizations must ensure a favorable environment to the professional progress, to the job ascension, as well as a support for progress in the careers of those loyal employees who have managed to make themselves respected by their colleagues through their hard work and worldwide recognized results. The beneficiaries of the information, research and development results are firstly the members of the entities, who increase, thus, their chances of professional success, then the organizations that take advantage of the exploitation of a specialized human capital (from their own financial sources or other legal ways) and, last but not least, the state/nation by rising the living standard of a well-prepared population.

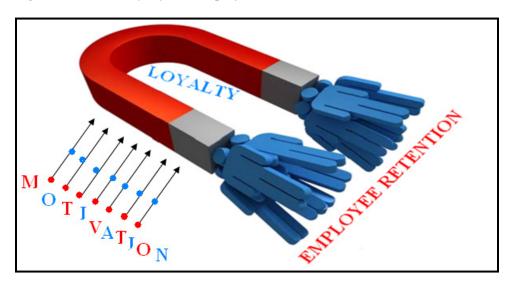


Figure1: Increase Loyalty and Employee Retention

The new motivational needs compel the organizations to redefine the employees' skills and competence, their specific work tasks and the marketing approaches. A progressive tendency is represented by the reduction of the economic loses, of the services offered by manpower which is also low prepared and motivated. The experts believe in the opportunities and benefits of loyal employee retention. In order to have a society able to adapt itself to the forms that have been developed by introducing the new technologies, and especially the Internet, you must educate it. The costs are quite high at the beginning, but the effort is worth it. It is well known that any learning process must have a practical finality, promoting the opportunities and benefits of employee retention.

The opportunities and benefits of employee retention is a concept which requires debates for a long time, before being taken over or transformed according to your own principles or possibilities. Employee

retention is not a new strategic area in the motivational field, representing a modality of labor growing productivity by learning known and practiced for at least one hundred years. Alos, according to distance education, the opportunities and benefits of employee retention comprises several types of efficient comunication: by correspondence, radio, television, and internet. The internet economy is strongly connected with its developing modalities. A society desiring to develop must be initially educated, in order to understand the benefits of the new modality of social integration. The practical finality of the "e-" phenomenon in the educational field is the application of an e-learning system.

Financial and non-financial motivational parameters that generate highly qualified human capital migration towards other companies is being materialized in the need of human factors to size their environmental quality of living, social factors, economic and political ones having a major impact on the decision to leave the country of origin. In parallel exogenous parameters, materialized into the idea of a better life in another state, is being solidified by the advertising of economic Heaven from outside limits of the country, working together to promote the intention of migration.

The human capital development strategies are focused on the dimensions of human capital loyalty, in terms of strategic and operational needs of the national economy, in order to ensure efficient use of the resources. They will help formulate strategies for economic development through the establishment of future human capital requirements, by identifying ways to use top of this capital, where human capital is available to support implementation of plans of economic development. But we have shown that there are stringent limits on the use of human capital, such as shortages of qualified personnel, difficulties in recruitment of labor, low labor productivity, flexibility and adaptability to climate insufficient or discourage cooperation and commit personnel.

HUMAN CAPITAL MANAGEMENT CONTROL IN VIEW OF INCREASING LOYALTY OF THE INDIVIDUAL

The emergence of new motivational strategies assumes the metamorphoses of human capital management control in view of increasing loyalty of the individual. Taking as a fundament the concept of human factor having a limited capacity of attention, perception and memory, modern society is found to be in the stage of development and implementation need of integrated motivational systems to enable the completion and updating the cognitive database of automated systems features and the maintenance at an optimal level in its dynamic context.

By the same token, rapid financial and non-financial motivational development requires the creation of human capital competent to use the made available equipment by the employment company. Thus, the new motivational pathways, paint out as being complex, generating the need for human factor with high qualification, which has the necessary know-how in order to work with the advanced technology and to contribute to the economy flourishing through promoting the use of intelligence at work. The highly sophisticated implemented systems with great preponderance require loyal employees, so that the investment in their training to add value within the same company. Thus the link between motivational progress and individual skills and knowledge are reinforced in the point where the economic development focus crosses the intellectual development axis, and the maintenance of the common point of convergence to an optimal level of existence is carried out through motivation of human capital remaining in the country of origin through loyalty.

However, the exoudus of high trained employees is not determined only by the respect for democratic principles, equality before the law and non-discrimination, but also by the amount of salary offered by other states, in accordance with the quality of work recognition of worker. Thus, the wage gap between workers on the labor market, and workers in the market labor of another company and the publicity that this issue generates, strengthens migrant brains flows.

In regard to young people, the arguments for such an exodus are not hard to formalized, as investments made by other companies in their educational system grow and offering suitable jobs, conducting studies during and immediately after their graduation and plus the prospect of achieving superior financial benefits or transparent promoting of human factors by skills and competencies into the appropriate positions, or providing intellectual and professional development within the framework of famous multinational companies, lead to the birth and enhance the intrinsic need to leave home.

Human resource is, without a doubt, the most important resource in every company. The efficient usage of human resources, the evaluation opportunities of the employees, the proper selection methods, special programs for personal motivation, are just a few examples for obtaining success of company's activities. The human resource management represents the main area to improve in order to have a competitive market position. Regarding this, the implementation and development of informatics systems is considered to be a must in the human resources department.

The effectiveness of services provided by efficient administration is determined by higher qualification of the personnel; since is common knowledge that financially and materially resourceful managers obtain the estimated results precisely because they engage high trained officers. Not even a law founded on the best of intentions will perform on the behalf of the public interest but for the instructed, specialized officers to put into practice what they have been learning through the process of constant up to date motivation. New human resources strategy should support actions to increase labor market participation and measures to increase the attractiveness of the workplace, by promoting a friendly work environment and improving quality and productivity at work. However, increasing adaptability of workers involves promoting entrepreneurial culture, knowing that we face a dynamic economic environment, prepared to cope with rapid change caused by opening markets and expanding globalization, thus it requires managers who know how to make the optimal use of existing market opportunities and are the success factors of a business. Achieving a high employment and avoid the trap of inaction is essential for persons faced with the prospect of long-term unemployment, especially youth and elderly unemployed.

Today's financial and non-financial world is characterized by permanent changes in all fields of activity, especially in the social and economic domain, which has known an alert rhythm of change. We are thus witnesses to the transition to a knowledge-based economy, and here are some relevant factors to be taken into consideration: the accession to the European Union, the increase of the minimal national wage, the introduction of calculation indexes of the minimal national wage according to the level of professional motivation, the obligation of appointing a person for a certain job according to the education requirements of the respective position (higher education, high school education, unskilled workmen), to the apparition of social groups which promote the new processes and modify the changing tendencies. The transfer of brain-drain to brain-gain can be achieved only in the context of free access to information policies in the Member States, so young people and adult population hold the key to use economic principles in order to ensure the economic and also social progress.

The interdependence between economic growth and human capital quality, determined the implementation of policies that support the return of "brains" in the country of origin, while ensuring the favorable conditions for their development in the workplace, in the purpose of promoting the maintenance and improvement of life quality for them. The primary objective in this area is to provide skill and experience, so as to secure optimum performance obtained using the most appropriate method. In achieving this goal, a very important role they have the strategies and personnel policies as modernization of work processes are not suitable for achieving economic efficiency if it was intended to and motivation of staff.

Loyalty instilling is therefore another step in tackling current global crisis causes, introducing a new lifestyle that involves intensive use of digital information in all spheres of human existence and activity. The increased importance and volume information, widely and quickly provides access to information of all actors of contemporary society, which implies a new way of working and knowledge evolution recorded in the technical unprecedented, this resulted in the emergence of new telematics services and multimedia applications that combine sound, image and text, using various means of communication: telephone, fax, television, computers. Therefore, sustainable development of human resources policies and strategies must take into account the upward trend and the trend of knowledge economy; inevitably it fits himself into this development, even if they change their causes, factors and their features. The global economic crisis is also part of the causes generating the recovery needs to intensify intellectual capital performance. Only in this way by optimizing the growth of strategies productivity human resources, we can pave the way towards loyalty and confidence, as the working environment became more complex, more dynamic and unpredictable.

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MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES SUSTAINABILITY RISKS IN A DYNAMICALLY CHANGING ENVIRONMENT

Elvira Nica, the Academy of Economic Studies, Bucharest Petronella Neacsu Matei, The Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies Alexandra Mironescu, Romanian-American University

ABSTRACT

The current globalization of markets, development of information and communication technologies and the internationalization of cultures caused great changes in the world. All these changes took place against a background of great uncertainties and risks that bring new challenges, both in the public and private sectors. In this context, implementing effective risk management process and developing business continuity plans, enable managers to deal with these uncertainties and overcome the threats facing organizations. Risk management is a process increasingly better uderstood, but the existence of a procedural framework, the knowledge of related components and processes does not guarantee an appropriate approach of risk within the organization. An effective risk management system requires an organizational culture that supports an integrated approach of risks identification and management throughout the organization.

Taking into account the economic pressures, there is no denying that a strong culture of risk determines the health of an organization and its performance. Risk culture, an organizational culture component, is an interactive system of values and norms of behavior. Leadership can support the risk culture to influence a proper behavior, which helps the organization to meet its goals and embody its values.

JEL: J24, J81, L30, M16.

KEYWORDS: risk management, business continuity plan, dynamically changing environment, human resources sustainability, economic pressures.

INTRODUCTION

Within full economic crisis that threatens many sectors, organizations should review their strategy facing its reinvention of new economic models needs to secure the future. In this context, the organization of effective risk management and development of business continuity plans is the solution for organizations wishing to operate in an environment where manager's knowledge of information on potential risks, allows taking actions to prevent negative effects and making better decisions.

Evaluation and monitoring of risks important decisions became inevitable stages of decision making in large public or private organizations. Those charged with good governance must develop means of analysis and risk management and implement appropriate control tools. Risk management in the business, is a structured approach that involves strategy and processes, human resources, technology and knowledge.

Professional standards I.I.A. 2100-1 places risk management as an major activity in the responsibility of internal audit in the sense that it has the task of assessing the quality of risk management. In the absence of such a process, internal audit can help create a system of risk management and risk control that can allow risk management, without getting involved in the decision of implementing it. While significant progress in implementing an effective risk management process have been made, it is still a long way to

go before it can be said that all public sector organizations have an effective risk management system approached as a central element in the daily work of the organization.

Taking into account the fundamental element that in the human transfer of information, the digital encoding became indispensable, prioritizing the risks in accordance with the parameters relating to their importance and the efficient allocation of necessary funds, reveals to be a priority axis in the optimizing of work processes, outlining in this way the levels of partial risk and levels of global risk for risk factors introduced into the automatic system as exogenous variables.

European challenges brought us in front of new managerial paradigms, aimed at forming a culture of performance in both public and private sector. In this regard, efficiency, effectiveness and high quality of services offered by an organization, the replacement of hierarchical organizational structures, highly centralized to decentralized structures, where decisions on resource allocation and service delivery are taken closer to the place of delivery, flexibility to explore alternatives for direct public provision and regulation are constantly setting up the guidelines for underlining the sine qua non condition of cost efficiency optimizing.

Using modern technology represents a step toward diminishing the dangers that can occur during labor. The appreciation of the likelihood of the accident requires a rigorous coding, in order to identify risk, prior to the negative event. Thus:

PROBABILITY		PROBABILITATY OF PRODUCING A RISK SITUATION
CLASS	CODING	
Class 6	HF (high	 probability of producing consequences - very high
	frequency)	P>1 ⁻¹ /mounth.
Class 5	F (frequent)	 probability of producing consequences - high
		1 ⁻¹ /year <p<1<sup>-1/ month.</p<1<sup>
Class 4	LF (light	 probability of producing consequences - medium
	frequency)	2 ⁻¹ <p<1<sup>-1/ month.</p<1<sup>
Class 3	R (rare)	 probability of producing consequences - light
		5 ⁻¹ <p<2<sup>-1/ month.</p<2<sup>
Class 2	VR (very	 probability of producing consequences - very light
Class 1	rare) ER (extremely rare)	10 ⁻¹ <p<5<sup>-1/ year. – probability of producing consequences – extremely light P<10⁻¹/ year.</p<5<sup>

Table 1. The	Appreciation	of the likel	ihood of RISK	PRODUCING

Returning, we relief the appearance of best dot-matrix grading importance of their coding that can transmit real-time information on the likelihood of production accidents, the gravity of the consequences and the mechanisms of production thus giving us the opportunity to correct some elements of analysis.

In the current situation, work-integrated learning is viewed as a solution of facing the European Union new integration challenges that lie within the approaches, methods, techniques of companies generated by focusing on production and use of knowledge, which provides a superior way of development, in regard of multiple facets of knowledge. The need of adjusting Romanian economic principles to the new European guidelines is founded on the pillar of accessing new world wide opportunities. In business, the risks are complex and multiple, being speculative. Entrepreneurs assume certain risks in business at the start, but also during its course. For the organization's management is very important to identify and assess risks posed by current work or future to be able to base decisions on as complete information.

Moreover, in the context of promoting knowledge-based society, modern management activity can not be conceived without the use of information systems that support the provision and exploitation of information, material and outcome of decision making. Human resources increasingly complex and dynamic necessitate use digital systems that provide flexibility and decision support, even in the context of major changes. Expert systems are designed to build intellectual capital experience in a field and to make models on which simulation variants can be obtained thereby facilitating management processes. Therefore, the redesign and management should be a sine qua non by developments in knowledge-based society.

The capacity of organizations to address risks, depends on awareness of risk, how risk reporting processes are implemented and developed. The actual occurrence of financial and economic crises and of major disorders in economic activities generated within the labor market a major unemployment rate sizing, effect which required finding new solutions in order to restore the economic equilibrium.

Therefore the European strategies to develop a knowledge-based economy promoted the work-integrated learning policy that acts in synergy with the financial-economic cohesion policy and with the information society development initiative in order to highly capitalize new informational technologies, action that can create the socio-economic progress preconditions

Promoting the concept of the increased need of informational transfer from the academic sector towards the public and private sector we encounter a major aspect increasingly present on the point that companies should consider certain factors relating to sources of scientific opportunities as a present conditions for becoming increasingly competitive. According special attention to the empowerment of the academic spin-offs the organization also empower the essential knowledge and know-how transfer from the field of universities and research institutes into the economic activity through the direct involvement of their employees who participate in entrepreneurial activities.

Unstable economic environment, marked by the collapse of transnational companies, the scale and brutality of the current economic crisis have sparked a keen interest on corporate governance mechanisms and its effects on performance organizations.

Regarding the relationship between risk management and business continuity plan, most specialists recognize the complementarities of these processes, while highlighting differences regarding:

Methods

- Risk Management: Risk analysis;
- Business continuity plan: Analysis of the impact.
- Parameters used:
- Risk management: Probability and impact;
- Business continuity plan: Impact and time.

Type of incident:

- Risk management: All types of events classified by type of risk;
- Business continuity plan: The events that cause business interruption.
- The scale of the event:
- Risk management: All event costs;

• Business continuity plan: Strategy to deal with incidents provided that threatens the survival of the enterprise.

Framework:

• Risk management: The main risks that may affect the objectives;

• Business continuity plan: It focuses primarily on incident management exceeding in most business skills.

Intensity:

Risk management: All events, regardless of intensity;

 Business continuity plan: Rapid and unexpected events. (Source: Good Practice Guidelines 2008 -Business Continuity Institute)

To reduce the impact of risks from current financial and economic situation, enterprises, from the private sector but also the public sector, should develop means of analysis and risk management. Evaluation and monitoring of risks important decisions became inevitable stages of decision making in large public or private organizations. Globalization of markets, development of information and communication technologies and the internationalization of cultures caused great changes in the world. All these changes took place against a background of great uncertainties and risks that bring new challenges both in the public and private sectors.

Establishing priorities, strategy directions, strategic objectives, operational plans, assessment and control plans and performance indicators must take account of changing endogenous and exogenous variables of the public servant itself.

Furthermore, the economic growth of a country or a public sector may be related, in terms of human resource utilization, to the increasing number of employees or to the better use of the existing employees. Therefore, a thorough analysis of the performance scale periodical is required for each public servant, in the dimensioning of proactive involvement in specific activity.

Developing a business continuity risk plan is a necessity caused by factors existing within the organization but also by the regulators of markets. First we have the customers whose purpose is to ensure that no key service will be interrupted brutally. Then we have investors whose objective is to delineate exposure to major risks. Finally we mention the shareholders who claim an effective business continuity plan to limit exposure to risk and control costs involved in implementation of this process. These constraints imposed by shareholders and investors in the governance of companies are a strong reason to prepare a set of best practices that go beyond existing regulations.

New human resources strategy should support actions to increase labor market participation and measures to increase the attractiveness of the workplace, by promoting a friendly work environment and improving quality and productivity at work. However, increasing adaptability of workers involves promoting entrepreneurial culture, knowing that we face a dynamic economic environment, prepared to cope with rapid change caused by opening markets and expanding globalization, thus it requires managers who know how to make the optimal use of existing market opportunities and are the success factors of a business. Achieving a high employment and avoid the trap of inaction is essential for persons faced with the prospect of long-term unemployment, especially youth and elderly unemployed.

The knowledge based economy focuses on the needs of the human factors involved in an increasingly large design, implementation and use of goods and services, even when their very beginning moment of research and development. That being said, it is considered that human operator role is increasing, so it will be known as "a source of ideas and innovation" for the manufacturer and as a promoter of new technologies, in order to maintain and expand digital economy, from the maximizing the sustainability perspective of the new economy development.

The crisis is a wake-up call; the moment when we recognize that "business as usual" would consign us to a gradual decline, to the second rank of the new global order. This is Europe's moment of truth. It is the time to be bold and ambitious. To achieve a sustainable future, we must already look beyond the short term. Europe needs to get back on track. Then we must stay on track. That is the purpose of future Europe 2020. It's about more jobs and better lives. It shows how Europe has the capability to deliver smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, to find the path to create new jobs and to offer a sense of direction to our societies, according to 2010 European Commission mentioning.

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DIMENSIONING PROFIT THROUGH TEAM SYNERGY PROMOTION

Florina Liliana Stan, University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine, Bucharest

ABSTRACT

This multiforme crisis generates strong negative effects on trading environment characterized by an unprecedented concurentialitate and can even lead to the elimination of the specialty market, companies are refocusing their guidelines not to access flexible, adaptive and effective mateirale resources, financial, human and information held. Thus, the current economic and financial unstable intense pressure, primarily on the sales team in terms of sales volume and achieve consistency between the forecast targets.

As a motor company's sales team must be trained in order to find solutions to situations and brought forward the optimization of the use of available resources. In these circumstances it is suggested to clarify the optimal allocation of team goals and individual responsibilities in accordance with the availability of other resources. In building a successful team, manager's role is to make available to all users of a specific database used inter-departmental. This must be done so that each department can optimize their work on the same number of customers through the creation of technological packages adapted to individual customer needs.

JEL: J24, O15, P46.

KEYWORDS: profit, synergy, team, motivation, optimization.

INTRODUCTION

What period is more appropriate than the present one, characterized by severe financial crises, the effects can be seen well than anywhere else in the field of human resources, to promote team work strengthening synergy? Escape from the crisis lies in the strength and creativity of the team, from this point of view we understand the importance of harmonizing the organizational and individual objectives. Thus, in terms of constant profitability we advanceme the idea that is necessary to establish and maintain a team that works consistently.

The transition to a market economy characterized by fierce competition influenced the conceptualization of team success, which comes under the double aspect: as a product, as an expression of an effective manager and footprint as the motion, characterizing the active role of component members of the organization.

But in these times of crisis, sales teams coordinators may experience decreased productivity of those under their supervision, which has both objective reasons (the population declining revenues, which result in low availability of liquidity) and causes subjective, mainly related to sales force demotivation.

From this perspective, acceptance, according to which: there is no organization as such, but individuals who compose it, ie individuals customize professional, economic and social development, mainly located at a precise moment in their career, in light of its platform corporate culture management as a key tool in the birth and development of a new way to ensure consistent and profitable balance of the commercial team. So it was confirmed that an organization's own identity is created primarily by human factors which operates under the aegis of its successful teams, to access the pragmatic realization and exploitation of trade and investment opportunities.

TEAM SYNERGY - THE ENGINE OF A PROFITABLE COMPANY

This multiforme crisis generates strong negative effects on trading environment characterized by an unprecedented concurentialitate and can even lead to the elimination of the specialty market, companies are refocusing their guidelines not to access flexible, adaptive and effective mateirale resources, financial, human and information held.

Therefore, the primacy of sight eficare use all resources across the entire company, the current crisis can be also a revealing indicator of latent bugs, and an accelerator for business restructurings inevitable. But all this crisis is used to depict the quality of positive development, because it causes a revision of an improperly functioning.

Thus, the current economic and financial unstable intense pressure, primarily on the sales team in terms of sales volume and achieve consistency between the forecast targets. From this point of view, it requires efficient organization of team work in order to bring to a profitable level of current activity, putting the core device in the forefront of crisis management: effective communication grounded on coordination, cohesion and optimization. Also, designing and managing continuous transition from the working group in the successful team must continue to be crowned the overall analysis of a manager with a vision focused on sizing the market share held constant, within segment specialty.



Figure 1. Team Synergy

Managing the transition from individual to collective must be constantly revised in the light of the evolution of professional and personal characteristics of each member. Therefore, we can not discuss a strategy valid for a long time in the current commercial context, but rather a constant adaptation to market needs through continuous monitoring of the quality level of end customer satisfaction by creating an offer complete and competitive.

In these circumstances, it suggests clarification of the optimal allocation team and individual responsibilities in accordance with the availability of other resources. In building a successful team, manager's role is to make available to all Users of a specific database used inter-departmental. This must

be done so that each department can optimize their work on the same number of customers through the creation of technological packages adapted to individual customer needs.

Also, a customer while meeting existing needs, one of the basic obicetivele team coordinated by an effective manager is constantly manifesting in identifying market segments where the company can promote its product line and carry out commercial activities which bring added value.

OUTRUNNING PROBLEM-SITUATIONS- THE EMPOWERMENT OF A TEAM

Taking into account the occurrence of problem situations, the first reaction is inevitably generate tension and anxiety within the team, so it is recommended that the manager to effectively manage this challenge by advocating promoting mental composure: "Well, we have identified the problem, you must explore components and studying them, to think global and partial its implications and decide on the strategy to counter its effects, do not react in any way emotional. "

Most times, the pressure increases temporal and put the team in a state of emergency, to provide an immediate somand explicatuu the causes and consequences of problem situations. Therefore, it requires a determination of the limits of tolerance, which delineates "the decisional non-intervention", and ranges in commercial production of battery take decisions and initiate actions from managers.

Promote calm reactions that can open lines of communication through which ideas will overwhelm the team positive. Problem solving situations can be achieved through rational thought. Therefore, the principle is "do two steps back, examines the implications and design your strategy to ensure profitability."

When negotiators work in teams, consistency and cohesion of its members are extremely important. Internal conflicts, ambiguity of roles played in the team, inaccuracies, etc. prerogatives and powers of members. may become a fatal weakness in front of a partner who knows how to speculate.

Moreover, the manager is responsible to manage a communication strategy with subordinates, global, well set, without which an organization is unlikely to have an effective crisis communication. We recommend that the use of communication management system to achieve either independently or in combination with other management tools.

The uniqueness of the team can be competitive advantage in the specialty segment, so it is always important for the manager to put in value terms "we can win, are doing things differently than everybody else." Therefore, it requires gathering all information about the problem arose and the achievement of a brainstorming based on solving them successfully. We should always treat emergency with calm and reason. Central pillar around which all activities of the team will be constantly meeting customers' needs.

Despite the obvious advantages, the team at levels effective communication is key to success, with perfect timing, knowing that "a second sooner or later may lead to failure."

Why, focus on recruitment and selection of persons to be part of this team that does not manifest individualistic features. Man looking for team harmony is concerned about the feelings and mood of group members. He knows how to delegate tasks, strengthen cohesion grupului. In this respect, it is necessary that after the establishment of team capabilities, needs and individual preferences with organizational opportunities.

Promote such, the concept according to which successful team represents a number of individuals and a single soul, guided by honesty and trust. A business functional require a better cooperation between all its

This professional and personal involvement is inspired by the team leader who has the ability to make an employee a member of a team. Moreover, the manager must only necessary force to send team members a sense of belonging to a group of solid and efficient, competitive and profitable.

Reporting steady evolutionary trends in the market segment where the company operates, is one of the key elements that ensure profitable growth. Important is that the team must be thinking at the macro level and instill permanent report not to the market or historical achievements.

Therefore, why are teams important?

Because:

- > most suitable to solve complex problems that require different knowledge and opinions;
- an excellent learning environment;
- are more goal-oriented than the organization as a whole and more easily set their vision and a clear purpose;
- make better use of resources of each State;
- are more flexible than corporate groups, because they can be more easily formed, dissolved, reorganized, redimensioante;
- cultivate loyalty and operates on the principle "all for one and one for all";
- favors the devolution of responsibilities to offer guarantees as to control the behavior of its members, by their own rules.

As a motor company's sales team must be trained in order to find solutions to situations and brought forward the optimization of the use of available resources. Must always be to the fore the idea of "we" and "we will succeed.

Manager plays a vital role in sustaining the motivation of the team members are also basic and pillar steadfast in crisis situations, providing support in designing strategies to overcome problems arising, the central objective of achieving budgeted margin.

The bottom line is that team must be coordinated effectively and consistently motivated. Recognition performance achieved over a period of time must be a ritual practice became, in terms of supporting a successful handsome, brotherhood with organizational objectives should represent

No matter what name carries efforts to improve the team should strive to improve our offer to customers. Therefore, all efforts converge manager to obtain money by qualitative and quantitative response synchronized to the demands of business partners.

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THE QUANTITATIVE EMPOWERMENT OF BUILDING MATERIALS SALES AS A SYNERGIC OUTPUT OF SME'S REDESIGN STRATEGIES

Laurentiu Pestritu, The Academy of Economic Studies Bucharest

ABSTRACT

The paper focuses on the economic footprint analysis, in terms of building works market, revealing a significant fluctuation in the building works indexes, adjusted depending on the number of working days, building materials cost indexes and the output of the application of adaptive models for forecast purposes, which supports the entrepreneurial motivation to focus on short, medium and long term on the investment in sustainable development and innovation. Therefore, the relevant market diagnosis confirms that, in order to be competitive, in this period and within this market segment deeply affected by a major commercial decline, SME-s need to direct their efforts on structural development, while focusing on long-term value creation through customer and product portfolio development and the implementation and monitoring of relevant investment programs in order to support their sustainable development.

JEL: L74, N64.

KEYWORDS: quantitative growth, building materials sales, redesign strategy

INTRODUCTION

The diagnosis of the last period has revealed essential problems that have to be surpassed, as they cause payment flow slowing, difficulties related to technological reorganization, because of the financial investment percentage decrease for the research, development and innovation segment, subject to keeping the optimal level of quality - price ratio and structural disturbances, which prevent market position strengthening.

Business environment acknowledges the roughening of competitive conditions in building materials sales segment, as a result of the commercial decline in this field. At the same time, the clear effect of building works decline is the creation a much higher increase for low-cost ranges, the market becoming, in many cases, only an indicator of the lowest acquisition cost. Thus, the period preceding the global financial and economic crisis reveals "the permanent competitors number increase at a rate higher than market expansion" as particular competition roughening factor, in antithesis thereto being the current competition roughening factor, that of works volume decrease in the field. Moreover, the diminution of SMEs capacity to financially support the real payment time limits fluctuations of their customers has led to the inability to pay the debts, which has caused structural commercial disorder. At the same time, building materials market also faces the decrease in the number of buildings started and finished, and the reconfiguration of new investments, which led to a significant disruption in the commercial management of a very high number of SMEs, some of them being forced to resort to downsizing, and others, even to close down their activity.

BUILDING WORKS AND BUILDING MATERIALS COSTS INDICES ECONOMIC FOOTPRINT

Economic footprint analysis, in terms of building works market, reveals a significant fluctuation in the building works indexes, adjusted depending on the number of working days, and in the building materials cost indexes.

Thus, as compared to the start point, November 2009, which had a level of 80.9 in terms of building works, the evolution did not follow a linear trend at all, but, after a spectacular rise in December 2009, to a level of 92.3, this market segment has followed a major negative trend, reaching the level of 72.5 in just two months. Comparing February 2010 to June 2010, the next months bring a significant increase for this market segment, which reached 33.65%.

Current economic environment has visibly marked this field, as just one month later, it was subject to a downfall to -21.05%. This determined the destabilization of the market position of many companies that carry out their activity in this field, on the one hand, and more severely, on the other hand, generated activity limitation and even the liquidation of a large number of small and medium enterprises.

Moreover, after an increase in the number of works in October 2010, to 96.7, the decrease continues, to - 14.89%, towards the end of November 2010. The cost of building materials also followed the same type of oscillating evolution, as illustrated in the table hereunder.

Consequently, based on the data regarding the period between November 2009 and November 2010, and the oscillating evolutionary trend, the negative setting and progressively increasing uncertainty of this business segment are acknowledged.

According to major structural changes in the building materials sales market, the quantitative diagnosis is a must due to the fact that, based on future estimates, SMEs that operate on this market focus their business efforts on the resizing of the market share held and on their sustainable development. At the same time, the results of quantitative analysis performed for November 2009 - November 2010, correlated with the analysis of the implications of the current commercial decline caused by the global financial, economic and social crisis, offer Romanian SMEs a perspective on the decision-making possibilities for the near future, subject to economic recession period surpassing.

Building	20 <u>XI</u> <u>80.9</u>	009 <u>XII</u> <u>92.3</u>	<u>I</u> <u>89.4</u>	<u>II</u> <u>72.5</u>	<u>III</u> <u>76.1</u>	<u>IV</u> <u>84.8</u>	<u>V</u> <u>83.6</u>	2010 <u>VI</u> <u>96.9</u>	<u>VII</u> <u>76.5</u>	<u>VIII</u> <u>82.4</u>	<u>IX</u> <u>88.0</u>	<u>X</u> 96.7	<u>XI</u> 82.3
works – total, of which: <i>New</i> <i>buildings</i>	75.2	82.2	70.6	61.8	74.1	76.4	72.3	90.3	70.0	72.4	92.8	83.3	80.9
execution General overhauls	70.4	92.7	70.9	55.1	67.1	109.2	107.5	133.7	63.3	107.6	95.0	94.7	94.3
Current repairs and maintenance	103.6	122.2	183.8	134.9	86.5	104.4	85.5	95.7	126.3	99.6	75.1	137.2	79.9
Cost indexes in building works, total of which:	104.5	102.5	101.5	102.4	102.2	103.8	106.5	104.9	104.7	102.2	98.9	98.5	102.6
Cost of materials	<u>112.2</u>	<u>113.3</u>	<u>97.2</u>	<u>100.7</u>	<u>100.7</u>	<u>106.1</u>	<u>111.1</u>	<u>106.6</u>	<u>108.0</u>	<u>101.1</u>	<u>94.4</u>	<u>93.3</u>	<u>102.5</u>

 Table 1. Evolution of building works field-related indexes during November 2009 - November 2010

Moreover, the dynamic realities for Romanian building works sector, after two years of crisis, attest a cumulated value contraction of minimum 40% and more severely, a decrease in the number of employees in the field, of approximately 25%, according to the data supplied by the Romanian Association of Building Contractors.

Consequently, organizations tend to focus upstream, trying to secure raw materials supply, as well as downstream, and continuously optimizing the quality of their products and services and developing their customer and products portfolio, concomitantly with sales strategies redesigning within the relevant market and taking into consideration the forecasts for 2011.

To that effect, SMEs are subject to the constant designing of forecasts based on which they can direct and redirect their guidelines for the management of their position on building materials sales market. Given the economic context, as shown above, characterized by deep uncertainty, we notice SMEs tend to base their strategies for the current period on short-term forecasts.

From this point of view, we propose the use of an adaptive model for forecast making, which allows the continuous adaptation as related to the size of forecast errors ascertained in the past.

Therefore, the output of adaptive models application for forecast making can support entrepreneurial development and investment motivation. Based on a simple adaptive model, developed by RG Brown: $\mathbf{y'}_{t+1} = \mathbf{y'}_t + \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y'}_t)$ (1), and taking into account past forecast errors, we must consider that the previous error (t-1) was also taken into consideration for the period t (y't).

Thus, the adaptive model suitable for short-term forecasts, which takes into account errors ascertained for previous periods shall have the following format:

 $\mathbf{y'}_{t+1} = a \sum_{d=0}^{n-1} (1-a)^d \mathbf{y}_{t-d} + (1-a)^n \mathbf{y'}_{t-n}$ (2), where $\mathbf{y'}_t$ - forecast for period t and 0 < a < 1, previously set parameter, representing the weighting factor, established based on the importance of more recent forecast errors. Thus, a parameter value close to 1 shall be chosen if forecast errors are of major importance. It should be noted that the adaptive model output can influence the future behavior of the contractor.

For example if, on a particular segment, building materials sales rise to, let's say, an average of 45.5 thousand euros for the last three months, and, on the same segment, the data communicated by the institutes of statistics indicates for the end of the 4th month a real building materials sales level of 50.4 thousand euros, the forecast for the 5th month shall be made as follows:

 $y'_{5}=0.9 * (1-0.9)^{0} * 50.4 + (1-0.9)^{1} * 45.5 = 49.91$ thousand euros (3), sales level for the established building materials segment. But, if the actual level for the 5th month is, for example: 5.26, then, considering the error, the model shall be adapted in order to achieve a forecast for building materials sales level, for the 6th month, as close to real as possible.

 $y_{6}^{'}=0.9 [(1-0.9)^{0} * 52.6 + (1-09) * 50.4] + (1-0.9)^{2} * 45.5 = 52,33$ thousand euro (4), for the respective market segment. Thereby, the model is constantly adapted, taking into consideration the difference between the forecasted level and the real situation notified by the competent authorities in the field of economic statistics.

This type of adaptive model for forecast making can be used as concrete data analysis tool for building materials sales segment and for the development of strategies to adapt to market trends, obviously, on short term.

Corresponding to the anticipated level in terms of the factor conditioning the process envisaged by the economic agent, in our case: the possible future level of building materials sales value, it is considered that it changes its behavior by designing or redesigning its competitive advantage management strategies in the relevant market.

In conclusion, according to the analysis of the results of econometric models applied on market segments, specific to the field of building materials sales, organizations can develop new strategies to keep and support the position held, as well as sustainable development strategies that take into account the current competitive requirements.

SME'S REDESIGN STRATEGIES UNDER THE BUILDING MATERIALS SALES QUANTITATIVE EMPOWERMENT AEGIS

In light of the previously performed analysis, the need to synchronize with the market is evidenced as one of the biggest problems met by the SMEs, considering that economic and financial crisis has intensified competition on building materials market. To that effect, organizations that carry out their activity in this field are in a permanent process of adaptation to customer needs and, at the same time, of making relationships with suppliers flexible.

It is not an economic secret that a worrying number of SMEs has been affected by the commercial decline, and therefore, subject to the struggle to keep their market position and, if possible, to increase the market share held, they should have as central strategic element for the next period redefining building materials sales policies and redesigning operational budgets, in particular, depending on the financial possibilities of their main customers and based on the forecasted level of average medium-term bank interest rates, on the evolution of the prices of the main material resources and increasing monetary pressures against inflation and competition increase.

Therefore, in this period characterized by obvious uncertainty, in most cases, a structural redesigning of the fundamental strategic guidelines is necessary, + (in the purpose of quantitative empowerment of building materials sales.).

SMEs strategies redesigning may also take various forms, depending on their short, medium and longterm goals. In the following paragraphs we shall underline several strategic and tactical recommendations for the improvement of the premises for quantitative empowerment of building materials sales.

Consequently, SMEs may choose to focus on the increase of investments to improve the activity in the regions undergoing development, as well as on the increase of funds to sustain the activity of high valueadded products manufacturing. From this point of view, the organization is assumed to be commercially stable and focused on expansion.

On the other hand, before making proposals regarding the promotion of development strategies, some SMEs must strengthen, both technologically and financially, and benefit from the gradual recovery of building materials sales segment. This is a sine qua non condition if they want to cope with the fierce competition in this business sector.

An undeniable consequence of the current crisis is the upward trend of raw materials quotations, offset by production costs limitation and delivery prices increase. However, a stable and competitive cost structure may be achieved through the implementation of a viable and sustainable cost reduction strategy. Thus, a new level of competitiveness may be reached only based on a steady foundation in terms of material, human, financial and technological resources and taking advantage of market conditions improvement. Continuing in the same direction, SMEs need to direct their efforts on structural development, while focusing on long-term value creation through customer and product portfolio development and the

implementation and monitoring of relevant investment programs in order to support their sustainable development.

But, as market conditions continue to be unfavorable, manifesting a high degree of uncertainty, we propose short term strategies redesigning by gathering the support axles on a strong focus, liquidities and an increase of the deliveries to the markets undergoing development, especially, stepping up the efforts of research, development and designing of mechanisms to allow profitable partnerships under the form of innovative clusters.

In conclusion, in this uncertain period, it is primordial to support the most profitable suppliers, customers and partners by special measures. It is necessary to pay great attention to each customer's commercial needs, to promote qualitative products and services, to preserve and strengthen long-term relationships with current and potential customers and, last but not least, to offer optimum costs focusing on developing increased flexibility and adaptability.

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the main stages of business relationship endings. The content is structured into three main sections. In the first part, the main causes leading to termination are described. Once the causes determined, some of the frequently used exit strategies are exemplified. Then, the termination consequences are brought into light, with the purpose of minimizing the loses of those directly involved.

JEL: M1; L2

KEYWORDS: Supplier-buyer, termination, strategy

INTRODUCTION

Research carried out during the last years has mostly covered relational exchanges and the building blocks of effective relationships between suppliers and buyers. Academics focused on the numerous advantages of establishing relationships based on mutual collaboration and trust. Furthermore, they dedicated a great deal of attention towards maintaining those relationships in order to be more competitive in today's and futures business environment.

However, the termination phase of a supplier-buyer relationship has been relatively neglected within academic literature and understanding has been limited. Reasons for that are the difficulties of studying this final stage of the relationship. Problems emerge while identifying these relationships and interviewing the participants from the affected parties (Havila and Wilkinson, 2002).

Companies have to be aware that relationships are not 'immortal entities' and therefore not only have to be able to manage functional but also dysfunctional ones (Ping, 1999). In 2001 Good and Evans (p.559) state: "...so little has been written about relational failure in business markets, there is a need to establish a theoretical and practical basis for this condition." Although the attention has risen in the last couple of years, the studies of termination of supplier-buyer relationship are still in the fledgling stages.

CAUSES FOR TERMINATION

Causes for the termination of supplier-buyer relationships can be numerous. Possible causes can be problems with the product or the service of the supplier or the buyer. Other causes can include internal or external factors affecting the company. Therefore, the causes for termination will be distinguished into those leading to dissatisfaction within the relationship and others which are of more general nature.

CAUSES LEADING TO DISSATISFACTION

Causes for the termination of supplier-buyer relationships are often dissatisfactions among the different parties. In this case the buyer can be dissatisfied with the performance of the supplier or vice versa.

Arnold and Meyle (2007) identify three causes for buyers terminating relationships with their suppliers due to dissatisfaction. The first cause refers to the problem with the 'quality of the products' delivered. This can be of great importance when a company is dealing with complex products. A continuous underperformance of a supplier in terms of quality not only increases the inspection costs but furthermore

implies the risk that the overall quality of the buyers' product decreases as well. Secondly, the authors mention 'delivery reliability' as a cause of dissatisfaction. This refers not only to the supplier being on time but also to the supplier delivering the correct quantity. Especially, companies working with the Just-in-Time concept, as for example companies in the automobile industry need to rely on their suppliers' capability of delivery. If products arrive at the assembly line with the incorrect amount or simply too late the production might has to be stopped which costs the company a lot of money due to overhead costs or lost business. The third cause for dissatisfaction identified by Arnold and Meyle (2007) is the 'scope of supply and service'. Nowadays, companies need their suppliers to deliver a wide variety of products coupled with a broad service level. This service level ranges from simple after sales services over constant information flow for improvement to the final goal of concurrent product and process development. Suppliers who are not able to meet customers' demand in terms of 'scope of supply and service' can be a source of dissatisfaction and will probably not be considered for future business.

In their research Primo, Dooley and Rungtusanatham (2007) discovered that failures of suppliers can lead to different levels of dissatisfaction. The perception of an adequate supplier service level generally differs between organisations. Companies that have plenty of options for switching the faulty supplier in relative short time have a stricter perception than those which have high switching costs. However, there were failures of suppliers that could be identified which have the same severity for companies whether one is dealing with a big and powerful company or a smaller one. The criticality of the failure seems to be related to the effect it has on the downstream activities of a company. One failure that was identified as most critical to buyers was a failure that affects the end customer. As mentioned above, delivery problems are one major source of dissatisfaction. Since delivery is highly 'visible' it has a negative effect on the end customer. Other factors mentioned in the research by Primo et al. (2007) are reoccurring mistakes by the supplier. One time failures can be covered by overtime or stocks on the buyer's side and are more or less tolerated by the buyer. However, reoccurring mistakes lead to increased dissatisfaction. Another critical issue mentioned are failures that lead to machine downtimes. Especially, in companies where production runs 'twenty-four-seven' dissatisfaction will be high. Furthermore, Primo et al. (2007) found that buyers are especially dissatisfied with suppliers if they immediately push back in case of a failure and do not assume responsibility. The research identified that companies are highly dissatisfied if the suppliers do not see the problems related to their supply or even try to find the problem on the buyers' side. Nowadays, cooperative problem solving is demanded by modern companies and if suppliers do not offer these capabilities it can lead to termination.

According to Fynes, Voss and Burca (2005, p.6) a "healthy relationship is important because it encourages information exchange, better communication, and more trust, each of which can improve planning, coordination, problem solving, and adaptation, and thus manufacturing performance". However, in their article Pressey and Mathews (2003) state that within supplier-buyer relationships there can be problems with communication and trust as well as a lack of commitment. Those problems can turn a healthy relationship into an unhealthy and lead to dissatisfaction and eventually to termination. A bad communication leads to adjustment problems between the parties. Limited trust constricts the transfer of knowledge and ideas and a lack of commitment from supplier or buyer leads to a one-sided strive for success.

Another cause for the termination of supplier-buyer relationships is unethical or socially irresponsible behaviour. Suppliers using child labour, sweatshops or production methods which are a hazardous to the environment will promptly increase dissatisfaction among buyers. This is especially important in today's business environment since corporate social responsibility and 'green' behaviour has become a major issue and companies need to protect its reputation (Walker, Di Sisto and McBain, 2008).

CAUSES OF GENERAL NATURE

Besides being the result of dissatisfaction, the termination of a supplier-buyer relationship can also occur due to other causes. Among these are the following:

One cause why buyers end the relationship with their supplier and switch to another one can be the costs for the goods. Outside suppliers offering goods or services at a more competitive price than the current supplier become of interest which can lead to a termination decision within the company (Perrien and Ricard, 1995).

A further reason for a buyer's de-selection of a supplier can be a product deletion from the product portfolio. This can for example happen due to poor sales or external factors like government decisions. The product is then taken out of the market which makes the source of supply unusable (Pressey and Mathews, 2003).

According to Giller and Matear (2001) the cause of a termination can be the relocation of buyers' manufacturing facilities. Moving to a different country or even continent will lead to the end of the contract. New business opportunities abroad will encourage companies to leave their existing suppliers behind. One manager within the research of Pressey and Mathews (2003, p.144) explains: "If I have a choice between a ten million pound contract in Bolivia and a four million pound contract in Colombia then I have to go with Bolivia". This decision had been taken regardless of the existing supplier-buyer relations.

Pressey and Mathews (2003) also state that a termination can emerge due to a change of management in the buying company. Preferences of the new management for local suppliers or personal preferences for supplier companies whose owner might be a family member lead to the termination of contracts with the current supplier.

Furthermore, other suppliers might be more attractive for future business due to a break through in process or product technology. They shortly become the superior alternative partner in the certain industry. Therefore, the service and technology issues from the new supplier will be the reason for the ending of business with current suppliers (Pressey and Mathews, 2003). This is also related to the termination due to the lack of innovative knowledge and capabilities at the supplier. The current supplier may not be able to offer those and therefore leave the circle of preferred suppliers (Giller and Matear, 2001).

An external factor that effects a company's termination decision can be an economic downturn, inflation or high interest for loans. A cutback in spending due to the fear of future bankruptcy can result in the end of an existing contract (Giller and Matear, 2001).

Moreover, it can be recognised that companies grow at a different pace. Companies that have done business with their suppliers over a long time can suddenly become a big player due to important innovations. The increased demand for their products might lead to the termination with their current supplier because they simply cannot expand as quickly in order to meet the increased demand (Pressey and Qiu, 2007).

Reasons for termination can furthermore lie outside the influence of the buyer or the supplier. In big multinational companies it is often the parent company that ends a contract between one of its affiliates without further explanation. This can even happen against the will of the affiliate (Tähtinen and Halinen-Kaila, 1997). Another example where the relationship is ended by the parent company are project-based

relations with a finite life. This is very often the case in joint ventures that are established for a certain project and dissolved afterwards (Alajoutsijärvi, Möller and Tähtinen, 2000).

According to Giller and Matear (2001) companies might also use the termination of a relationship as some kind of exit strategy to prevent becoming too dependent on one single company. In the authors' research one company thought about ending the relationship because the overall purchasing percentage from the supplier was so high that they feared monopolistic supplier behaviours in the future. The company was instead thinking about a multiple sourcing strategy from many small suppliers.

As one can see in the above mentioned paragraphs, there are numerous causes why companies decide to terminate their relationships. Whether it is dissatisfaction or general causes leading to the decision to terminate a relationship, it is highly critical for a company to effectively manage the termination process. A poorly managed termination process can result in severe negative consequences for a company. The following chapter will analyse the steps and types of strategy a company may use for termination.

TERMINATION

In literature, a variety of definitions related to termination can be found. Some authors have categorical reasons behind termination and state that "a relationship is dissolved when all activity links are broken and no resource ties and actor bonds exist between the companies" (Tähtinen and Halinen-Kaila, 1997, p.560) or describe it as "the economic phenomenon of a customer ceasing patronage of a particular supplier" (Stewart, 1998, p.235). Others lighten up the imagery and seek for "the energy created over time" that "cannot be completely destroyed when a business relationship ends but manifests itself, positively in new forms, in other relationship contexts" (Havila and Wilkinson, 2002, p.193). Alajoutsijärvi et al. (2000, p.1272) suggest an engagement in a 'beautiful exit' by creating "a strategy that minimises damage occurring to the terminator, the other party and the connected network". Even though sometimes dissolution can be beneficial and desirable when dealing with relationships that do not provide sufficient return for the company, it is necessary to understand the type of strategy that can be applied, so that any negative outcomes can be avoided (Alajoutsijärvi et al., 2000). According to Giller and Matear (2001), termination strategies may be broadly defined along three dimensions: 'self versus other oriented, unilateral or bilateral and direct or indirect'. Therefore, the next subchapter will address various termination strategies with gradual complexity, by adding supplementary dimensions available in the literature. The second subchapter will be dealing with the steps that are to be taken when deciding upon following a strategy.

STRATEGIES

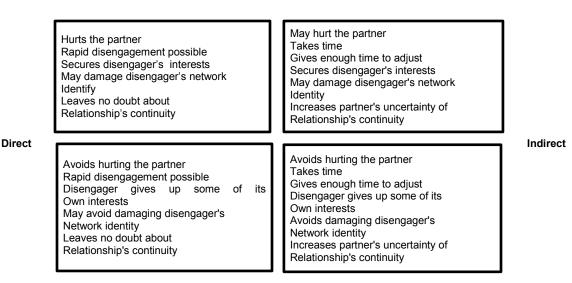
Hirschman (1975) offers the focal company two main strategies: voice and exit. The 'voice strategy' implies negotiations with the partner in order to refresh the relationship. If the feedback is positive, the relationship may be revived and the dissolution process may end. Otherwise, the dissolution process will continue and the company will be looking for an 'exit strategy', meaning a way to terminate the relationship.

Alajoutsijärvi *et al.* (2000) elaborated further on the 'exit strategy' of Hirschman (1975) and by adding two dimensions, 'directness' and 'orientation' developed four 'pure exit strategies'. According to the authors, 'direct' strategies accelerate the speed of the disengagement, leaving no doubt for the partner about the relationship's continuity. However a direct approach may catch the partner unprepared and cause damage to its business. The 'indirect' approach has as well benefits as drawbacks. While allowing both partners time to adjust their businesses, the initiator may be in disadvantage if involved already in a different relationship. In addition, Alajoutsijärvi *et al.* (2000) state that due to the slower process, the partner may not fully understand certain hints and remain on stand-by about the relationship's future. As for the orientation dimension, the 'self-oriented' model facilitates the pursuit of the terminator's main

interests, while neglecting the other party. The 'other-oriented' model helps the partner more, at the cost of diminished interests for the initiator of the termination. Figure 1 provides further consideration on the characteristics of exit strategies as presented by Alajoutsijärvi *et al.* (2000).

Figure 1: Characteristics of Exit Strategies

Self-oriented



Other-oriented

Source: Alajoutsijärvi et al., 2000, p.1284

Another strategy for termination, addressed in literature, was elaborated by Pressey and Mathews (2003). The authors categorize dissolution, according to initiative or lack of it as manifested by the parties when dealing with failure, into four types: 'bilateral decision to end the relationship', 'termination by either buyer or supplier' and 'fading away of the relationship'. The first type of dissolution is derived from the understanding of both parties that mutual expectations are not being met or that the relationship is destined to fail. Type two and three which imply unilateral decision-making when terminating the relation, usually appear when either the supplier or the buyer is perceived as a burden, rather than as an advantage to the overall business, by the other party. The fourth type derives from the lack of interest showed towards the relationship and it is therefore meant to dwindle until it becomes forgotten. Judging by the outcome of the previous mentioned termination strategies, 'categories one and four represent the most revocable or easiest to resurrect relationships, whereas dissolution categories two and three represent the most irrevocable forms of dissolution'. For a clearer understanding, the typology is expressed in the form of a matrix, as shown in Figure 2.

Havila and Wilkinson (2002) have their own interpretation of possible terminations incurred in a business relationship. After analyzing particular circumstances in which three companies found themselves, the authors named the categories accordingly: 'decreased trust', 'vanished' and 'sleeping'. While the second category implies a strategic change of heart by one of the parties involved, meaning that the relation is completely terminated, categories one and three suggest that the bond between partners becomes thinner but not necessarily disappears. The relationship may be set off again some time (Giller and Matear, 2001). As mentioned before, Havila and Wilkinson (2002) state that each relationship creates an energy that finds new forms even after its termination. Their model shows that 'any relationship energy built up (or diminished) in the focal relation may be exported to subsequent relationship; these 'imports and exports may be positive or negative'. In the end it sums up to whether "further development (or destruction) of social bonds in the focal relation may serve to reinforce (or undermine) relationship energy in other relationship drew energy in the first place" (Havila and Wilkinson, 2002, p.193).

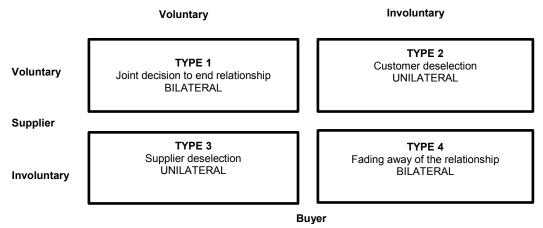


Figure 2: Categories of Dissolution in Buyer-Seller Relationships

Source: Pressey and Mathews, 2003, p.139

MANAGING TERMINATION

Due to the scarcity of literature dedicated to this topic, the advices presented by Arnold and Meyle (2007) will be addressed. The authors consider long-term planning to be "essential for the configuration of the termination process: given enough time, the termination process can be conducted in a very structured way in cooperation with the supplier (...) to reduce the resulting negative impacts" (Arnold and Meyle, 2007, p.12). Suggestions such as 'monitoring the suppliers', 'intensification of communication' and 'the establishment of an early warning system' can assure that problems encountered along the way are timely and properly dealt with. If conducted in a proper manner, long-term planning has its benefits, as it supports 'the integration of a new supplier' and reduces 'the risk of shortage of supply', 'quality problems', 'early and comprehensive information' should be provided to the partner in order to make him aware of the process that is about to begin. Then, depending on the partner's capability to reach up to the new expectations, termination might even be avoided.

CONSEQUENCES OF TERMINATION

Consequences of the ending of supplier-buyer relationships can be numerous. They depend to a very high degree on how the termination has occurred. In other words, the situation for both, supplier and buyer depends on the strategy chosen. It is rarely the case that a termination only has consequences that were intended by the company. To examine the consequences of termination one has to distinguish between arm's length relationships and strategic partnerships. The consequences for arm's length relations are normally limited to a few. A company with adversarial relationships terminating its relation to a supplier due to lower prices offered by other suppliers is likely to have the only consequence desired: a lower price. In the following the main focus of attention will be upon the consequences for companies terminating long-term relationships.

According to Havila and Wilkinson (2002) it becomes most problematic when termination occurs after the supplier-buyer relationship has reached an advanced stage of development with substantial mutual commitment. Switching costs occur when the supplier is replaced. Direct monetary costs result from the necessity of identifying new sources of supply, negotiating new contracts and setting up the new relationship (Pressey and Mathews, 2003). Additionally, companies may face expensive litigation costs (Giller and Matear, 2001). Further costs that evolve are a company's loss in 'specific investment'. Among these one can find: 'expenses for asset investment' (i.e. a jointly used production facility), 'expenses for temporary personnel transfer', 'expenses for training of manufacturing labour force on supply and buy side', 'expenses for the adaptation of processes and expenses for IT channels' in order to support communication. Therefore, the termination of suppliers often results in specific investments being turned into sunk costs (Arnold and Meyle, 2007).

Furthermore, the research by Arnold and Meyle (2007) has shown that the 'shortage of supply' for components as well as spare parts is another critical factor. Companies who abruptly quit there supplier relationship are in danger of not finding a new supplier soon enough. Shortages in supply lead to loss of production and finally to an unsatisfied end customer.

Moreover, companies face the problem of losing know-how and proprietary knowledge to their suppliers. Mutual collaboration and information sharing that has been positive within the years before suddenly turns out to be a serious problem. Previous suppliers might even become the new and preferred source of supply for competitors (Arnold and Meyle, 2007).

Another consequence of termination can be the bankruptcy of the suppliers. For rather small suppliers large buying companies can be accountable for an enormous share of their turnover. A short-term termination of such relationships and the possible bankruptcy of the supplier will lead to loss of reputation for the buyer. Other suppliers might lose trust in the company and reject doing business. However, even if the previous supplier will not fail bankrupt there can still be negative word-of-mouth which can substantially damage the image of the buying firm (Sharland, 2001).

CONCLUSION

In this report it has been shown that there can be numerous causes which can lead to termination. Those were divided into causes leading to dissatisfaction and general causes. Moreover, different termination strategies were identified and advice for properly managing a termination process was given. Then, the possible consequences of terminating long-term relationships were summarized.

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RESTRUCTURING OF FINANCIAL CONDITIONS OF A PROJECT IN FINANCIAL DISTRESS

Igor Pustylnick, SMC University, Zug, Switzerland

ABSTRACT

This paper deals with project finance restructuring in the event of future or present financial distress. It discusses the situations of negative cash flows and negative NPV as potential distress situations of the project. Solutions offered for negative cash flow is restructuring debt, making it payable earlier when project has sufficient cash influx. The other technique is change of the project management and contractors. The paper explains advantages of the first technique over the second one, explaining that legal costs in the latter may exceed the perceived benefits. Solutions for the negative NPV problems are deference of payments (decrease current costs at the beginning of the project) and restructuring of cash disbursements as part of financial agreement. Proposed further research includes extending the analysis and the described technique to the existing projects in the countries of BRIC

INTRODUCTION

There are several unrelated reasons for a project to be in the distress conditions, namely managerial, organizational or financial. Projects may suffer from the lack of performance due to objective conditions such as supply delivery faults, fluctuation in quality and availability of the labour force and so on. The vast majority of these reasons have nothing to do with the financial part of the project. Though they can influence the financial outlook of the project they rarely cause a big concern over the financial state of the project due to the fact that relatively well structured product financing has sufficient number of securities, bonds and covenants, which are required and/or set in place to compensate for poor performance.

Financial distress is the only condition of the project, which cannot be solved by invoking covenants or withdrawing conditions, which are already set in place by the original contractual paperwork. It is quite common that short of immediate bankruptcy the project company amt vaguely detect but will never admit to this condition. The procedure of eliminating existing distress conditions is initiated and performed by the lenders of the project as the only party interested in maintaining the financial health of the project and conditions of its debt.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to (Marx, 1998) any venture financing usually works on the basis of swapping equity for debt. In the case of a small project or a start-up financing, the scheme of financing is very simple: one company usually applies for financing with one or few financial institutions. While financing works on the same principle of swapping debt for equity, there are few very significant differences: (1) Ratio of equity to debt is quite often in 30-40% with 49% of sold equity being a conventional limit. The reason for this limitation is that borrower wants to retain control over the policies and workings of the company.

(2) Small lenders are required to have a significant amount of recourse in case of financial failure. Lenders want to be sure that they would be able to mitigate the risks of failure connected with financing (Berger & Udell, 1995). Accordingly to (Kleimeier & Megginson, 2000) project financing is usually done on limited to no-recourse basis. Project company especially formed to take over the financial part of the project usually has very limited assets (practically none beyond the assets of the project itself) (Nevitt & Fabozzi, 2000) therefore lenders must rely on the success of the project as the mean to recovery of debt. Projects, requiring and seeking project finance, are usually very large. No single financial institution can afford to carry the debt for the duration of the project. This according to (Esty, 2001) means that even

initial financing of the project must be of syndicated nature. Large projects, such as Eurotunnel, typically have over a hundred lenders at any time of their existence (Stonham, 1995), (Vilanova, 2005).

The other difference between venture and project financing is that venture typically seeks financing to create or acquire assets, which can be later sold to recover borrowed funds (Gompers, 1995). Project, on the contrary, may not create any sellable assets. It tends to create assets, which will generate cash flow by means of their exploitation (Esty, 2002). Examples of these assets may be toll highways, apartment building complexes, public buildings (hospitals, schools, etc.) and so on. While in venture financing average fund repayment tends to be 3-5 years, it may take as much time for the large project, just to start generating cash flow, moving into post-construction stage according to (Esty, 2002a).

When project company seeks financing, it prepares the offering, in the form of information memorandum, in which it describes the project in enough detail to give lender sufficient information in order to make an informative decision whether the project is worthy of lending money or not (Fight, 2006). This memorandum is in fact very similar to the venture business or marketing plan, outlining the process, strategies and the means of generating cash flow. Because of its non-recourse nature, project financing usually warrants much more expert based due diligence, than average venture financing (Amalric, 2005). Because of this, it might be in the best interest of the project to disclose as much information as possible about the nature and the process of the project (Ueda, 2004). It is a common practice in project financing that both a lender and a borrower employ the services of the independent engineers to sign off the technical plans. In this situation it is more prudent for the finance seeking party to provide honest and comprehensive information, compiled to the best of their abilities (Dell, et al., 2004).

Because of its prolonged nature, project financing must take into consideration much larger number of risks than average venture financing (Rode, Lewis, & Dean, 2003). Being spread over the longer period of time, project operations are more susceptible to environmental, economic and financial conditions (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002). Lenders must ensure, that risks, associated with the project operation and surrounding environment are taken into account. Project Company is often required to take additional securities and insurances, associated with these risks, which will in turn make a project more costly (Stulz, 1999). Some of the risks can be identified upfront by using expert analysis; others may not even be contemplated at the time when financing is sought by the project company. Unidentified risks may contribute to the financial distress of the project if they require additional funds to mitigate them. One of the most typical examples of distress compounding factor is raising cost of fuel and supplies, which can disturb financial planning of the project (Ruster, 1996).

The most common distress condition is described using the tern Net Present Value or NPV (Esty, 2004). NPV is the present value of the future net cash (Gitman & Hennessey, 2005). NPV is commonly calculated using estimated inflation value. As a rule, projects with negative NPV are considered failures, because they actually lost money at the end of their cycle. NPV calculations cannot give a complete objective picture of the success or failure, because the interest and rate of inflation included in the calculations are estimated by the person calculating it. However, recalculating NPV on the regular basis may give a lender a good enough picture of whether the project is on track to generating positive cash flow or slides closer to a financial distress.

Some lenders may use internal rate of return (IRR) of the project as a measure of the project health. IRR represents the discount rate under which NPV is 0 meaning that it is the rate of bringing the project even. Banks usually have preset conditions for IRR/NPV for the venture type investments (Chen, Weston, & Altman, 1994). According to (Yescombe, 2002), financing investments they are almost always negotiated due to the size of the project. When a lender or a group of lenders perceives that the project is edging closer to the financial distress, they usually take rectifying actions. The difficulty of the large project is that the number of lenders is almost always very high (Sufi, 2004). It is not unusual to have 150-200 lenders having stake in the project at the same time. In the vast majority of cases this dispersion of debt is

due to the fact the debt of the large project is often publicly traded. With this number of stakeholders it is very hard to achieve consensus on the state of the project finance and come to a solution, which will satisfy all parties. These lenders are equity participants (shareholders) of the project thus the only method of communicating to them is through shareholder statements and shareholder meetings, which occur once a period of time (usually a year). In the distress times, the large number of shareholders may be very detrimental if a quick action is sought. One of the mechanisms, proposed in the literature is immediate buyout and concentration of shareholder debt in the hands of a few key lenders (Vinter & Price, 2006). If this happens, the concentrated group of lenders is able to make swift and direct decisions over the project future. If it does not happen or happens too slowly, any attempts on restructure of the project may appear futile. As a side note, buyout of the minority equity holders may also drive the debt of the project higher especially if the project is of the high uncertainty nature, such as for instance oil exploration in the non-drilling areas. Minority holders may perceive the attempt to buy them out as an attempt to consolidate profits in a view of future discoveries and may hike the price of their equity share (Vilanova, 2004).

METHOD

This paper discusses two different types of distress, namely negative NPV and negative cash flow. In a way they are very similar and one may as well cause another, however there are very different consequences of these two scenarios. Negative cash flows or cash deficit can happen in the project at any time. This phenomenon is usually connected with raising operating costs. There are many different causes of cost overruns; however we can make them into the following types: (1) Raising costs of materials, machinery, labour and other current expenses. This problem happens often especially with the long term ventures or projects. Current costs tend to rise based on demand, state of economy and inflation. During the construction boom in Canada in 2003-2007 the cost of basic materials, such as drywall increased from 1.5 to 3 times depending on the availability of the goods. (2) Increased costs of maintenance, connected labour or safety legislations, which are effective immediately. Change from two gauge wires to three gauge wires in Canada as a part of new household safety protocol increased maintenance costs almost twofold for the old apartment complexes, constructed based on the previously existed standards. (3) Scheduling problems can contribute to the negative cash flows of the project. It is not uncommon that during the construction stage of the project discrepancy in availability of the personnel and machinery may cause additional lease payments on the unused equipment.

The only possible way to rectify the negative cash flow problem is through the influx of the additional cash. While it sounds like a very simple solution it has in fact many serious complications. Additional cash to the project may come as a loan or as savings measure. Since all equity holders in the project are in fact lenders to the project, additional loan may come in a form of cash draw, which is similar to the partnership cash draw. There are several negative connotations to this procedure. First of all, every equity holder must agree on this cash draw to happen. The additional loan usually carries an effect of decreasing of equity value (very similar to the effect of the share split). If the project is perceived as having troubles, then selling additional debt to raise cash may not be easy.

The second approach to solving the cash flow problem is finding the additional cash resources within the project itself. Usually projects of this size employ the variety of law and consulting firms, which are hired to perform one or very few specific tasks. If the use of these firms is not prescribed by the lender in the form or project financing covenants, the use of these consultants can be revised, monitored and potentially consolidated (into one or fewer sources) or eliminated entirely. The other source of savings is the increase in efficiency of the project management. Mistiming of leasing of the key equipment, availability of the labour force, vacancy of the project real estate lots and other scheduling may in the large part be resolved by directing or replacing the management body, responsible for the waste of cash. In the publicly traded companies this procedure may be less complex and more achievable because these organizations can assemble the meeting of shareholders much faster than Project Company can. On the

other side of this problem stands the fact that Project Company is not a contractor and relies on contractors to lend the expertise and perform the work. Cost overruns and cash waste may occur deep down in the contracting hierarchy. Project Company may not have enough knowledge about the cash problems unless they are surfaced in the form of non-payments. Sometimes it is not easy to replace a contractor in the middle of the project due to the number of loan covenants, which may have specified this contractor as a source of particular work. Sometimes, changing this contractor because of the financial issues may be more costly than to invest more cash into continuing working with them.

Years	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross Revenues	0	0	360	1124	1304	1236	1150	712
Capital Expense	540	780	80	0	0	0	0	0
Operating Costs	0	0	124	132	148	164	180	196
Taxes	0	0	0	0	376	564	528	432
Cash flow before debt	540	790	156	992	780	508	442	84
Drawdowns	460	664	0	0	0	0	0	0
Debt Repayments	0	0	0	308	310	308	308	0
Interest payments	0	0	124	124	92	62	30	0
Cash Flow to Sponsor	80	116	32	560	378	138	104	84

Table 1: Initial Financial Indicators

The table is adapted from (Fight, 2006). It shows the main financial indicators for the project in relatively good standing indicated by a positive cash flow in all years of project existence.

Now we can suppose that during the course of the project contractor incurred additional costs due to mismanagement, lease conflicts and other issues. In this case, project cash flow will be changed. Assuming that there are no additional internal sources of cash, such as reserve working capital, the new project outlook will look as depicted in table 2:

Years	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross Revenues	0	0	360	1124	1304	1236	1150	712
Capital Expense	540	780	80	0	0	0	0	0
Operating Costs	0	0	124	132	548	364	330	300
Taxes	0	0	0	0	376	564	528	432
Cash flow before debt	540	790	156	992	780	508	442	84
Drawdowns	460	664	0	0	0	0	0	0
Debt Repayments	0	0	0	308	310	308	308	0
Interest payments	0	0	124	124	92	62	30	0
Cash Flow to Sponsor	80	116	32	560	-122	-62	-46	-20

Table 2: Influence of additional cash draw

The table shows changes in project financial structure incurred by drawing additional cash towards the operating costs later in the project lifecycle. The changes to the project finance numbers are shown in bold

As we can see from Table 2, the project would not be able to perform its cash obligations in the years 2012-2015, which puts it into distress. There are several ways to rectify this distress condition. We can see that project interest payments are going in almost straight line. Renegotiated payments, presented in Table 3 bring project cash flow to sponsor into overall positive. Knowing that lender would rather renegotiate loan payments than call off the full loan, this restructuring may prove itself quite feasible if the rest of the numbers stay in place.

Years	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross Revenues	0	0	360	1124	1304	1236	1150	712
Capital Expense	540	780	80	0	0	0	0	0
Operating Costs	0	0	124	132	548	364	330	300
Taxes	0	0	0	0	376	564	528	432
Cash flow before debt	540	780	156	992	780	508	442	84
Drawdowns	460	664	0	0	0	0	0	0
Debt Repayments	0	0	0	616	310	308	0	0
Interest payments	80	104	124	124	0	0	0	0
Cash Flow to Sponsor	0	12	32	252	-30	0	292	-20

Table 3: Project Cash Flow

Table shows restructured numbers for interest and debt payments. The numbers in bold indicate the changes which can be applied to the project to keep it out of the distress position

It is not possible to alter the project financial infrastructure post-factum. However, based on the calculations presented in the Table 3 it is possible to suggest that deferring cash payments to the sponsor and directing the freed funds towards the debt/interest repayment reserve would help the project company to keep overall cash flows positive even in the event of the potential extra cash withdrawals.

Assuming that syndicated lenders suspect that position of the project achieved in Table 2 is due to the poor management and not objective circumstances. In this case lenders may consider an action of replacing the management rather than renegotiating the loan term. It may happen if the lenders do not believe that present management can keep the financial situation of the project under control and the projections of current costs may not represent reality. We assume that financing agreement has in fact a number of covenants, including the contractor covenant, which solidifies the legal position of the contractor. Let us also assume that replacement of the contractor brings the costs of the project lower, thus altering cash flow depicted in table 2 in the following manner

Years	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross Revenues	0	0	360	1124	1304	1236	1150	712
Capital Expense	540	780	80	0	0	0	0	0
Operating Costs	0	0	124	132	348	264	230	250
Taxes	0	0	0	0	376	564	528	432
Cash flow before debt	540	780	156	992	780	508	442	84
Drawdowns	460	664	0	0	0	0	0	0
Debt Repayments	0	0	0	308	310	308	308	0
Interest payments	0	0	124	124	92	62	30	0
Cash Flow to Sponsor	80	116	32	560	78	38	54	30

Table 4: Cash flow after Contractor Replacement

The table shows changes in the cash flow which resulted in bringing the new project management team which reduced the cost projections in the later stages of the project. Changes in bold show the differences with Table 2.

This cash flow situation looks more promising to both the lender, who will rely on the same payment schedule, and to the sponsor, who will be drawing positive cash from the project. Although the situation seems very bright from the cash flow perspective, sponsor and lenders will likely to incur legal and administrative fees, connected to firing the old contractor and going through the process of selecting a new one. These legal fees should not exceed the gains from restructuring in any given year. The initiators

of the restructuring must keep this in mind and decide for themselves if changing contractors is beneficial or detrimental for the cash outlook of the project.

Project distress caused by negative cash flows can certainly be fixed. It is more likely that project companies and lenders will be inclined to negotiate the restructuring of debt related to the project than change the project structure. With all things being equal, restructuring of debt causes lower risk and brings less uncertainty, than change of management. Assuming that all parties are being honest to each other and attempt to perform to the best of their abilities, the restructuring of debt would be much less taxing to the project company and the lenders, than changing the project management and contractors. It is not quite as certain, that new management would be able to achieve reduction in costs and positive cash flows, shown in Table 4.

Any financial institution, which acts as a lender to a project of any size will seek positive NPV as an assurance that project work will be conducted in good faith. NPV calculations commonly rely on two major components, namely initial investment and cash returns obtained as a result of project construction and maintenance work. NPV calculation uses discount rate to bring the future values to their present equivalents. This rate is estimated to the best knowledge and experience of the person or institution, calculating NPV. Since large projects have a big number of lenders in syndication, these lenders must agree on the common discount rate, which will be used in the calculations of this particular project.

Unlike cash flows, which have immediate effect on the operation of the project, NPV has no real bearing on whether the project will or will not be completed. On the contrary, the project may have negative NPV and enough cash to accomplish all it is set to do by the project plans. Even taking this into consideration, NPV is still a very valid factor of estimating a relative financial position of the project at any time during its lifecycle. Since financial and economic conditions in the country where project is conducted and in the whole financial world change on the regular basis, NPV must be recalculated every report period reflecting changing rates of inflation (discount rates).

Let us assume that project was lent 1,000,000 USD in order to complete the work. If we look at the numbers in table 1, we'll see that the number of overall drawn cash is 1,492,000 USD, which seems to be enough to cover the operations of the project and yield profit to a sponsor. Let us assume that the cost of borrowing or discount rate is 10%, which is may be considered very favourable in North America.

NPV of this project is -17,920 USD, which means that the project would be "no go" it had just started under these conditions. Let us now assume that this is a tail end of the project, which incurred additional costs and has to continue in order to generate revenue. In this situation we are dealing with the project in distress, which needs restructuring in order to meet lender's NPV conditions. There are two ways restructuring the finances of the failing project, namely generating more cash up front or drawing the cash at the future dates. It is not likely that the project generates more revenues, that it was originally projected. In order to generate more cash, the project would have to defer expenses. Table 5 shows cash flows of the project with deferred operating expenses.

Figures in red show changes to project cash flows. In this situation, project's NPV changes to 62,930US making it a profitable project. Although this technique is very tempting for the project companies and the lenders, it may not be acceptable for the recipients of the cash, such as lease companies, contractors and suppliers of the raw materials. It might take a negotiating power of the lender to make cash recipients accept changed conditions. This technique may only be used if lessors of the equipment have surplus of inventory or contractors seek to participate in the project for the reasons other than monetary (ex. upstart company with no track record, which desperately requires good references).

Unlike the project companies, lenders to the project are usually mature financial institutions. They may offer the project a schedule of cash disbursements instead of a lump sum, provided at the beginning. In order to illustrate this technique, we will use data from Table 1 and assume that lenders and borrowers agreed that project would receive 500,000 at the beginning and 500,000 at the end of year 2011. In this case, NPV of the project will be 175,970USD and the project will retain the positive NPV. This technique is much more preferable for the project, than the one, requiring deferred payments because it does not require any third party concessions. On the other hand, structuring of cash disbursements will require additional legal work. Financing contract may have to be padded with extra covenants, ensuring that lenders keep their commitment. Cash only transaction in the excess of the existing cash might also be deferred if third party does not accept structured payments or lender guarantees.

Years	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross Revenues	0	0	360	1124	1304	1236	1150	712
Capital Expense	540	780	80	0	0	0	0	0
Operating Costs	0	0	0	0	272	296	180	196
Taxes	0	0	0	0	376	564	528	432
Cash flow before debt	540	790	156	992	780	508	442	84
Drawdowns	460	664	0	0	0	0	0	0
Debt Repayments	0	0	0	308	310	308	308	0
Interest payments	0	0	124	124	92	62	30	0
Cash Flow to Sponsor	80	116	156	692	254	6	104	84

Table 5: Generating Cash Upfront

The figures in this table show project position which is based on generating more cash at the beginning of the project by deferring the operating costs to the later stages of the project. Changes from Table 1 are shown in bold.

Lenders, such as banks, rarely have surplus of cash on their hands. They operate using proceeds of the short term investments and interbank operations in their cash flow. If financial and economic conditions change significantly, the lender may not have enough cash to cover its financing commitments. If lender has a temporary cash problem, the project company may be able to seek a bridge financing loan, interest of which may be charged back to the original lender. The project may encounter another distress condition if the lender is not able to fulfill their obligations at all. In the present financial situation of December 2008 it is entirely possible that the lender is permanently insolvent. Under the normal regular financial conditions project, seeking to resolve the negative NPV problem, would much more likely to agree to separate cash disbursement than to deferring cash payments. The project must be aware that while deferred cash is guaranteed it may not be available when required leaving the project in the ultimate distress conditions.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Project may fall into distress due to the absolutely different reasons, such as mismanagement, problems with contractors and suppliers and so on. The vast majority of these problems can be easily resolved through financial agreement covenants, which usually anticipate many of these problems based on the experience of lenders and borrowers alike. Extended legal preparations and due diligence may be able to rectify and mitigate financial risks by means of securities, bonds and insurance terms.

This paper deals with the elements of financial distress of the project. The models, provided in this paper are extremely simple. They are presented to show a potential solution to some of the financial problems the project may encounter, such as negative future cash flows and negative NPVs. While these problems constitute a good reason for worry for lenders and maybe a project company, they are in fact hypothetical problems, dealing with future cash flows and negative NPV based on the future earnings. The paper

shows that remedy for the future problems may be found at present time. While solving these problems, the financiers (lenders and borrowers) must have a clear understanding that the solution presented is only good for the future situation as it is seen from the present.

In the case of Force Majeure of economics (recession and/or depression) lenders and borrowers may face the fact that debt and cash flows of the project are out of their control. The lenders might not be able to fulfill their obligations towards the project. The borrowers may face limited or extinguished cash flows due to the overall situation in the economy. If the project does not have sufficient reserve funds to continue and there are no lenders willing to take over project debt it might fail or alternatively concede part if its profits in exchange for deteriorated debt conditions negotiated at takeover.

At the time when the project is conceived and financing is requested, the project must be able to anticipate even force majeure events and put sufficient number of legal covenants in the financial agreement to cover some of the anticipated outcomes. Thus projects may reduce the number of the potential distress conditions and enjoy financial and operational success.

Although the models presented in this paper are very simple the author believes that their roots can be discovered in the present and past projects which were deemed to be in the distressed condition. Further research would result in analysis of a sufficient number of these projects with the purpose of analysing their financial position. The author assumes that a number of such projects can be found in the countries with the large number of federal or local projects such as the countries of BRIC.

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CHALLENGES FACED IN SUPPLIER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT: PERSPECTIVES FROM PRACTITIONERS

Festus Olorunniwo, Tennessee State University Joel Jolayemi, Tennessee State University Chunxing Fan, Tennessee State University Xiaoming Li, Tennessee State University

ABSTRACT

Although many companies desire to implement supplier relationship management (SRM), the reality is that most firms do not implement it to the full extent necessary to achieve their desirable goals and objectives due to challenges associated with full-scale implementations. This paper attempts to highlight some of these challenges from the perspectives of SRM senior managers and executives. The paper reports a summary of the information gleaned from interviews with several companies regarding their current SRM practices, especially the challenges they face. Actual quotes from the interviewees are cited; the authors then follow with a short discussion of the importance and relevance for each case of the challenges.

KEYWORDS: Supplier Relationship Management, Multi-tier Supply Network, Supply Chain Risk, Collaboration in Supply Chains

INTRODUCTION

The concepts encompassed in Supplier Relationship Management (SRM) suggest the need for interactions with one's suppliers. Interactions may involve cooperation, collaboration, coordination and monitoring activities with key strategic suppliers. Therefore, SRM has been defined as a way of working with the critical and strategic suppliers to systematically identify opportunities to reduce cost, improve service, quality and innovate (Carter, 2010). It is also a comprehensive approach to managing interactions with the organizations that supply goods and services it uses, the goal being that of streamlining and making more effective the processes between an enterprise and its suppliers (http://searchsap.techtarget.com/definition/ supplier-relationship-management; accessed 9/9/2010).

A major objective of supplier relationship management activities is to maintain continuity of supply of high quality products or services within the multi-tier levels of supply chain. With hundreds or thousands of tier-1, tier-2...and so on... suppliers, the ability to achieve these objectives is fraught with uncertainty and risk. Risk mitigation in the supply flow as well as timeliness and quality of supply has been a challenge even among the tier-1 suppliers alone. The complexity of multi-tier suppliers increases this problem a great deal as any failure in the supply flow from any critical lower tier supplier may spell doom for the entire supply chain. Thus, companies are seeking ways to mitigate this risk by a host of methods that engender lower tier visibility through their supplier relationship management.

Although most companies seek SRM as a goal, the reality is that most firms do not implement it to the full extent necessary to achieve the desirable goals and objectives of SRM. The reason for this failure can be attributed to the challenges posed by a full-scale implementation. This paper attempts to highlight some of those challenges as seen from the perspectives of SRM senior managers and executives. Therefore, the purpose of this report is to provide a summary of the information gleaned from interviews with several companies regarding their current SRM practices especially the challenges they have faced.

METHODOLOGY

The research team contacted and interviewed teams of SRM executives/senior SRM managers from fifteen companies. Two of the interviews were conducted 'face-to-face'. The others were through telephone conferencing. Some companies presented more than one person for the interview. Each interview lasted an average of one hour. Depending on the interviewees' permissions, some interviews were recorded on tape. Because strict confidentiality was promised in each case, the actual names of the companies will not be disclosed in this paper. The interviewees, most of whom are company executives, were asked to give their assessment of the challenges faced in SRM practices. They were also asked to outline the trends (and prospects) they envisage for the SRM practice in the future. While one would expect that each company's response would reflect the relative preference dictated by the forces prevalent in its industry, the responses in general manifest some level of striking commonality.

FINDINGS: CHALLENGES IN SRM PRACTICE

We used letters to denote the firms, whose identity we cannot reveal. The letters were randomly assigned without respect to the sector, industry, or company attributes. Most of the companies interviewed are large Fortune 100-500 companies with international presence in terms of their operations. Thus, these companies are in the forefront of issues and challenges encountered in the implementation of SRM. Space will not allow us to provide a brief description of the fifteen companies.

We provide below an abbreviated summary of what the company interviewees stated are the challenges they face as they implement SRM (see underlined sub-headings). The exact descriptions are close to the verbatim rendering in the interviews so that what we state blow captures the essence of what the interviewee said. Samples of actual quotes from the interviewees are presented in 'boxes'. Space will not allow us to provide a detailed discussion of the importance of each challenge.

Continuity of Supply (predictability of supply)

What the Companies Say (e.g. Company A, Company F)

1. "Anytime you are dealing with a multi-tier supply chain, there are a lot of problems that come in the way in terms of continuity of supply. This is our big concern in the complexity of our business."

2. "If we have gone so far and we have new ERP system we will enable the 250 suppliers to have visibility of the forecast demand, in addition to what they are seeing from tier 1. We will put a monitoring in place to make sure that they are getting the right figures of the orders."

Understanding the financial viability of supply base and explaining financial benefits to all suppliers

What the Companies Say (e.g. Company K, Company E)

- 1. "Determining where and when risk mitigation plans are needed, developing those and implementing those, and one of our key issues right now is understanding the financial viability of our supply base. We have to look deeper into the supply chain not only for the financial areas, but other areas as well.
- 2. "SRM should be based on solid financial benefits for both parties".

Impact of the economic crisis on suppliers and business

What the Companies Say (e.g. Company E, Company K)

1. "In every 7 years whenever there is an economic upset, people stop focusing on SRM and you have to start over when business gets better again".

2. "However, the worry comes during this current economic crisis where relations may be affected due to the fact that companies may start to focus more on cost cutting other than establishing better SRM with their suppliers."

Need to bring more diversity into the supplier base

What the Companies Say (e.g. Company O, Company G)

1. "Investing in human capital- that is thinking outside the box. The need to bring more 'diversity' thoughts in one's business is very important (Diversity suppliers)".

2. "We are continuously looking for the diverse suppliers. We are looking for minority owned businesses, women owned suppliers and sometimes it is a requirement by the government."

Continuously improving process, not getting stale; continuously looking for new ideas and products

What the Companies Say (e.g. Company E, Company O)

- 1. "Make sure that we do not get stale. We have to make sure that we are continuously looking for new ideas such as new design of the product and novel ideas to improve the yield, throughput and quality of our products. It is good to have long term relationship with our suppliers but we do not want those relationships to fail. We need to continuously challenge each other going forward."
- 2. "...to continue in trying to find ways to continually move to be the best in class; ...share best practices, so that we can continually get better; ... benchmarking against other companies to see what they are doing; continually moving along and getting better."

Globalization - Getting the right people who are trained to do business globally

What the Companies Say (Most Companies, e.g. Company B)

"Getting the right people who are trained to do business globally".

Establishing long-term relationships (collaboration) with suppliers.

Mentzer (2001), in his paper on 'Managing Supply Chain Collaboration', defined collaboration as a means by which all companies in the supply chain are actively working together towards common objectives, and is characterized by sharing information, knowledge, risk and profits. Sharing entails understanding how other companies operate and make decisions, and goes much deeper than co-operation. Collaboration goes beyond managing transactions for efficiency to managing relationships for creativity and continuous improvement. The collaborative goal is to work cooperatively together to devise and implement better approaches to solving problems and delivering the value customer expect (Fawcett

et al, 2008). Recent research studies have shown that collaboration offers promise for improved supply chain performance in several core areas, including increased sales, improved forecasts, more accurate and timely information, reduced costs, reduced inventory, and improved customer service (Daugherty et al., 1999; Waller et al., 1999; Barratt and Oliveira, 2001; Angulo et al., 2004 and Olorunniwo and Li, (2010). Many barriers to collaboration arise from the nature of inter-firm collaboration; others are deeply embedded in corporate cultures (Parker and Anderson 2002). Among the most prevalent barriers are inadequate information sharing, turf conflicts, and inconsistent metrics (Barratt 2004; Moberg et al. 2003; Tyndall et al. 1998).

CONCLUSION

There are challenges posed to a full-scale implementation of SRM that would not make it easy for firms to implement it to the extent necessary to achieve the desirable goals and objectives. This paper attempts to highlight some of the challenges as seen from the perspectives of SRM senior managers and executives. To this end, this paper reports a summary of the information gleaned from interviews with several companies regarding their current SRM practices especially the challenges they have faced. The challenges reported in this paper include:- (1) continuity of supply (predictability of supply); (2) impact of the economic crisis on suppliers and business; (3) understanding the financial viability of supply base and explaining financial benefits to all suppliers; (4) need to bring more diversity in the supplier base; (5) continuously improving process, not getting stale; continuously looking for new ideas and products, (6) globalization - getting the right people who are trained to do business globally and (7) establishing and maintaining long-term relationship (collaboration) with the suppliers.

The challenges discussed above are by means mutually exclusive. For example, the challenge posed by globalization is influenced by the need to outsource. Outsourcing supply operations to off-shore companies expose the companies to supply risk because any event in the global supply chain can affect the continuity and predictability of supply. On the other hand, because minority businesses may not be found which can meet cost, quality, delivery and other supply criteria, companies may be forced to look offshore for outsourcing partners. Success in innovation is enhanced depending on the extent to which a firm works collaboratively with its supply chain partners in introducing new processes, products, or services. However, collaborative process management involves joint problem solving, long-term process planning, and more fully integrated supply chain processes. Collaboration is a long-term relationship that builds on the expectation that the collaborative partners will remain financially stable in difficult economic times. If a firm may fail during hard times, it is difficult for such firm to be brought into a collaborative relationship.

The challenges listed above are not totally exhaustive either. For example, issues regarding sustainability in supply chains and how these impact SRM are very important; these are not covered in this paper. Also important, but not covered here, are issues of ethical buying (e.g. eliminating child labor) and political instability. The global economy is complex, so are the current global supply chains. We expect no less complexity in the SRM practices as well.

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BIOGRAPHY

The Authors teach Operations and Supply Chain Management. They can be contacted at College of Business, Tennessee State University, 330 Tenth Ave. North, Nashville, TN 37203. Email: folorunniwo@tnstate.edu; jjolayemi@tnstate.edu; cfan@tnstate.edu and xli1@tnstate.edu.

THE TRADE-OFF OF LIFO: TAX BENEFIT VERSUS THE COST OF INVENTORY RESERVES

Leslie Bobb, New York institute of Technology Peter Harris, New York institute of Technology Kevin O'Sullivan, New York institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

The Last in First out (LIFO) Inventory method is primarily used by companies as a tax shield to lower their taxable income. In inflationary periods, companies can lower their income simply by purchasing decisions directed at increasing their inventory levels, known as inventory reserves. While inventory reserves could create material tax benefits in a form of lower tax payments, there is a cost of carrying excess inventory due to inefficiencies. Such costs include; storage, obsolescence, interest and carrying costs such as insurance. A LIFO inventory system opposes an efficient inventory at a minimum needs level to ensure nominal carrying costs. The result then is, a trade-off between the Tax benefit versus the Inventory carrying costs of the reserve. Which has the greater effect? Is it worthwhile to carry low inventory levels whereby one forgoes the tax benefit while enjoying its managerial benefits, or is it better to carry large inventory reserves to obtain a tax benefit at a cost of inefficient inventory management? This paper examines the conditions and scenarios which make the tax benefit of LIFO Reserves advantageous to the implementation of a JIT system, and vice versa

Mine Aysen Doyran, Lehman College - CUNY

ABSTRACT

In 2008, market disturbances and unexpected price volatility besieged the US financial system. Since then weak bank balance sheets have heightened risk, thus resulting in a further rise in non-performing loans and credit-related write-offs in mortgage lending related sectors. This study examines the determinants of US Savings and Loan (S&L) profitability in the time period 1978 and 2009. We estimate a profitability equation using a set of financial ratios that are expected to affect the performance of the S&L industry during this time period. Using ADF as a statistical test by estimation of least squares trend fitting, our analysis highlights that high leverage and large non-performing loan to total loan ratio leads to a lower rate of return on capital. The loan ratio has a significant negative coefficient on return on asset and equity capital. While macroeconomic factors such as low interest rates have a negative effect on bank earnings, the effects of interest rates vary depending on the profit indicator used. Everything remaining equal, the quality of loan portfolio rather than size (economies of scale) affects profitability negatively. Our results confirm earlier studies that over-leveraging and under-performing loans have the potential to render S&Ls vulnerable to financial shocks, thus contributing to financial instability.

KEY WORDS: S&L Industry, Bank Profitability, Subprime Mortgage Crisis, Loan Performance

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents a market based approach to product cost accounting and information systems for manufacturing enterprises in competitive and dynamic environments. Manufacturing enterprises, in general, focus and doan adequate job in providing appropriate information supporting the needs of engineering, product management and financial managers. However extant systems often inhibit marketing success by misleading marketing managers to make misguided decisions on product pricing, product sourcing, product mixes and responses to competitor's rival products. In addition, present systems do not readily provide adequate information for managing cross-functional teams within the enterprise. While it is quite clear that the most innovative cost and information system will not by itself guarantee marketing success, this paper analyzes the reasons how product cost accounting and information systems, by the ineffectiveness attributes we identify, can and will undermine the best efforts in product development, process improvement and marketing policy. While the selling price of products is driven by the marketplace, cost and information systems drive market/strategic product introduction, mix and discontinuance and customer focus decisions. Extant cost and information systems with, say, inappropriate allocations schemes lead to implicit and unintended cross-subsidies across products, stimulate capital cost commitments without appropriate financial accountability and will not stimulate manufacturing flexibility nor support time-based competition and quality strategies. Recommendations are provided on now to revise cost accounting and information systems address these issues. Specifically, the recommendations provide a marketing product quality orientation that support driving time-based competition, supporting quality marketing decisions and assure appropriate enterprise responsiveness and managerial financial accountability.

Greta Druteikiene, Vilnius University

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, in the century of knowledge society, science is regarded as one of the essential factors for the development of social and economic processes. Scientific-technological progress, development of information technologies and their penetration into our daily lives demand complex decision-making and broader higher-level knowledge from the members of the society. The network of higher education institutions is expanding accordingly, which promotes vigorous competition in attracting students, teachers and, financing. Globalization increases the pressure not only on the national scale, but also internationally. Positive image, in these conditions, is given an extraordinary role in scientific organizations, can guaranty organization's survival, long-term success and stability (Mackelo, 2009). The main aim of this article is to reveal the essence and the meaning of image, based on theoretical and empirical assumptions and to present the worldwide and Lithuanian attempts to undermine the necessity of purposeful actions while shaping the image of universities.

KEYWORDS: University image, competitive advantage, image investigations

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, universities should rethink the basis for their competitiveness and aim for sustainable competitive advantage in order to attract and sustain their best students (Aaker, 1992). Nevertheless, the sustainability of long-term competitive advantage becomes problematic when organization operates in robustly developing fields, as it is with universities. Vigorously changing needs of students and the pressure from competitors, rapid increase in their numbers, innovativeness, and prompt implementation of innovations, all these factors make it even harder to gain the competitive advantage. Therefore, for university to obtain a long-term competitive advantage, it must have an extensive disposition of recourses, broader than technology and strategy, since the previous are easy to copy and could be used by competitors to deprive an organization of its uniqueness, which without doubt is the source of competitive advantage (Amit & Schoemeker, 1993; Barney, 1991).

University with good image, without doubt, will have a greater competitive advantage than universities without it. Therefore, nowadays the success of the university is associated with its ability to create, develop and manage unique resources. This implies the importance of image on university's competitive advantage. Therefore, it can be suggested that the image of this organization will be the source of its competitive advantage, since it is unique and it cannot be bought (Rao, 1994) or copied (Barney, 1991). Nevertheless, recently the tendency to broaden the boundaries in order to cover more and more subjects emerges in social sciences.

The traditional point of view is to assume that everything beyond the boundaries of the university is a "faceless environment". However, it is changing by splitting into two directions:

1) A clear division between the internal and external environment of the university is diminishing together with the division between the university and the environment in general;

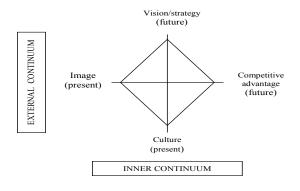
2) "Faceless environment" is gaining the identity and it is divided into specific stakeholders, which have a defined relationship with the university.

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These changes are also determined by the current situation and by separate scientists referred to as new economics, which in turn opens the door for new possibilities. In this context, the main characteristics of the new economics are the global concept, the priority given to intangible values, such as ideas and relationships, and interconnectivity (Thurow, 1999). New economics stresses the concept of value creation (added-value), which is applied in organizations. An increasing number of academics and practitioners observe the difference between the new approach focused on value-added development, and the old approach focused on flawless operations. In this case, the factors, that as it seem at first, are not particularly important due to their intangible nature, must also be taken into consideration, since they allow us to make more-accurate decisions.

Therefore, it becomes very important to assess the strategic implication of the university's image and its components. The search for effective ways of creating university's image is also determined by robustly spreading and based on value organizational management theory in the recent decades. The intangible value of the image of the university increases due to the information dissemination about the reliability, goodwill and quality of the organization (Fombrun, 1996). Simultaneously, the interrelation between university's image and the advantage in the future could be demonstrated using diamond shape module (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Internal and External Continuum of the Organization



Internal and external continuums f the organization (Bickerton, 2000)

It reveals the existence of two continuums – external and internal. The external continuum, which reflects the interrelation between mentioned above values, exists next to the internal continuum, which determines the relationship of the strategy of the university, its vision and culture. The leaders of the university must understand the importance of the elements constituting the continuum and their interrelation, they must also ensure that this process is implemented and supported by other business processes in the organization.

EXTENT OF THE UNIVERSITY'S IMAGE INVESTIGATION: THEORETICAL ASPECT

The systemic analysis of scientific literature regarding the creation of university's image, gives the basis to proclaim that most of the literature overviews general aspects of image, since the structural and creation aspects of university's image are particularly new and not researched areas. On the other hand, scientific community of the world does not have a united view towards the creation of the image, the factors influencing this activity and the technologies to be used. The image creation problems are 0analyzed in different scientific areas, most often in the narrow context, or in the framework of the particular scientific perspective. The image of an organization became an object of theoretical research in 1956, when the economist and systems' academic Kennet Boulding raised the issue. Scientists started to analyze the general issues regarding image of an organization in the 6th decade of the twentieth century,

nevertheless, scientific attempts to see university's image as a research object are dated only on the 8th decade of the twentieth century, when indirectly R. Vaughn, J. Pitlik and B. Hansotia (1978) became interested in the factors influencing the choice of university's image as a research object.

Therefore, the active research in this field started only in the last decade of this century, when D. Bok (1992), J. Phair (1992), K. Theus (1993), D. Treadwell and T. Harrison (1994), K. Gose (1994-1995), J. Immerwahr and J. Harvey (1995), R. Parameswaran and A. Glowacka (1995), A. Wilson (1999) started talking about the importance of the image to the universities (Duarte et al., 2009). The more detailed analysis of the image of the university among the world's scientific community date only nine years back, when G. Soutar and J. Turner (2002), J. Ivy (2001), D. Kazoleas, <u>Y. Kim and M. A. Moffit</u> (2001), J. Gutman and G. Miaoulis (2003), L. M. Arpan, A. Raney and S. Zivnushka (2003), <u>A. B. Palacio, G. D. Meneses and P. J. Perez</u> (2002), B. Gray, K. Fam and V. Llanes (2003), C. Belanger, J. Mount and M. Wilson (2002), I. Price, F. Matzdorf, L. Smith and H. Agahi (2003), G. O'Mahony, A. McWilliams and P. Whitelaw (2001), N. Nguyen and G. LeBalanc (2001), M. Sung and S. Yang (2008) analyzed the factors affecting the formation of university's image (Duarte et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the publication of P. O. Duarte, H. B. Alves and M. B. Raposo (2009), H. B. Alves and M. B. Raposo (2010) analyzes these questions in most detail.

While in Lithuania, the creation of university's image is rarely discussed as a research object. The questions related to creation of university's image were analyzed by R. Zelvys and L. Bareikiene (2006), the scientists of Vilnius Pedagogical University and the scientists from the University of Siauliai, J. Ruskus, V. Laurutis, I. Simonaitiene and E. Rudminaite (2005). Nevertheless, probably the majority of scientific publications in regards to the university's image were published by Vilnius University scientists: O. Mackelo and G. Druteikiene (2010), G. Druteikiene (2010), O. Mackelo and G. Druteikiene, B. Galiniene, A. Miskinis and A. Marcinskas (2009), G. Druteikiene, V. Gudoniene and A. Marcinskas (2007).

The image of the university theoretically is described as the concept of organizational image, which is modified due to the characteristics of this type of the organization. While performing university's image analysis, certain categories can be concretized, such as prototype, object and subject. In the first case it is the scientific organization, which is perceived differently, as ideological and economics unit (Druteikiene et al., 2007). Often organizations of this type, formulate their image from the ideological positions, while acting on the economic basis. One more important moment is the multi-aspect activity of the university, which provides the basis for formation of different images, depending on the offered study programs, size of the libraries, technical possibilities, sport programs, faculty characteristics, personnel, opinions and valuations presented in the media, etc. Each of these aspects can be perceived as a separate image, the totality of which constitutes an overall image of the university. These components in separate cases can diverge, and their importance at a certain moment can change in response of the environmental changes (Arpan et al., 2003; Mackelo, 2009).

EXTENT OF THE UNIVERSITY'S IMAGE INVESTIGATION: EMPIRICAL ASPECT

First of all the author would like to introduce the image research performed at the universities abroad. One of the first researches in the area of university's image was performed in 1981. The authors of this research were American scientists R. F. Krampf and A. C. Heinlen, who tried to determine the main university's selection factors for high school graduates (which university to select) (Soutar & Turner, 2002). In the same year G. J. Hooley and J. E. Lynch (1981) also tried to determine the selection of the university (Soutar & Turner, 2002). Other scientists, for instance H. H. Oosterbeek, W. Groot and J. Hartog (1992) researched the connection between the selection of the university and salaries of its graduates in Holland, T. Mazzarol and P. Hosie (1996) analyzed factors, which affect the study place selection among international students, L. Lin (1997) analyzed the higher education institution's selection

determinants for the university students from Holland, P. Turner (1998) performed a study, during which he tried to conclude what determines the decision of the graduates to select business studies in a certain university, G. N. Soutar and J. P. Turner (2002) performed a study to determine the factors, which affect university's selection of Australian high school graduates (Soutar & Turner, 2002).

Scientist from South Africa J. Ivy in 2001 published an article, where he presented the results of the performed studies in universities of South Africa and Great Britain. The main aim of these studies was to identify how these universities try to distinguish themselves from other higher education institutions. Scientists L. Arpan, A. Raney and S. Zinvuska from USA, Florida State University, in 2003 performed two studies, where they tried to determine the factors, which have the most influence on the image of the university and if there is a difference between the factors named by the universities' students and adults who are not studying a the universities. The most recent study is published in 2010 by Portuguese scientists H. Alves and M. Raposo, who tried to determine how the image of the university affects the behavior of the students (tried to measure the influence of university's image on student satisfaction and loyalty).

The image of Lithuanian universities (Vilnius University) has been research numerous times. Not accidentally Vilnius University has been selected as a research object, it is one of the oldest (established in 1579) and famous higher education institution among Eastern European higher education schools. For a long time it was the only higher education institution in Lithuania. Vilnius University had a great impact on the cultural life in Lithuania and neighboring countries, it raised a generation of scientists, poets. Today Vilnius University has 3615 employs, 331 of them are habilitated doctors, 1140 doctors, and 22060 students.

The author of this article has participated in carrying out various studies to assess the image of Vilnius University and its departments. Studies could be divided into three categories based on the influence groups: employees' surveys, students' surveys and the surveys of students' parents and guardians. The author will shortly present the aims, methodologies and main results of students' surveys in this article. Seven image studies were performed on Vilnius University students. This article will cover four largest studies. Firstly, we have performed a second to forth year bachelor and first to second year master students' survey in the winter of 2005. The survey included the students from all Vilnius University faculties and institutes; the total number of respondents was 1499. Respondents were presented with the questionnaire of eighty questions, formulated to determine their opinion regarding active and passive communication measures, information dissemination, interaction and their status at Vilnius University, studies, functions of the University and university's image in the eyes of students and society. In 2009 this research was repeated (the aim of this research was to identify the changes in Vilnius University's image valuations). Respondents were presented with the same questionnaire, and 1550 students participated in the survey.

Additional study was performed in 2005 – 2006. This research was divided into two stages. During the first stage we tried to determine the present image of Vilnius University in comparison to other Lithuanian universities: whether the society is informed about the community of Vilnius University and its academic research fields, potential of Vilnius University to prepare highly qualified specialists and develop scientific research. The study was performed in all the faculties of Vilnius University and it encompassed the main fields of studies, survey included 1169 students. The second stage of the research determined the changes in student valuations after the first study semester at Vilnius University; it indentified the factors influencing meeting/not meeting the hopes related to studies at Vilnius University. Group surveying method was used to gather information in both stages. Total of 1056 students were surveyed. These four main researches identified four problematic areas (Druteikiene et al., 2009):

Information and communication at Vilnius University-Information dissemination reflects the quality of internal communication quality in the organization and should influence the formation of the internal image of an organization, which has a critical meaning to University's image in the eyes of society. The research performed in 2005 revealed that introduction, information and marketing material of Vilnius University were assessed positively, while information dissemination about the activities, changes and other relevant topics of Vilnius University faced severe criticism. The repeated survey in 2009 showed that the situation in information and communication at Vilnius University is improving.

The quality of studies at Vilnius University-Vilnius University students in 2005 and 2009 assessed the attempts to improve quality of studies and its results and valuated them as average. After researching the students' judgment concerning their ability to participate in the process of improving the quality of studies, we noticed, that criticism is mostly directed towards the ability of each individual student to officially state their opinion regarding the quality of teaching. On the other hand, the efforts to ensure the dialogue with students by the faculty leaders were evaluated quite positively. We could also note, that before the research the presumption prevailed, that the teaching quality of older staff was higher compared to young teachers, the research undoubtedly denied the presumption. Students to not give priority to older teachers, vice versa, they prefer younger teacher who have professional. Most likely, this choice is determined by need to have modern teaching content and innovative methods, which are limited at the moment.

The researches also did not confirm the presumption, that the academic title (professor, assoc. professor) reflects a higher teaching quality when comparing to other teachers. Generally Vilnius University teaching staff is evaluated positively, as proficient in their field. Professional knowledge and experience transferring skills of Vilnius University teaching staff were also evaluated positively.

Image and its identification in Vilnius University- Research showed that according to the student opinion Vilnius University external image is better when comparing it to students' perception. This confirms a public opinion that Vilnius University external image is much better than the internal image of organization.

Most favorably, students evaluated the possibility to act on their own initiative, most negatively – joining the implementation of University goals. Probable presumption about a weak individuality expression in the University's culture and lack of psychological bounds between organization and it members. On the other hand, the psychological ties of students to the faculties, expresses in the survey are much stronger than the ones with the Vilnius University. This research identified, that teaching staff qualification and professional experience is an important factor to the University image and selection for studies over other universities. One third of the first year students in Vilnius University and one fifth of their parents demand additional public information regarding the qualification of the teaching staff in a particular faculty.

Gradual (thought the years of studies) decrease in satisfaction with studies-After the first semester in Vilnius University, a slight tendency of decreasing satisfaction becomes noticeable. Frequently freshman provide these dissatisfaction sources: the organization of the teaching process (lack of books, heavy load, salutatory arrangement of classes); teaching, communication to teachers and administration; grading (occasional bias grading); personal stresses related to assignments and exams (fear, stress before assignments and exams; lack of time and fatigue; heavy load, tension, sleepless nights; several students stated health problems due to tension). Probable presumption is that the support for the student and his expression are vital in the active adaptation period. Subsequently it is necessary to identify now qualitatively changing student needs.

CONCLUSION

Image is one of the essential elements for university development, which requires strategic attitude towards its creation, sustainability and development. Good image will have the same affect on the university as on business organizations, it will provide strategic advantage and will increase the value of the university.

Conclusively, image is a strategic instrument to ensure the attainment of the university's long-term aims. Nevertheless, these aims should be pursued in the orderly manner, as a systemically planned and implemented activity, rather than chaotic, unplanned expression. If properly developed, this activity provides valuable information about strengths and weaknesses of the university, image of competitors and other important elements.

It is important to note, that the creation of the positive image is a long process, based on new knowledge. This process demands more that concentration for a few months to achieve fast results. Universities must not only plan, but also implement and control the creation process of their image. Therefore, success is guarantied only if the university is able to create a good image and manage it. Good image is only one condition of success. Successful university must be able to develop and sustain the image in the direction, which would be meaningful, irreplaceable and could not be easily copied by competitors.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Greta Druteikiene is an Associate Professor of Management at Vilnius University. She can be contacted at: Vilnius University Faculty of Economics, Sauletekio av. 9 - 709, Vilnius, Lithuania. Email: greta.druteikiene@ef.vu.lt

FOREIGN EXCHANGE EXPOSURE: A SURVEY

Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA Samuel Kohn, New York Institute of Technology, USA J.K. Yun, New York Institute of Technology, USA

ABSTRACT

Foreign exchange exposure represents a material risk for multinational corporations which are unrelated to business operations. One needs to identify each foreign exchange exposure, the risk it represents and methods and costs available to limit such exposure. This paper first discusses the three major types of foreign exchange exposure: translation, transaction and economic; the available economic and financial available resources to limit and/or eliminate such exposure and the cost, if any, associated with each strategy. The second part of the paper will discuss the results of our survey which empirically tests the types of available exposure strategies companies' use in practice. With global business on the rise, foreign exchange exposure must be addressed as its impact on worldwide economies will continue to increase.

THE CURRENT AND FUTURE STATE OF LIFO: A CRITIQUE OF ITS DISADVANTAGES AND AVAILABLE OPPORTUNITIES

Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA

ABSTRACT

The Last in First out Method (LIFO) is presently under severe scrutiny from the financial community which may soon culminate in its repeal as an acceptable accounting method. There are pressures from the SEC in conjunction with the International Financial Accounting Standards Board to standardize accounting standards worldwide. In addition, there is political pressure imposed by the US Obama administration to raise additional revenues. Both groups strongly oppose LIFO, raising a strong possibility that's its complete elimination as an accounting method will occur by as early as 2014. Are these groups correct in their negative assessment of LIFO? This paper examines critically the many disadvantages of LIFO. Ultimately, the author theorizes that these negatives may collectively explain the observed research findings of the inverse relationship between LIFO adoption and firm value/stock price. The elimination of LIFO which seems imminent may result in a win-win situation for all; as the negative and added costs of LIFO may well exceed its tax advantage, resulting in greater cash flow for the firm, while allowing for the standardization of worldwide accounting standards and raising additional tax revenue for the US government.

JEL: M4, M40, M41, M48, M49.

KEYWORDS: GAAP, IFRS, LIFO, LIFO, LIFO Conformity LIFO Reserve, FIFO.

THE ROLE OF CREDIT AGENCIES IN THE FINANCIAL CRISIS: THEIR DEFENSES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA Adela Deerson, New York Institute of Technology James Dunne, New York Institute of Technology N. Hayes, New York Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

With the advent of the still current worldwide financial and economic crisis resulting from Wall Street's innovative financial packages, one has to question the role of credit agencies in this crisis and what seems to be a form of lenient and forgiving treatment from US government as a result of their role. Our paper will address five issues as follows:

1-What role did credit agencies play in this financial meltdown?

2-Assuming their role contributed to the meltdown, why is it that they are getting a free ride as a result?

3-To answer question 2, one has to look at the legal protection of credit agencies spelled out by the first amendment, as well as other available legal defenses.

4-We will address how credit agencies rate companies and present a host of commonly used financial ratios used in constructing a rating score.

5-Assuming that they are protected by legal statutes, what is our recommendation to constructively curb credit agencies from contributing to a future financial crisis? We will address a number of solutions which can be implemented by the SEC and US Government to prevent future financial catastrophes. Note that the US government has imposed laws against banks and investment firms to prevent such future mishaps and we will recommend the same for credit agencies.

MISAPPLICATION OF FOR-PROFIT BUSINESS MODELS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

Kooros Maskooki, Western New Mexico University

ABSTRACT

This paper develops an analytical model for higher education. The model incorporates social costs and benefits (externalities) associated with producing university education. Market-oriented models developed by Neoclassical Economists are fundamentally flawed in their application to resource allocation in the presence of externalities during the production and consumption processes. They are short-sighted and have negative implications for growth and development of a nation's social and human capital. Lack of recognition of social cost and social benefits associated with production of education results in misallocation of resources; creating an environment for "adverse selection." Higher education would have a tendency to produce an inordinate number of undesirable products and insufficient amounts of socially desirable ones.

JEL: F3; G1; N2

KEYWORDS: For-profit, externalities, adverse selection

STATISTICAL SPECIFICATION AND TESTS OF EFFICIENCY IN FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKETS

Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA Paul R. Kutasovic, New York Institute of Technology Scott Liu, New York Institute of Technology John Malindretos, New York Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

The paper uses an efficiency specification model of the spot and forward foreign exchange markets and tests the random walk, the general efficiency, and the unbiasedness hypotheses (the forward rate is usually viewed as an unbiased predictor of the future spot rate) by utilizing a regression estimation and many different specification and diagnostic test for the series and the error term (residuals). The random walk hypotheses cannot be rejected. The unbiased forward rate hypotheses has been failed to be rejected in Germany, Canada, Belgium, and Netherlands, but even though, more research is needed in this area to be able to have better statistical inferences.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND SHAREHOLDER VALUE: THE ENVIRONMENTAL CONSCIOUSNESS OF INVESTORS

Caroline Flammer, Kean University

ABSTRACT

This study examines whether shareholders are sensitive to corporations' environmental footprint. Specifically, we conduct an event study around the announcement of corporate news related to environment for all U.S. publicly-traded companies from 1980 to 2009. We find that companies that are reported to behave responsibly towards the environment experience a significant stock price increase, whereas firms that behave irresponsibly face a significant stock price decrease. When we examine how the stock market reaction has evolved over the past three decades, we find that punishment for corporate irresponsible behavior has increased, while the reward for responsible behavior has decreased. These results indicate that, over time, shareholders have become more conscious of the environment and also more demanding towards companies' environmental responsibility.

CASE STUDY ON IFRS AND US GAAP FINANCIAL REPORTING

Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA Katherine Kinkela, New York Institute of Technology Steven Shapiro, New York Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

With the reality of a mandatory use of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) by the year 2015, I will like to prepare a case study on converting a complete set of financial statements (Balance sheet, Income statement and Cash Flow statement) from US Generally Accepted Financial reporting statements (US GAAP) to IFRS. The case will be presented as follows; We will prepare a December 31.2010 set of US GAAP prepared financial statements. WE will then provide the user a multiple set of facts about income, expense, inventory, property, plant and equipment, intangible assets, impairment of assets, deferred taxes, cash flow items and other aspects such as stockholders' equity. We will then ask the user to use all the above in preparing an IFRS complete set of financial statements. The user will have to know US Generally Accepted Accounting rules and the International Financial Reporting Standards to successfully complete this case.

AN IMPROVED MATHEMATICAL PROGRAMMING FORMULATION FOR MULTI-ATTRIBUTE CHOICE BEHAVIOR

Ashis Kumar Chatterjee, Indian Institute of Mangement, Calcutta Soumojit Kumar, Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta

ABSTRACT

Conjoint Analysis and Mathematical Programming approaches have been used extensively in the past for modelling multi-attribute choice behavior. The Mathematical Programming approaches are more versatile in their ability to capture complex behavior but have been limited to dealing with objective attributes. Conjoint Anlysis, though limited by the additive utility assumption, allows for both subjective and objective attributes. In the present article, we modify the existing mathematical models to account for situations where the decision maker may base her decisions on only a subset of the attributes. Identification of non-value added attributes may be helpful in reducing wastage of resources. Further, we enrich the scope of the model by accomodating both subjective and objective attributes. A limitation of the earlier mathematical programming approaches has been the use of interval scale data implying the gap between any two consecutive levels of an attribute are same. In the proposed model we remove this drawback using ordinal scaled data for objective attributes. The resulting MIP problem has been solved using the data provided by Green and Wind (1975) in the context of a Conjoint Analysis study. A comparison of the results of the proposed model and Conjoint analysis have also been provided.

KEYWORDS: Multi-attribute choice behavior, Conjoint Analysis, Mixed Integer Programming

INTERNAL AUDITING DEVELOPMENTS: COSO STUDIES KEY RISK ASSESSMENT AS A COMPONENT OF ENTERPRISE RISK MANAGEMENT

Katherine Kinkela, New York Institute of Technology Peter Harris, New York Institute of Technology, USA

ABSTRACT

The field of internal auditing has expanded greatly in this Post Sarbanes-Oxley Era, and the leading organizations from the accounting field have joined together to examine practical methods of implementing and refining internal controls. Creating a comprehensive Enterprise Risk Management system is an effective way of monitoring the critical aspects of the operations of an organization. Identification of Key Risk Indicators allows the organization to prioritize use of resources by pinpointing the areas of the organization most susceptible for fraud and other problems. The Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission (COSO) recently issued a white paper entitled Developing Key Risk Indicators to Strengthen Enterprise Risk Management: How Key Risk Indicators can Sharpen Focus on Emerging Risks. This paper will critique the observations contained in the white paper. The paper will also suggest next steps necessary for future research in the area of Key risk identification within the Enterprise Risk Management system.

THE GLOBAL SUPPLY CHAIN IN THE DIGITAL AGE: TRANSFORMATIVE FACTORS AFFECTING INDUSTRIAL VENDING

Gabriel Manrique, Winona State University Cecilia Manrique, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

ABSTRACT

For businesses, the unrelenting drive towards efficiency, lower cost, and higher margins, has led to the search for continuous improvements in inventory management. One area driving innovation in inventory management today is industrial vending machines - used to provide workers on the shop floor and in any production process with supplies required in a timely manner. Indeed, vending machines are not just for snacks anymore. It is becoming more ubiquitous in factories, offices, and warehouses and we expect it will continue to become more so. In this paper, we discuss the history of vending machines and the case of one of the leaders in the use of industrial vending – Fastenal Company – to analyze the important factors that have taken place during the last 3 decades which have allowed the transformation of vending from a purely consumer-oriented activity to an important component of the global supply chain. We use Fastenal Company for this study because its development as a company mirrored to a large extent the historical development of industrial vending. The digital revolution, various methods of data handling and transmission, highly developed concepts of lean manufacturing, just in time (JIT) inventory management, vendor managed inventory (VMI), manufacturing cells, point-of-work (POW) systems, and Six Sigma are just some of the transformative factors we include in our analysis of this industrial transformation. We conclude with a discussion of the business gains in terms of reducing cost, raising efficiency, and increasing profitability that have accompanied the phenomenon of industrial vending.

JEL: M10: M30

KEYWORDS: Industrial vending machines, lean processes, supply chain

INTRODUCTION

There are times when business ideas are ahead of their time and it requires the confluence of concepts, practices, technology and adaptations to bring an idea to fruition. When management thinking, technological applications and the proper infrastructure come into place, there will often be a change in how we think of things. The industrial vending machine (IVMs) is one such innovation which started out as an idea ahead of its time. We begin with our common idea of vending machines – the convenient dispenser of consumer goods.

A Brief History Of Vending Machines: Although the major products that are vended start with the letter "C" and have been called the 4 Cs of vending - cigarettes, coke, coffee, candy – the products delivered via vending machines (VM) have gone through a long history, a history of successes and failures. It spans centuries with its original conception attributed to the Greek mathematician Hero who found a way to dispense temple cleansing or sacrificial water (some called it "holy water") by dropping a drachma and receiving the product through a dispenser. After all a vending machine is nothing else but retailing using an automated machine. But it would not be until the late 1800s that this concept of selling via a machine would take off with the dispensing of products such as postcards and chewing gum. Vending machines took advantage of certain inherent natural inclinations that would make customers buy on impulse a relatively inexpensive product and consume it on the spot. Vending machines were often placed in spots where customers were captive because a service was needed and vending proved to be the most effective

way of providing the consumer products in factories, mills, offices, and warehouses. It was also useful in high traffic areas like railroad stations, steamships, washrooms, and bus stations. Today vending locations span the gamut of places like theaters, lobbies, garages, drug stores, depots, hospitals, and schools. Vending machines have even become controversial because they are seen as highly lucrative money makers serving captive audiences such as students in schools that partially cause the USA's high obesity rate. Some of the products that have drawn the interest of merchants wanting to engage in automatic selling to revolutionize merchandising include: perfumes to mask odors, lighter fluid, sanitary napkins, dairy products, handkerchiefs, toothbrush, toothpaste, baby needs, videos, ice, popcorn, sandwiches (starting in the 1930s), condoms, aspirin, soup, fruit, juices, pencils, newspapers, magazines, books, and even toilet seat covers. One attraction of VMs was that it could replace routine sales allowing salesmen to engage in the real task of selling. However, vending machines were not always broadly accepted and in some cases VMs were reviled. For example, the illegal use of slugs and other objects in the coin slots caused machines to malfunction and lose profits. Slugs were blamed for the decline in public morality and even economic problems.

The increase in foreign travel also caused problems for VMs as foreign coins came to be illegally used in vending machines. There were concerns that VMs were destroying jobs because they competed with retail shops, counters and direct sellers. Others resented the floor space occupied by these machines. Public health concerns also accompanied the rise of the VM as worries arose concerning the dispensing of drugs without professional advice, the exposure of children to poison, and mistakes in stocking. VMs were even blamed for deaths in universities when they toppled over disgruntled students who were venting their frustrations on machines that failed to dispense the right product or the correct change. Some also blamed the rise in theft and vandalism on these tempting, seldom-attended machines.

Obtaining products from VMs has gone through numerous modifications – from the penny scale for weighing machines to the use of coins and then paper currency. The ability for VMs to give change was a revolutionary event. Prior to this, prices were fixed for all machine contents and change was not calculated nor given. There was a time when each pack of cigarettes in a vending machine was packaged with a coin (e.g. 10 cents) as change when the fixed amount accepted by the VM was greater than the price of a pack. Technological advances particularly in the use of debit cards have rendered the question of giving change moot. In the 1920s and 1930s the major area of growth for vending machines. But because of the Great Depression, consumer spending collapsed taking with it VMs. However, even as consumer spending fell, coin-operated machines continued to develop through such amusements as gambling machines, pinball, and jukeboxes. Eventually VM use increased but there were some products that clearly did not lend themselves to VM even though entrepreneurs tried. Perfume dispensers, dry cleaning, and live bait are just products and services that failed.

VMs eventually gained popularity outside the USA as well but its growth was uneven. VMs started slow in places like London, Paris and Amsterdam. But it showed phenomenal growth in China and Japan - a country where there is 1 vending machine for every 22 people. The time period from 1960 to 1985 would be a period of stagnation, despite the rise of automation, higher labor costs and increased leisure time. However, the business principles that would dictate success for vended products became much clearer. The 4 basic principles for VM success are: 1. Products must have wide consumer acceptance and already be presold through ads; 2. Profits must be sufficient (at least 30%) for a large enough volume to justify the cost; 3. Products must be consumable immediately; and 4. Products must be a standard product so that there is no need to test it before buying. Other product characteristics that are crucial for a product's success include its small weight and size, mass market appeal, high frequency of purchase, and true convenience.

After 1985, sales of consumer products through VMs continued to grow thanks to the widespread use of credit and debit cards. However, VM would remain mired in its position as a niche marketing industry relegated to dispensing a limited range of mainly low-priced snack items. VMs also continued to serve as a means of dispensing a small nucleus of inexpensive products to the public where normal retailing was not feasible. VMs continued to rely on customers who would buy products on impulse and for the most part consume them immediately. However, there were significant changes occurring that would eventually carry VMs from being a consumer-oriented, niche-market artifact, to becoming a very useful resource in industrial production and in service industries.

An Industry Case Study

In this study of Fastenal Company, we show that while the initial idea for starting a company may first prove to be unfeasible, a company or entrepreneur may be able to return to the original idea once the conditions are right. In the case of Fastenal Company, whose founder had hoped to use industrial vending machines (IVMs) in the 1960s, we examine the significant changes in management concepts and in technology that had to occur first before IVMs could evolve and succeed. In the process, we show how the millennia-old concept of vending machines dating back to the dispensing of holy water in ancient temples has evolved from primarily consumer applications to industrial uses.

One of the founder's first ideas for starting a business was based on a vending machine – that he would set up rudimentary vending machines for fasteners so that as customers walked into his retail parts store, they only had to put in their money into a machine and down would drop a box of fasteners – in much the same way that people bought cigarettes from a vending machine. In addition to increasing customer convenience, this would also cut down on the use of employee time since there would be less time retrieving many small orders and restocking would only take place once or twice a day.

His vending machine idea for industrial supplies did not take off primarily because of the physical limitations of the machine. Since the vending machines only had fixed-sized slots, only boxes of a certain size would fit and could not accommodate screws longer than say, 6 inches. If the customer wanted a bigger screw, the customer would still have to ask the counter salesman. Likewise, fixed quantities were an issue. The boxes contained set quantities of fasteners, at a set price since at that time machines could not yet give change. If a customer needed fewer fasteners, he would still be stuck with the pre-packaged quantity. If he wanted more, he had to buy additional boxes. Space constraints were also an issue. To meet varied customer demands, the number of stock-keeping units (SKUs) had to be large. But having enough vending machines and space for all the SKUs was cost prohibitive.

While the original idea of selling fasteners using vending machines did not take off, the founders of Fastenal achieved success as an industrial parts supplier. From one store in a small mid-Western town, Fastenal grew to be a leading supplier of industrial parts with 2,500 stores operating in 13 countries, \$2.3 billion in sales, and 12,000 employees. In 2008, when Freddie Mac and Fannie Mae were taken off the S&P 500, Fastenal was one of the companies selected to replace them. (These company figures are approximations for March 2011.)

For Fastenal, the industrial vending machine idea lay dormant until it was revived in 2008 but in a completely different incarnation. Now named Fastenal Vending Solutions, these vending machines are outwardly similar to the older vending machines the snack-consuming public is used to. But today they have much more sophisticated internal mechanisms and support infrastructure. The configuration of space is more flexible allowing for parts of various sizes. Access need not be by cash but by secure ID cards. Information regarding stock availability and usage are now gathered and transmitted electronically eliminating the need for visual inspection for restocking and allowing for easy reporting. And rather than have customers traveling to a store to get parts, today's vending machines are placed on the factory floor

close to where the end-users are. A company like Fastenal, which owns the vending machines, is responsible for restocking making the IVMs a form of vendor managed inventory. In the rest of this paper, we discuss the factors that have evolved during that hiatus of 40 years which has made this reincarnation possible.

MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS AND THE TRANSFORMATION OF VENDING

While many of the concepts and technologies we will discuss were being developed even before the 1980s, it took time for their widespread adoption to take place. But once there was widespread buy in of the concepts and broad adoption of the various technologies, the path was open for management's adoption of IVMs. Perhaps the most important managerial concept that helped the development of industrial vending was "lean manufacturing" and the various management practices that sprung from it. In 1990, James Womack published "The Machine that Changed the World." Based on an extensive study of the automobile industry, the book made the terms "lean production" and "lean manufacturing" popular and more importantly, spurred the aggressive search for practices in the work place that would increase efficiency and lower cost. As a management practice, the emergence of adaptable "manufacturing cells" was a natural outgrowth of lean production. Because such manufacturing cells were easily identifiable "points of work (POW)," the placement of IVMs close to the end-user became possible. In turn, by bringing supplies closer to the POW, IVMs became cost reducing enhancements on the shop floor. Rather than spend time going to a central tool crib and spending time with a tool crib employee to get the supplies, for example, workers took far fewer steps and less time to get needed supplies from an IVM.

Total Quality Management (TQM) was another management concept that gained broad acceptance and use during the past 30 years. As a management philosophy, TQM seeks to continuously improve both products and processes with the goal of increasing customer satisfaction. It is management's preoccupation with improving process quality that has led suppliers to keep seeking ways to shorten delivery time, to reduce the direct and indirect costs of supplying production workers, and to gather data pertinent for management decisions. The placement of readily accessible inventory of selected supplies close to the POW, while maintaining accountability has become increasingly accepted as a process improvement. In addition, Japanese (i.e. Toyota) production processes also received greater acceptance as part of modern management. For the development of IVM, the concept and practice of Just in Time (JIT) inventory management was crucial. Based on the notion of minimizing inventory, JIT required balancing the minimization of supply stock with the need for having enough stock all the time to avoid any interruption in work flow. Vendor Managed Inventory (VMI) was one response to the requirements of JIT. As the responsibility for supplies fell on the vendors, it became incumbent on the suppliers to assure timely restocking of supplies without burdening manufacturers with too much inventory.

Later on, vending machines would become one instrument of VMI allowing workers at the POW to have access to needed supplies at any time. And because today's IVMs are connected via the internet to a supplier's office, real-time information on stock levels can be monitored continuously to keep inventory within pre-set min-max levels. In 1982, Keith Oliver introduced the term "supply chain management" to the lexicon of business. It encompassed the notion of understanding the totality of the process of efficiently and reliably fulfilling customer needs. This forced suppliers to find ways to integrate their information and logistics processes with the needs of their customers. But it was not enough to align supplier processes with their own downstream suppliers as well as their logistics providers. As such the "chain" could only be strong and reliable if all components were integrated. This has even led some suppliers to build up their own expanded logistics capabilities in order to have greater control over the management of the supply chain. With sophisticated supply chain management systems in place, it became possible and even advantageous to develop and install IVMs as one more step to bring the supply chain closer to the end user at the point of use.

While cost-minimization and profit-maximization are concepts that have been around for a long time, there has been in the past 40 years a concentration on identifying value – value that a seller or partner brings to a business. Hence, we have greater management use of the terms "value-added" and "value proposition". Value-added has long been used in the National Income Accounts but it has been appropriated widely in management as a way to rate the attractiveness of sellers and providers. Greater consciousness of value-added has forced sellers to explain and enumerate the benefits they bring. This is usually encapsulated in the so-called "value proposition." Management sensitivity to value-added and value propositions opened the door to providers of IVMs who are often able to demonstrate and quantify the gains from installing IVMs at the point of work – less waste as hoarding is discouraged, less time spent by employees going to and from the tool crib, reduced chances of stock outs and therefore reduced down time cost, and reduced employee resources used in managing the tool crib and restocking. In other words, its value proposition has allowed vending machines to move from the 3 Ss of the consumer market (snacks, sodas, and smokes) to industrial vending.

TECHNOLOGY AND THE TRANSFORMATION OF VENDING

While the management concepts and practices were leading to changes in thinking, there had to be complementary technological advances that could be incorporated into vending machines that would make them economically viable in the shop floor. Advances in digital technology and other types of technology made the use of IVMs attractive and profitable by allowing for: restricted and identifiable access; variable dispensing; inexpensive and timely data gathering and transmission.

Before vending machines could be brought to the shop floor, access without cash had to be developed along with a mechanism for limiting and tracking supply use. The development of bar codes and magnetic card technology allowed employers to issue unique identifiers to each employee. Coupled with the rapid improvement in different card reader technologies - barcodes, infrared, and proximity readers – employers, could limit who could access IVMs, which specific items could be accessed, and in what specific quantities. Furthermore, the controlled access digital technology enabled employers to track usage by employee and by department thus improving accountability and reducing supply waste and loss. And just as importantly, workers did not have to carry coins around to get needed industrial supplies.

As the cigarette-style vending machine (lever-pull) gave way to the helix machine, dispensing became more versatile. But even helix technology had severe limitations for the shop floor. The helix vending machines could not always be readily configured for different sizes, shapes, and weights of products. But with the adaptation of radio frequency identification (RFID) technology, weight scale sensing, and other sensing technologies, IVMs could be reconfigured to accommodate any shape or size of product. IVMs became versatile dispensing machines (VDMs) allowing for greater flexibility in what could be brought to the POW. This also allowed for maximum use of space as the insides of a vending machine could be rearranged to accommodate the items of greatest need in the POW.

Finally, advances in card reader technology and tracking allowed the vending machine door to be opened completely with less chance for waste and loss. Prior to the accountability and security provided by card reader access, end-users were not allowed to open the vending machine itself. One of the few exceptions to this is the newspaper vending machine. The door of a newspaper vending machine is designed to be opened after the customer inserts the required coins because vendors know that the marginal utility of the second copy of a newspaper is zero leaving the end-user with no incentive to take more than one newspaper. That is not the case with vending machines for snacks or for industrial supplies where access to more than product at a time is not allowed. But with access and usage tracked by various types of card readers and other digital devices, it has become possible to open the door of the IVM allowing for the storage of various shapes and sizes. In one version of the IVM, even large power tools can be stored and

"checked out" from the vending machine with full employee accountability. These "locker-type" IVMs would not be possible without traceable access provided by digital technology.

The development of the internet also contributed to the greater acceptability of IVMs. With internet technology it became possible to remotely gather and store information on who was using supplies and in what quantity. Suppliers could monitor stock levels remotely and instantaneously. These all helped accomplish important management objectives such as JIT, lean manufacturing, and cost reduction. That software and data could be remotely hosted also meant that today's IVMs need not be complex computers requiring on-site support staff. While the software and data are remotely hosted, the internet also made it possible to quickly transmit data back to the management of companies for the purpose of tracking, determining usage, effectiveness, etc. This in turn bolstered data-driven continuous improvement, another management practice that has gained significant popularity. For example, the real-time data collected through IVMs can now be used for process improvements associated with Six-Sigma and with Lean Processes.

CONCLUSION

In the interim since its founder shelved his idea for IVMs, Fastenal, like other leading industrial suppliers, has developed capacity that would eventually lead to the support of IVMs. These industrial suppliers developed strong capabilities in sourcing, logistics, and the whole gamut of supply chain management – capabilities that are necessary to support successful IVM operations. In Fastenal's case, it developed a network of stores, distribution centers and employees in 2,500 locations that brought it closer to industrial users. If one were to view IVMs as logical extensions of vendor managed inventory, then a network that can respond to restocking needs becomes necessary. In addition, for IVMs to be truly responsive to producer needs at the POW, the logistics capability of the supplier must already be in place. In an era of global supply chain management, this is what industrial suppliers have indeed created – a complete logistics system from product acquisition to warehousing to shipping all within acceptable time limits. With these capabilities now in place at Fastenal, it should not be a surprise that the founder's first rudimentary idea for IVMs has developed into an important part of the company's growth.

Like its competitors in the industrial supply industry, Fastenal has seen phenomenal growth in the number of IVMs that it has been able to deploy and that it continues to deploy at ever increasing rates. This is not surprising considering the potential for savings and efficiencies that IVMs at the POW have been shown to provide. Among these are:

- Reduced material cost
- Greater accountability for use of supplies
- Just in time inventory
- Avoidance of obsolete inventory
- Higher inventory turnover rate
- Accurate and timely information feedback in the supply chain
- Readily available management information
- Continuous improvement of process controls
- Assurance of production flow with elimination of stock outs
- Direct and indirect labor savings at the tool crib and the POW

Indeed, with the tremendous strides in management thinking and in digital technology, vending machines have come a long way since the time of Hero and the vending of sacred water at the temple.

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BIOGRAPHY

Gabriel Manrique is professor and chair of the Department of Economics at Winona State University. He teaches primarily international economics and international finance. He is also the Globalization Specialist for Fastenal Company coordinating the global expansion of the company into new countries.

Cecilia Manrique is professor and chair of the Department of Political Science and Public Administration at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. She is also a professor in the Women's Studies Department. Her primary fields of teaching are comparative politics and international relations. She also works on the teaching applications of digital resources and social networking. Angelina I. T. Kiser, University of the Incarnate Word Tim Porter, University of the Incarnate Word

ABSTRACT

Engaging students in the learning process at colleges and universities can be a challenge to professors, and a disconnect in the communication process might occur between professors and their students. However, one solution might be the use of social networking sites to engage students and bridge the communication gap. According to the U.S. 2010 Digital Year in Review (2011), social networking continues to grow as one of the web's top activities with 9 out of every 10 US. Internet users accessing a social networking site every month. The researchers in this study surveyed university business students at a private, four-year, Hispanic-serving institution in Texas about their use of social networking sites and how the students thought professors could integrate these sites into the curriculum. Respondents provided demographic data as well as information that pertained to which networking sites students used, how they used them, and how students felt college and university professors could possibly utilize these social networking sites in their curriculum. Chi square results indicated some significant relationships between variables, and student narrative were informative with regards to how students might want their professors to make use of social networking sites within their college courses.

KEYWORDS: Social networking, Facebook, university students

INTRODUCTION

The university and college student of today is electronically connected to most everything – friends, family, news events, entertainment, and music, just to name a few. Students face a barrage of new technologies on a regular basis, and they are becoming quite adept at adapting to these technologies. Technology has become an integral part of our lives, and one way that many students stay connected is through the use of social networking sites such as Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, LinkedIn, etc.

Although the use of social networking sites is abundant, the question still remains as to whether or not these sites can, or should, be used in an educational setting. Controversy abounds as to whether or not the use of social networking sites for educational purposes serves a legitimate purpose or if it simply disengages the learners from the educators. Should these sites remain "social" sites or can a gap be bridged to make them useful when implementing university and college curricula? The capability to make them educationally useful is already present, but capability, in and of itself, does not make it valuable, and it may not benefit the students.

The purpose of this research was to ascertain how university and college students utilize social networking sites and how students felt these sites could be utilized by their professors in the students' coursework. Students provided demographic data regarding age, ethnicity, gender, and classification (freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior). Statistical analyses were then performed to determine if there were any statistical relationships between variables. The remainder of the paper is organized to provide a review of the relevant literature, presentation of the data and methodology, discussion of the findings, and concluding remarks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the last five years, the use of social networking sites has been increasing for all age groups. According to the Pew Internet and American Life Project Surveys (2006, 2010), the amount of time Americans spent on social networking sites in 2006 was 9% compared to 38% in 2010. For the 18-29 age group, time spent on social networking sites increased from 31% in 2006 to 60% in 2010. The use for 30 to 49 year-old Americans increased from 4% in 2006 to 39% in 2010. The fastest growth in social network usage comes from the 55 to 64 year-old age group, which increased from just 9% in 2008 to 43% in 2010 (Fiegerman, 2010). From June 2009 to June 2010, time spent on social networking sites increased from 16% to 23% respectively (Womack, 2010).

It is evident that social networking is changing how people communicate. A meta-analysis was conducted by Coyle and Vaughn (2008) in order to ascertain how college students used social networking sites. Their finding indicated that 41% use them for keeping in touch with friends, 17% find it fun and entertaining, and 12% use it to look and or post photos. Of the 35,000 subjects, no respondents indicated educational uses for social networking sites. However, there was no indication as to whether this was an indication of student choice or instructor choice. If an instructor does not feel comfortable with the technology, it could very well be that he/she will not use that technology.

Some educators feel that social networking as innately disruptive to the education process. Students may access them on their laptops or cell phones during class. Some educators respond by banning these electronic devices (Pence, 2009) On the other hand, there are educators who see learning potential and benefits to social networking being used in the teaching process (Walling, 2009). Social networking can be used for communication and sharing of ideas as well as more advanced uses such as creating a Facebook page or other social media. It is important to recognize that students, educational tools, and skills necessary for student success are all changing, and the evolution of social networks can have many applications in the classroom (Pence, 2009).

Some researchers suggest that social networking can actually serve to re-engage students and motivate them so that they are not simply passive observers in the learning process (Ziegler, 2007). Others suggest that using social networking in education will promote "critical thinking in learners, which is definitely one of the more traditional objectives of education (Bugeja, 2006). However, some educators continue to believe that social networking serves only as a distraction to learning. Therefore, the debate continues as to whether or not social networking can be an effective educational tool (Selwyn, 2009).

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The sample for this study consisted of undergraduate students taking one or more business classes at a four-year, Hispanic-serving institution. Of the 254 students who were asked to complete the survey, a total of 227 of them completed it, giving an 89% response rate. The survey was available during a four week period in the Spring 2011 semester. Each participant volunteered to take the survey; none were compelled to do so. Students provided survey data via Survey Monkey. Results were then formulated using SPSS software, and aggregate data was collected. The following information was gathered in the questionnaire:

- (1) Demographic age, gender, ethnicity, student classification
- (2) Use of social networking sites (SNS) hours per week spent on a SNS, activities conducted on a SNS, possible SNSs for college coursework, professors' use of SNSs

Age	% of Respondents					
-	No. of Respondents					
20 or younger	92	40.5				
21-25	108	47.6				
26-30	14	6.2				
31-35	5	2.2				
36-40	3 5	1.3				
41 or older	5	2.2				
Gender						
Male	101	44.5				
Female	126	55.5				
Ethnicity						
Hispanic	120	53.1				
White, non-Hispanic	74	32.7				
Black, non-Hispanic	12	5.3				
Asian/Pacific Islander	7	3.1				
American Indian/Alaskan	1	.4				
Other	12	5.3				
Classification						
Freshman	15	6.6				
Sophomore	46	20.3				
Junior	108	47.6				
Senior	58	25.6				

Table 1: Frequency Distribution of Sample

Table 1 provides information regarding the number of respondents as well as the percent of respondents with respect to age, gender, ethnicity, and classification

Using SPSS statistical software, crosstabs were run and the chi-square test for independence was calculated to determine if there were any significant relationships between variables. Two categorical variables are considered independent if there is no consistent, predictable relationship between them (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). Relationships were considered significant at the p < .05 level.

RESULTS

Respondents were asked how many hours per week they typically spent on the following social networking sites. Facebook, by far, had the greatest percentage of students spending the most time on their site. MySpace, Twitter, and LinkedIn, had 89.3%, 81.1%, and 96.4% respectively, of students spend no time on these sites.

Table 2: Time Spent on Social Networking Sites

Site	None	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More than 20
		hours	hours	hours	hours	hours
Facebook	6.7%	43.6%	24.9%	15.1%	5.8%	4.0%
MySpace	89.3%	10.1%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Twitter	81.1%	12.6%	5.7%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%
LinkedIn	96.4%	3.0%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Table 2 illustrates how many hours per week students spend on Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, and LinkedIn

Table 3 displays the percentage of students who spend time on the listed activities that they conduct on social networking sites.

Activity	Response Percent	
None	6.6%	
Connect with friends/family	92.5%	
Post photos	77.5%	
Update profile	62.1%	
Online dating	1.8%	
Employment information	11.9%	
College coursework	21.1%	

 Table 3: Percent of Students who Conduct the Following Activities on Social Networking Sites

Table 3 displays activities on social networking sites and the percentage of students who participate in doing them

percentage of students who participate in doing them.

Results of the calculated statistics indicated no relationship between student classification and the dependent variables. There was also no relationship between ethnicity and the dependent variables. The following table displays those variables that had a statistically significant relationship at the p < .05 level.

 Table 4: Statistically Significant Relationships between Variables

Independent	Dependent	<i>p</i> value	
Variable	Variable		
Age	Update profile	.004	
Age	Employment information	.007	
Gender	Hours spent on Facebook	.009	
Gender	Posting photographs	.000	
Gender	Update profile	.033	
Gender	Employment information	.039	

Table 4 provides a list of the variables that had a statistically significant relationship at the p < .05 level using the chi-square test of independence.

With respect to age, respondents in the 20 or younger and 21 to 25 age groups updated their profiles more often than the respondents in the other age groups. The respondents in the same aforementioned age groups were less likely, however, to use social networking sites to seek employment information. The gender crosstabs and chi-square results indicated the greatest number of significant relationships with the dependent variables. Females spent more time than males on Facebook, posted photographs more often, updated their profiles more often, and were more likely to seek employment information on a social networking site.Participating students were also asked about the extent to which their university professors used social networking sites as part of their curricula. Eighty nine percent of the students responded that they never used social networking sites in their courses. When asked which sites could be used for university professors. However, 26.4% of student respondents stated that no social networking sites should be used by professors as part of their curriculum.

Students who felt that professors should not use social networking sites for educational purposes gave the following reasons: 1) not effective for education, 2) the sites should remain for "social" purposes only, and 3) students would lack privacy. Conversely, more students felt that a social networking site could definitely be used by university professors to enhance the educational experience. The list of possible uses included:

- Communicate assignments
- Provide detailed information about the course
- Use them as teaching tools
- Teach students how to be professional with their own sites
- Better connect to students with technology they already use
- Create groups and class pages

• Give students more access to information

It was evident from the list of possible uses provided by students, that they feel communication is a key issue with social networking sites. Although the university professors could use Blackboard, the students would still rather use a site, especially Facebook, to get their information.

LIMITATIONS

There are some noteworthy limitations to this study. All participants were undergraduates attending a private, four year, Hispanic-serving institution. Therefore, 88.1% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 25. A sample with students over the age of 25 may have yielded more significant results for those students over age 25. Additionally, 53% of the respondents were Hispanic and 32.7% were White, leaving few respondents in the Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaskan, and Other ethnicity groups. Finally, only 6.6% of the students were freshmen, while sophomores, juniors, and seniors comprised 20.3%, 47.6%, and 26.6% of the population respectively. A greater number of participants from some of the ethnic groups as well as freshmen students may have made for richer results.

CONCLUSION

As the number of students on our college and university campus using social networking sites continues to grow, educators should be willing to engage students and become part of the social environment. Social networking does have possibilities for educational purposes. They can be used for communication, collaboration, creativity, just to name a few. Using social networking creates a student-centered approach to teaching and learning. To keep students engaged, it is imperative that educators are up-to-date with the latest technologies that the students are using and for them to understand the educational potential behind the technology. Educators cannot be lulled into a classroom taught only by methods designed for students without access to or knowledge of our digital world.

It is also evident from the responses that students have not been exposed to using social networking sites as part of their college coursework. Additionally, the students were focused on using social networking sites on communication; but they could be used for actual assignments. Professors could require students to create and complete assignments using social networking sites as opposed to simply using the site for passing information along to them. The lack of appropriate use of social networking sites can be seen everywhere. Using these sites for educational purposes could also serve as an opportunity to teach students about the proper use of social networking.

This study was conducted with students who will ultimately become part of our workforce, and regardless of the students' majors, they will most likely work for a company or business that has not only a website, but also a Facebook page. Hence, it stands to reason that students be aware not only the social aspect of social networking but also the business aspect of social networking. Educators can be creative in how they use social networking in their classrooms and make it relevant to the students and the learning environment.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Angelina I. T. Kiser Assistant Professor University of the Incarnate Word CPO #27 4301 Broadw San Antonio, TX 78209 210-829- akiser@uiwtx.edu

Mr. Tim Porter Instruct University of the Incarnate W CPO #410 4301 Broadway San Antonio, TX 78209 210-805-3564 tporter1@uiwtx.edu

SHARING OF TACIT KNOWLEDGE IN ORGANIZATIONS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Ludmila Mládková, University of Economics Prague

ABSTRACT

Knowledge is a changing system with interactions among experience, skills, facts, relations, values, thinking processes and meanings. Literature differentiates between two dimensions of knowledge, explicit and tacit. Explicit knowledge can be expressed in formal and systematic language and can be shared in the form of data. ICT makes this process easy these days. Tacit knowledge is highly personal and hard to discover. Explicit knowledge and intuition, mental models, experience, crafts, skills etc., create it. It is partly or fully subconscious, deeply rooted in action, procedures, routines, commitment, ideas, value and emotions of individuals or groups. It is very difficult to turn to data. Attempts to formalize it usually lead to its damage. Even though tacit knowledge is an important asset that enables us to do practical activities, many organizations underestimate it. The article discusses basic theoretical background of tacit knowledge, its importance for modern organization and results of research on tacit knowledge management in organizations in the Czech Republic (Central Europe). The research is qualitative and helps us to monitor development of knowledge management activities in our country. It started in 2004, continues to this day and currently provides experience of 145 organizations.

JEL: M19

KEYWORDS: knowledge, tacit knowledge, apprenticeship, communities, storytelling

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge is a major creative force of knowledge society. Its potential can be fully exploited only if proper knowledge management is introduced. Important task of knowledge management is to optimize the flow, creation and exploitation of knowledge in organization. Knowledge management must cover both explicit and tacit knowledge in relation to specific needs of an organization, in relation to its strategic objectives, culture, principles and habits.

The paper presents results of research on tacit knowledge management and sharing carried out in organizations in the Czech Republic (Central Europe). Having started in 2004, the research provides us with detailed analysis of knowledge management and management of tacit knowledge sharing in 145 organizations. The paper is organized as follows. Section two provides a brief review of relevant literature. Section three gives details on the research and chosen methodology. Section four provides results of the research and section five concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is focused on brief definition of important terms and basic concepts in the field of knowledge management. Knowledge itself can be defined and understood in many ways. For example, Veber (2000) defines knowledge as a changing system with interactions among experience, skills, facts, relations, values, thinking processes and meanings. Tobin (1996) understands knowledge as information plus intuition and experience. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) define knowledge as justified true belief. Beckman (1997) writes that knowledge is information plus choice, experience, principles, limitations and learning. By Kanter (1999) knowledge is information with context that provides the basis for actions and decision making.

Knowledge can be classified into different groups. Spender (1995, 1996) offers a classification to an individual (owned by individual) and a collective (owned by group) knowledge. Spender also identifies different types of knowledge used in organizations: conscious knowledge (explicit knowledge held by the individual), objectified knowledge (explicit knowledge held by the organization), automatic knowledge (preconscious individual knowledge), collective knowledge (context dependent knowledge visible in practice of the organization). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) offer classification to two types of knowledge; explicit (transferable to data) and tacit (hidden in heads of people). Nonaka and Takeuchi see knowledge as created and expanded through interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge.

Explicit knowledge is encoded in organizational formal models, rules, documents, drawings, products, services, facilities, systems, and processes and is easily communicated externally (Vail 1999, Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay Carrillo 2006). Its conversion takes two forms (Nonaka, Takeuchi 1995). It can be converted to tacit knowledge through internalization when an individual reads and understands well coded knowledge. It can also be converted to another type of explicit knowledge through combining more than one form of knowledge to generate new knowledge. Although conversion of explicit knowledge is easier than that of tacit knowledge, it still requires several resources such as time, technology, and commitment (Vail 1999, Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay, Carrillo 2006).

Tacit knowledge is stored in peoples' brains as mental models, experiences, and skills and is difficult to communicate externally (Vail 1999). The conversion of tacit knowledge also takes two forms (Nonaka, Takeuchi, 1995). It can be converted to another tacit knowledge through socialization in face-to-face interactions or to explicit knowledge through externalization by codifying an individual's knowledge. Capturing tacit knowledge and codifying it is one of the biggest challenges of knowledge management (Bair, O'Connor 1998, Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay, Carrillo 2006).

There are several definitions of knowledge management, too. Knowledge management can be defined from two perspectives, a process perspective and an outcome perspective. The process perspective focuses on how to work with knowledge; the outcome perspective stresses the benefits of knowledge management for organization (Bair, O'Connor 1998, Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay, Carrillo 2006). Combination of both perspectives is also possible.

Newman and Kazi (1991) see knowledge management as a process of controlling the creation, dissemination, and utilization of knowledge. Snowden (1998) understands knowledge management as the identification, optimization, and active management of intellectual assets, either in the form of explicit knowledge held in artifacts or as tacit knowledge possessed by individuals or communities to hold, share, and grow the tacit knowledge. Kanter (1999) sees knowledge management to be concerned with the way an organization gains competitive advantage and builds an innovative and successful organization. Tiwana (2000) understands knowledge management as the management of organizational knowledge for creating business value and generating competitive advantage. For Tiwana (2000) knowledge management enables the creation, communication, and application of knowledge of all kinds to achieve business goals. Klasson (1999) defines knowledge management as the ability to create and retain greater value from core business competencies (Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay, Carrillo 2006).

All definitions focus on the fact that knowledge is a valuable asset that must be managed, and that knowledge management is important to provide strategies to retain knowledge and to improve performance (Al-Ghassani, Kamara, Anumba, Chimay, Carrillo 2006).

THE RESEARCH

Description of The Research

The research on knowledge management and management of tacit knowledge in organizations in the Czech Republic started in 2004 and continues to the present days. The intention of the research is to monitor the development of knowledge management activities in our country. Organizations are chosen randomly. They come from different industries, including public administration and government areas. The size of organizations also varies; we have interviewed both big multinational organizations and SME's. The smallest organization only had 7 employees. The only prerequisite for organization to be covered by the research is location of its premises in the Czech Republic.

The research is a qualitative based on a questionnaire. Mostly, the questionnaire consists of closed questions with the option of commentary; some open ended questions are supplied, too. Questionnaires are completed under the supervision of a trained interviewer. The questionnaire is divided into the following sections. Section 1 covers questions on the character of the interviewed organization – name of the company, description of its major business, annual revenues, number of employees, and educational profile of its employees. We also ask organizations if they are owned by foreign capital and if they export to markets abroad.Section 2 is focused on questions that analyze the profile of human resources of an organization in more detail; like those on structure of employees by age and sex. Major part of section 2 consists of questions on important structural prerequisites of knowledge management; knowledge strategy, type of organizational structure, cooperation, relation of the organization to knowledge, and trust.

Section 3 asks questions about ICT. Its role is to find out which means the organization uses to support work with explicit knowledge. Section 4 is focused on the style of work in the organization and includes questions on the type of meetings, job descriptions, communication and communication channels. This section helps us to find out whether an environment for the sharing of tacit knowledge exists within the organization or not .Section 5 asks questions about traditional apprenticeship programs. Section 6 enquires how organizations train new employees.

This section helps us to find out about knowledge intensity of work in the organization. We ask not only questions how the organization trains newcomers but also how the newcomers' knowledge fits the organizational needs and requirements. The next three sections are dedicated to tools used for working with tacit knowledge and tacit knowledge sharing. All three traditional tools for tacit knowledge sharing are examined (Mládková, 2005). Section 6 asks questions on coaching and mentoring. We are interested especially in the average time of coaching activities, style of relationship between a coach and a coached, and how the organization rewards coaching activities.

Section 7 analyses communities. We are interested in both formal and informal communities, physical and virtual ones. Organizations are also asked about typical dysfunctions that communities tend to suffer.Section 8 is the last section and gives questions concerning storytelling. Existence of negative and positive stories within the organization is checked. We also ask if stories are used in the company purposefully or not and where they are usually told. The questionnaire provides us with detailed information about work with knowledge and knowledge management in interviewed organizations. It helps to identify best practices, mistakes and problems and presents us with a picture about quality and functionality of knowledge market in the organization. Some questions are interlinked; answers to them should be compatible. These questions are important as they validate the questionnaire. The reason of incompatibility of answers to such questions is always strictly enquired and the interviewer is asked to explain the reason in rich details. In case of doubts the questionnaire is rejected.

Theoretical Background Of The Research

Theoretical background of the research is as follows. Knowledge management literature offers various definitions and concepts of knowledge (see section Literature Review). Knowing well the business reality in our country and keeping in mind the fact that final users of our work are our managers we decided to use the simplest possible concepts and terminology. We divide knowledge into only two dimensions, explicit and tacit. We explain explicit dimension of knowledge as knowledge which can be expressed in formal and systematic language and can be shared in the form of data, scientific formulae, specifications, manuals, etc. It can be processed, transmitted and stored. We support the idea that explicit knowledge is actually information and can be transferred to data. E.g. explicit knowledge can be formalized and stored and distributed as data (Mládková, 2005). Data is usually distributed and stored using ICT these days. It means that when working with explicit knowledge we mostly work with a piece of technology.

Tacit dimension of knowledge is perceived as highly personal and hard to discover and formalize. Explicit knowledge and intuition, mental models, experience, crafts, skills, etc. create it. It is deeply rooted in action, procedures, routines, commitment, ideas, value and emotions. It is always related to a living being or to a group and is difficult to share and communicate (Mládková, 2005). We agree on Polanyi's statement that tacit knowledge is problematic to externalize because the process of externalization damages it (Polanyi, 1966). Managing tacit knowledge means managing people.

Both dimensions of knowledge can be identified in any organizations. Explicit dimension is usually present in the form of data in a corporate ICT system; tacit dimension is in the heads of employees (Mládková, 2005). Both dimensions interact in the process of knowledge conversion (Nonaka, Takeuchi, 1995). We are well aware of the fact that knowledge cannot be simply split into two parts and that it is difficult to separate its explicit dimension from the tacit one. We always highlight this fact when explaining what knowledge is to students and managers. From our point of view, the concept of two dimensions has an important practical advantage – it helps us to explain to our students and managers that tacit knowledge cannot be managed the same way as the explicit one. This mistake is quite common in our traditionally hierarchical environment (Mládková, 2010). This article covers only the part of the research dedicated to tacit knowledge and its management.

SHARING OF TACIT KNOWLEDGE IN ORGANIZATIONS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

There are three ways how to share tacit knowledge; apprenticeship, storytelling, and communities.

Apprenticeship: Apprenticeship is based on the relationship between the master and the apprentice. The master developed his knowledge and skills over the years in different situations. Hetries to articulate (make them explicit) and demonstrate them to the apprentice.

The enviable part of the apprenticeship is sharing through the non-verbal personal practical experience of the apprentice, carefully monitored by the master. The apprentice is reshaping the master's knowledge to his own knowledge. The process is slow and is based on some social obligation (social contract), e.g. both master and apprentice are obliged to co-operate - the apprentice is obliged to learn and the master is obliged to pass on his knowledge. The master's obligation is important in later phases of the apprenticeship when he may feel threatened by a bright apprentice.

The apprenticeship process is replicated in the coaching and mentoring processes these days. As the words apprenticeship and mentoring may evoke special meanings, we use the word coaching to describe apprenticeship activities in our research. The only exception is traditional apprenticeship programs related to vocational training. These programs are covered by different part of the questionnaire and are

not part of this paper. Coaching as a method of leadership was not examined. Questions concerning coaching were focused on official coaching activities of organizations.

Table 1: Coaching

	Σ	%
Organization provides coaching	91	63
Organization coaches also employees who are not managers	67	74
Coach is chosen by his work results	14	15
Coach is chosen by experience	12	13
Coach is a direct manager of coached	40	44
Coach is an external subject	13	14
Coach is chosen in accordance with specific needs of coached	19	21
Coach receives financial reward	24	26
Coach receives different than financial reward	4	4
Coach receives no reward, coaching is part of his duties	53	58
Organization manages relationships between coach and coached		5
Organization intervenes only when coach and coached have problems		46
Organization does not interfere in the relationship between coach and coached	25	27
	1	

Table 1 provides answers to questions on coaching. We were interested if our organizations coach their employees and if they also coach employees who are not managers. We also asked who serves in the role of a coach, five options were offered: the one who has good work results, the one who has necessary experience (we expect that people with good work results and experience possess the necessary tacit knowledge), direct manager of coached, external subject, and coach is chosen in accordance with specific needs of the coached person. Another set of questions informs about how organizations reward coaches. Four options were offered: coach receives financial reward, coach receives different than financial reward, coach receives no reward, coaching is part of his duties. The last set of questions enquired if organizations manage the relationship between coaches and coached. Three options were offered: organization manages relationship between coach and coached and coached experiences problems and organization does not interfere in the relationship between coach and coached. Percentages in first line of the table, are calculated with a total of 145 organizations. The rest of the percentages in the table are calculated with the number of organizations that reported caching which is 91. All percentages in table 1 are rounded up.

Results of research on coaching are as follows; 63% of interviewed organizations provide coaching for their employees, 74% of organizations that provide coaching coach even employees who are not managers. Coaches are usually direct managers of coached employees – 44%. Proportion of coaches chosen by different parameters is much smaller: coaches chosen due to their work results - 15%, coaches chosen due to their experience - 13%, external coaches -14%, and coaches chosen in accordance with needs of the coached person - 21%. Coaching is usually understood as a part of coach's duties - 58%; 26% of coaches receive financial reward (usually external coaches) and 4% of coaches are rewarded in different way.

Research shows that coaching is a popular method of tacit knowledge sharing in our organizations. On the other hand, organizations do not manage coaching processes properly. It is questionable if direct managers should also fulfill the role of coaches (questions on coaching were focused on official coaching initiatives; coaching as a method of leadership was not studied), if they have enough time, knowledge and willingness to be good coaches. The findings that organizations do not reward their coaches and that they influence the relationship between the coach and the coached only when problems appear also indicate inefficiencies.

Communities: Communities are groups of people who have some common interests (domains) and share knowledge, experiences, tools and best practices to solve problems. Human relationships in a community are friendly and supportive. Community members depend on each other's knowledge, skills and expertise. Communities may be created purposefully (formal) or emerge naturally from volunteers

(informal). They may be physical or virtual. Communities can be efficient only when good connection and communication exists between people. People join communities to fulfill their emotional, intellectual and other needs. Communities help their members to share tacit knowledge, develop new expertise, increase influence, make contact with people with similar interests and build new relationships. They are isles of stability in an instable and chaotic world. Organizations profit from communities (of course apart from the dysfunctional ones). Communities develop and share new knowledge, increase capacity for innovation, help to solve difficult problems and serve also as an element of positive motivation.

Again, keeping in mind the specifics of our region (knowledge management is not as common as it is for example in the USA) we decided to use the general term community as the term including various types of communities.

Table	2:	Commu	nities

	Σ	%
Organization has communities	96	66
Organization has informal communities	59	41
Organization has formal communities	37	26
Organization has virtual communities	23	16
Communities are only in separated departments	39	41
Communities are also between departments	65	68
Communities contribute to innovativeness	44	46
Communities improve quality and delivery times	43	45
Communities improve cooperation inside and outside organization	61	64
Communities help to avoid expensive mistakes	42	44
Organization provides help to most communities (formal and informal)	47	49
Organization provides communities with financial help	22	23
Organization provides communities with help concerning knowledge	38	40
Organization helps communities to search for and build important contacts	11	11
Organization helps communities in cooperation with other teams and communities	16	17
Organization helps communities to find new valuable members	14	15
Organization helps communities with communication	25	26
Organization does not help communities at all	39	41
Organization rewards members of communities	18	19
Organization measures performance of communities	15	16
Communities in our organization suffer with elitism	23	24
Communities in our organization create knowledge monopolies	38	40
Communities in our organization hesitate to cooperate with other subjects	49	51
Communities in our organization have strong entrance barriers	15	16

Table 2 provides data on communities. The first set of questions examined the existence and type of communities. Percentages in first four lines of the table, e.g. percentages concerning the existence of communities in the organization, informal, formal and virtual communities are calculated with a total of 145 organizations. The rest of the percentages in the table are calculated with the number of organizations that reported communities which is 96. Apart from questions regarding the existence and type of community, we asked questions such as in which parts of organization communities work, if they are separated in departments or cooperate across department borders. We were also interested if communities contribute to innovativeness (innovation?), quality, cooperation and if they help to avoid mistakes. Another question was focused on if and how organizations help their communities, reward community members and measure performance of communities. The last set of questions examined the dysfunctions of communities. All percentages in table 1 are rounded up.

Results of the research on communities are as follows; 66% of interviewed organizations reported communities, 41% of interviewed organizations reported informal communities, 26% of interviewed

organizations reported formal communities and 16% of interviewed organizations reported virtual communities. The fact that only 26% out of all organizations reported that they have formal community indicates that our organizations do not know what is a community and how important it may be for the organization.

On the other hand, answers to questions where in organizations communities operate indicate that communities are not limited only to separate departments - 41%. They are functional across departmental borders - 68% which improves the sharing of tacit knowledge on the corporate level. When asked about the benefits of communities, 64% of organizations that reported communities think that communities improve cooperation, 46% see their benefits in contribution to innovations, 45% in improvement of quality and delivery times, 44% in avoiding mistakes. When asked if organizations help and support communities, 49% organizations answered that they support their communities (we did not differentiate between formal and informal communities in this question), 41% reported that they do not support them all. The type of support varies: 40% of organizations provide their communities with help concerning knowledge, 26% help communities with communication, 23% provide financial help, 17% help to connect work of communities with work of other communities and teams in organization, 15% help to find new community members and 11% help communities to build important contacts. Only 16% of organizations measure performance of their communities and only 19% reward community members. Again, this result indicates that organizations do not work with communities as they should and that those few organizations that build formal communities (39% out of those who reported communities) make serious mistakes in their management (lack of performance control, nearly no rewards to members, underfinancing).

Mismanagement of communities may be contra productive. The results show that communities suffer with typical dysfunctions. 51% of communities do not want to cooperate with other subjects in the organization and 40% of communities create so called knowledge monopolies. It means that they understand knowledge as a competitive advantage and do not share it with other parts of the organization. Knowledge monopolies inhibit knowledge markets of organizations and lead to ineffectiveness in work with knowledge. 24% of communities suffer with elitism; their members think that they are special and better than other employees and groups. On the other hand, only 16% of communities build strong entrance barriers that do not allow new members to participate in their activities; it means that communities in our organizations do not protect themselves against new members.

Storytelling

The third tool for tacit knowledge sharing is storytelling. A story is a complex system of symbols. Stories give sense to things and events and represent norms, experience and explanation of reality. Basic values of people and groups are projected into them. We use stories to create personal and group identity, change social practices, to share values. Our private stories determine what we accept, how we see the word and influence our response to incentives. People use stories naturally many times a day without being aware of their special meaning. Story is a virtual experience that enables the listener or reader to create his own tacit knowledge in reality simulated by the story. Story can be used for tacit knowledge sharing between two or more people. It has an ability to pick up links and relationships that cannot be externalized (Mládková, 2005).

Results of the research show that people naturally communicate mostly in their workplace (41%) and in places where they naturally meet (32%). This indicates that majority of tacit knowledge is shared in this environment. Only 3% of organizations build special space for communication and tacit knowledge sharing.

70% of organizations report that their employees tell especially negative stories. Positive stories prevail in only 30% of organizations. By Denning (2004) and Kelemen et al (2010) negative stories are stories about danger, problems, solved or unsolved, defeat. Positive stories are stories about victories, and fulfilled desires and wishes. Negative stories enable people to learn. They describe mistakes, moments of ignorance, and difficulties people had to overcome. Negative stories help us to learn new knowledge and understand and change the reality. Positive stories help people create and share visions and objectives. They can be identified where something new is happening; they help to create new organizations, states, families, teams, communities. Positive stories help people to understand standpoints of others. Both types of stories are present in any organization. Type of stories that prevails in an organization tells lot about its health. Negative stories indicate that the organization is in some troubles and tries to cope with them. Positive stories indicate positive changes in organization.

Table 3: Storytelling

People informally communicate in the workplace People informally communicate in places where they naturally meet People informally communicate in specially created space and environment People informally communicate in other place	60 46	41
People informally communicate in specially created space and environment People informally communicate in other place	46	
People informally communicate in other place	40	32
	5	3
Freedom and the annual strategy to the freedom and the section of	15	10
Employees of the organization tell first and foremost negative stories	101	70
Employees of the organization tell first and foremost positive stories		30
Managers use stories in management of organization	43	30

Table 3 provides data on storytelling. Questionnaire on storytelling examined in which environment people in organizations communicate and share stories, whether they tell negative or positive stories and if managers use storytelling intentionally to manage their subordinates. As for the place of communication, respondents were given a few options: workplace, places where people naturally meet such as kitchens and restaurants, special places intentionally created by organizations or somewhere else. All percentages in table 1 are rounded up.

Only 30% of organizations reported that their managers use stories intentionally in managing their subordinates. It is a pity, because a proper story can overcome mental barriers people build against new knowledge, improve communication between people, raise their creativity and help them to find common values and solve conflicts. Stories have the ability to open the imagination of people and increase their innovative potential. A story can work as a catalyst for changes (Mládková, 2005).

When put together, results of research show that only 28 (19%) organizations use all three tools for tacit knowledge sharing intentionally.

CONCLUSION

The research on knowledge management and tacit knowledge sharing indicates that organizations in the Czech Republic have big reserves in work with tacit knowledge. The research started in 2004 and continues to this day; 145 organizations were interviewed. The research shows that coaching is the most common intentionally used tool of tacit knowledge sharing. Coaching in the meaning of the research includes also mentoring and similar apprenticeship activities. 63% of organizations provide their employees with coaching. Unfortunately coaching is not managed properly. Employees are usually coached by their directive managers (44%); coaches are not rewarded for their effort. Organizations do not manage the relationship between the coach and the coached (27%).

Communities were identified in 66% of organizations but 41% of them were informal communities that evolved naturally. Only 26% of organizations reported intentionally created formal communities. It is very positive that 68% of communities are cross border communities. On the other hand, only 16% of organizations measure the performance of communities and only 19% reward community members. Communities suffer with typical dysfunctions: 51% of communities do not want to cooperate with other

subjects in the organization, 40% of communities create knowledge monopolies, and 24% of communities suffer with elitism. Our communities are relatively opened for newcomers, only 16% of them build strong entrance barriers.

Storytelling is a tool of high potential but only 30% of organizations reported that their managers use storytelling for management of their subordinates consciously. In 70% of organizations negative type of story is prevailing. Positive stories prevail in 30% of organizations. Employees share their tacit knowledge mostly in the workplace (41%) and in places where they naturally meet (32). 3% of organizations have a special room for communication and knowledge sharing.

As pointed out above, only 28 (19%) organizations use all three tools for tacit knowledge sharing intentionally.

Results of the research indicate that organizations in the Czech Republic still do not understand the importance of tacit knowledge and do not know how to work with it and how to manage it. Those who try to manage their tacit knowledge do unnecessary mistakes because they are not aware of the basics: what is tacit knowledge, why it is important, which tools can be used for tacit knowledge management and sharing and how to use them. The fact that Czech organizations do not use one of their major assets as they could may have cultural roots. Our society is historically hierarchical and managers of our organizations may have problems to accept that important asset is hidden in the heads of their subordinates and they cannot control it directly. With this approach unfortunately, they miss using an important success factor of our time.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Ludmila Mládková is an Associate Professor of Economics and Management at University of Economics, Prague. She can be contacted at: University of Economics, Prague, W. Churchilla 4, Prague 3, 130 00, Czech Republic. E-mail: mladkova@vse.cz.

TEACHING ETHICAL BUSINESS PRACTICES IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM: UNDERSTANDING DIFFERENCES TO FIND COMMON GROUND

Karin Caruso, Southern New Hampshire University J. Stephanie Collins, Southern New Hampshire University Susan Schragle-Law, Southern New Hampshire University Jeannemarie Thorpe, Southern New Hampshire University

ABSTRACT

In a global economy undermined by unethical business practices, business schools have a social mandate to teach and apply ethical decision making principles that graduates can carry into their future business professions. Management education must be designed to identify and encourage students to internalize universally accepted ethical principles. The multicultural make-up of management education programs provides business educators with a unique opportunity to engage upcoming generations of global business leaders in ethical behaviors. In 2010, approximately 690,923 international students sat in US classrooms, with the largest percentage studying business management. This plurality of cultures permits the consideration of diverse ethical views to identify commonalities among them, so that an emergent ethical framework will respect and accommodate those views, and allow for a conceptual 'bridge' between students' specific, ethical systems and a shared ethical system.

KEYWORDS: ethics education, morality, multicultural classroom

INTRODUCTION

The importance of teaching ethical business practices is justified by evidence that unethical business practices exist globally. The goal of this paper is to conduct an exploratory study that will identify the challenges of teaching ethics in a multicultural environment. The findings will provide faculty with a framework for understanding each student's ethical heritage and how these diverse values must be respected to design a universally accepted ethical framework that students can internalize, adopt and carry into their professions. This paper is the first in a series that addresses these concerns.

Evidence of Unethical Business Practices

The corporate malfeasance perpetrated by companies such as Adelphia, Enron, Global Crossing, Qwest, Xerox, Halliburton and Merck provided that evidence at the turn of the century. And, despite the United States' quality corporate laws in place before these events (Gourevitch, 2003) and the passage of the Public Company Accounting Oversight and Protection Act of 2002 (SOX) after, unethical business practices continue to undermine business performance and investor confidence.

Although SOX did result in increased accountability on the part of public accountants, senior management and their respective boards, unethical business practices continue. From July of 2002 through July of 2007, as a result of SOX and increased government oversight, the US Justice Department obtained 1,236 total corporate fraud convictions against 214 CEOs, 53 CFOs and 129 vice presidents ("Corporate convictions", 2007). Increased accountability should mitigate fraud, but has it?

In the investment industry, Ponzi schemes have become a minefield for the public to navigate with caution. The U.S. Department of Justice launched "Operation Broken Trust" in August of 2010 and by December of the same year had indicted 532 defendants who took 10.3 billion in losses from 120,000

investors (Lewis, 2011). Although none compare to Madoff's multibillion dollar rip-off, Ponzi schemes have surfaced across the nation and even in Bahrain ("Ahmad Hamad Algosaibi &", 2011).

Fortunately, attitudes among accounting professionals with regard to earnings management have changed significantly in a pre-versus-post SOX environment (Grasso, Tilley & White, 2009; Fischer & Rosenzweig, 1995; Merchant and Rockness, 1994). Although earnings management is less acceptable, it remains vaguely defined, open to interpretation and a common component in many fraudulent reporting cases. Despite increased legislation and monitoring of the business sector, the United States continues to have the highest instance of financial aberrations among developed nations. However, the U.S. is not alone. In India the CEO of Satyam Computer Services, B. Ramalinga Raju, confessed to fraudulent accounting and the Central Bureau of Investigation will hear the case this summer ("India's Mahindra Satyam", 2011). Citigroup officials working in India have been charged with "...falsifying accounts, breach of trust and conspiracy" and a Hero executive, Sanjay Gupta, has also been arrested in connection with these Citigroup charges ("Case registered against", 2011).

In the spring of 2010, a Chinese court sentenced Huang Guangyu, Ex-Gome chairman, to a 14-year prison sentence and \$88 million in fines for bribery and other crimes against the state (Dean, J. & Ng, J, 2010). In contrast, Jack Ma, founder and CEO of China's Alibaba, recently fired over 100 sales people for signing gold supplier contracts with fraudulent suppliers, costing the company \$2 million in damages (Epstein, 2011). In Japan, Livedoor's ex-CEO Horie was condemned in the press although not officially charged with buying stocks in off-hours trading, repeating stock splits and other questionable practices to boost the company's growth prospects (Tahara, 2006). Even Sweden's 150-year old insurance company saw its former CEO Lars-Eric Petersson sentenced to two years in prison for awarding \$21.5 million in bonuses without board approval ("Skandia Former CEO", 2006).

Unethical practices are certainly not restricted to financial reporting, but often have an immediate impact on the bottom line; positively in the short-run but not long-term. Doctors are under increased scrutiny for earning "consulting fees" from drug and medical device manufacturers. Biotronik has a 95 percent market share for pacemakers at a Nevada hospital compared to a national market share that just breaks 5 percent after cardiologists received compensation as consultants (Meier, 2011). Construction giant Skanska was fined \$19.6 million for violating rules to promote subcontracting to minority-owned businesses (Grossman, 2011). In New York, two hospital administrators and two contracting firms were recently indicted for bid-rigging and fraud on more than \$42 million in hospital contracts (Rockoff, 2010). And Apple and Dell continue to refute the sweatshop label that has been attached to Foxconn's Shenzhen plant despite increased suicides and allegations of mismanagement and inhumane treatment of employees (Dean, 2010). Clearly, SOX and subsequent legislation by the U.S. and other nations has had limited success in creating an ethical business climate.

This strongly suggests that legislation may not be the answer to rampant ethics problems. Morals and values can help clarify and perhaps even erase those issues. However, this solution is fraught with difficulties. For example, in the United States it is difficult to instill values that have a global perspective when dealing with a culture that emphasizes the individual above the community and defines success in terms of one's bank account. Other nations face similar challenges due to religion and culture. Clearly the global business environment would benefit from management education that embraced a common set of ethical business practices. This research is an early-stage investigation into the problems inherent in such an endeavor, with an eye toward solutions driven by business and management education.

Business Schools, Moral Development and Ethics

In recent years business schools and their faculties have been reflecting on content and methodology in their classrooms. (Miller, 2009) Some of that reflection has centered on their responsibility to produce

ethical business professionals. There is widespread dissatisfaction in a society rife with excessive materialism, economic mismanagement leading to global crises, corporate scandals, ethical lapses and a lack of accountability in business practices. (Khurana & Nohria, 2008) Schools and universities are increasingly expected to play a role in students' moral development, with the expectation resulting in more ethical business professionals. (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005)

Traditionally, business students are taught to maximize wealth as a primary objective in corporate practice. Recently accrediting institutions have begun to mandate that business schools teach and apply ethical decision making principles. (Falkenberg & Woiceshyn, 2008) Graduate and MBA programs in particular must impart useful "societal" skills and norms of ethical behavior and become more rigorous and relevant. For business schools to become more relevant, training for business disciplines must incorporate professional codes of conduct. Since many issues facing business leaders involve questions of judgment and/or ethics, students must be able to identify ethical and moral problems, analyze them and understand their implications before making practical decisions.

Therefore business schools' curricula need to be infused with multidisciplinary ethical questions reflecting issues business professionals face daily. (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005) If, as Aristotle has said, leadership is the ability to serve the common good, the education of business leaders demands a component of moral reasoning. Lawrence Kohlberg, a respected leader in moral reasoning research, suggests that moral development is measured not by people's actions, but how they reason about right and wrong. (Kohlberg, 1981) His theory includes six stages in individual moral development, ranging from ethical behavior stemming from fear of punishment, through ethical behavior in conformation to group norms, to ethical behavior stemming from individual moral views and principles. "Each stage is meant to be not only a chronological and a developmental evolution from the previous one but also morally superior to it" (Donleavy, 2008). Given currently accepted views on moral growth and development, and on desired moral and ethical performance expectations of business professionals, it is clear that schools play a role in developing ethical professionals. However, closer examination of Kohlberg's theories will identify other formative pressures on moral and ethical development, predominantly in the early, and therefore critical, stages. Culture, religion, and family values are strong influencers, and that influence is already in place by the time students reach higher education venues. For business education to have any lasting impact, it must incorporate the values that students bring with them. In itself this is a difficult task, but it is intensified by the diversity of values, morals and ethics found in a multicultural classroom.

Diversity of Religious and Spiritual Perspectives

Most scholars assume that ethics are a product of culture, religion and spirituality (Rashid and Ibrahim, 2007, Vitell, 2010). The following discussion will address the differences that might result in different ethical views, based on these variables, and the effects that they might have on a student's ethical framework. A distinction is made between religion and spirituality (Bjsarnason, 2007, Emmons, 1999). Religion can provide a set of guidelines for behavior based on principles that come from a higher power, a single God or multiple gods. Spirituality comes from within the individual, and whatever behaviors are elicited are based on what that person believes fit into the context of a search for meaning and transcendence. Culture interacts with religious and spiritual beliefs, and the specifics of an individual upbringing by the family to influence how a person views ethics (Okleshen and Hoyt, 1996).

In order to understand individual students' own definitions of ethics, it is necessary to understand what factors have influenced each student, and how those influences might have shaped that student's ethical views. Students come from many different backgrounds, and have different religious and spiritual ideas. A discussion of a representative sample of religious and spiritual proscriptions is below. (see Exhibit A)

Judaism, Christianity, and Islam: These are monotheistic religions with clear rules and guidelines for moral behavior. The final authority is God. Each of these religions has a sacred text (Talmud, Bible, Qur'am) that adherents believe to be the word of God. Strict adherents will use their respective sacred texts to define what is 'right' and 'wrong,' or ethical. The relationship to God is on a personal level. The individual's actions determine what rewards or punishments he/she will receive in an afterlife.

Hinduism: This is a religion with many gods, each of whom represents some aspect of a supreme being, Brahman, the supreme reality above all. The religion is not monolithic, in that adherents may choose to honor a particular aspect of Brahman. Hindu religious life might take the form of devotion to God or multiple gods as aspects of Brahman, the duties of family life, or concentrated meditation. Individuals seek enlightenment, and there is no one prescribed path. The sacred texts , the Vedas, include tightly defined codes of conduct and morality. There is reincarnation after death until enlightenment is achieved.

Buddhism: This is not a religion, in that it does not suppose a god. Instead, it is a practice of spirituality and a search for a transcendent truth. Neither punishments nor rewards are meted out by a higher being. The effect of bad acts is simply a consequence of those acts. The individual makes a judgment about an immoral or unethical behavior based on whether that behavior brings him or her closer to enlightenment. The individual must view all actions in the context of their effect on himself or herself and on others. There are no punishments, only a failure to achieve enlightenment, if unethical behavior is pursued. Reincarnation after death is a way of restarting on the path to enlightenment.

Confucianism: This is perhaps best understood as an all-encompassing humanism that neither denies nor slights [God or] Heaven. Confucianism has been followed by the Chinese for more than two millennia. It has deeply influenced spiritual and political life in China; its influence has also extended to Korea, Japan, and Vietnam. East Asians may profess themselves to be Shintoists, Taoists, Buddhists, Muslims, or Christians - but seldom do they cease to be Confucians. The main principle of Confucianism is humaneness, which signifies excellent character. Loyalty to one's true nature, reciprocity, and filial piety constitute virtue. Confucianism is characterized by a highly optimistic view of human nature. Human beings are teachable, improvable, and perfectible through personal and communal endeavor. Aside from its important ethical principles, Confucianism does not prescribe any specific rituals or practices. These are filled by the practices of Chinese religion, Taoism, Buddhism, or other religions which Confucians follow.

Shintoism: At its core are beliefs in the mysterious creating and harmonizing power of "kami," the forces of the earth and nature, and in their truthful ways. Shinto is polytheistic. . Kami are associated primarily with permanent features in the landscape, such as unusual mountains, rocky cliffs, caves, springs, trees and stones. Shinto holds a generally positive view of human nature. Man's nature is sacred, though in need of purification. An individual must revere the basic human rights of everyone as well as his own. Shinto is described as a religion of *tsunagari* ("continuity or community"). The Japanese regard each person as the bearer of a long, continuous history that comes down from his ancestors and continues in his descendants. He is also considered as a responsible member of various social groups. There is no one sacred text that defines rules for behavior. Some humans become kami after death, as a reward for good behavior.

Taoism (Daoism): Based on the teachings of the Tao Te Ching, a short tract written in the 6th century BC in China, its emphasis is on spiritual harmony within the individual and the world. This complements Confucianism's focus on social duty. Most of Taoists live in China, Taiwan or Southeast Asia. The underlying belief is that human beings are born pure, and should continue to maintain that state during their lives. A Taoist does not struggle, oppose, or strive. The focus of most religious Taoism is attaining immortality. This can have various meanings: eternal life, longevity of life, or attainment of superhuman physical abilities. One way to achieve immortality is to behave in a moral way that is in harmony with the

Tao. There is no afterlife, only non-being. Thus, there is no reward or punishment after death. By having a broad understanding of what students believe before discussing ethics, it is possible to realize how those beliefs are similar, with the goal of a generally accepted understanding ethics in practice.

Religion or Belief System	God(s) and the state of the Universe	Purpose of life	Afterlife	Rewards for good behavior	Sacred Texts/Authority
Judaism	One God	Obey God, live ethically	Vague	In this life	Bible and Talmud
Christianity	One God, three personae	Serve God	Heaven and hell	In heaven	Bible as the word of God
Islam	One God	Submit to God	Heaven	In heaven	Qu'ram and tradition
Hinduism	Many gods as aspects of one God	Seek enlightenment	Reincarnation	Enlightenment	Vedas
Buddhism	No god	Gain enlightenment	Reincarnation	Enlightenment	
Shintoism	Multiple gods in nature (kami)	Obtain good things by purification and calling on kami	Death is bad and impure.	Some become kami after death	Kojiki and Nihon- Gi
Confucianism	No specific god	Fulfill one's role in society with honor, loyalty, and propriety	None	None	Analects
Taoism	Pantheism: unity consist of opposites	Inner harmony, peace and prosperity	None	None	Tao Te Ching

Culture: According to Hofstede (1980, 1983, 1984) societies will display differences along four dimensions that relate directly to their cultures: power distance, individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. Placement of the individual's culture on these dimensions directly impacts perceptions in an ethical situation (S.Vitell et al.1993).

For example, Hofstede's *individualism* construct suggests that group norms, the need to please a group and to remain a member in good standing within the group will play a significant role in ethical decision making of an individual from a country low on individualism, from a collectivist culture. A person from a country high in individualism would instead be less influenced by the group norms and will weight self interest more highly in an ethical situation. Vitell et.al.(1983) therefore proposed that formal codes of ethics within an industry, profession or corporation would be less likely to influence an individual's ethical behavior, either during the formulation of a personal code of ethics or when considering an ethical situation. Research by Hegarty and Sims (1979) also found that personal desire for wealth was correlated with unethical behavior while the profit goals of an employer had no such correlation, thus suggesting that people from individualistic cultures were more likely to behave unethically for personal gain than for corporate gain. Evidence of the power distance dimension theory can also be identified in ethical situations. In a culture where power distance is large, the dynamic of accepted inequality of position would cause a subordinate to succumb to pressure by a superior, and to follow their lead in ethical/unethical behavior. In a country with small or medium power distance, an individual would be less likely to follow a superior and/or formal company norms, and more likely to conform to peers' behaviors and informal norms (Ferrell et.al. 1983). Similarly, cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance sets up a dynamic where there would little tolerance of deviation from formal, organizational norms, which thus dictate behavior (Ouchi, 1981). However, in countries of low on uncertainty avoidance, such as the US, there is weaker, unpredictable bond between organizations and employees, and unethical behavior may be more accepted. According to Hofstede (1984), countries characterized as masculine tend to encourage and support competition and ambition, with a goal of material success. Feminine cultures encourage the opposite, and thus may be more attuned to unethical practices, particularly masculine tactics. Masculine cultures may not recognize such situations as being unethical.

Culture has been identified repeatedly in the literature on ethics as being a major contributor to an individual's perception of what constitutes ethical behavior. There is also support in the literature for an association between religiosity and culture. While that aspect is not explored here, it is clear that these factors, whether separately or in combination, impact students in classrooms to varying degrees, and that awareness of those factors is essential to the goal of a common understanding of ethics.

CONCLUSION: THE MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM AS A LABORATORY

Lau (2009) found that education in ethics does make a positive impact on students' ethical orientation by enhancing moral reasoning and stimulating the development of a personal sense of ethics. Since typical classrooms in many of today's college and universities boast a plurality of cultures, they therefore provide ideal laboratories to consider diverse ethical views with an eye to identifying commonalities among them. Assuming that some degree of a shared ethical system is possible, moving toward that goal can begin with the future business leaders sitting across desks and tables throughout the US. The fact that those students are going abroad for education suggests potential for cross-cultural understanding. This paper is merely a prelude to future endeavors to understand the ethical perspectives and tools our students bring to our classrooms.

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Karin Caruso is an Associate Professor of Accounting at Southern New Hampshire University, and can be reached at k.caruso@snhu.edu.

Dr. J. Stephanie Collins is a Professor of Computer and Information Technology at Southern New Hampshire University, and can be reached at j.collins@snhu.edu.

Dr. Susan Schragle-Law is a Professor of Organizational Leadership at Southern New Hampshire University, and can be reached at s.schragle-law@snhu.edu.

Jeannemarie Thorpe is an Assistant Professor of Marketing at Southern New Hampshire University, and can be reached at j.thorpe@snhu.edu.

NAXALITE TERRORISM AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE GLOBAL FINANCIAL MARKETS

Amy Cheetham, Connecticut College

ABSTRACT

This paper reports on the activities of the Naxalites, an Indian terrorist group, and their effect on the global financial markets. The violence of the Naxalites is precipitated by their desire for the removal of social-class based bias and for the creation of a society free of socio-economic prejudice and capitalism. Their terrorist actions are a catalyst for global and domestic financial volatility and instability. If India expects to maintain its 2010 annual gross domestic product growth rate of 8.3%, the government must implement policies to solve its domestic problems. Large Indian companies control vast swaths of land and are reaping the benefits of the natural resources, thereby depriving the peasant farmers and working class of both the land and the benefits. With 80% of the total Indian population impoverished, the capitalist policies promoted by the government do not redistribute the wealth created by recent, rapid economic growth. A wide spectrum of initiatives have been implemented by the Indian government in an attempt to appease the Naxalites; however, all have proven insufficient. Land reform must be revisited to solve this rising problem, before the violence of the Naxalites further endangers the financial stability of India and the assets of foreign investors.

JEL: G14, G15, G18

KEYWORDS: Naxalite, terrorism, financial markets

INTRODUCTION

Though "India's Maoist rebels are now present in 20 states and have evolved into a potent and lethal insurgency," they rarely appear in global headlines (Yardley). A search for recent articles in *The New York Times* pertaining to Maoist terrorism yields only a handful of articles, most of which are outdated. The self-proclaimed "Naxalites" are named after the village of Naxalbari where they originated in 1967. Naxalbari is located in the northern part of West Bengal, a large, mostly undeveloped region of India where natural resources are plentiful. Since the death of founder Charu Majumdar in 1972, the Naxalites have slowly disintegrated both in terms of membership and ideological stability. By the mid 1980s, the Naxalites faced an intense ideological split, after which they became largely unproductive both in the cultivation of new membership and in planning successful attacks. As a result of this splintering, it is now "quite difficult to count the number of trends, groups and factions that now exist, each claiming to be the true representatives of the Maoist interpretation of Marxism-Leninism" (Sen, 195).

While the Naxalites remained mostly dormant during the 1990s, "India began to liberalize its economy and economic growth took off, violent revolution seemed more quaint relic than threat" (Robinson). However, they did not remain a "quaint relic" for much longer. The history and actions of the Naxalites before 2004 is complicated and not particularly relevant to modern issues, so this paper will focus primarily on current Naxalite actions. Nearly 20 years after their seeming disappearance in 2004, the modern resurgence of Naxalites began. This happened mainly because "the two biggest splinters of the original movement--one Marxist and one Maoist--set aside their differences and joined to form the Communist Party of India (Maoist)" (Robinson, n.pag.). Currently, the Indian government estimates that the Naxalites have between 10,000 and 20,000 armed fighters plus at least twice that in active supporters. The Naxalites control vast swaths of territory in Nepal and are continuing to expand their control in India. They already control a majority of the natural resource laden, underdeveloped region of eastern India

which borders the Bay of Bengal. However, it has taken the Indian government far too long to recognize that this threat has crossed the Nepal-India border and now poses a significant threat to India's capitalist pursuits. The tale of the Naxalites is one of "a conflict born in a vacuum of government inaction, and fueled by official mismanagement and corruption. And it is the story of the millions caught in between" (Robinson). The traditional grievances of the impoverished in India have finally found an outlet and will not be quelled until the Indian government implements new wealth-distribution policies. Naxalite ideology is based largely on the teachings of Mao Tse-Tung, whose ideas are a mixture of Marxism and Communism. Since their reunification in 2004, the Naxalites "have killed more than 900 Indian security officers, a figure almost as high as the more than 1,100 members of the coalition forces killed in Afghanistan during the same period" (Yardley). This "annihilation campaign" is spurred by the desire to disrupt all aspects of Indian hierarchy, even down to the classist relationships between landlords and peasants in rural villages. Once these campaigns have been successful, peasants take over the control of these villages and these become so called "liberated zones."

The Naxalites are composed of mostly "low-caste and tribal Indians" who "sense they have not been receiving the equality in theory offered by the law and constitution. Victims of Naxalite violence mostly "include[s] landlords and money lenders," recently railroads have become "a particular target of attack on the state" (Bowring). Their violence exemplifies the idea that "class and caste warfare are both cause and effect of lack of social and economic progress" (Bowring). Furthermore, "the Maoists claim to represent the dispossessed of Indian society, particularly the indigenous tribal groups, who suffer some of the country's highest rates of poverty, illiteracy and infant mortality" (Yardley).

Before beginning to analyze the activities of the Naxalites and their effect on the growth of the Indian economy, it is important to define the term "terrorism." In his book, *Deadly Connections: States that Sponsor Terrorism*, Daniel Byman uses Bruce Hoffman's definition as a foundation for his own; thus, Byman characterizes terrorism as a deliberately violent, politically motivated act, "designed to have far-reaching psychological repercussions," aimed at non-combatants and conducted by an organization (Byman, 8). Though I am not sure how directly the actions of the Naxalites fall under this general definition, I believe that their actions are terrorist in nature for two main reasons. First, they target civilians, government officials, and combatants alike, satisfying the "non-combatant" target requirement. Second, their goals are entirely political in nature. Now that it has been established that the Naxalites are indeed a terrorist organization, it is important to determine what conditions would need to be established for the organization to consider their efforts to have been successful.

From the perspective of Naxalite leaders, success can be defined as the complete destruction of the Indian hierarchical social system. While this may seem extreme and perhaps overly ambitious, the grievances which mostly deeply trouble this group course through the very heart of Indian society and therefore cannot be appeased without radical societal change. When discussing the activities of the Naxalites, it is important to determine the source and nature of their grievances. As noted before, the Naxalites goals are maximalist: accomplishing their long-term goals would require a governmental regime change and a complete political reinvention of Indian socio-economic norms. The economic growth which has occurred over the last twenty years in India is due mostly to effective market-oriented policies first enacted in the early 1990s. These have "unleashed an explosion of pent-up commercial energy" and "tariff ramparts have been torn down" (Economist, 75). Prior to these reforms, private companies were required to obtain licenses for nearly everything business related. This "license raj" has been removed and private firms are now "forced to compete with the world's best. Many have discovered they can" and this has caused an incredible spike in Indian exports (Economist, 76).

To date, the Naxalites have "succeeded in forming guerrilla squads of poor and landless peasants, driving out land-lords from villages and setting up rudimentary forms of governance, like people's courts to redistribute land and mete out justice" (Banerjee, 3160). However, "at the same time, the activists

adopted a particular kind of tactics that was known as 'annihilation of class enemies'- a [concept] popularized by Charu Mazumdarto to describe the need for 'liquidating the feudal classes in the countryside,' like landlords and their agents" (Banerjee, 3160). These events exemplify the ability of the Naxalites to organize and form formidable squads which wreak havoc in the countryside.

From the standpoint of a counter-terrorist, the Naxalites hold an interesting ideology as the root causes of their grievances come from financial instability, extreme poverty, and exploitation caused by classism; however, their terrorist actions are also a catalyst for both global and domestic financial volatility and instability. This cause-effect cycle poses a daunting challenge for the Indian government: one that must be addressed effectively and efficiently without compromising the growth that India is experiencing. If India expects to continue increasing its role in the global economy, it must solve its domestic problems before it can market itself as a stable nation with profitable investment opportunities.

India and the Global Financial Market

Over the past few years, Wall Street has become increasingly infatuated with the prospects of India's continued economic growth. Mutual funds focused on foreign growth opportunities are filled with Indian companies—many money managers allocating nearly an eighth of their fund's portfolio to Indian prospects. Research analysts at the American investment bank Merrill Lynch expect the growth in the emerging market economies (Brazil, Russia, India, and China) to continue at unprecedented rates in 2011. However, within these nations, analysts expect that the market demand will shift, becoming more domestically driven. This means that the recent expansion of the middle class demographic in these nations, especially Brazil (where hundreds of thousands were lifted above the poverty line over that past ten years) will now boost demand within the country, allowing the reliance on exports to diminish.

This change in demand means that mutual fund managers are changing their focus from companies which primarily focus on exportation, to companies which cater directly to domestic consumers. Thus, consumer staples and information technology are the two sectors which comprise a large percentage of global opportunities mutual funds. However, while India's economy is certainly expanding, it is obvious that the government is not doing enough to ensure that this increased in gross domestic product is being distributed at least somewhat equally. India's economy is expected to expand by 8.5% in 2010. For a country of 1.2 billion people, such rapid growth is astonishing. While India's economy is only one-fourth the size of China's, many economists believe that its growth rate could overtake China's by 2013 if growth continues at is present rate. Many economists have even predicted that "India will grow faster than any other large country over the next 25 years" (Economist, 11). That is, unless Naxalite activities become increasingly crippling for big businesses and manage to uproot the already unstable government and social structure.

Indian Capitalism: By measure of market capitalization, Reliance Industries Limited (RIL) is India's largest private sector enterprise, dealing in energy and materials, namely polyester, fibre intermediates, plastics, petrochemicals, petroleum refining and oil and gas exploration and production. It is on the list of top 10 global producers in all of these industries. Its annual profits exceed \$44 billion and its products account for 14.5% of India's total exports. Companies such as RIL have expanded rapidly, to say the least, over the past few years, contributing greatly to India's impressive annual gross domestic product growth rate. Economic expansion and capitalist pursuits aside, the activities of the Naxalites must be considered by economists when they continue to allocate large portions of their portfolios to production giants such as Reliance Industries Limited. According to a recent article in *The Economist* titled "Briefing Business in India: A bumpier but freer road," the prime minister of India "tried to assure investors in September that the insurgency would be quelled and that India was a safe place to park their money" (Economist, 77). While it may prove to be true that most large businesses will not be affected by Naxalite

activity, as most "can avoid Naxalite-held areas" of India, counter-terror initiatives are imperative to India's economic stability (Economist, 77).

RIL owns and operates one of the largest and most complex deepwater oil production facilities in the world. It is companies like Reliance which have contributed to the continued exploitation of the proletariat Indians. The majority of the company's profits benefit the already wealthy elite, leaving the vast majority of the population continually poverty stricken while the gap between the rich and the poor continues to expand rapidly. RIL is just one manifestation of the capitalist goals of elite Indians, big businesses are continuing to emerge throughout India and in a variety of industries. Most of these companies, RIL included, take over land which was once used for agricultural purposes by the lowest classes of Indian society. As a result, the Naxalites have become increasingly disillusioned by the motivations Indian businessmen. With each expansion and new oil exploration, peasants are displaced and the amount of arable land diminishes, making it increasingly difficult a class so dependent on agriculture to survive. The constant expansion of the gap between the rich and poor and the continued exploitation of the Indian working class are the two main Naxalites grievances.

The Naxalites' desire the removal of social-class based bias and thereby create a society free of all socioeconomic prejudice. They obtain their power and funding by taxing local villagers, extorting businesses, abducting and killing "class enemies" such as government officials and police officers, and preventing aid from getting through to people who need it. Clearly the existence of globally dominant companies, such as RIL, is exactly the type of capitalist creation that the Naxalites are trying to destroy. RIL controls vast swaths of land especially in the Andhra Pradesh state of India, which contains miles of coast on the Bay of Bengal. Companies like RIL are reaping the benefits of the vast natural resources available in India, leaving the peasant farmer and poor working class unable to benefit from the resources available on their own land. For years, experts have decried that "Naxalism is a serious menace in states stretching from the Nepal border through the most backward states of north-central India - from Bihar to Jharkand, Chhattisgarh and parts of Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra" (Bowring).

The Indian government has been frequently criticized for neglecting to address the issues surrounding the Naxalite movement. Finally in 2006, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh declared the movement to be the "single biggest security challenge ever faced by our country" (Bowring). The Naxalites' death grip on several provinces in India has become a serious security problem and cannot remain unaddressed for much longer without seriously detrimental affects to the national economy. Wall Street investors and money managers need to be cognizant of this fact. The emerging markets are epicenters of impressive economic growth, but incredible instability, both social and political, exists in India and cannot be disregarded. In comparison with China, it seems that a democracy may actually be detrimental to economic growth. China seems to be doing a better job controlling terrorism and the corruption of its government than India, but perhaps this is because of "its usual brutal methods, such as shooting people," an activity that doesn't exactly fly in a democracy, no matter how derided (Economist. 11).

Unfortunately for the Naxalites and the exploited proletariat in India, "the capitalist system [...] is today is resourceful enough to continue such a strategy of containing violent class conflicts by a judicious mixture of dividing the opponents by selective economic concessions and defeating them by ruthless antiinsurgency operations" (Banerjee, 3162). The government has continually been forced to deal with the "resurgent Maoist (Naxalite) guerilla movement," facing "agitations from agricultural communities over the acquisition of land for industrialization" (Ganguly, 1). The policies required to appease the grievances of the Naxalites would pose a bigger threat than terrorism for capitalist businesses in India, "the biggest risk for banks in Mumbai and software firms in Bangalore is not that rebels will burst through their front doors but that a government sensitive to the anger of the poor will take populist steps to assuage it" (Economist, 77).

Increased Naxalite Activity

Perhaps the most pressing issue to address is to discover why India has experienced a recent and abrupt "recrudescence of the Naxalite movement" (Ganguly, 42). The short answer concerns the "apparent adverse impact of India's gradual adoption of market-oriented economic reforms and the putative exacerbation of steep economic inequality" (Ganguly, 42-3). The Naxalite "rebellion is strongest in states that have reserves of the natural resources, especially coal, that are required to fuel India's industrial boom (India's Politics). Furthermore, "the five states in which the movement is strongest account for 85% of India's coal deposits. India's electricity generation is predominantly coal-based. Naxalite rebels have, on occasions, made direct attacks on companies in the sector" (India's Politics). While most companies seem to believe that they are not in danger of direct attacks from the Naxalites, this is certainly not the case. Many of the companies are the true cause of Naxalite grievances and are an incredibly obvious symbol of wealth and capitalism. As the economy of India continues its upward climb, the grievances will only become more serious, as land becomes increasingly scarce.

So far, the "response of the central government, as well as various state governments, to the Naxalite insurgency has been piecemeal and inept. Ironically, India's federal structure has hampered the central government's ability to fashion a coherent, national strategy to tackle the problem because law and order is a state responsibility. In the absence of a near complete breakdown of public order or without the express request of the afflicted state, the central government cannot send its security forces to confront the Naxalites" (Ganguly, 42). These restrictions make it extremely difficult for the government to use almost any type of force to suppress the violence perpetuated by the Naxalites. Clearly, a more diplomatic, political approach is necessary to pacify this group.

Counter-Terrorism: Land Reform

During the early 1980s, land reform efforts by the El Salvadorian government yielded undeniably favorable political and agricultural results. Agricultural production increased and violent peasant rebellions decreased significantly to an almost nonexistent level. It is this sort of approach that could potentially yield success for the Indian government. However, before I outline the details of such an approach, success must be defined. Boaz Ganor, in his work *The Counter-Terrorism Puzzle: A Guide for Decision Makers*, outlines three different goals behind counter-terrorism and their relative definitions of success. These main goals include: eliminating terrorism, minimizing damage caused by terrorism, and preventing the escalation of terrorism (Ganor, 25). Currently, it is pretty clear that the Indian government's current counter-terrorism efforts do not seem to match up with any of these clear-cut goals. However, in order to ensure the future stability of India's economy it is important that they remove the Naxalites' incentive to commit acts of terrorism. Though this is certainly where the maximalist goals of the terrorist organization will be met with the maximalist goals of the counter-terrorist, this is the only way that India's economy can surely escape extreme volatility and perhaps even collapse.

If the Indian government wants to see continued rapid economic growth, the land grievances of the Naxalites must be appeased. Starting a movement of land-reform policies would certainly help to redistribute land to impoverished Indian peasants, hopefully helping to improve the socio-economic inequalities so prevalent in Indian society. According to World Bank estimates, nearly one-third of the world's impoverished people live in India, as approximately 80% of India's population of 1.2 billion lives on \$2 a day or less. The figure alone should be enough to startle any economist or financial analyst looking into prospects for economic growth in India. However, according to recent Credit Suisse estimates, in 2000, India's wealth was \$1.2 trillion. Its wealth has grown by 192% over the last 10 years. Furthermore, Credit Suisse has determined that in 2003 the top 1% of the population owned 15.9% of India's wealth, the top 5% owned 38.3% and the top 10% had 52.9%, more than half the country's wealth. In stark contrast, the bottom 20% owned 1% of the country's assets and the bottom 10% owned

just 0.2%. 0.4% of the population own assets with a value of approximately \$100,000. In developing "countries today, landlessness probably constitutes the greatest single constraint on the production of food and the development of the rural sector" (Prosterman, 72). However, the response of the dysfunctional governments of many of these countries has been sub-par as best and "more commonly, their response has been simply irrelevant or nonexistent." (Prosterman, 72-73). India must become an exception to this standard if its growth is to live up to the expectations of financial experts.

Land-Use Disagreement: Wall Street financiers, economists, and government officials alike need to wake up to the issues of land-distribution in India and other developing countries. Such severe issues affect not only agricultural production but all economic factors. While mutual fund managers are quick to allocate a larger and larger portion of their portfolios to emerging market economies, the political volatility of these nations must be considered. The actions of the Naxalites could easily become more severe as capitalism continues to expand in India. With the exacerbation of their grievances it is hard predict what actions the Naxalites will take next. It is crucial to realize that "in less-developed societies, the relationship to agricultural land typically represents the chief source of livelihood, assurance, and status for most of the population. It is not, therefore, surprising that widely half grievances over inadequacies in that relationship may shake the foundations of social order" (Prosterman, 1). India included, "there are, very roughly, 100 million landless families in the less-developed countries today" (Prosterman, 73).

In India, "agricultural growth has been accompanied by a steady deterioration in distributional terms, involving not only an increase in relative inequality but also an increase in absolute impoverishment" of India's lowest (and largest) social class (Ahluwalia, 298). Furthermore, "it is argued that these trends are the natural consequence of the type of agricultural growth which can be expected within the existing institutional structure in Indian agriculture" (Ahluwalia, 298). Radical institutional change is needed to alleviate issues with poverty. Indian policies aimed at "trickle down' benefits have taken the form of increased employment benefitting migrants from other states, rather than increased wages benefitting the pre-existing poor" (Ahluwalia, 316). Large companies throughout India are beginning to realize the ease and economic benefit of utilizing the migrant work forces. However, one again, these companies are so concerned with continued economic growth and global expansion that they forget the importance of taking care of their home country and domestic population. Unfortunately, in a world so technologically advanced, companies can easily be successful without an enormous domestic demand for their products. In the case of India, this is problematic as many Indian companies now rely so heavily on exportation that they fail to address the concerns of the impoverished classes.

For centuries Indian agriculture has been structured in a class-structured form of feudalism, similar to many other Southeast Asian countries. Years ago, in Indian feudalism the 'twice-born' *varnas* and other high castes were landlords, merchants, or other exploiters, while the exploited toilers, the lowest social class, were divided along caste lines into three main sections—the cultivating *kisan* castes who were traditionally 'tillers of the soil,' the artisan, and service castes who produced the means of production and some consumption goods, and *dalit* (untouchable) laborers who were semi-slaves for the village authorities and some dominant landlord (Omvedt, A143). It is incredibly important that the Indian government recognizes that "stagnation in real consumption levels at the lower end of the scale could arise from strongly labour-displacing technological changes accompanying agricultural expansion, exemplifying the malign effect of some types of growth" (Ahluwalia, 316).

A Liberal Approach To Counter-Terror: Perhaps the most daunting challenge facing any and all counterterrorism efforts of the Indian government is fact that the "Naxalites do not form a single group. They include committed ideologists and local brigands. But they find ready recruits among the weak and dispossessed, generally including low castes in rural areas oppressed by higher-caste landlords, and in tribal areas by those whose lands have been appropriated by the politically influential" (Bowring). This must be considered when attempting to take a liberal approach to counter Naxalite terror. A liberal approach focuses on the root causes of terrorism. Edward Newman, in his article "Exploring the 'Root Causes' of Terrorism," discusses the concept of liberalism and states that "the basic concept of the root causes of terrorism is that certain conditions provide a social environment and widespread grievances that, when combined with certain precipitant factors, result in the emergence of terrorist organization and terrorist acts" (Newman, 750). Typically, poverty is one of the first root causes that comes to the mind of any counter-terrorism expert. In India this is only partially the case. Newman goes on to discuss the problems related to "exclusion and social inequality" and the "breeding ground for conflict" created by class-based economic disparity (Newman, 752). Newman also discusses the presence of "catalyst conditions" and their role in the perpetuation of terrorism.

These conditions are necessary for transition from root causes to actual acts of terrorism. This distinction is important and exposes once again the idea that terrorism is perpetuated by a complex combination of grievances and catalyst conditions that eventually yield violence. While the maximalist goals of most Naxalites include the eradication of the capitalist government and growth oriented economic policies, the redistribution of land to agriculturally dependent peasants would be a good starting place for a diplomatic approach to counter-terrorism. The Indian government needs to consider seriously the formation of a radical and comprehensive land-reform policy to appease peasant grievances and stop the rampant exploitation of impoverished Indians. The Naxalites have continually proclaimed that they will not stop until every Indian has equal rights. While this may not be accomplished for decades or even centuries, the Indian government can certainly make efforts to redistribute some of the wealth that is quickly accrued as the productivity of the Indian economy continues to sky-rocket.

At first glance, it appears that perhaps the elitist, but supposedly democratic, Indian government is so blind as to purely not understand the grievances, however, this is not the case. Indian government officials are quite aware of the grievances of the Naxalites: "last year the prime minister, Manmohan Singh, identified exploitation, low wages, unemployment, a lack of access to resources, geographical isolation and an underdeveloped farm sector as the main factors that have contributed to the growth of the Naxalite movement" (India's politics). Solutions to the violence of the Naxalites are difficult, as "villagers are often suspicious, not without reason, that new [government] projects will not provide as many local jobs as promised or are simply an excuse for rapacious developers to seize land from farmers without adequate compensation" (India's politics). Even beyond the initial issues with the obtaining the support of the population, "one of the most severe contradictions radical movements face is the contradiction between the drive toward radical transformation of their societies and the need to maintain production in the largely capitalistic economy during the period of transition and change" (Timberg, 86).

India must find a way to continue its unprecedented GDP growth while steadily improving the stability of the population's support and decreasing the over-all volatility of the state. However, "the conflicting demands imposed by this contradiction often lead regimes committed to change to abandon their plans in order to avoid antagonizing their business communities—to avoid a 'strike of capital'" (Timberg, 86). To date, India has chosen the second option and is slowly realizing that simply failing to address the issues of the impoverished cannot continue for much longer without severely detrimental effects to the financial success of India. In the late 1970s, the Indian government made an attempt to redistribute land to peasants, but the inadequacy of the reforms and lack of completion only exacerbated the problem. This botched effort only "led to the development of a rural sub-elite from among the beneficiaries, wielding economic and political power over the less successful who, unable to maintain their lands (because of expensive inputs that they cannot afford) are selling them off" (Banerjee, 3162).

Despite this prior failure, the Indian government must rise to the challenge once again if it hopes to suppress the terrorist attacked performed by the Naxalites. The continued growth of the Indian economy is only exacerbating the problem, as companies become increasingly monopolistic in nature, such as the aforementioned conglomerate RIL which is continuing to acquire more land both domestically and in

foreign nations. RIL recently completed a deal with an American company in Texas and is now a minority shareholder. This is exactly the type of growth which prevents the redistribution of wealth domestically. GDP growth in India is off the charts, but the reality is that poverty is not lessening at a rate anywhere near where it should be. Furthermore, each time a company such as RIL takes over yet another area in India it results in the uprooting of "the original inhabitants of the targeted sites and throwing them out of their old occupations, creat[ing] a new group of homeless and jobless people, at the same time provid[ing] employment to another group of hitherto jobless or underemployed people (who are generally favored for their loyalty to the party organization)" (Banerjee, 3161). Unfortunately, "the government's handling of the Naxalite rebellion also has implications for India's energy security. The rebellion is strongest in states that have reserves of the natural resources, especially coal, that are required to fuel India's industrial boom. The five states in which the movement is strongest account for 85% of India's coal deposits. India's electricity generation is predominantly coal-based. Naxalite rebels have, on occasions, made direct attacks on companies in the sector" (India's Politics).

In his book *Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice*, David Galula discusses the importance of gaining the support of the population. With each day that India continues to grow, the divide between the rich and poor widens and the harder it becomes for the Indian government to maintain the support the country's impoverished citizens. These citizens certainly understand the motives of the Naxalites and the longer it takes India to realize the importance of addressing the issues of the enormous peasant population, the more will become supporters, or even members, of the Naxalite movement. With 80% of the population in poverty, the capitalist policies promoted by the elite in the Indian government cannot pretend to be redistributing the wealth produced by such rapid economic growth. The Indian government has recently started initiatives to address the problems of illiteracy and infrastructure in an effort to allow the country's poor to become a contributing portion of the work force.

The literacy rate of adults in India is only 66%, trailing far behind China's near perfect adult literacy of 93%. While "the Indian government will tackle the country's infrastructure problems more slowly and ineptly that it should," it does have plans to tackle them (Economist, 77). The government has plans to address both the problem of infrastructure and the skills shortage over the next few years. Schools are already being built and "the literacy rate is rising fast. Among 15-24-year-olds, it is over 80%, though girls do worse than boys" (Economist, 77).

Implications for Global Financial Markets

If the Naxalites continue to gain territory in India and are not subdued by the Indian government, their activities could have extremely adverse affects on the growth of Indian economy and thus the global financial markets. Money managers around the world need to be cautious when deciding which Indian companies to invest in, if any at all. Once the Indian government begins to realize the importance of maintaining a good global reputation for stability, it will hopefully change its land policies to appease the Naxalites and their poverty stricken supporters. If not, the global financial markets will soon begin to feel the adverse effects of Indian ignorance and capitalist greed.

Land reform is feasible. It has happened in many nations around the world over the past few centuries and can certainly happen in India with just a few policy changes. While it is certainly true that changing the entire social structure of a country is a fairly ambitious goal, given wealth statistics the actions of the Naxalites could perhaps even help India to continue to grow for several reasons. Once peasants are given the resources to sustain themselves, there will be a significant decrease in the poverty rate. If this happens, India can begin to change just as Brazil has. Once the poor begin to become more and more like a middle class, the more likely it will be that Merrill Lynch predictions concerning the shift of demand from foreign demand to domestic demand will prove to be true. To encourage the government to pursue the option of land reform, a grassroots publicity campaign with special attention to predictions of how fund

managers and others will likely allocate huge sums for investment in India as an emerging market in contrast to other places would certainly be a good option. Ultimately, the Indian government must solve the problem of land and wealth distribution and it might as well do it in a way that will positively impact the growth of India at the same time. The Indian government is now holding the fate of the Indian economy in the palm of its hand. Will India's economy continue at the present growth rate or will the government improve its policies, thus improving the quality of life of nearly 80% of all Indians and turning India's economy into an epicenter of growth? The next ten years could be the dawning of a golden age in India or a period of decline after a successful ten years of Indian growth.

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BIOGRAPHY

Amy Cheetham is a current second year student studying economics and government at Connecticut College in New London, Connecticut. She can be contacted at Connecticut College, Box 3419, 270 Mohegan Avenue, New London, CT 06320, USA or via email at acheetha@conncoll.edu.

Lyman Mlambo, Institute of Mining Research, University of Zimbabwe Motive Mungoni, Department of Mining Engineering, University of Zimbabwe

ABSTRACT

This study characterizes Zimbabwe's tantalite sector, local production and world price trends over the past three decades. The significance of world prices in explaining production is tested. The way forward for Zimbabwe tantalite sector is discussed in light of firming world demand. Tantalite production showed an upward trend from 1980 to 1991, followed by a downward trend from 1992 to 1996, and then another upward trend from 1997 up to 2003 when it peaked. From 2004, production fell monotonically until it became insignificant in 2006. The study shows that world prices have not significantly affected production levels in Zimbabwe. The very long lag between price peaks and production peaks has resulted in a negative albeit insignificant relationship. The paper invokes other factors including, the production link between tin and tantalite (mostly a by-product of tin), the small-scale nature of most mines, lack of exploration data, and low local prices in explaining production levels and the quick diversion to economic alternatives such as gold. The paper recommends addressing these other factors so that the tantalite sector may be built upon the gradual momentum of world prices, and may be ready to respond timely to future price booms and opportunities for value-addition.

KEYWORDS: Tantalite, tantalite-columbite, tantalum, production trend, price trend, tin

INTRODUCTION

Tantalite is a black to red-brown mineral, distinguished from columbite by the predominance of tantalum over niobium, and is used as an ore for both elements. It is, therefore, easily confused with columbite, the niobium analogue of tantalite (Papp, 2006). In fact, the two are often grouped together as a semi-singular mineral called tantalite-columbite in many mineral guides.

This paper uses tantalite to refer to the ore from which tantalum is extracted. Zimbabwe is among the few countries boasting of large resources of tantalite (Mlambo, 2010). There are 300 known occurrences of tantalite deposits, positively suggesting a wealth of reserves. However, exploration for tantalite by larger exploration companies has not been significant, so that the country's full potential is unknown. It has not been possible to estimate reserves from the operators because they are numerous, small and many are informal hence do not submit official statistics to the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development. The main known tantalite deposits are found in the Mutoko belt, the Bikita Tinfields, the Harare, Odzi and Makaha belts, the Shamva area and the Miami and Hurungwe Areas (Ngorima, 2001, cited in Maponga, 2001, p.46), while other potential areas include Filabusi, Felixburg, Chipuriro, Chimanda and Inyanga (Martin, 1962, cited in Maponga, 2001, p.46). However, Maponga (2001, p.47) notes that these areas need further exploration to ascertain the actual extent and grade of the resource.

Much of the tantalite produced is exported. Tantalum (Ta) has a variety of characteristics, which have easily lent it to many uses. It can easily be fabricated and drawn into wire, which property saw it applied to its first commercial use in the early 1900 as lamp filament in incandescent lamps, before it was replaced by the cheaper tungsten. Its resistance to acid corrosion, high melting point and good conductivity of both heat and electricity has made it useful in construction of chemical process plant and the making of heat exchangers. It also finds use in the making of surgical steel because it is non-reactive

and non-irritating to body tissues. However, the major current application of tantalum is in the production of electronic components, mainly tantalum capacitors used in mobile phones, computer components (memory chips), automobiles, *et cetera*. As an alloying element, it is used in the production of metalworking equipment and jet engine components. It is also used in glass to enhance refraction (More elaborate treatments of characteristics and uses of tantalum are found in US Department of the Interior & USGS, 2008, and Maponga, 2001, on which this paragraph is based).

PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES, SIGNIFICANCE AND METHODOLOGY

The demand for tantalum worldwide is very high and is expected to continue escalating with the exponential development of the world electronics industry. It appears tantalite is the mineral of the future. The discovered occurrences of the mineral and the fact that substantial exploration scope remains give reason to believe that Zimbabwe holds very large resources as well as reserves of the mineral.

Currently, there is no much excitement in the Zimbabwe mining sector with this mineral despite the authors' sentiments just expressed. Historically, tantalite booms have only generated temporary and largely small-scale rushes that soon gave way to gold and chrome, as alternative sources of income. Much has not been written in Zimbabwe on this mineral, especially in terms of its production trend over the period of study and the role of international prices in determining that trend. The excitement generated by China's seemingly 'unprecedented' explosive urbanization and industrialization, events in the 'emerging markets' and a world outlook clearly slanted on electronics and space science, begs studies of this nature. This study characterizes the trend of tantalum world (annual) prices over the past 31 years (1980 – 2010), as well as Zimbabwe's tantalite production trend over the same period.

Note that in description of trends in this paper, *local peak* and *global peak* are terms used to respectively indicate a peak relative to the neighbouring years and a peak relative to the whole period of study. Statistical significance of changes in international prices of tantalum in explaining the tantalite production trend is investigated. Especially tested is the hypothesis that price fluctuations do not significantly influence tantalite production in Zimbabwe. The study concludes with a discussion of the way forward for the Zimbabwe tantalite sector in light of the developments in the world tantalum market.

This study is significant in that it feeds into economic policy and mining policy at a time when Zimbabwe is seeking ways to resuscitate an economy battered by more than a decade of monotonic decline. It is also coming at a time when domestic and international perceptions indicate that the key to this needed resuscitation is the development of mineral resources. If world price fluctuations can be delinked from the complacence of the Zimbabwe tantalite sector, it would then force further investigations as to the nature of the complacence. Probably answers would lie in other factors, such as market and technical information, which would directly imply policy. Secondary data are used, the main sources being the United States Geological Survey and British Geological Survey websites, the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development as well as the Institute of Mining Research Database. LimDep econometric package is used in Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimation of the Zimbabwe tantalite production function. A simple two-variable linear regression model is used.

World Tantalum Prices

Table 1 and Figure 1 below show the trend of world tantalum prices (second column in Table 1) from 1980 to 2010. In 1980 the price was US\$232.58/kg; in 1985 it had fallen down to US\$50.15/kg. There was a local peak in 1988 when the price increased to US\$110.23, after which it fell and stabilised around an average of US\$65.34 up to 1999. The global maximum price over the three decades was achieved in 2000 when the price shot up to US\$485.01, a percentage increase of 547% over the previous year's price

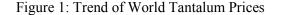
of US\$74.96. In 2001 the price fell and, up to 2010, it stabilised around an average of US\$73.15. Clearly, the period from 1995 showed a firming of prices until the conspicuous peak in 2000.

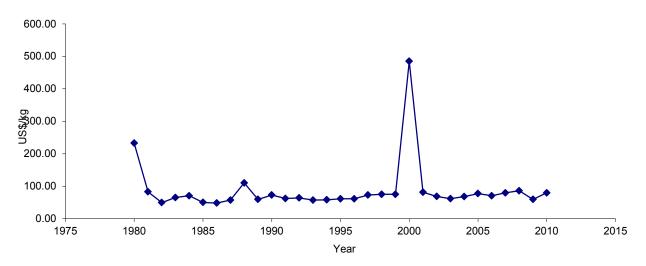
Year	Price, US\$/kg	Zimbabwe Production, kg
1980	232.58	41,000
1981	82.67	45,000
1982	49.60	36,000
1983	65.04	35,000
1984	70.55	59,000
1985	50.15	40,000
1986	47.95	33,000
1987	57.32	37,000
1988	110.23	66,000
1989	59.52	32,000
1990	72.75	35,000
1991	62.28	111,000
1992	63.93	94,000
1993	57.32	48,000
1994	57.87	7,000
1995	61.18	0
1996	61.18	0
1997	72.75	1,000
1998	74.96	8,000
1999	74.96	2,470
2000	485.01	4,000
2001	81.57	22,900
2002	68.34	323,000
2003	61.73	231
2004	67.90	45
2005	77.16	1,000
2006	70.55	200
2007	79.37	0
2008	85.98	0
2009	59.52	0
2010	79.37	0

Table 1: World Tantalum Prices and Zimbabwe Tantalite Production

Sources: Production data are from various issues of BGS publications (World Mineral Statistics 1980-1984, 1984-1988, 1988-1992, 1993-1997, African Mineral Production 2001-2005), USGS various mineral commodity summaries on tantalite, and Zimbabwe Ministry of Mines and Mining Development. BGS figures for Zimbabwe production are gross tonnages of tantalum and niobium combined. Zimbabwe production figures for 2007-2010 are assumed to be insignificant (not captured in the USGS as well as BGS). Prices are from various mineral commodity summaries on tantalite from USGS. Note that prices are for tantalum while production figures refer to tantalite (the ore of tantalum).

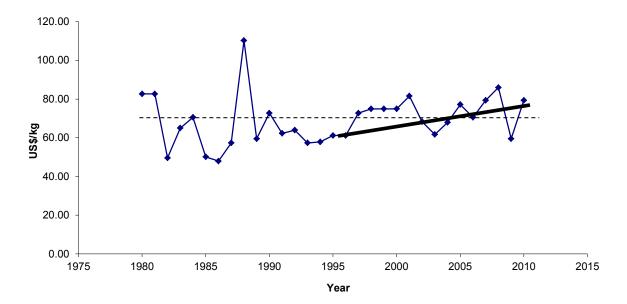
In Figure 1, the peaks in 1980 and 2000 tend to dwarf the trend in the rest of the study period. Figure 2 assumes the price of 1981 for 1980 and 1999 for 2000 (that is, prices in the immediate neighbourhood of the peaks). The dotted line in Figure 2 shows the average trend of the price if the two peaks are removed, and it was around US\$70.00/kg. In Figure 2, considering the period 1996-2010 (that is from the late 1990s) a gradual upward trend can be observed (represented by the bolded continuous line). Therefore, in general, the price of tantalum in the world market has been gradually firming in the recent ten or so years. A report on the closed Kamativi Tin Mines (Kamativi Tin Mines, 2011) states, "Of main interest is the occurrence of tantalite at Kamativi. Tantalite is deemed the space age metal and demand and prices are projected to remain firm" (p.7). This statement is supported by this piecewise trend since the late 1990s.





This figure shows the trend in world prices of tantalum from 1980 to 2010. Source: Table 1 and author's analysis.

Figure 2: Trend of World Tantalum Prices (with 1980 and 2000 price peaks removed)



This figure shows the trends (actual and average) of tantalum prices from 1980 to 2010, as well as the piecewise trend from 1996 to 2010 which assumes an evening out of the 1980 and 2000 price peaks. Source: Table 1 and author's analysis.

Montgomery (2010) reports that the price of tantalum has increased due to demand outstripping the supply from 'reputable' sources. US Government enacted the 'Conflict Minerals Act' as human rights groups campaign for disclosure by manufacturers of the sources of their tantalum materials. The disclosure, if it shows that they are from conflict sources, would seriously dent the company's reputation. The idea is that such manufactured products, by using raw materials from these sources, fuel human rights abuses. This Act has actually caused tantalite supplies from the Democratic Republic of the Congo, which used to contribute about 15% to the world market, to be avoided by Chinese manufacturers of electronic goods in favour of more expensive non-Congolese tantalum. This Act has mainly affected Africa and has caused world market supply to dwindle at a time when demand for high tech electronic

products is rising. With tantalite having no substitutes in many high tech electronic products, demand will continue to be high in the future, especially considering phenomenal urbanization taking place in China and upsurge in demand in 'emerging markets'. Historically, China has been the largest purchaser of tantalum (MetalMiner, 2011). Apparently, the 'tale' of the future regarding the tantalum market will be the 'rise and rise of tantalum prices'.

Tantalite Production in Zimbabwe

Maponga (2001) states that both primary tantalite/tantalum and recycled tantalum are supplied to the world market. Tantalite resources occur in Africa, Australasia, North America and South America. Zimbabwe is among the seven African countries hosting tantalite resources, the other six being Nigeria, Gabon, Egypt, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda and Burundi. In Australasia, resources are found in Australia, Malaysia and Thailand; in North America, Canada; and in South America, Brazil. Secondary sources of tantalum, through recycling, had become important sources of market supply by 2001. Geologically, tantalite mineralization mostly occurs in pegmatites (very coarse grained, intrusive igneous rocks composed of interlocking grains), mostly occurring as elongate, tabular dikes (lensoid-shaped). Tantalite occurs together with cassiterite (a chief tin mineral with a 78.6% Sn content) and other minerals like beryl, wolframite, mica and feldspars as the pegmatite group of minerals (Oesterlen, 1998, p.67-69). Pegmatites, as highlighted in Ministry of Mines and Mining Development (2010), are ubiquitous in several geological environments, especially on the edges of greenstone and in metamorphic belts, a source of a variety of minerals including tantalite and tin (cassiterite).

Unlike gold and base metal deposits that are normally uniformly mineralized, distribution of minerals in pegmatites is highly irregular, which makes channel and grab sampling inadequate. The discrete nature of the occurrence of pegmatite minerals makes bulk sampling necessary. Previous studies suggest bulk samples weighing between 50 and 100 tonnes should be obtained to come up with the head grade of the tantalite. This occurrence of pegmatite minerals in greenstone belts where there is also gold mineralization has seen most miners especially artisanal miners resorting to panning and reef gold mining because, traditionally, gold has a ready market and is a cash mineral as opposed to tantalite.

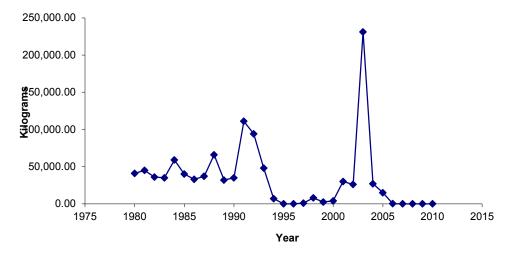
The first production of tantalite in Zimbabwe was from the Bikita Tinfields in 1937, followed by Salisbury District in 1948, while commercial separation of tantalite-columbite from cassiterite (ore of tin) at Kamativi tin mine (in Bulawayo) started in 1959 (Maponga, 2001, p.46). In 2001, in the Mutoko belt operations included Benson mine and a number of other prospects besides many small-scale miners whose market were middlemen. The Harare, Odzi and Makaha belts also hosted mines including Mauve, Mistress, Hotspur, Elizabeth and Patronage (in Harare district), Portrice, Goodluck and Bepe (in Odzi-Buhera), Good Days, Ntabeni, Flor-Era and V.C. (in Makaha-Sutskwe). In general, however, tantalite in Zimbabwe is mined by many small miners. Historically, much of the tantalite production was from tin slags from Kamativi mine and from tantalite-columbite concentrates extracted from other pegmatites and derived eluvial deposits (Mlambo, 2010, p.7).

While Zimbabwe's production fluctuated, it clearly showed an upward trend from 1980 to 1991 (Figure 3). From 1992, Zimbabwe's production fell and continued falling until it became nil in 1995 and 1996. However, in 1997 production was resumed and was on a gradual increasing trend until a surprise shoot up in 2003 when it reached 231 tonnes, and this was 3 years after the price peaked globally. After that, production fell monotonically until it became again insignificant and remained so up to 2010.

The trend from 1997 to 2004 reflects a boom. This boom was apparently a belated response to price increases on the back of rising demand for tantalum coupled with low inventories (Maponga, 2001). Tantalite mining replaced gold as the most attractive small-scale mining activity in some areas of Zimbabwe – it went beyond just being a by-product of tin mining. Even tantalite analyses at the Institute

of Mining Research of the University of Zimbabwe increased in number during the boom, reflecting only a small part of the increase since many analyses were done elsewhere in and outside the country. Reported statistics are only a partial representation of production since several production activities, being artisanal, went unrecorded during the boom. Maponga (2001) projected that the demand and price of tantalum would continue to increase on the back of continued growth in demand for mobile phones in developing countries. Indeed, demand for mobile phones has continued to increase as has demand for computers, which begs the question: what explains the lowering of production in tantalite in Zimbabwe after the 'tantalite-rush'?





This figure shows the trend of tantalite production in Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2010. Source: Table 1 and author's analysis.

ECONOMETRIC INVESTIGATION OF THE SIGNIFICANCE OF WORLD PRICES IN EXPLAINING TANTALITE PRODUCTION IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe Tantalite Production Function

Equation (1) below represents Zimbabwe tantalite production as a function of world tantalum prices, where Q_z is production, P is the world price, a and b are constants and μ is the stochastic error term. Theoretically, from rational behaviour, b is expected to be positive showing that a rise in world prices would result in an increase in tantalite production in Zimbabwe and vice-versa. The constant a represents production accounted for by other factors other than world price.

$$Q_z = a + bP + \mu \tag{1}$$

Using the Zimbabwe tantalite production figures and world prices in Table 1, a simple Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression gives the following results (equation 2).

$$Q_z = 40,322.11 - 68.97P, \qquad r^2 = 0.0146$$
(12,392.1820) (105.2507),
$$df = 29$$
(2)
$$t = (3.254) \qquad (-0.655), \qquad F_{1,29} = 0.43$$

The coefficient of world price is negative at -68.97, indicating an unexpected negative relationship between world tantalum price and local production of tantalite. This means that when the world price of tantalum increases by US\$1, production of tantalite in Zimbabwe falls by 68.97kg. However, the coefficient is very insignificant at 0.05 level of significance since the magnitude of the computed t-value (= 0.655) < 2. This means that statistically the coefficient is equal to zero. The value of *a* is high at 40,322.11kg and is significant with a computed t-value (=3.254) > 2. The explanatory value of the model is low at 1.46%, which is confirmed by the insignificant F value of 0.43 against a critical F- value of 4.18. Therefore, it remains that there are other factors that significantly explain tantalite production other than world tantalum price.

Alternative Explanations

As indicated earlier, much production of tantalite in Zimbabwe was as a by-product of tin production. For example, "During the productive life, the (Kamativi) mines produced over 37 000 tonnes tin from over 27Mt ore...Kamativi also produced about 3 000 tonnes of the by-product, tantalite (Ta2O5) during this period" (Kamativi Tin Mines, 2011, p.1). It is reported that there are huge resources of not only tin but also tantalite at Kamativi, Kapata, Kalinda and Lutope mines of the mine group. It is therefore, expected that the trend of tin production would be somehow reflected in the trend of tantalite production.

Figure 4 shows the trend of tin production in Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2009. Tin production in Zimbabwe was initially on a rising trend from 1980 to 1983 when it started falling, but remained generally high (above 600 tonnes of metal content) up to 1993. It is interesting to note that during this period tantalite production in Zimbabwe was also significant (see figure 3). However, in 1994, Zimbabwe tin production fell significantly and virtually stopped because of continued depressed prices and low grades (Kamativi Tin Mines, 2011, p.1). Tantalite production similarly plummeted in 1994 and remained low (below 10 tonnes) until 2001. This drop in tantalite production could be linked to the drop in tin production as much as the high production hitherto could be linked to high production of tin.

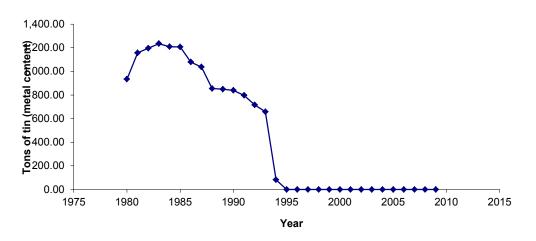


Figure 4: Zimbabwe Tin Production

This figure shows the trend of tin production from 1980 to 2010. Source of data: BGS website (various issues of World Mineral Statistics)

However, in 2001 tantalite production started to rise significantly, until it reached the peak in 2003 at 231 tonnes, before it fell monotonically until it became insignificant again in 2007. What explains the boom in production in the late 1990s and early 2000s then is not the production of tin. Apparently, the negative relationship between price and production, besides other explanations, comes from a late response to the rising world price trend of tantalum. When the price peaked in 2000 production was very low at 4 tonnes

and only peaked in 2003 when the price had fallen to a more stable position. It may also be suggested that the 2000 price peak incited a rush, like gold-rush, from 2001 (which explains the rise in production from 2001 in Figure 3). When the price had fallen and generally stabilised artisanal miners in Zimbabwe probably still regarded tantalite as a high-value mineral for some time, expecting the price to shoot up anytime. Thus, production was not positively related to price.

When the price remained generally stable, albeit high by international standards, the glamour returned to the traditional gold whose appeal is perennially robust. Thus, it may be said that the main reason why Zimbabwean tantalite sector has fallen after 2005 despite the fact that prices have remained generally high is that much production is done by small-scale producers, who have a more remunerating and better explored alternative in gold. It then becomes interplay of small-scale nature of operations and lack of adequate exploration data in tantalite.

A typical case of gold overshadowing tantalite is the case of the Beryl Rose tantalite deposits in the Umfurudzi Wild Life area about 30km east of Mount Darwin. Within the area are occurrences of both tantalite- pegmatites and gold mineralisation. The gold deposit was explored and exploited significantly, while little work was done on tantalite-cassiterite deposits, despite the fact that Beryl Rose pegmatites are some of the largest economic pegmatite fields in the country (Mnyama and Kambarami, 1985). About 24 km of over 500 pegmatites exist. However, recently, because of the high price of tantalite, groupings of small-scale miners have found an alternative to gold in tantalite here. The simple processes by which tantalite can be identified, mined and concentrated has resulted in an increase in tantalite production, but the response to positive market developments has been very slow. In conclusion on this case study, what is apparent from the various technical reports compiled from work on the Beryl Rose Mine is that the economic geology of the pegmatites is poorly understood. This is the result of disjointed and incomplete evaluation of the pegmatites, and that the pegmatites have mainly been worked on a small scale. Small-scale miners are known to work without reserves.

CONCLUSION AND WAY FORWARD FOR TANTALITE MINING IN ZIMBABWE

The above analysis clearly shows that world prices have not directly affected production levels in Zimbabwe. In fact, the very long lag between price increases and production responses has resulted in a negative relationship as the latter responds 'positively' when the price has already reached the peak and is on a downward trend. The paper has also discussed the link between tin production and tantalite production as a possible explanation for the rise in tantalite production in early years before 1994 after which tin production virtually stopped. However, the production boom from 1997 to the 2003 peak cannot be explained by tin production as no tin was being produced.

This boom is explained by a much-lagged response to earlier price increases, which peaked in 2000. Production suddenly fell after 2003 until it became insignificant probably out of the realization that the price peak was temporary. The small-scale/artisanal nature of miners explains the quick diversion from tantalite (to alternatives such as gold) even though the prices continued to be generally high. The possibility of lack of knowledge of deposits due to lack of adequate exploration, unlike in the case of gold, has also been intimated to contribute to lowering of production.

With prices continually firming recently, though mostly gradually, there is need for government to put in place incentives for production of tantalite, including exploration data and good local prices. While the multiplicative effects of a production boom as happened around 2003 due to the extreme price shocks are very significant, the continuous multiplicative momentum built from gradual and continuous firming of prices (which may not naturally elicit production booms) may imply better economic progress for the country. This would make the sector mature with the progress of the electronics industry, especially if deliberate efforts (as advocated by Maponga, 2001) are made towards value-addition. Maponga (2001),

however, notes that if processing facilities are to be put in place they should be supported by sufficient production levels to ensure a reasonable level of plant capacity utilization. In the case of production levels remaining insufficient, possibilities for regional collaboration could be considered.

It is also important to keep the tantalite sector ready to timely take advantage of any future boom, which possibility is high given that high tech is the way for the industry of the future. Any such boom would increase tantalite exports, which increases incomes for Zimbabweans, which in turn increases aggregate demand hence investment and employment. Employment effect would be both direct (increased labor in tantalite production) and indirect (increased labor in production of other goods as a result of increased aggregate demand).

Official marketing of tantalite has historically been done by the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ). However, on the ground the small isolated producers in the remote areas have no choice but to deal with shrewd middlemen. This could have contributed to the lowering of production. That is, at a time when world prices were rising, local middlemen were paying low prices, so that world prices failed to fully incentivize local producers. Some of the middlemen do not export through the official channels. Therefore, a lot of export revenue goes untaxed and expenditure multiplier impulses are not fully triggered because middlemen have high propensities to import luxuries. The impact on the economy would be greater if the MMCZ were to try to reach the small producers and give them a good price, because the small producers have high propensities to spend in the country. For an expanded argument on the issue of pricing and marketing, see Maponga (2001).

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BIOGRAPHY

Mr. Lyman Mlambo is a mineral economist at the Institute of Mining Research, University of Zimbabwe, and can be conducted at: Institute of Mining Research, University of Zimbabwe, P.O. Box MP167, Mount Pleasant, Harare, Zimbabwe. Email: lymlambo@science.uz.ac.zw.

Mr. Motive Mungoni is a lecturer in the Department of Mining Engineering, University of Zimbabwe, and can be contacted at: Department of Mining Engineering, University of Zimbabwe, P.O.Box MP167, Mount Pleasant, Harare, Zimbabwe. Email: mmungoni@eng.uz.ac.zw.

Daniel N.K. Johnson, Colorado College Kristina M. Lybecker, Colorado College Devin Nadar, Colorado College

ABSTRACT

The effect of spatial factors on competition and the price of gasoline have been sparsely explored by previous studies. Existing work has examined how gasoline prices differ based on distance from the distribution site as well as how cost factors influence gasoline prices. This study evaluates the impact of geographic density on price competition in the retail gasoline market. Drawing on market data from seven midsized-US-metro areas (Bakersfield, CA, Colorado Springs, CO, Pittsburgh, PA, Raleigh, NC, Toledo, OH, Tulsa, OK, and Wichita, KS), we analyze the effects of gasoline brand, neighborhood vs. highway location, retailer type, fuel grade and station-concentration within different geographic radii to determine the significance of each on retail gasoline prices. Recognizing that the spatial distribution of retail stations may influence prices in a nonlinear way, we include several measures of distance, ranging from distance-station counts (within a tenth to one mile radius), and simple numerical counts of stations within a mile, to an exponential Hirshman-Herfindahl-index-type measure. Our results confirm the intuition that stations facing greater geographic competition set lower prices while the other characteristics also have the expected signs. These results are robust across different measures of distance and all cities.

Koldo Zabalza, University of the Basque Country Jesús Matey, University of the Basque Country

SUMMARY

The privatisation of a firm entails a thoroughgoing process of reform that includes the introduction of new management practices. A review of the theoretical and empirical studies conducted allows us to confirm that a systematic analysis of the contextual, organisational and strategic factors that arise after a public company's privatisation does not exist. This study explores the changes in operations management that take place after a public company's privatisation. In order to confirm the theoretical propositions posed, the contemporary multiple case study was used as a research methodology, with a fundamental scientific approach based on analytical induction, through the replication logic (analytical generalisation), and partial deduction, since deductive processes can be generated to the degree in which we start from empirically verified theoretical proposals previously obtained from the theories reviewed. In particular, the changes experienced in the operations management area in four privatised Spanish companies were investigated (ENDESA, IBERIA, INDRA and TELEFÓNICA) along the lines of a longitudinal analysis that allowed us to ascertain the evolution of corporate management after a firm passes from public ownership into private hands.

The results of this study show that most theoretical propositions are confirmed or tend to be, according to the evidence shown by the firms in the sample. In addition, a comparative analysis of the different firms' behaviour by following the structure constructed on the basis of the four areas (location, quality, production process and innovation) leads to the conclusion that all these areas are relevant to the process of change in a privatised firm's operations management. The incorporation of the series of key factors in the process of change in operations management entailed in a public firm's privatisation makes it easier to progress towards a theoretical global analysis model of interest in conducting subsequent research in this field.

BIOGRAPHY

Zabalza, K., Department of Financial Economy II of the University of the Basque Country, San Sebastián, Spain. Email: koldo.zabalza@ehu.es

Matey, J., Institute of Applied Business Economics of the University of the Basque Country, Bilbao, Spain. Email: jesus.matey@ehu.es

BLENDED TEAMWORK. THE FACEBOOK EXPERIENCE

María Dolores Sánchez Fernández, University of A Coruña

ABSTRACT

The business world increasingly demands workers who can master new technologies to develop collaborative networking. Social networks are being used in business environments more and more, particularly the large incursion that the facebook network currently has. For these reasons it was decided to use different online tools, especially the facebook social network in combination with the usual face to face meetings for the development of teamwork by students belonging to the last year of the Bachelor of Business. The experience was intended to promote the development of practical work in a team of future workforce through the intensive use of new technologies for the performance of work and communication between the different members of the group. The results obtained which were far from the results expected were that students based themselves on the intensive face to face meetings carried out and telephone usage to the detriment of the use of new technologies, leading to aversion to the use of the facebook social network for collaborative work carried out.

JEL:A22; I23; M15

KEYWORDS: Blended Teamwork, facebook experience, collaborative networking

USING DYNAMIC CONTEX FOR KNOWLEDGE CREATION PROCESS IN FASHION INDUSTY

Farhad Hassani Mehraban, King's College London

ABSTRACT

In the knowledge economy, knowledge resources are the source of competitive advantage and the knowledge capital within firms has met worldwide attention. Nevertheless, there is a little understanding of the way which firms create knowledge in their relationships with the sources of knowledge. Although different software programs have been developed in order to integrate knowledge systems with different resources, in reality the importance of knowledge that provides dynamic contexts of multifaceted relationships are little understood by fashion companies. These dynamic contexts allow firms to create new knowledge from knowledge resides in market relationships. This research evaluates the process of knowledge creation used by fashion firms, which is the key function of the fashion industry's response. In this paper, dynamic context that support four knowledge exchange between knowledge sources that can be used to analyze different levels of interaction between fashion firms and the market players will be shown. Hence, a case study of fashion business between a multi-national company (MNC) and its franchise is used to illustrate the concept.

KEYWORDS: Knowledge creation, knowledge context, market knowledge, fashion industry

BIOGRAPHY

Farhad Hassani Mehraban, PhD Candidate, King's College London, Department of Management farhad.hassani_mehraban@kcl.ac.uk

TESTING THE VALIDITY OF OHSON MODEL (1995) ON THE ITALIAN STOCK EXCHANGE

Antonella Silvestri, University of Calabria Stefania Veltri, University of Calabria

ABSTRACT

The article belongs to the value relevance literature stream. Its main aim is to test the impact of the current and forward accounting variables on the firm's market value, by analyzing these relations on the financial sector of the Italian Stock Exchange. The article's objective has been pursued carrying out a multiple linear regression analysis, within a model inspired by the Ohlson model (1995). The model employed verified the research hypotheses for following stages by testing at first the impact of the current accounting variables, then of the forward ones on the firm's market value. The results of the analysis show that the relation between the accounting variables (current and forward) and the market price, after controlling for market risk, is fully proved on the Italian market, meaning that investors price accounting data in their firm's evaluation process. The article contributes to expand the number of empirical researches on the value relevance of accounting variables, by analyzing this theme on a Stock Exchange market not yet explored under this profile. The article's main originality consists in representing one of the first researches aimed to test the validity of the Ohlson model (1995) in its original version on the Italian market.

JEL: G14, G21, G22, M41

KEYWORDS: Value relevance, Ohlson model, analysts' forecasts, financial sector.

INTRODUCTION

The present work belongs to that strand of literature known as *Value Relevance Analysis* (VRA), which since 1995 has seen significant development, the objective of which is the estimation of the relevance of an accounting value in the determination of market value. (Courteau, 2008). The theory on which the study is based is represented by the Ohlson model (1995) - the main reference point in market based accounting research (Giner and Iniguez, 2006) - the success of which amongst accounting scholars is due to its development of a rigorous theory for firm evaluation in terms of accounting. Within the model, market evaluation is considered a function both of the fundamental accounting variables, and the "other information" variable (*v*), which contains all the information that affecting future firm profitability and thus market forecasts. Although the model has been subjected to several empirical tests, particularly in the United States, much is yet to be learnt on the market value/accounting values ratio in other geographical contexts, as well in as environments characterized by different forms of accounting regulation (Courteau, 2008). For the above reasons we have chosen to test the validity of the model on a national market, which presents different characteristics both in terms of size (number of quoted firms), and orientation- towards the market or towards banks (Brealey *et al.*, 2007). The present work had two aims:

1) to test the influence of accounting variables *earnings* and *book value* on the firm's market value; 2) to test the influence of future profitability (approximated by the financial analysts' forecasts on future earnings) on the market value of the firm. This was achieved by conducting a regression analysis with a model inspired by the original version of the Ohlson model (1995). The research model tested the hypotheses in stages: first by testing the impact of the accounting variables on market value, and later the impact of financial analysts' forecasts on market value. The findings confirm the existence of a positive relationship between accounting values and market values.

The analysis was focused on a particular area of the Italian capital market, the financial sector. The particular characteristics of this sector compared with others tend to induce market researchers to exclude it from their analysis. In the present study, by contrast, we focused our attention precisely on this sector in an attempt to see whether verify the Ohlson model holds valid in this context. The year considered closed on 31/12/2009. The choice of limiting the data to the 2009 financial year, is due to the willingness to verify if the relation between accounting and market values is still valid after the global financial crisis of 2008. The research favors the increase in knowledge both from a theoretical point of view and from the empirical one. As regards the theory, research contributes to the spread of the value relevance model in the Italian context which has not as yet enjoyed particular attention from scholars. From the empirical point of view, the study contributes to the growing number of empirical studies in the field of value relevance. The originality of the present work consists in its being one of the first studies in Italy which aims at testing the validity of the Ohlson model (1995) in its original version.

The paper follows a positive methodological approach which, as is widely known, grounds research on a fundamental theory from which research hypotheses are subsequently extrapolated and tested out in the context under examination. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly discusses the relevant literature on the Ohlson model (1995). Research hypotheses and research methodology are described in Section 3. Section 4 describes the better proxies for the risk, Section 5 illustrates the empirical model used, while Section 6 illustrates data selection. Section 7 provides analysis and interpretations of the empirical findings and Section 8 concludes the paper.

The Ohlson Model (1995): Theoretical Determinants

The Ohlson model (1995) is the best known of the models of value relevance aimed at formalizing the relationship between accounting values and firm value. This model constitutes a solid theoretical framework for market evaluation based on fundamental accounting variables (capital and income), as well as on other kinds of information which may be relevant in predicting firm value. Ohlson model (1995) is based on three main assumptions (Dechow *et al.*, 1999). The first considers firm's value as the actualization of expected dividends (*Dividend Discounted Model* – DDM); the second assumption, known as *Clean Surplus Relation* (CSR), establishes that all modifications to the value of net firm assets need to be reported as income or as dividends. The third assumption known as *Linear Information Dynamics* (LID), shows that the residual earnings in time (X_{t+1}^a) depend in part on the residual earnings of the previous year (X_t^a) , and partly on a series of other pieces of information (v_t), known to the market at time *t*, but not yet incorporated into the accounting system and, thus, excluded from the calculation of (X_t^a) . This assumption confers originality on the model and leads to its formulation in the way considered by the present study.

According to Ohlson, starting from DDM and combining the above mentioned assumptions, the market value of firm, expressed in unitary as the share price, can be written as follows:

$$P_t = B_t + \alpha_1 X_t^a + \alpha_2 v_t \tag{1}$$

Equation (1) shows how the value of a firm at any moment t is equal to the sum of three terms: its current net assets (B_t) , which depend on the current residual earnings (X_t^a) , and a term which depends on the information available through extra-accounting sources at time t, (v_t) . However, in order to use the Ohlson model (1995) as it is expressed in equation (1) in their regression analysis, researchers had to modify it as follows:

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$$P_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B_t + \beta_2 X_t^a + \beta_3 v_t + \varepsilon_t$$
(2)

The role of the intercept and the residual term (ϵ) is to capture that part of share price variation which is not explained by the variables on the right hand side of equation (2).

Lastly, as the regression models used in the study of value relevance often substitute residual earnings with net earnings, equation (2) can be re-written as follows:

$$P_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B_t + \beta_2 X_t + \beta_3 v_t + \varepsilon_t \tag{3}$$

The above equation is the most widely used by scholars in empirical research (Aboody, 1996; Amir and Lev, 2001; Barth *et al.*, 1999).

Focusing on the "other information" variable we note how up until 1998, all empirical researches based on the Ohlson model ignored the 'v' variable because of the difficulties entailed in its identification (Hand, 2001; Hand and Landsman, 1998). Few researchers took this variable into consideration, each following an intuitive and individual course rather than seeking to derive it from a formal rational process (amongst others, Amir and Lev, 1996; Ittner and Larcher, 1998; Myers, 1999; Dechow *et al.*, 1999; Barth *et al.*, 1999). Ohlson himself intervened in the debate in 2001 (Ohlson, 2001), clarifying that ignoring the 'v' variable reduces the model's empirical content and that, although the variable could be termed as a "mysterious" variable, it can be approximated with predictions of future earnings made by financial analysts. The authors of the present work therefore have chosen to apply the original version of the Ohlson model (1995) including the 'v' variable proxied as analysts' forecasts (Ohlson, 2001), since a recent empirical study (Giner and Iniguez, 2006) has shown that models based on the original version are able to explain share prices with greater accuracy and fewer distortions of the real data than more complex models, such as for example that of Feltham-Ohlson (1995).

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES AND METHODOLOGY

Following the theoretical framework of the Ohlson model described above and other studies which have empirically tested the value relevance of accounting variables (Gallizo and Salvador, 2006; Ragab and Omran, 2006; Mui-Siang Tan and Yeow Lim, 2007), the following research hypotheses were formulated:

H1: there is a positive relation between market value and book value;

H2: there is a positive relation between market value and earnings;

H3: there is a positive relation between market value and the analysts' forecasts on future earnings.

The methodology employed to verify the research hypothesis (H1-H3) was the econometric technique of multiple linear regression with the least squares method (*Ordinary Least Squares - OLS*). Firstly, the regression function used to test the research hypothesis is the following:

$$P_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B V P S_t + \beta_2 E P S_t + \beta_3 E P S_t^* + \varepsilon_t$$
(4)

It must be noted that the data used in the research is taken into consideration 'by shares' (i.e., divided by the number of shares in circulation), following a technique called scaling which was suggested by Ohlson himself (2000) in order to avoid distortions in the calculation of coefficients of the line of regression which may lead to misleading results (Courteau, 2008). According to the model expressed by equation (4), not only the Book Value Per Share (BVPS) and the Earning Per Share (EPS), but also the 'v' variable contribute to the share price; the latter variable should express facts known to the market at time t and not (yet) incorporated into the accounting system, but nonetheless able to affect future earnings. The decision

to render explicit the 'v' variable with the financial analysts' forecasts (EPS^{*}) is justified by the consideration that such information of a perspective nature summarizes the most relevant part of all the information of a non-financial nature which can have an impact on a firm's future performance (Zhang, 2002; Byard and Cebenoyan, 2007).

In order to assess the impact of the financial analysts' forecasts on share prices correctly, it is necessary to neutralize the action of other factors which affect both the dependent variable (P) and the explanatory variables referring both to actual balance sheets (BVPS and EPS) and future prospects (EPS^{*}). As is widely known, these are the factors which, from a statistical point of view, are known as control variables. In a model such as Ohlson's which puts relates the market value of shares of quoted firms to the fundamental accounting variables, amongst which their actual and future profitability, one cannot ignore the role played by market risk, given the fundamental relationship between risk and expected returns, and the implications of such a relationship both on market value (dependent variable) and on profitability (independent variable). Hence, in equation (4) we have inserted risk as a control variable:

$$P_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B V P S_t + \beta_2 E P S_t + \beta_3 E P S_t^* + \beta_4 risk + \varepsilon_t$$
(5)

The Definition Of The Better Proxies Of Risk

In order to define the better risk's proxies, we needed to define a) the model to which refer (monodimensional or multidimensional; b) the variables to choose as risk's proxies. The main reference model that theorized the risk-yield relationship is the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM), elaborated independently by Sharpe (1964) and Lintner (1965) which establishes a connection between the performance of a share and its riskiness, measured by a sole risk factor, known as beta (β). In 1993 Fama and French, on the basis of a series of empirical results which highlighted the inadequacy of the CAPM, perfected a multidimensional model of risk (three factor model) which takes into consideration, as well as the market *beta*, the other two variables: *size* and *book-to-market* in explaining share performance. Notwithstanding the fact that the debate on the validity of the CAPM is still far from resolved, and that the three factor model is still the object of empirical tests aimed at ascertaining whether results that hold for the American market are valid also in different contexts and time periods, in the article we followed a multi-factor risk approach. In detail, starting from Fama and French (1993) model and considering its application to the Italian context (Barontini, 1997; Beltratti and Di Tria, 2002; Bruni *et al.*, 2006; Brighi and D'Addona, 2008; Alesii, 2006; Aleati *et. al.*, 2000; Cavaliere and Costa, 1999), we choose the following risk's proxies: *beta, size* and *leverage*.

We choose to include *beta* as risk 's proxy is due to the key role played by beta in multidimensional models of risk assessment, even if results in the Italian sample provide mixed results with regards to its role in explaining share returns (Fama and French, 1993). The debate on the role of *size* as a risk factor (Banz, 1981) finds its most important motivation in the observation that small firms shares give greater returns than big firms. One of the most persuasive explanations of the phenomenon, which has been confirmed in different territorial contexts, is that the operators have information fluxes which are less consistent and accurate when dealing with smaller firms. Financial markets translate this high level of uncertainty into a higher risk and, as a consequence, higher demanded returns (Cavaliere and Costa, 1999). In the sample of studies examined, the relation between size and yield is more or less verified; the Italian market thus seems to consider this factor in risk analysis, and hence 'size' has been inserted amongst the explanatory risk variables. As regards the issue of size measurement, the chosen solution was that of expressing size through the most widely used indicator in econometric analysis, namely the number of employees to the firm's total turnover (Juma and Payne, 2004) as suggested by the European Commission (Recommendation 2003/361/CE). A natural risk proxy is, finally, constituted by firm *leverage*, for which Bandhari (1998) finds empirical evidence of its relation with firm revenue. We have

chosen to insert this variable in the present study for various reasons: a) in the financial sector it is not possible to disregard such a risk indicator; b) numerous studies on the Fama and French three factor model have inserted leverage as an additional variable (Derwall and Verwijmen, 2006); c) in agreement with Bandhari (1988) we believe that leverage can be seen as a catch-all proxy, useful when a risk measure is not known or cannot be adequately calculated. In the regression equation elaborated in the present study, leverage was measured through the total debts/total profit ratio. The reason of excluding the third Fama & French's risk factors, the *book-to-market* ratio, is due to the circumstance that this ratio has had alternate success in empirical studies, considered highly relevant for US firms, whereas in Italy several studies have been unable to prove the existence of a link between this indicator and share revenue (Barontini, 1997; Aleati *et al.*, 2000; Bruni *et al.*, 2006). This circumstance, and similar considerations demonstrated in numerous other studies (Reinganum, 1981; Banz, 1981; Banz and Breen, 1986) that size absorbs the value effect, has led us to use size as a proxy of the book-to-market effect.

Research Model

Research hypotheses (H1-H3) were tested in two subsequent stages: firstly, we verified the hypothesis relating to the existence of a positive relation between market value and book value (H1) and between market value and earnings (H2); then we verified research hypothesis H3 (the existence of a positive relation between market value and financial analysts' forecasts). The regression function used to test hypotheses H1 and H2 was determined starting from equation (5), in which we inserted the risk proxies as determined in the previous section:

$$P_{i,t+3} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B V P S_{i,t} + \beta_2 E P S_{i,t} + \beta_3 beta_{i,t} + \beta_4 size_{i,t} + \beta_5 leverage_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$
(6)

in which P stands for the share price of the i-nth firm at time t+3, β_0 represents the intercept, BVPS is the book value per share, EPS is the earning per share, beta is the systematic market risk index, size and leverage are firm-specific risk indicators; ε represents the error term, for which we consider a normal distribution, an average of zero and the absence of a correlation with the other variables in the model.

Given that there is a problem of time lag between the explanatory variables and the dependent variable, in that it takes time for accounting information to be incorporated into share prices, the latter were considered at the end of the first trimester of the period under consideration. Accounting explanatory variables (BVPS and EPS) and the risk variables, on the other hand, were taken on the 31/12 of the period under consideration.

The regression function used to test the three hypothesis in conjunction is synthesized by the equation (6), determined adding the financial analysts' forecasts (EPS^{*}) to the explicative variables:

$$P_{i,t+3} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B V P S_{i,t} + \beta_2 E P S_{i,t} + \beta_3 E P S_{i,t}^* + \beta_4 beta_{i,t} + \beta_5 size_{i,t} + \beta_6 leverage_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$
(7)

Sample Selection And Data Collection

The sample of firms selected to test the research hypothesis was made up of firms quoted on the Italian Stock Market which constitutes the so-called financial sector including banks, insurance companies (both life and non-life insurance) and firms from the "other financial services" sector. The Italian market was chosen for two reasons: 1) to obviate the current lack of empirical studies aimed at verifying the relations between market value and accounting values; 2) to test the validity of the Ohlson model on a market with significantly different characteristics to the Anglo Saxon ones (Courteau, 2008; Brealey *et al.*, 2007). One preliminary significant difference of the Italian market is that it is bank-orientated, whereas the US

market is rather decisively market-orientated, allowing firms to easier access to alternative sources of funding (Onado, 2008). Further, the national regulation system has a legislative matrix, whereas in the Anglo-Saxon markets accounting regulations are drawn up by experts in the sector; moreover, whilst in the Italian market we see a substantial connection between ownership and control of firms, the Anglo-Saxon markets are characterized by a wider ownership of the share capital (Courteau, 2008). Further peculiarities of the Italian market are identifiable in the high concentration of shareholders and the limited diffusion of a managerial culture amongst investors (Brealey *et al.*, 2007). The listed characteristics, together with the scarcity of empirical studies in the Italian context, have encouraged the authors to investigate the validity of the Ohlson model (1995) on the domestic market. In particular, the financial sector was chosen by the authors to fill the void in empirical market research which has excluded the financial sector from analysis.

The criteria followed for the sample selection were the following:

- 1. we included the firms quoted in the year 2009;
- 2. we took into consideration only firms not banned by regulators;
- 3. we eliminated observations relating to quoted firms in which one or more of the key variables necessary to the calculation of the indicators were missing.

The Italian financial sector taken into consideration thus consisted of 53 firms, 20 of which belonging to the banking sector, 8 to the insurance sector and 25 to the financial services sector. Owing to the amount of missing data, the final sample consisted of 30 firms, 15 of which belonging to the banking sector, 7 to the financial services sector and 8 to the insurance sector. Once the sample was defined, we proceeded with the collection of the necessary secondary accounting data through the widely used database *Datastream*. The data thus collected, before being re-elaborated in excel sheets, produced the input variables for the econometric model employed. To verify if the investigated relation is still valid after the financial crisis of 2008, we decide to refer our analysis to the only 2009.

REGRESSION RESULTS

The results of the regression analysis which tested research hypotheses H1 and H2 are shown in Table 1.

	Intercept (?)	BVPS (+)	EPS (+)	Beta (-)	Size (+)	Leverage (-)	\mathbb{R}^2	F
Price at 3 months	2.187 (1.19)	0.578 (7.72)***	7.579 (3.32)***	-0.115 (-0.10)	12.751 (0.93)	-0.068 (-1.41)	72.6%	37.40***

Table 1: Results of the regression equation (6)

The values in brackets show the t-test (the coefficient divided by the standard errors robust to heteroscedasticity); ***, **, * show 1%, 5% and 10% level significance, respectively.

Standard errors were corrected for the White test, which keeps in check heteroscedasticity problems; further, multicollinearity of the dependent variables, which could have an impact on the significance test, was tested through a correlation analysis, not included here, which revealed no problems of collinearity. The research hypothesis to be tested is whether investors include, in their firm evaluation, accounting information on the value of total assets (H1) and profitability (H2). As regards regression equation (6), the variables of interest are thus the value assumed by parameter β_1 and β_2 which should be positive and statistically significant if the research hypothesis is valid.

From the analysis of Table 1, it emerges that both hypotheses H1 and H2 appear to be demonstrated, as the book value per share (BVPS) and earnings per share (EPS) coefficients are significant (*p*-value <0,001) and they vary in the predicted direction (positive relation between assets value and firm

profitability, on the one hand, and market value on the other). Of the two coefficients, the EPS seems to be the more significant; lastly, the signs of the control variables seem to have been respected. The model appears apt to describe the relation between market value and the explanatory variables ($R^2 = 72\%$) and the diagnostic statistical F, which measures the overall significance of the coefficients together, is also significant. Table 2 shows the results of the regression analysis which tested research hypothesis H3.

In	tercept (?)	BVPS (+)	EPS (+)	EPS* (+)	Beta (-)	Size (+)	Leverage (-)	R ²	F
Price at 3 months	0.896 (1.78)*	0.110 (1.81)*	2.442 (2.07)**	10.054 (12.76)***	-0.250 (-0.64)	9.060 (2.77)**	-0.026 (-2.24)**	96.3%	150.78***

Table 2: Results of the regression equation (7)

The values in brackets show the t-test (the coefficient divided by the standard errors robust to heteroskedasticity); ***, **, * show 1%, 5% and 10% level significance, respectively.

Once again, the research hypothesis to be verified is whether investors include in their firm evaluation process information on future profitability, generally given by the predictions of market experts who make the information public in accordance with the regulations of CONSOB (National Commission to monitor companies listed within the Stock Exchange) and the Borsa Italiana (Italian Stock Exchange).

As regards the regression equation, the variable of interest is the value assumed by parameter β_3 , which is expected to be positive and statistically significant, if the research hypothesis is valid. As we can see from Table 2, the resulting data for the fundamental accounting variables (BVPS and EPS) appear robust to the inclusion of the EPS* variable. The value of the EPS* coefficient, which measures the future EPS predictions by financial analysts at the end of the considered period (31/12/2009), is highly significant and its value shows a direct and extremely close relation to market price. Compared with the regression variable which tests only the H1 and H2 variables, the control variables, as well as moving in the predicted direction, appear to be significant, with the exception *of beta*.

The inclusion in the model of the financial analysts' forecasts improves both the fit of the model to the collected data (R^2 =96%) and the conjoint significance of the coefficients, tested by the diagnostic F.

CONCLUDING CONSIDERATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of the analysis show that the relation between the accounting variables (current and forward) and the market price, after controlling for market risk, is fully proved on the Italian market, meaning that investors price accounting data in their firm's evaluation process. Such results are in line with those from other international studies, in which R^2 is between 70% and 90% (Courteau, 2008).

The choice to use the complete Ohlson (1995) model, inclusive of the "v" variable is justified by the consideration that investors, in evaluating firms, do not consider only current accounting information, but also information on the future firm's profitability. Therefore, to ignore the impact of thee last ones on the firm's market evaluation could have two negative consequences: 1) the limitation of the explicative power of the model, since it would ignore a variable as more relevant as the economic context are characterized by uncertainty and turbulence; 2) the statistical bias caused by the omission of an explicative variable of the model. The findings confirm the research hypotheses, since the R² of the model inclusive of the financial analysts' forecasts on the firm's profitability (H3 hypothesis) is bigger than the R² of the model which include only the current accounting variables. Moreover, the statistical diagnostic F, testing the conjoint significance of the explicative variables' coefficients is higher for the model inclusive of the H3 hypothesis. Moreover, these results can be considered a proof that the relation between accounting and market value is still valid after the financial crisis of 2008. Nevertheless, when considering the results

obtained in the paper we should exercise a degree of caution in drawing conclusions, both for the limited range of the data examined (referring only to the financial sectors) and for the brief time span (2009).

Potential improvements to the present study may see its extension to further sectors of the Italian Stock Market, as well as to widening the time periods and employing more sophisticated econometric models. Moreover, the variable relating to market expectations of future firm performance approximated in this work by the forecasts of financial analysts, could be refined to consider not just predictions on future performance, but also those on further relevant accounting variables such as the ones linked to book value. Finally, the present work may benefit from an in-depth examination of the issues linked to the choice of variables dealing with risk, i.e., integrating and placing them together with to the macroeconomic variables (interest rate performance, economic performance, ...) and/or considering further variables which have been successfully tested out in other empirical studies using the Ohlson model. As regards to the future research implications, the results can be seen as a preliminary verification of the validity of the Ohlson model in its original formulation on the Italian market.

Among the main research implications we can quote that a better understanding of the main drivers of the investors' decisions could have a considerable impact on the managers' decisions. In fact managers can influence the choice of the investors applying, time to time, the better accounting valuation criteria. Moreover, the knowledge of the criteria followed by financial analysts in doing forecasts for the future firm's profitability became crucial for managers to identify the elements to monitor to influence the future firm's performance.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Antonella Silvestri is actually researcher in Business Economics within the Faculty of Economics of University of Calabria. She can be contacted at: Department of Business Administration, University of Calabria, Ponte P. Bucci- 87036 Arcavacata di Rende (Cosenza) Italy, Email: antonella.silvestri@unical.it

Dr. Stefania Veltri is actually researcher in Business Economics within the Faculty of Economics of University of Calabria. She can be contacted at: Department of Business Administration, University of Calabria, Ponte P. Bucci - 87036 Arcavacata di Rende (Cosenza) Italy, Email: stefania.veltri@unical.it.

Michael Godfrey, University of Wisconsin Oshkosh Andrew Manikas, University of Wisconsin Oshkosh

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the introduction of sustainability concepts into a quantitative supply chain management course in management science. Specifically, we discuss an exercise using the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) for making sustainability project selection decisions. We focus on sustainability projects using a triple bottom line approach (economic, environmental, and social performance objectives). The multiple, conflicting objectives and the qualitative nature of the social performance objective require the use of multi-criteria decision-making. Our exercise requires only Excel and could be expanded to include more triple bottom line criteria.

JEL: I23, M11

KEYWORDS: Sustainability, Supply Chain Management, Management Science, Curriculum, Triple Bottom Line, Analytic Hierarchy Process

INTRODUCTION

Our Supply Chain & Operations Management department began integrating sustainability into our major in Fall 2006 with the introduction of a required course in Environmental Management as discussed in an earlier article (Godfrey & Manikas, 2009). The first widespread definition of sustainable development was presented in *Our Common Future* (World Commission on Economic Development, 1987, p. 8) in which sustainable development was described as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." Later, other authors, e.g., Elkington (1994, 1998), expanded the definition of sustainability to include the triple bottom line of economic, environmental, and social performance. Tan, Ahmed, and Sundaram (2010) presented a triple bottom line systems dynamic model for managing daily operations at a warehousing company. They recommended modeling the relationships between the triple bottom line measures: Economic issues (e.g., capital investment, warehouse rent, transportation cost, handling cost, packaging, information systems, hire cost, etc.); environmental issues (e.g., carbon minimization, recycling, solid waste, air pollution, water pollution, etc.); and social issues (e.g., health, safety, recruitment, retention, working hours, wages, job satisfaction, training, etc.).

Probably the least understood and under-researched of the three bottom lines is social performance. Mass and Bouma (as cited in Castro & Chousa, 2006) classified social performance under two categories: Internal measures (education, training, safety, health care, employee retention, and job satisfaction) and external measures (sponsoring, volunteer work, investment in society, and stakeholder involvement). Norman and MacDonald (2004) argued that it is impossible to calculate a sound social performance on various social performance measures into a single bottom line is problematic due to: (a) the question of what units to use to express social performance and (b) the manner in which social performance often is expressed—using percentages, which cannot be added or subtracted into a single meaningful measure. However, even though managers cannot calculate a bottom line for social performance, we propose that managers still could make value judgments and comparisons concerning which social justice objectives

are more important. Multi-criteria decision-making (and AHP in particular) is ideally suited for making these value judgments and comparisons.

This paper discusses the continued integration of sustainability concepts in our supply chain management curriculum. We have already added several sustainability exercises in our Manufacturing Planning & Control, Supply Chain Management, Supply Chain Strategy, and Advanced Quality Management courses. In the current paper, we outline the use of AHP for project selection decisions based on the triple bottom line. The remainder of this paper is sub-divided as follows. First, we present literature discussing how universities have integrated sustainability in their curricula, how business schools have integrated sustainability in their curricula, we provide a brief overview of using AHP for project selection and other multi-criteria decisions. Third, we present the in-class exercise using AHP. Fourth, we conclude with a summary of the AHP exercise.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sustainability & University Curricula

Educating students on sustainability topics came to the forefront when UNESCO declared 2005-2014 the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (Education for Sustainable Development). The Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (About ULSF) promotes sustainability education as a critical focus of teaching, research, and operations at universities worldwide (its members include more than 350 university presidents and chancellors from more than 40 countries who have signed the 1990 Talloires Declaration).

Moore (2005) made seven recommendations for sustainability at the university level: (1) Infuse sustainability into all university decisions, e.g., update the sustainability development policy, use sustainability as the overall goal of the university, and use the campus as living/learning laboratory; (2) Promote and practice collaboration, e.g., create incentives for collaboration, implement broader based admissions standards, and promote group work; (3) Promote and practice transdisciplinarity, e.g., increase program flexibility for undergraduate students, redesign programs, and promote reflection of worldviews; (4) Focus on personal and social sustainability, e.g., increase job security for lecturers, reduce workloads, and promote personal wellness; (5) Integrate planning, decision making and evaluation, e.g., by creating appropriate criteria for evaluation and rewarding of faculty; (6) Integrate research, service, and teaching, e.g., promote the scholarship of teaching and community service learning; (7) Create space for pedagogical transformation, e.g., create space and time for reflection, dialogue, and action. Regarding curriculum change at the university level, Kagawa (2007) cautioned that students strongly associate sustainability with environmental aspects; therefore, curriculum changes must demonstrate the connections between the other two aspects of sustainability-economic and social performance. Integration of sustainability in non-business curricula appears to be strong particularly in the engineering disciplines (El-Zein, Airey, Bowden & Clarkeburn, 2008; Lourdel, Gondran, Laforest, & Brodhag, 2005; Mulder, 2004). This is not surprising given engineering's influence in product design, process design, and project management.

Sustainability & Business School Curricula

As sustainability topics have become more prevalent in universities as a whole, those topics have filtered into business school curricula. For example, the Aspen Institute Center for Business Education (Beyond Grey Pinstripes, 2007-2008), in its most recent study of full-time 112 MBA programs accredited by AACSB, found that 35 of those MBA programs offer a special concentration or major that allows students to focus on social or environmental issues; however, the proportion of schools requiring content

in core courses regarding social and environmental issues remains low. Murray (2006) complained that sustainability topics are often taught as optional units rather than integrated into mainstream business courses. In another study, Biello (2005) listed sixty courses in sustainability offered in accredited graduate programs and in two non-accredited business schools (Bainbridge Graduate Institute and Presidio School of Management) that offer MBAs in sustainable business. Much of the literature concerning sustainability in business schools appears to focus on what skills students should develop and how to integrate sustainability into the curriculum. These topics are discussed below.

Some authors emphasize the development of students' skills when integrating sustainability into the business curriculum. For example, Kearins and Springett (2003) advocated that instructors develop the following skills in students: Reflexivity, critique, and social action/engagement. Reflexivity would require students to reflect on the personal and societal values that impact on personal and management decisions. Critique requires students to consider issues of power and ideology that shape a given reality, e.g., the way in which a company is organized, to challenge those issues, and to investigate organizational forms that are more democratic. Social action/engagement motivates students to think about ways in which they could act in a more sustainable manner and how they could facilitate making their broader environment more sustainable. Bradbury (2003) discussed experiential exercises in sustainability geared toward management, organization behavior and strategy courses.

The intent of these experiential exercises is to prod students into questioning what sustains their own lives, the lives of others close to them, and the organizations in which they work. The experiential exercises could be designed around case studies of companies that have implemented sustainability concepts, personal vision quests (walking around campus and pondering issues important to themselves), exercises that require students to reflect on their personal use of natural resources, and participating in projects to make an environmental improvement. Regarding research on integrating sustainability into undergraduate business curricula, Bridges and Wilhelm (2008) proposed a framework for integrating sustainability into a marketing curriculum. They discussed a 4Ps (product, price, place/distribution, and promotion) approach to curricula in sustainable marketing with which sustainability issues could be included in courses as the 4Ps are presented. Then, they described an MBA elective that they developed and their use of current readings and cases that focus on sustainability. Their future plans include adding an experiential learning activity to the course, creating a database of marketing internships with sustainable firms, requiring students to develop a marketing plan for making the university more sustainable, and starting a speaker series on sustainable marketing strategies.

More recently, Rudell (2011) described her experience with creating a green marketing course for undergraduates at Iona College. She found that her students' environmental consciousness was increased and that those students recognized the importance of their individual actions on the environment. Bates, Silverblatt, and Kleban (2009) discussed their experience with creating a new green management course at Florida International University (FIU). Their new course emphasized experiential learning and required students to conduct a sustainability audit at local firms. In addition, Bates, Silverblatt, and Kleban (2010) reported on the updating of the business environment management track at FIU. Administration at FIU originally had recommended deleting the track due to low enrollment. The authors analyzed other programs having the words sustainability or environment in their title and/or containing several courses in sustainability. Based on their study, they updated their curriculum to prepare students for green collar jobs in eco-tourism, green management, and green trade.

Sustainability & Supply Chain Management Curricula

Integration of sustainability topics in supply chain management courses appears to be just beginning, but promising. For example, Bandyopadhyay (2004) conducted a study of thirty supply chain management courses offered by AACSB accredited universities and identified fourteen key areas in those courses. Reverse logistics/green issues was one of the key areas listed. Roome (2005) reported on a Sustainability and Supply-Chain Management residency (module) offered by OneMBA, a consortium of five MBA programs located in Hong Kong, Brazil, Mexico, Europe, and the U.S. This module used three different types of pedagogy: (1) Lectures, (2) Experiential learning (cases, exercises, projects, and role playing), and (3) Visits to companies. We believe that our Supply Chain & Operations Management program is unique with its emphasis on sustainability throughout the curriculum. We share Doksai's (2010) belief regarding business schools being able to attract more students if they offer environmental courses.

Our Supply Chain & Operations Management program covers the breadth of topics in supply chain management, including sustainability. Our Supply Chain & Operations Management program also has included experiential exercises in sustainability, but unlike the studies reported by Rudell (2011) and Bates, Silverblatt, and Kleban (2009, 2010), we are not preparing our students primarily for green collar jobs, nor are we in the process of focusing exclusively on green in our major. Most of our graduates work for companies on our advisory board. While most of those companies engage in green activities, advisory board members primarily want us to prepare our students in the fundamentals of supply chain management and then to provide our students with environmental awareness. Over the last five years, we have not placed any of our Supply Chain & Operations Management students in positions focused solely on green, sustainability, or environmental management. Therefore, the intent of our program is to provide students with a solid knowledge of supply chain management concepts augmented with sustainability decision-making tools that they could use, for example, when sourcing products, designing production and warehousing facilities, and selecting projects.

USING AHP FOR PROJECT SELECTION & OTHER MULTI-CRITERIA DECISIONS

The analytic hierarchy process (AHP) was developed by Saaty (1999). AHP was designed to solve multicriteria problems and requires a decision maker to provide judgments about the relative importance of each criterion and to specify a preference for each decision alternative using each criterion. The result is a priority ranking of the alternatives based on the preferences of the decision maker (Anderson, Sweeney, Williams, & Martin, 2008). AHP has been used in a wide variety of project selection problems in the areas of information system project selection (Lee & Kim, 2000), business process improvement project selection (Kendrick & Saaty, 2007), selecting a nonprofit for donation (Ramirez & Saraoglu, 2011), and R&D project selection (Meade & Presley, 2002). Kendrick and Saaty (2007) discussed the use of AHP to select a project portfolio based on the alignment of those projects with the four perspectives of the balanced scorecard (financial, customer, operational, and human resources).

In-Class Exercise Using Ahp For Project/Supplier Selection

The project/supplier selection problem is presented in the appendix. The possibilities for triple bottom line project selection in supply chain management are numerous, for example, selecting a new supplier, locating a new plant or warehouse, selecting a smoking cessation program, selecting a wastewater treatment option, etc. Clearly, each of the aforementioned projects will affect economic performance, environmental performance within or outside of the facility, and social performance (effects on employees or the community). The exercise described in the appendix analyzes the selection of a new supplier. We assume that the project manager at the company specified the four criteria listed in the appendix and then estimated supplier performance on each of those criteria. As shown in Table 1, the

criteria focus on economic, environmental, and social performance objectives. Next, we follow the steps in AHP as described in Anderson et al. (2008).

Step 1: Develop a graphical representation of the problems in terms of the overall goal, the criteria, and the decision alternatives. This graph illustrates the hierarchy of the problem: the overall goal, the criteria, and the decision alternatives. The graphical representation of the problem is shown in Figure 1 in the appendix. There are four criteria and three decision alternatives. Note: An alternative approach when developing this figure could be to add an additional level of categories of selection criteria, e.g., economic, environmental, and social performance above the individual criteria (similar to the approach taken by Kendrick & Saaty, 2007). However, this approach adds to the complexity by requiring more pairwise comparisons and additional calculations.

Step 2: Establish priorities for the criteria. Here, the project manager must specify how important each criterion is relative to each other criterion. We use a comparison scale from 1 to 9 as shown in Table 2 in the appendix. Using this scale, we compare each criterion to every other criterion based on which of the criteria is more important than the other criterion in each pair. We need to perform six comparisons for the four criteria as shown in Table 3. We list which of the two criteria is more important, a verbal description of how much more important, and a numerical rating of that importance. Below is an explanation of the criteria and the ratings:

- 1. NPV includes cost increases and/or decreases in purchase cost, transportation costs, handling costs, landfill costs, etc. Positive values of NPV indicate improved performance.
- 2. % increase / decrease in hazardous waste: Positive values indicate an increase in the % sent to the landfill while negative values indicate a reduction in the % send to the landfill. Therefore, negative values indicate improved performance.
- 3. % reduction in lost workdays: We will assume that none of the alternatives considered will increase lost workdays. Therefore, higher positive values indicate improved performance.
- 4. The ability to increase the diversity of the supply base: We may use a surrogate measure for this, e.g., the number of female and minority employees at the supplier. Alternatively, we may use a qualitative scale of 1 100 to rate the diversity of the supplier. Here, we assume that we use the qualitative scale; therefore, higher positive values indicate improved performance on diversity.

Step 3: Complete the pairwise comparison matrix for the criteria. We take the values from Table 3 and start to fill in Table 4 as shown in the appendix. For example, Criterion 1 was described as extremely more important than Criterion 2. Therefore, we list a "9" in the table at the intersection of the row corresponding to the favored criterion (Criterion 1) and the column corresponding to Criterion 2. We do not need to compare a criterion to itself (we automatically enter a value of "1" in the row and column corresponding to that criterion). Therefore, each cell of the diagonal in the table will receive a value of "1." Next, we then complete the pairwise comparison matrix for the criteria in the remaining cells of the matrix. To show how these values are obtained, consider the numerical rating of "9" for the comparison of Criterion 1 – Criterion 2. We entered a "9" in the cell at the intersection of the row for Criterion 1 and the column for Criterion 2. At the intersection of the row for Criterion 2 and the column for Criterion 1, we enter the reciprocal of "9" = "1/9." We do this for each of the initial values that were listed in Table 4. The final pairwise comparison matrix is shown in Table 5.

Step 4: Synthesization. We use the pairwise comparison matrix from Table 5 to calculate the priority of each criterion in terms of the overall goal of selecting the best supplier. We use the following three-step procedure:

- 1) Sum the values in each column of the matrix from Table 5 (shown in Table 6). Note: It is easier to use Excel and to carry all values to three decimals when summing the values.
- 2) Divide each rating value in the matrix in Table 6 by its column total to derive the normalized pairwise comparison matrix (Table 7).
- 3) Average the values in each row of the normalized pairwise comparison matrix (Table 7) to derive Table 8 (Average of the Row Values of the Normalized Pairwise Comparison Matrix).

As shown in Table 8, synthesization provides the priority of each criterion based on the average values. Criterion 1 is most important with a priority of 0.588. Criterion 4 is second with a priority of 0.247. Criterion 3 is third with a priority of 0.106. Criterion 2 is least important with a priority of 0.060.

Step 5: Check the consistency of the pairwise comparisons. Pairwise comparisons should be consistent. For example, if we look at the final pairwise comparisons in Table 5, we see that the Criterion 4 – Criterion 2 comparison had a rating of 4 (Criterion 4 was rated as moderately to strongly more important). The Criterion 1 – Criterion 4 comparison had a rating of 3 (Criterion 1 was rated as moderately more important). Therefore, the comparison of Criterion 1 to Criterion 2 should have a numerical rating of 4 X 3 = 12. However, this comparison shows a rating of 9 and is inconsistent. How to calculate the overall measure of inconsistency across all pairwise comparisons requires determining a consistency ratio. A consistency ratio of 0.10 or less is considered acceptable. If we determine a consistency ratio greater than 0.10, we must review and revise the initial pairwise comparisons in Table 3. Anderson et al. (2008) recommend approximating the consistency ratio with the following approach:

Multiply each value in the first column of the pairwise comparison matrix (Table 5) by the priority of the first item (Criterion 1); multiply each value in the second column by the priority of the second item (Criterion 2); multiply each value in the third column by the priority of the third item (Criterion 3); multiply each value in the fourth column by the priority of the fourth item (Criterion 4). These calculations are shown below. After we have repeated this process for all columns, we sum the values across the rows to determine a vector of values called the "weighted sum" (intermediate calculations using Excel are shown in Table 9).

$$0.588 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1/9\\1/5\\1/3 \end{bmatrix} + 0.060 \begin{bmatrix} 9\\1\\2\\4 \end{bmatrix} + 0.106 \begin{bmatrix} 5\\1/2\\1\\3 \end{bmatrix} + 0.247 \begin{bmatrix} 3\\1/4\\1/3\\1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.399\\0.240\\0.426\\1.001 \end{bmatrix}$$

2) Divide the elements of the weighted sum vector above by the corresponding priority of each criterion.

Criterion 1: 2.399 / 0.588 = 4.080 Criterion 2: 0.240 / 0.060 = 4.000 Criterion 3: 0.426 / 0.106 = 4.019 Criterion 4: 1.001 / 0.247 = 4.053

3) Compute the average of the values above in 2). This average is denoted as λ_{max} .

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{4.080 + 4.000 + 4.019 + 4.053}{4} = 4.038$$

4) Compute the consistency index (CI) as follows (*n* = number of items being compared):

$$CI = \frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{n - 1} = \frac{4.038 - 4}{4 - 1} = \frac{0.038}{3} = 0.0127$$

5) Compute the consistency ratio, which is defined as CR = CI / RI, where RI is the consistency index of a randomly generated pairwise comparison matrix. The value of RI depends on the number of items being compared. Using the table provided on p. 678 of Anderson et al. (2008), RI = 0.90 for n = 4.

$$CR = \frac{CI}{RI} = \frac{0.0127}{0.90} = 0.0141$$

Given that the consistency ratio is less than or equal to 0.10, we consider this level of consistency acceptable.

Step 6: Perform the other pairwise comparisons to determine the priorities for each supplier alternative using each of the criteria. We use the scale shown in Table 10 to express pairwise comparison preferences for each supplier using each criterion one at a time. For brevity, we summarize the pairwise comparisons under each criterion in Tables 11, 12, 13, and 14. For example, if we look at the original data in Table 1, we see that using Supplier 1 leads to a net present value of -\$100,000 and using Supplier 2 leads to a net present value of \$25,000. Clearly, Supplier 2 is preferred on this criterion (NPV). How much is Criterion 2 preferred? That answer depends on the subjective judgment of the project manager. For example, the project manager may assign a value of 9 for extremely preferred.

Step 7: Synthesize each of the pairwise comparison matrixes for each criterion from the previous step. We follow the three-step procedure specified previously for synthesizing. The priorities for each supplier using each criterion are summarized in Table 15. In Table 15, we see that Supplier 2 is the preferred alternative based on Criterion 1 (0.6215), Supplier 2 is the preferred alternative based on Criterion 2 (0.557), Supplier 1 is the preferred alternative based on Criterion 4. No supplier is the clear favorite; therefore, one more step is needed as described below.

Step 8: Develop an overall priority ranking for the three alternatives. In this step, we weight each supplier's priority (Table 15) by the corresponding criterion priority (Table 8) as follows:

Overall Priority of Supplier 1: 0.588(0.066) + 0.060(0.320) + 0.106(0.648) + 0.247(0.623) = 0.281Overall Priority of Supplier 2: 0.588(0.615) + 0.060(0.557) + 0.106(0.122) + 0.247(0.137) = 0.442Overall Priority of Supplier 3: 0.588(0.319) + 0.060(0.123) + 0.106(0.230) + 0.247(0.239) = 0.278

Based on the overall priorities above, Supplier 2 is preferred, followed by Supplier 1 and then Supplier 3.

SUMMARY

This exercise demonstrated a tool (AHP) for analyzing decision alternatives based on triple bottom line criteria. To use AHP, the decision maker (project manager) had to compare criteria to each other to determine which were more important. Then, the decision maker had to compare the performance of different decision alternatives (suppliers) on each criterion. Finally, the decision determined an overall ranking of the three supplier alternatives. To teach AHP to our students in this course, we plan to provide them with a copy of the exercise contained in this paper along with the Excel spreadsheet used to perform the calculations.

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APPENDIX

BUS 342: AHP Exercise

Problem Description: Selecting a supplier and material to replace a current hazardous material used in the manufacture of a company's product.

Objective: To select a new supplier and material based on overall triple bottom line performance as described in the criteria listed below:

- 1) Economic Impact: Net present value (NPV) of total lifecycle cost
- 2) Environmental Impact: % increase / decrease in tons of hazardous waste sent to the landfill
- 3) Social Impact: % reduction in lost workdays due to issues when handling the material
- 4) Social Impact: Ability to increase the diversity of the company's supplier base

Table 1: Estimated Supplier Performance on the Criteria

Criterior		Supplier 1	Supplier 2	Supplier 3
1)	NPV	-\$100,000	\$25,000	\$-10,000
2)	% increase / decrease in hazardous waste	-5%	-6%	-3%
3)	% reduction in lost workdays	4%	2%	2.5%
4)	Diversity of supply base	80	60	65

Table 2: Comparison Scale for the Importance of the Criteria

	Numerical Rating
Verbal Judgment	C C
Extremely more important	9
	8
Very strongly more important	7
	6
Strongly more important	5
	4
Moderately more important	3
	2
Equally important	1

Note: Intermediate judgment are possible, e.g., strongly to very strongly more important, would receive a numerical rating of 6.

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Table 3: Pairwise	(omnaricone	of Criteria
$1 a \cup 1 \cup 1 \cup 1$, $1 a \cup 1 \cup 1 \cup 1$	Comparisons	or criteria

Pairwise Comparison	More Important Criterion	How Much More Important	Numerical Rating
Criterion 1 – Criterion 2	Criterion 1	Extremely	9
Criterion 1 – Criterion 3	Criterion 1	Strongly	5
Criterion 1 – Criterion 4	Criterion 1	Moderately	3
Criterion 2 – Criterion 3	Criterion 3	Equally to moderately	2
Criterion 2 – Criterion 4	Criterion 4	Moderately to strongly	4
Criterion 3 – Criterion 4	Criterion 4	Moderately	3

Table 4: Initial Pairwise Comparison Matrix of Criteria

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4
Criterion 1	1	9	5	3
Criterion 2		1		
Criterion 3		2	1	
Criterion 4		4	3	1

Table 5: Final Pairwise Comparison Matrix of Criteria

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4
Criterion 1	1	9	5	3
Criterion 2	1/9	1	1/2	1/4
Criterion 3	1/5	2	1	1/3
Criterion 4	1/3	4	3	1

Table 6: Sum of the Values from Final Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4
Criterion 1	1.000	9.000	5.000	3.000
Criterion 2	0.111	1.000	0.500	0.250
Criterion 3	0.200	2.000	1.000	0.333
Criterion 4	0.333	4.000	3.000	1.000
Sum	1.644	16.000	9.500	4.583

Table 7: Normalized Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4
Criterion 1	0.608	0.563	0.526	0.655
Criterion 2	0.068	0.063	0.053	0.055
Criterion 3	0.122	0.125	0.105	0.073
Criterion 4	0.203	0.250	0.316	0.218

Note: Looking at Criterion 1, 1.000/1.644 = 0.608, 0.111/1.644 = 0.068, etc.

Table 8: Average of the Row Values of the Normalized Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4	Avg. (Priority)
Criterion 1	0.608	0.563	0.526	0.655	0.588
Criterion 2	0.068	0.063	0.053	0.055	0.060
Criterion 3	0.122	0.125	0.105	0.073	0.106
Criterion 4	0.203	0.250	0.316	0.218	0.247

Table 9:	Weighted	Sum	Values
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	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4	Weighted Sum
Criterion 1	0.588	0.540	0.530	0.741	2.399
Criterion 2	0.065	0.060	0.053	0.062	0.240
Criterion 3	0.118	0.120	0.106	0.082	0.426
Criterion 4	0.196	0.240	0.318	0.247	1.001

Table 10: Comparison Scale for the Preference of Each Decision Alternative

Verbal Judgment	Numerical Rating
Extremely preferred	9
	8
Very strongly preferred	7
	6
Strongly preferred	5
	4
Moderately preferred	3
	2
Equally preferred	1

Table 11: Criterion 1 (NPV) Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Supplier 1	Supplier 2	Supplier 3
Supplier 1	1	1/9	1/5
Supplier 2	9	1	2
Supplier 3	5	1/2	1

Table 12: Criterion 2 (% Increase/Decrease in Waste) Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Supplier 1	Supplier 2	Supplier 3
Supplier 1	1	1/2	3
Supplier 2	2	1	4
Supplier 3	1/3	1/4	1

Table 13: Criterion 3 (% Reduction in Lost Workdays) Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Supplier 1	Supplier 2	Supplier 3
Supplier 1	1	5	3
Supplier 2	1/5	1	1/2
Supplier 3	1/3	2	1

Table 14: Criterion 4 (Diversity of Supplier Base) Pairwise Comparison Matrix

	Supplier 1	Supplier 2	Supplier 3
Supplier 1	1	4	3
Supplier 2	1/4	1	1/2
Supplier 3	1/3	2	1

Table 15: Priorities for Each Supplier using Each Criterion

	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Criterion 4
Supplier 1	0.066	0.320	0.648	0.623
Supplier 2	0.615	0.557	0.122	0.137
Supplier 3	0.319	0.123	0.230	0.239

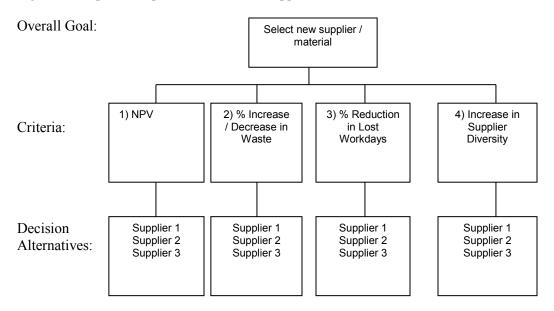


Figure 1: Graphical Representation of the Supplier Selection Problem

HOUSEHOLDS' RESPONSE TO ECONOMIC CRISIS

Petr Jakubík, European Central Bank and Charles University in Prague

ABSTRACT

This paper studies the economic impact of the current global economic downturn on the household sector. Household budgets can be negatively affected by declines in nominal wages and increases in unemployment. We empirically test this effect for the small open emerging economy. As a result of a lack of individual data on household finances, micro data are simulated. Our analysis clearly shows that there is a significant additional decline in consumption related to an increase in household default rates and unemployment. We find that potential household insolvencies have important implications for the financial system as well as for the macroeconomy.

JEL: G28, G32, G33, G38

Key words: credit cycle, households' distress, insolvency, household default, aggregate consumption

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The findings, interpretations and conclusions expressed in this paper are entirely those of the author and do not represent the views of any of the author's institutions. Financial support from the IES (Institutional Research Framework 2005-2010, MSM0021620841), The Grant Agency of Charles University (GAUK 2009/47509 –"Decomposition of securities' market prices into risk parameters" and The Czech Science Foundation (GACR 403/10/1235 Institutional Responses to Financial Market Failures) is gratefully acknowledged.

INTRODUCTION

There are numerous studies that address household financial distress. Some investigate the main drivers of the insolvency risk and try to link them to the macroeconomic environment while others focus on the effects of adverse macroeconomic scenarios on household consumption. Of note is that only a few studies discuss the household credit cycle as a whole. The lack of research on this issue is largely related to insufficient household statistics on structured balance sheets and consumption.

The ongoing economic crisis has a negative effect on household balance sheets and can cause financial distress. This paper aims to assess the impact of the economic recession on a household's finances by taking their debt burden into account and evaluating the negative feedback on the aggregate economy via reduced consumption. This is of particular importance from the government's perspective, as household insolvencies can significantly reduce government revenue and increase the need for social spending.

The next section contains a literature review on household distress, insolvency triggers and the impact of adverse macroeconomic scenarios on a household's balance sheet. Section 3 discusses the modeling framework and presents a model for a single household mortgage default. It also looks at the impact of an adverse macroeconomic scenario on aggregate consumption. Section 4 contains a description of the available data for the Czech economy. The empirical results are presented in section 5, and the final section summarizes and concludes.

RELATED LITERATURE

A number of studies address the issue of household insolvency and focus specifically on the main drivers. The recent financial turmoil and subsequent economic recession provide additional incentive for creditors as well as regulators to deal with the issue. Four main streams of research can be identified. The first looks at household default prediction, using a traditional insolvency framework. The second focuses on the impact of household defaults on the financial sector within a stress test framework for evaluating the potential negative effects of adverse macroeconomic scenarios. The third focuses on the optimal legal framework to deal with individual insolvencies. The fourth addresses the credit cycle and consumption.

The first group of studies focus on household default prediction. Peter and Peter (2006) investigate the main drivers of household default. To this end they developed a risk management model for the Australian economy, using micro data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics. DeVaney and Lytton (1995) chose to focus on household insolvency by applying a predictive model and using financial ratios to identify insolvent households. They discuss the implications for monitoring household solvencies and present a response to insolvencies. Herrala and Kauko (2007) present a micro simulation model of household distress. They use a logit analysis to estimate the extent to which a household's risk of being financially distressed depends on net income after tax and loan servicing costs. The impact of the assumed macroeconomic shocks on the net income is calculated at the household level. Their micro simulation model is used to simulate both the number of distressed households and their aggregate debt in various macroeconomic scenarios. Del-Rio and Young (2005) examine how attitudes towards unsecured debt are related to household finances and other characteristics, using a British Household Panel Survey. This analysis suggests that the main causal factors for problems relating to debt are the unsecured debtincome ratio, the level of mortgage income gearing, the level of households' financial wealth, and their health, ethnicity and marital status. They also concluded that the increase in levels of indebtedness of young people was the main factor driving the greater tendency to report debt related problems.

The second research stream tries to evaluate the impact of household defaults on the financial sector under adverse macroeconomic scenarios. Kadeřábek, Slabý and Vodička (2008) modelled household default probability as a function of macroeconomic variables, such as wages, unemployment and interest rates. They further employed an estimated model within the stress test framework by applying exogenous stress scenarios for the development of these indicators. The authors pointed out that stress-sensitivity of default probability is mainly driven by the installment-to-income ratio and loan maturity. Jakubík, Schmieder (2008) estimated macroeconomic models for forecasting household default for the Czech and German economics. They employed these models to stress test banking portfolios and pointed out that macroeconomic indicators alone have limited use in explaining household defaults. Moreover Jiménez, Saurina (2006) found strong empirical support for a positive lagged relationship between rapid credit growth and loan losses. Their study contains empirical evidence of lax credit standards during boom periods, in terms of screening of borrowers as well as collateral requirements and loan losses. They advocate a regulatory prudential tool based on a countercyclical, or forward-looking, loan loss provision that takes into account the credit risk profile of a bank's loan portfolios across the business cycle.

The third group of studies focuses on the optimal legal framework. Li and Sarte (2006) study the implications of US personal bankruptcy rules for resource allocation and welfare. They found that the complete elimination of bankruptcy provisions can cause a significant decline in output and welfare as it reduces capital formation and labor input. Feibelman (2009) pointed out that the deepening of consumer finances promotes growth and development in emerging markets. His research stressed the importance of consumer bankruptcy law as an effective form of regulation to address the problem of over-indebtedness. He calls for emerging economies to consider adopting a consumer bankruptcy system or modernizing their existing regimes.

The fourth research group focuses on consumption and economic growth, employing credit cycle models. Chang, Hanna, Fan (1997) presented and empirically tested a three-period model for optimal consumption. The latter suggests that many US consumers without sufficient levels of liquid assets may be acting rationally. Elmer and Seeling (1998) combine the issue of consumption and solvency. They proposed a theoretical model for a single family mortgage default and investigated events that could trigger defaults within this framework. McCallum (1988) applies an evaluation of strengths and weaknesses of the real business cycle approach to the analysis of macroeconomic fluctuations. Tudela, Young (2005) using an overlapping generation model to explain rising household indebtedness. They also investigate the impacts of various events, such as a fall in house prices, a fall in pension income, and an increase in interest rates, on household wealth, indebtedness and consumption. Evidence of a positive effect of wealth on Italian households' consumption was found by Bassanetti, Zollino (2008), and the influence of income distribution in modeling aggregate consumption expenditure was analyzed by Chakrabarty, Schmalenbach and Jeffrey (2006). For the Netherlands, the impact of financial capital losses relative to gains on household savings and consumption is investigated by Berben, Bernoth and Mastrogiacimo (2006). Their results suggest that households react more strongly to capital losses than to capital gains. Thus, the failure to take this asymmetry into account could seriously influence estimates of marginal propensity to consume from wealth. Effects of banking and currency crises on consumption in 19 OECD countries are estimated by Barrel, Davis and Pomerantz (2006). Their results show that consumption plays an important role in the adjustment following a crisis and that the effects are not fully captured by the impact of crises on the standard consumption determinants, i.e. income and wealth. Additional effects, attributable to factors such as time-varying confidence, uncertainty and credit rationing, are aggravated by high and rising leverage, despite financial liberalization and easing of liquidity constraints. High leverage in some countries implies that banking crises could have a greater incidence than in the past.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Households are usually affected by an adverse negative economic scenario with some time lag, but the impact is more persistent than in the corporate sector. As a consequence of an economic crisis, firms reduce production to cope with declining aggregate demand. To do so, they need to reduce the labor force or decrease wages. However, the wages are usually "downward sticky"; so that firms need to make employees redundant. Alternatively, they could reduce the variable part of salaries such as bonuses or other benefits. As employees become unemployed they also become dependent on social benefits. Moreover, if they are indebted they are not able to cover their current payments with their current income. Thus, if they are not able to find employment, the only solution is to use their savings. In the end this provides a temporary solution that postpones their insolvency.

Single-household Mortgage Default

To investigate household insolvency, we consider a three period pure exchange model with no taxes, as e.g. in Elmer and Seelig (1998). Individuals are endowed with initial income (y_0) and invest in real estate equity (p_0) , financed by a fixed-rate mortgage (m_0) at time 0. It could further be assumed that rents earned from real estate equity are fully consumed in the period received and that periodic consumption (c_t) is the recorded net of these earnings. Unsecured borrowing (b_t) is a residual that smoothes out intertemporal consumption. However it can also be positive, and in such case it is interpreted as savings in the form of a deposit. Initial income, the value of investment in real estate equity and the interest rate (y_t, p_t, i_t) are known, but may differ from their future realized values. An individual chooses his optimal life cycle consumption pattern as follows:

$$\max U(c_0, c_1, c_2)$$

(1)

S.T. $c_{0} = y_{0} - (p_{0} - m_{0}) + b_{0}$ $c_{1} = y_{0} - m_{0}i_{0} - b_{0}i_{0} + b_{1}$ $c_{2} = y_{0} + (p_{0} - m_{0}(1 + i_{0})) - (b_{0} + b_{1})(1 + i_{0})$ $c_{0}, c_{1}, c_{2} > 0,$

This model can easily be extended to include any arbitrary number of periods (see Fama and Miller (1972) or Hirschleifer (1970) for further details). Within this framework, a key role is played by uncertainty about future income, interest rates and house prices. An adverse change in these variables increases the possibility of exercising the option to refinance a mortgage (R) or default (D). The strategic option to default is chosen if the default transaction costs exceed a present value of interest savings in case of mortgage refinancing. If the refinance and strategic default options fall out of the money, then the period 0 debt remains and the revised choice (1) can be reformulated to a two-period optimization problem with debt constraints from prior commitments:

$$\max U(c_{0}, c_{1}, c_{2})$$
(2)
S.T.
$$c_{1} = y_{1}^{'} - m_{0}i_{0} - b_{0}i_{0} + b_{1}^{'}$$
$$c_{2}^{'} = y_{1}^{'} + (p_{1}^{'} - m_{0}(1 + i_{0})) - b_{0}(1 + i_{0}) - b_{1}^{'}(1 + i_{1}^{'})$$
$$c_{1}^{'}, c_{2}^{'} > 0,$$

We further focus on the situation of an adverse macroeconomic shock and its impact on household income. In our model framework, the consumer must at least cover the debt obligations in both periods. We further assume a shock to income $y'_1 \rightarrow 0$ + holding interest rate and house prices constant. Solvency in period 1 requires borrowing against period 2 wealth at least in the amount of $m_0i_0 + b_0i_0$, and thus a household defaults if

$$p_{0} - m_{0}(1+i_{0}) - b_{0}(1+i_{0}) - (m_{0}i_{0} + b_{0}i_{0})(1+i_{0}) > 0$$

$$b_{0}(1+i_{0})^{2} > p_{0} - m_{0}(1+i_{0})^{2}$$
(3)

that is, borrowing from previous periods exceeds homeowner equity. It is quite an expected result. If an individual cannot meet his obligation, he can still sell owned real estate in order to avoid default. However, he will default if the value of his equity does not cover his debt obligation.

This simple framework can help us to understand the basic default trigger based on the shock to income. But in practice things are more complicated, as mortgages can have different maturities, which implies different annuities, and a mortgage is usually paid back in fixed monthly instalments. We also need to calculate disposable income as income purged of living costs. Moreover, Herrala, Kauko (2007) define household distress as a situation where the increment in household surplus (income diluted by debt service payment), via the incurrence of new debt, is smaller than the minimum level of consumption. They assume that households can temporarily sustain consumption by taking more debt or running down their stocks of liquid assets.

Impact of Adverse Scenario on Aggregate Consumption

From the creditor's point of view, a precise estimation of future household default is one of the most challenging issues. On the other hand, the objective of financial regulators is to assess the future course of the economy and the potential threat to financial stability. Households' inability to meet their financial obligations results not only in higher default rates and losses for the financial sector but also as in a significant decline in household consumption, which has a negative effect on the aggregate economy. To estimate this impact we can use a simple Keynesian framework (see e.g. Romer (1996))

$$C = C_0 + cY, \tag{4}$$

where C denotes aggregate consumption, C_{θ} autonomous consumption, c marginal propensity to consume and Y disposable income. We further assume an adverse macroeconomic scenario corresponding to declines in gross domestic product and disposable income. Then a decline in consumption can be expressed as

$$\Delta C = c \Delta Y \,, \tag{5}$$

where Δ is the operator for change in level. However, in the case of a significant increase in household default rates, there is an additional feedback effect of household insolvency on aggregate consumption. Hence, the decline in consumption calculated via formula (5) can be considerably underestimated due to the underestimation of the marginal propensity to consume.

To better estimate the impact of a decline in disposable income on consumption, we can simply divide consumers into two groups – defaulted [proportion d] and non-defaulted [(1-d)]. Then, aggregate consumption can be expressed as

$$C = dC_d + (1 - d)C_n \tag{6}$$

where C_d denotes consumption of the defaulted and C_n non-defaulted households. Using this formula, the decline in consumption in response to the decline in disposable income or GDP can be derived. Using the Keynesian formula, we assume that consumers reduce their consumption proportionally to the decline in disposable income, which corresponds to the decline in GDP. If we further assume that disposable income of the defaulted household group is equal to zero in the limit, then their consumption is equal to the autonomous consumption related to the necessary living expense:

$$C = dC_d + (1-d)C_n = d * C_0 + (1-d)(C_0 + cY) = C_0 + (1-d)cY$$
(7)

In the case of an adverse macroeconomic scenario, GDP or disposable income declines and the household insolvency rate increases. Aggregate consumption is influenced by both these effects and can be easily derived from formula (7).

$$\Delta C = c[(1-d)\Delta Y - \Delta d(1+\Delta)Y)]$$
(8)

We see from equation (8) that for small changes in household insolvency, we can omit the second term in formula (8), but for significant changes, it can play an important role and the omission of the second term can cause a significant underestimation of the decrease in consumption.

If we further take into account that the marginal propensity to consume could significantly differ for the unemployed and employed consumers, we can reformulate equation (7) for the aggregate consumption as

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$$C = C_0 + (1 - d)(uc_U Y + (1 - u)c_E Y)$$
(9)

where c_U and c_E are the marginal propensity to consume for the unemployed and employed consumers and u is the unemployment rate. In the case of an adverse macroeconomic scenario, we need to also take into account, together with the change in GDP and the change in household default rate, the change in the unemployment rate, to calculate the effect on aggregate consumption. Formally, after some derivation we obtain the formula (10).

$$\Delta C = (1-d)[u(c_U - c_E) + c_E]\Delta Y + [(c_U - c_E)(\Delta u - d\Delta u - \Delta du - \Delta d\Delta u) - \Delta dc_E](1+\Delta)Y$$
(10)

We see from equation (10) that - in the absence of a significant difference between marginal propensities to consume for unemployed and employed consumers - formula (10) resembles formula (8). Formula (10) reveals that, with a significant difference between marginal propensities to consume for unemployed and employed consumers, a change in the unemployment and default rates can have a marked impact on the change in aggregate consumption.

AVAILABLE DATA

The limiting factor in modeling household insolvencies is usually the availability of the appropriate data. To estimate the household default rate we would need to know more about the distribution of income and the debt burden across the population. Furthermore, we would need an estimate of the necessary living expenses as well as information on interest rates on loans to households. We empirically tested the transmission channels for the Czech Republic as a small open and emerging economy. Unfortunately, the relevant data are not available in this case. We have neither micro data nor sufficient information on the income distribution. Thus we make a simplifying assumption to deal with this problem.

The Czech Statistical Office is the main data source for Czech household statistics. Apart from that, the Czech National Bank provides some additional statistics on the aggregate bases such as household financial assets, banking and non-banking loans to households. Moreover, the average bank interest rates on consumption and housing loans to household are published by the Czech National Bank. Some additional characteristics of the mortgage markets can be obtained from Fincentrum Hypoindex. However, micro data are available only from the Czech Statistical Office. These statistics are based on household surveys and include some characteristics of households. In connection with household insolvency, they provide information on household net income but not on characteristics of the debt burden except for binary (yes/no) information such as whether the given households have mortgages. Moreover, the debt burden related to consumer loans is not covered by these statistics. Another serious disadvantage is the relatively long lag; for example, the latest statistics are based on information collected in the year before the last complete year. This lack of appropriate statistics causes difficulties in making estimations.

The income distribution of households with and without mortgages reveals that the indebtedness of low income Czech households is relatively limited. The income distribution of households with a mortgage is positively skewed compared to that of households without a mortgage.

Based on statistics from Fincentrum Hypoindex, we see that since 2006 the average value of mortgage loans has been rising over time, but the rise is less than that in residential property prices (see Table 1). We also find slower growth in nominal wages compared to changes in residential property prices in the same period. This reflects the fact that owner-occupation is becoming less accessible to Czech households

over time. Although the income situation had been improving until 2008, it still did not compensate for the increase in residential property prices. At the end of 2008, banks started to tighten credit standards due to the ongoing economic recession. The increasing uncertainty about future income together with the resultant negative expectations of households caused a rapid slowdown in credit growth. Moreover, the economic decline which started in 2008 is reflected in an increase in household sector credit risk.

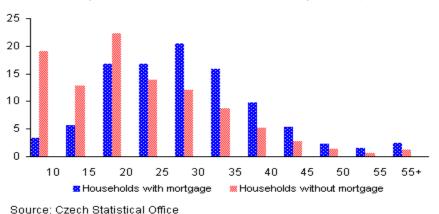


Figure 1: Household income distribution (Statistics of Family Accounts 2007) (x axis: monthly household net income, CZK 1000; y axis: %)

Table 1: Average mortgage loan

	2005	2006	2007	2008	03/2009
Average mortgage loan (end of period, in ths.CZK)	1412	1450	1707	1766	1802
Growth of average mortgage loan (in %)	11.4	2.7	17.7	3.5	2.0
Change in residential property prices (y-o-y, in %)	6.0	10.4	18.9	12.5	
Growth of average gross monthly nominal wage (y-o-y, in %)	5.3	6.5	7.3	8.5	-2.6
Consumer price Inflation (end of period, in %)	2.2	1.7	5.4	3.6	2.3
Source: Fincentrum Hypoindex					
Note: 03/2009 correspond to quarterly change					

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

To evaluate the impact of the economic crisis on the household sector, we focus mainly on the income transmission channel that was most important for the Czech economy in the post-crisis period. Although we have information on the historical distribution of household net income, the rest of the statistics are available on the aggregate level only. Due to the lack of micro data on household balance sheets, we employ aggregate data from a bank credit registry and a one factor model to link the household insolvency to key macroeconomic variables (see model specification e.g. in Jakubik (2007), Hamerle, Liebig, Scheule (2004) and Appendix). Econometric models which employ macroeconomic indicators to explain household insolvency or default rate include e.g. Rösch, Scheule (2007), Kadeřábek, Slabý, Vodička (2007), Jakubík, Schmieder (2008) or Danmarks Nationalbank (2007). They employ as dependent variables indicators e.g. GDP, unemployment, wage growth, household income, interest rates, or indebtedness of the household sector. Some other studies directly link banks' provisions, which should ideally capture expected losses with an macroeconomic indicator (see e.g. Pain 2003). Moreover Trück, Rachev (2005) investigated the effects of changes in migration matrices on credit portfolio risk in terms of expected losses and value-at-risk.

Our data include total recent past-due loans, which was used to proxy the credit default rate. The indicator for household credit risk was calculated based on new 3-month past-due loans. However, the only short time series for the household sector covered the period 3Q/2007-3Q/2009. Although these data were available at monthly frequency, for some macroeconomic variables, such as GDP growth, only quarterly data were available. In order to estimate the model on the basis of such a short time series, we used monthly data and linear interpolation for GDP growth and its components such as consumption. The model was calibrated by maximizing a likelihood function (see Appendix). In line with economic theory, we considered macroeconomic variables which can drive household insolvency and whose forecasts are published by the Czech National Bank. Automatic selection based on stepwise regression minimizing residual sum of squares was used to find the combination of variables with the greatest prediction power and optimal time lag. Moreover, we ensure that coefficients have signs in line with economic theory. Our final non-linear model is able to explain relatively well the historic household default rate pattern. According to our results, Czech household default rates can be explained by lagged real GDP growth, changes in the unemployment rate, lagged nominal wage growth and changes in interest rates (see equation (11) and Table 2, where the lags are in quarters and ψ denotes the cumulative normal distribution function, and, for model performance, Figure 2 of the Appendix, One-factor Model with Default Barrier Depending on Macroeconomic Environment).

$$df_{t} = \psi(c + \beta_{1}gdp_{t-4} + \beta_{2}(u - u_{t-1}) + \beta_{3}w_{t-1} + \beta_{4}(r_{t-3} - r_{t-4}))$$
(11)

Table 2: Macroeconomic model for Czech household sector

Description of variable corresponding to estimated coefficient	Notation	Estimate	Standard error	Pr> t
Constant	С	-2.127	0.015	<.0001
Real GDP growth (β_1)	gdp_{t-4}	-0.028	0.003	<.0001
Change in unemployment $(\beta_{\check{e}})$	$u - u_{t-1}$	0.012	0.004	0.009
Nominal wage growth (β_3)	W _{t-1}	-0.012	0.001	<.0001
Change in interest rate (β_4)	$r_{t-3} - r_{t-4}$	0.034	0.007	0.0001
Note: The lag length is in quarters.				

Our results showed that lagged real gross domestic product growth negatively affects default rates. Moreover, a decrease in lagged nominal wage growth, an increase in the unemployment rate and an increase in lagged interest rates each have positive effects on household insolvencies. Our model captures both the asset and liabilities side of households' balance sheet. While unemployment and nominal wages impact household income, interest rates influence household financial costs. Real GDP is used as a proxy for factors affecting disposable income not covered by the previously mentioned indicators. Household financial distress or default can be defined as a situation where a debtor is not able to service its outstanding debt. In such case, the household's disposable income is negative.

Nevertheless, the model based on individual data is usually able to better explain household defaults. Peter and Peter (2006) identify five groups of mortgage default determinants that relate to the following: income, credit history, macroeconomics, borrower location, and demographics. They pointed out that although the most important cause of mortgage default is a fall in household income, the other factors may also be important for future default estimation.

Decrease in Nominal Wages

Given the sharp fall in economic activity related to the economic crisis, the potential decrease in nominal wages (see Table 1) can be regarded as a relatively plausible scenario for the Czech economy. For this

reason we try to identify a decrease in household nominal income that would cause a massive increase in loan defaults by households at the aggregate level and prompt a collapse of the mortgage market. Although individual data on household indebtedness are not available, the recently published survey of the Czech Statistical office revealed that about 10% of Czech households are repaying mortgage loans and roughly 20 % are repaying consumer credit. This means that a significant part of the population is involved and renders the issue an important one for analysis.

To quantify the effects of wage shocks, we consider two variants of a typical indebted household. In the first case, the household is only repaying a mortgage loan and in the second case it is repaying both a mortgage loan and a consumer loan. These are being repaid in regular monthly installments. For both variants we assume a family corresponding to the typical mortgage recipient in the Czech Republic. According to CZSO data, this is most often a household with two economically active members and one child. The main breadwinner is a 39-year-old man with a secondary education. His partner is a 33-yearold employee or housewife with a secondary or basic education. Essential living costs can be estimated on the basis of the household budget statistics on expenditures on food, clothing, housing, health, transport and restaurants. These expenditures can alternatively be estimated as the sum of the minimum subsistence amount and normal housing expenses, as stipulated in a government order of 16 December 2008. In both cases, the estimated amount is about CZK 15,000. As micro data reflecting the current situation are not available, we use micro data simulation to model household income, assuming a normal distribution with mean and standard deviations based on the available aggregate statistics. Although, we are fully aware of the non-normality of household income (see Chart 1), with a host of other simplifications and assuming only households with mortgages, this should not significantly bias our results. Furthermore, we assume that each household is repaying a mortgage loan corresponding to 5 years of income with a maturity of 20 vears, where household income is sufficient to cover monthly installments and minimum living costs. This reflects common banking practice for the mortgage granting process in the Czech Republic. If household income is not adequate, the maturity is prolonged to a maximum of 30 years. If that is still not enough, the household is not granted a mortgage loan. The interest rate is assumed to correspond to the average rate on mortgages at the end of 2009.

In the second variant, we additionally consider the repayment of a consumer loan of up to CZK 100,000 with 5-year maturity and an interest rate corresponding to the average rate on such credit at the end of 2009. The amount of the consumer loan is set so that the household is able to cover the monthly payment. If household income is not sufficient to cover the monthly mortgage payment and essential living costs, a consumer loan is assumed not to be granted.

For both variants we test the impacts of a wage shock on hypothetical family budgets in relation to initial nominal incomes. We can formulate a household surplus, which is available for consumption, in line with model (1).

$$S = Y - I - MC, \tag{12}$$

where S denotes the household surplus, Y household net income, I the loan installment that household is committed to and MC household's essential living costs. We define household distress as a situation where the household surplus is close to zero and the household is only able to cover the essential living costs. In contrast to Herrala and Kauko (2007) we do not take into account a pledgeable amount of wealth, as its distribution among households with a mortgage is not available. And, contrary to Elmer and Seelig (1998), we simplify the analysis by ignoring homeowner equity. In calculating household net income, we take account of the Czech tax code. The results show that if households with a mortgage had no other loan, the budgets of about 30% of them would go into deficit if nominal wages declined by more than 10%. If this group of households also had a consumer loan of CZK 100,000, around 50% of them would be hit. However, the estimates of the proportion of households with difficulty in making loan repayments are extreme. For example, the assumption of constant living costs is very conservative, since households can in reality cut their living costs to some extent if needed. Moreover, a large proportion of households can cope with a potentially bad situation by selling their assets (bank deposits, life insurance, private pension schemes, building saving schemes) or are insured against the inability to repay debts.

Alternatively, the macroeconomic forecast model (9) can be employed. It suggests a much more modest impact of the shock. However, the macro model usually cannot deal well with the extreme scenario, so we could assume that the results obtained by micro-simulation would be much closer to reality. Despite a lot of simplifications and limitations, our exercise points out that a potential decrease in nominal incomes can cause serious difficulties and cause distress to a significant number of households with debt burdens. This could happen as a result of a shorter working week or cutbacks in variable wage components. In such a situation, the number of insolvencies would rise sharply and the quality of bank loan portfolios would fall. This would lead to a decline in residential property prices due to the sale of collateral. A decrease in the value of collateral (or a fall in the LTV ratio) would increase the risk to which banks are exposed. Moreover, a significant increase in household insolvencies would also have a negative social impact.

Impact on Aggregate Consumption

The current economic crisis is manifested in increasing unemployment. According to the CNB (2010) baseline scenario, the default rate on banking loans to households should increase by roughly 2 percentage points during 2010 due to a deteriorating labor market situation and a decline in household disposable income. In a highly unfavorable scenario this indicator could rise by as much as 5 percentage points. Using formula (10), we can estimate the impact on aggregate consumption for different negative changes in economic growth measured by GDP. The proportion of defaulted households can be obtained as the product of default rate and share of household with debt burden. According to a survey by the Czech Statistical Office, 20% of households are repaying mortgage loans and 10% consumer loans. We do not know how many households with mortgage loans are also repaying consumer credit at the same time. We assume that 25% of Czech households have some debt burden. According to some studies, the marginal propensity to consume (MPC) can differ for unemployed and employed consumers. Thomson, Chung and McKibbin (2009) empirically tested MPC for households worried and not worried about their future job and pointed out that MPC significantly differs for these two groups. If we further express change in consumption as a ratio to GDP, we can reformulate equation (10) in formula (13).

$$\frac{\Delta C}{Y} = (1 - dk)[u(c_U - c_E) + c_E]\frac{\Delta Y}{Y} + [(c_U - c_E)(\Delta u - dk\Delta u - \Delta dku - \Delta dk\Delta u) - \Delta dkc_E](1 + \frac{\Delta Y}{Y})$$
(13)

where parameter k corresponds to the share of consumers with some debt burden (k = 0.25) and d corresponds to household default rate (we assume d = 0.5, which corresponds to default on banking loan portfolio to households at the end of 2009). We employ the value 0.9 for the parameter c_E - marginal propensity to consume for employed consumers and 0.5 for the parameter c_U - marginal propensity to consume for unemployed consumers. The marginal propensity to consume can be estimated using aggregate data. Barry, Bradley, Kejak and Vavra (2000) employed the value of 0.8 for the Czech economy. Thomson, Chung and McKibbin (2009) estimated MPC for households worried about their future job at close to 0.9 and for households not worried about their future job at close to 0.5. The Czech aggregated data suggest an MPC of close to 0.9. Hence we used this value for employed consumers. For unemployed consumers, we set this parameter at 0.5, in line with the study of Thomson, Chung and

McKibbin (2009), as MPC for households worried about their future job should be the upper estimate for unemployed consumers. The following tables illustrate the change in aggregate consumption as a result of change in the GDP growth rate, default rate and unemployment rate.

Table 3: Change in consumption as a result of a change in GDP growth rate, default rate and unemployment rate (% of GDP)

$\Delta u = 1\%$		Change i	n household de	efault rate (in p	ercentage poin	ts)
		1	2	3	4	5
E	-1	-1.47	-1.69	-1.91	-2.13	-2.36
P (i	-2	-2.32	-2.54	-2.76	-2.98	-3.20
<u>G</u>	-3	-3.17	-3.38	-3.60	-3.82	-4.04
Change in GDP (in %)	-4	-4.02	-4.23	-4.45	-4.66	-4.88
ee ee	-5	-4.87	-5.08	-5.29	-5.50	-5.72
han	-6	-5.71	-5.93	-6.14	-6.35	-6.56
CI	-7	-6.56	-6.77	-6.98	-7.19	-7.40
$\Delta u = 2\%$		Change i	n household de	efault rate (in p	ercentage poin	/
		1	2	3	4	5
a	-1	-1.86	-2.08	-2.30	-2.52	-2.74
P (i	-2	-2.71	-2.92	-3.14	-3.36	-3.58
<u>G</u>	-3	-3.55	-3.77	-3.98	-4.20	-4.42
ш. %	-4	-4.40	-4.61	-4.82	-5.04	-5.25
â	-5	-5.24	-5.45	-5.66	-5.88	-6.09
Change in GDP (in %)	-6	-6.09	-6.30	-6.51	-6.72	-6.92
CI	-7	-6.93	-7.14	-7.35	-7.55	-7.76
$\Delta u = 3\%$		Change i	n household de	efault rate (in p	ercentage poin	ts)
		1	2	3	4	5
с	-1	-2.25	-2.47	-2.69	-2.91	-3.13
P (i	-2	-3.09	-3.31	-3.53	-3.75	-3.96
IQ	-3	-3.93	-4.15	-4.36	-4.58	-4.80
ш. %	-4	-4.78	-4.99	-5.20	-5.41	-5.63
88	-5	-5.62	-5.83	-6.04	-6.25	-6.46
Change in GDP (in %)	-6	-6.46	-6.67	-6.87	-7.08	-7.29
CI	-7	-7.30	-7.51	-7.71	-7.92	-8.12
∆u = 4%		Change i		efault rate (in p	ercentage poin	
		1	2	3	4	5
9	-1	-2.64	-2.86	-3.08	-3.30	-3.52
P (i	-2	-3.48	-3.70	-3.91	-4.13	-4.35
Œ	-3	-4.32	-4.53	-4.75	-4.96	-5.17
in (%	-4	-5.15	-5.37	-5.58	-5.79	-6.00
90 -	-5	-5.99	-6.20	-6.41	-6.62	-6.83
Change in GDP (in %)	-6	-6.83	-7.04	-7.24	-7.45	-7.66
C	-7	-7.67	-7.87	-8.08	-8.28	-8.49

Furthermore, the negative feedback effect on the aggregate consumption stemming from the adverse macroeconomic scenario can be calculated using the second term in the formula (13). The following tables illustrate the size of this effect for different rates of GDP growth, default rate and unemployment rate.

These sensitivity analyses suggest that the impact of the macroeconomic shock on GDP was stronger than the impact of the original shock. However, within our simple theoretical framework, we assume that households do not expect the macroeconomic shock. Hence, they have not adjusted their consumption prior to the shock. Table 4 shows how important the additional consumption effects can be in the case of a significant increase in the household default and unemployment rates.

$\Delta u = 1\%$		Change in	n household def	ault rate (in perc	centage points)	
		1	2	3	4	5
(%	-1	-0.61	-0.84	-1.06	-1.28	-1.50
.ii)	-2	-0.61	-0.83	-1.05	-1.27	-1.49
DP	-3	-0.60	-0.82	-1.04	-1.25	-1.47
[] []	-4	-0.60	-0.81	-1.03	-1.24	-1.46
še ii	-5	-0.59	-0.80	-1.01	-1.23	-1.44
lang	-6	-0.58	-0.79	-1.00	-1.21	-1.43
C	-7	-0.58	-0.78	-0.99	-1.20	-1.41
Change in GDP (in %) ■ – 5%		Change in	household defa	ult rate (in per	centage points)
		1	2	3	4	5
	-1	-1.00	-1.23	-1.45	-1.67	-1.89
(%)	-2	-0.99	-1.21	-1.43	-1.65	-1.87
Change in GDP (in %)	-3	-0.98	-1.20	-1.42	-1.63	-1.85
GD	-4	-0.97	-1.19	-1.40	-1.62	-1.83
ige ir	-5	-0.96	-1.18	-1.39	-1.60	-1.81
Char	-6	-0.95	-1.16	-1.37	-1.58	-1.79
	-7	-0.94	-1.15	-1.36	-1.57	-1.77
$\Delta u = 3\%$		Change in		fault rate (in pe	ercentage point	s)
		1	2	3	4	5
(%	-1	-1.40	-1.62	-1.84	-2.06	-2.28
(in	-2	-1.38	-1.60	-1.82	-2.03	-2.25
lOP	-3	-1.37	-1.58	-1.80	-2.01	-2.23
E.	-4	-1.35	-1.57	-1.78	-1.99	-2.21
80	-5 -6	-1.34	-1.55 -1.53	-1.76 -1.74	-1.97	-2.18
Change in GDP (in %)	-0 -7	-1.33 -1.31	-1.53	-1.74	-1.95 -1.93	-2.16 -2.14
$\Delta u = 4\%$	-,			efault rate (in p		
<u>Δu</u> 470		1	2	3	4	5
0	-1	-1.79	-2.01	-2.22	-2.44	-2.66
in %	-2	-1.77	-1.99	-2.20	-2.42	-2.64
Change in GDP (in %)	-3	-1.75	-1.97	-2.18	-2.39	-2.61
GL	-4	-1.73	-1.94	-2.16	-2.37	-2.58
e in	-5	-1.71	-1.92	-2.13	-2.34	-2.55
ang	-6	-1.70	-1.90	-2.11	-2.32	-2.53
Ch.	-7	-1.68	-1.88	-2.09	-2.30	-2.50

Table 4: Additional feedback effect on aggregate consumption (% of GDP)

CONCLUSION

The economic downturn arguably makes it less likely that households will be able to repay their loans. Household budgets can be negatively affected by declines in nominal wages and increases in unemployment. This effect was empirically tested for the Czech economy. Our analysis describes two basic mechanisms causing the increase in household insolvency: a decline in nominal wages and an increase in unemployment. As a result of a lack of micro data on Czech household finances, the extent of their financial distress due to adverse macroeconomic shocks cannot be directly evaluated. However, with some simplifying assumptions, micro data were simulated and the impact of macroeconomic shocks on the household sector assessed. Alternatively, the macroeconomic approach utilizes a simple Merton-type one-factor model. Our analysis of a potential slump in nominal wages during 2010 suggested that under the extreme scenario the budgets of about 30% - 50% of households with debt burdens would be in

deficit if their nominal incomes were to decrease by more than 10%. This corresponds to roughly 7% - 12% of the total Czech population.

The crucial second part of the empirical analysis deals with the estimation of aggregate consumption. Our relatively simple theoretical model showed the extent to which an unexpected increase in the household default and unemployment rates cause an additional decline in consumption, which is reflected in an economic slump. We illustrate that the impact of the change in unemployment on the size of that effect positively depends on the difference between the marginal propensities to consume for employed and unemployed consumers. Our analysis, based on the derived relationship for aggregate consumption, showed that for the Czech economy e.g. a 4 percentage point increase in the default rate and a 3 percentage point increase in unemployment rate cause an additional decline in GDP of roughly 2 percentage points. If we do not take this effect into account, the expected decline in economic growth can be significantly underestimated. The study clearly shows the importance of the transmission channel via household balance sheets for the economy, which is usually not taken into account in macroeconomic and monetary policy models. Such omission of feedback effects on household consumption may produce a bias in economic policy making.

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APPENDIX

One-factor Model with Default Barrier Depending on Macroeconomic Environment

The one-factor model is one of the variants of the latent factor model which belongs to the class of Merton structural models (see e.g. Jakubík (2007) or Jakubík, Schmieder (2008) for the version of the one-factor model with default barrier depending on macroeconomic environment). A random variable with a standard normal distribution is assumed for the standardized logarithmic asset returns of economic agent i at time t:

$$R_{it} = \sqrt{\rho F_t} + \sqrt{1 - \rho U_{it}} \tag{4}$$

where R_{it} denotes the logarithmic asset return for economic agent *i* in an economy at time *t*, and F_t corresponds to the logarithmic asset return of the economy at time *t*, which is assumed to be a random variable with a standard normal distribution. This variable represents the part of the asset return which is not specific to the economic agent and can thus denote general economic conditions. U_{it} denotes the economic agent-specific asset return, which is again assumed to be random with a standard normal distribution. The two random variables are assumed to be serially independent. The portion of risk that is systematic is defined by ρ_i , the correlation of the economic agent's asset return with the systematic factor F_t .

Given these assumptions, the logarithmic asset return of economic agent i at time t is also standard normally distributed. The model is based on the Merton model, according to which a default occurs if the return on an economic agent's assets falls below a certain barrier T, the default threshold. Formally,

$$P(Y_{it} = 1) = P(R_{it} < T),$$
(5)

where Y denotes a binary random variable with two potential states, borrower i defaults (1), or does not default (0), at time t and T is the default threshold.

In order to model aggregate credit risk by means of different macroeconomic indicators, it is further assumed – unlike in the case of Gordy's Basel II one-factor-model (Gordy, 2003) – that the value of the default threshold T depends on the economic cycle. This is modeled by taking a linear combination of macroeconomic variables (x_{it}) to represent the value of the default threshold T.

The final form of the macroeconomic one-factor credit risk model used in this study is shown in equation (6), where Ψ denotes the distribution function of the standard normal distribution that represents the impact of a change in the macroeconomic indicators, β_0 is a constant and β_j are the coefficients of the macroeconomic variables, x_{it} :

$$p_{it} = P(R_{it} < T) = P(\sqrt{\rho}F_t + \sqrt{1 - \rho}U_{it} < \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^K \beta_j x_{jt}) = \Psi(\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^K \beta_j x_{jt})$$
(6)

The default probability conditional on the realization F_t of a random unobservable factor representing the state of the economy at time *t* corresponding to the default probability (6) is given by formula (7).

$$p_{i}(f_{t}) = P(U_{it} < \frac{\beta_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{K} \beta_{j} x_{jt} - \sqrt{\rho} f_{t}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho}}) = \Psi\left(\frac{\beta_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{K} \beta_{j} x_{jt} - \sqrt{\rho} f_{t}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho}}\right)$$
(7)

If we furthermore assume a homogeneous portfolio of economic agents in the economy whose asset returns follow process (4), the default rate in the economy is – based on the law of large numbers – equivalent to the economic agent's default probabilities. Accordingly, the model may then be applied to homogeneous sub-sectors of the economy such as the corporate sector and the household sector.

Accordingly, the specification of the model resulting from (6) is as follows:

$$df_t = \psi(\beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^K \beta_i x_i)$$
(8)

where df_t denotes the dependent variable of the model (i.e. the default rate of the corporate or household sector), β is the coefficient vector, x is the vector of the macroeconomic variables and β_0 is a constant. In order to estimate model (8), a relationship with a conditional number of defaults of economic agents depending on the realization of random variable F, the latent factor f_t is used. This number is, under the given assumptions, again random and has a binomial distribution with conditional probability $p_i(f_t)$ given by equation (7) and the number of economic agents N_t .

$$D(f_t) \approx Bi(N_t, p(f_t)) \tag{9}$$

The model is then calibrated by maximizing a likelihood function (10).

$$\mathbf{l}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{0},...,\boldsymbol{\beta}_{N},\boldsymbol{\rho}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ln \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} {\binom{\mathbf{n}_{t}}{\mathbf{d}_{t}}} \Psi \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\beta}_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{j} \boldsymbol{x}_{jt} - \sqrt{\boldsymbol{\rho}} \boldsymbol{f}_{t}}{\sqrt{1-\boldsymbol{\rho}}} \right)^{\mathbf{d}_{t}} \left[1 - \Psi \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\beta}_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{j} \boldsymbol{x}_{jt} - \sqrt{\boldsymbol{\rho}} \boldsymbol{f}_{t}}{\sqrt{1-\boldsymbol{\rho}}} \right) \right]^{\mathbf{n}_{t} - \mathbf{d}_{t}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{f}_{t}) d\boldsymbol{f}_{t} \right\}$$

$$(10)$$

Performance of credit risk models for Czech household sector

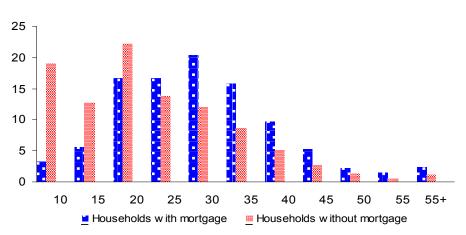


Figure 1: Credit Risk Model for Czech Household Sector (3M-default Rate, in %)

Source: Czech Statistical Office

THE PREDOMINANT ROLE OF TECHNICAL ANALYSIS IN THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET

Bernardo Quintanilla García, Universidad Autónoma del Carmen Jesús Cuauhtémoc Téllez Gaytán, Universidad Autónoma del Carmen Lawrence A Wolfskill, Sam Houston University

ABSTRACT

In this paper it is shown that currency spot prices are dependent between them, therefore giving technical analysis a leading role in foreign exchange trading. Using a Unit Root model we test the Random Walk Hypothesis in spot USD/CHF prices in a minute frequency timeline based on 10 randomly selected Fridays. Given the Extreme Values Method we base our calculations in the High-Low ask price spread and not in the volatility of close prices. The main contribution of this paper is that new evidence is generated as to discard the Efficient Markets Hypothesis in its weak form. Our findings lead us to embrace Dow Theory instead of the Random Walk approach and conclude that markets are not efficient in their weak form.

JEL: F31; G14; G15

KEYWORDS: price range, volatility, spread, high price, low price, foreign exchange

INTRODUCTION

Since the very first moment that prices were put in a graphic form, trends and patterns could be presented in a way investors did understand. The big picture was immediately boarded to extract sense from the senseless market in Wall Street when Charles H. Dow first published his theory. Dow Theory rapidly became a well known set of rules during the first half of the 20th century. Latter, in the middle of the century, the Random Walk approach (Osborne, 1952; Fama 1965) seemed a plausible explanation to the frustration of speculators that, counting on the charts, were betrayed by their own self confidence. The Efficient Markets Hypothesis (Fama, 1970) followed as a manner of justifying that no one can beat the market in a systematic way in order to construct abnormal returns. Research efforts went to reinforce the view that any intention to beat the market is unsuccessful due to a high level of market efficiency in erasing any piece of opportunity to win.

There is no ground though, to build such thinking when it is evident that markets are predictable, for a continuous pattern and a continuous trend that replicates itself with a certain frequency may be expected to do the same it already did in a repeatedly way. Therefore, Dow Theory is not discarded, still, it is studied in such a way that new evidence may arise and new postulates may be settled. In this regard, new trading technologies that make high frequency graphing possible alights on the possibility to redefine our understanding of the cognitive-behavioral nature of a financial market. Due to a man-made common area, as well as the inclusion of the best of technology in operations performance, the foreign exchange market is, among and above every other financial market, the best field where to understand the express and disguised nature of market prices. Is the objective of this paper to uncover the underlying essence hidden from academics and practiced by traders, even when traders themselves may not be able to explain it. Our conclusion in this sense is that price ranges are dependent between them. But neither academics nor practitioners seem to notice this phenomenon. Perhaps, the reason is that advances in technology had been gradually penetrating the trading sphere delaying the revelation of the nature. Or the reason could be that the explanations of the Efficient Market Hypothesis still resound in many minds and a sense of fatalism surrounds the sector.

A Unit Root test has been conducted in order to demonstrate dependence between price ranges, said by ranges the existent spread between the high and the low market ask price for a certain currency pair in a certain time frame. The model has been applied to a dataset of high frequency data, - minute based timeline - which constitutes 10 randomly selected Fridays in the foreign exchange market particularly in USD/CHF. The paper seeks to demonstrate that market prices are dependent between them. The paper is structured as follows. After the introduction a revision of the literature is provided. Section 3 focuses in the data employed and the methodology used. Section 4 provides a discussion and finally the paper concludes in section 5.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Microstructure theory studies the mechanics of a financial free market (Flood, 1991). The meaning of spreads, the geographic location of exchange centers, the interaction between market makers and individual investors, and the seasonality of volatility, impact of news, trade volume, and transaction costs among other aspects are used to explain the functioning of the market. Within this theoretical framework volatility behavior has been studied by Beillie and Bollerslev (1991), Bollerslev and Domowitz (1993), and Fang (2000) among others. These authors have ported evidence of seasonality patterns in volatility among different market locations enlightening the understanding of global spot financial markets.

In a seminal paper Beillie and Bollerslev (1991) identify high volatility levels during the opening of trading in the principal foreign exchange markets, that is, Tokyo, London and New York, with New York having the highest intraday volatility of the three. The reason is said to be the junction of the afternoon London session with the New York morning session. A lesser volatility is observed in the junction of the London morning and the Tokyo afternoon. The volatility measure is useful to traders because it provides a measure of activity, said by activity the high trading volume and high frequency trading. In accordance with Admati and Pfleiderer (1989) and their liquidity theory, traders tend to gather in the most liquid part of the session, and this is precisely the moment of the highest volatility. But even when they detect a statistically significant negative first order serial correlation, Beilli and Bollerslev conclude their paper saying that their findings appears largely consistent with the efficient markets hypothesis. Contrary to them, Longworth (1981) concludes that markets are not efficient. He uses spot and forward rates for USD and Canadian dollars during the period 1970.7 to 1976.10, finding that spot rates were better predictors of forward rates. He concludes that a speculator looking at economic variables could have made extraordinary profits in the case of the Canadian dollar.

But extreme high-low spreads rather than currency prices give a much more deep insight to the speculative nature of financial markets when it comes to measure volatility (Parkinson, 1980). The variance is the distance of prices to their mean and gives a measure of volatility. Meanwhile, the High-Low price spread carries a better load of information because it captures the extension of the price movement in a specific moment of the day. Parkinson proofs that the extreme values method provides a much better estimate of a diffusion constant than the traditional method does. Little attention has been given to this specific aspect of price behavior in the foreign exchange market. We state that information relies in the high-low price range and not in the price itself. The high-low price range will explain the behavior of the trader when it comes to watch the spot price in the charts.

Taylor and Allen (1992) report the use by traders of technical analysis as the best tool when trading currencies. They show that analysts rely on the fundamentals of the economy for the long run and utilize technical analysis for short-term trades. The view of a supplement to fundamental analysis by technical analysis is shared by Levy (1966). He observes that technical analysis may be as satisfactory, or perhaps more satisfactory than fundamental analysis. But trading based in technical's imply that the trader is

watching the charts and has memorized them. This way the high-low range carries a bigger load of information than the close price.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This paper uses intraday USD/CHF ask price ranges from the following Fridays: January 9th 2009, September 4th 2009, November 13th 2009, February 19th 2010, April 8th 2010, June 25th 2010, August 20th 2010, October 15th 2010, December 10th 2010, and March 18th 2011. The intraday price ranges are defined as follows:

 $Price Range = High_{price} - Low_{Price}$ (1)

Since the main scope in this paper is to test for the market efficiency hypothesis on the USD/CHF exchange rate, price ranges are transformed into first differences as follows:

 $\Delta(Price range)_t = Price range_t - Price range_{t-1}$ (2)

Table1. Descriptive statistics USD/CHF in price ranges differences.

	Jan 9, 09	Sep 4, 09	Nov 13, 09	Feb 19, 10	Apr 8, 10	Jun 25, 10	Aug 20, 10	Oct 15, 10	Dec 10, 10	Mar 18, 11
Mean	-0.0041	-0.0003	0.0001	-0.0018	0.0004	-0.0008	-0.0015	-0.0002	0.0004	-0.0009
Median	-0.1000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	-0.1000
Maximum	44.8000	17.3000	7.1000	35.9000	6.8000	18.1000	12.3000	21.2000	7.6000	28.7000
Minimum	-20.6000	-16.7000	-6.5000	-21.4000	-8.0000	-17.6000	-12.3000	-11.7000	-5.7000	-17.4000
Std. Dev.	4.0457	1.8691	1.4004	2.4830	1.3975	2.2893	1.9891	2.0551	1.5038	2.5743
Skewness	1.2992	0.3457	-0.0025	1.8080	0.1028	0.3002	0.1114	1.4489	0.1757	0.8501
Kurtosis	17.5437	20.2601	5.9395	39.1365	5.8757	11.1022	8.2625	22.1642	4.7508	20.9714
Jarque-Bera	12441.4600	17119.9700	509.7859	81827.9100	497.6924	3949.4000	1660.0150	22273.7800	189.3401	19483.9000
Probability	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Sum	-5.6000	-0.4000	0.2000	-2.7000	0.6000	-1.1000	-2.1000	-0.3000	0.5000	-1.3000
Sum Sq. Dev.	22374.4600	4807.0800	2775.1600	9174.2650	2804.4200	7520.9290	5677.3470	6005.7300	3220.0500	9503.4690
Observations	1368	1377	1416	1489	1437	1436	1436	1423	1425	1435

Descriptive statistics for the range price differences in USD/CHF for different randomly selected Fridays. The price range is given by (High_{price} – Low_{price}) x 10,000 and the Price Range Differences are given by Δ (Price Range)_t = Price Range_t-Price Range_{t-1}.

The descriptive statistics for the price ranges differences are shown in Table 1, in which can be observed from skewness that there have been more positive changes than negative ones within each Friday and across all Friday selected. As a whole, price ranges can be described as a fat-tailed distribution time series which means the presence of extreme values explained by the stylized fact in financial time series as conditional volatility. Nevertheless, in some cases the kurtosis value is quiet low as compared to the other dates. In turn the Jarque-Bera value for Normality test decreases significantly and would explain that in some cases price ranges first differences can be approximated by a Gaussian distribution.

The random walk model states that a change in the stock price from one period to another is completely random. The representation of the random walk hypothesis is described as

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$
(3)

Then it is supposed that $\Delta y_t = \varepsilon_t$ in such a way to accept the market efficiency hypothesis at least in its weak form. A variation of (3) relates to a random walk model with a deterministic component such as

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + a_0 + \varepsilon_t$$
(4)

Testing the market efficiency hypothesis is to testing for $a_1 = 1$ or the presence of a unit root as in the following model

$$y_t = a_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$
(5)

In this sense as described by Dickey and Fuller (1979), it should be the same to testing for $\gamma = 0$, where $\gamma = a_1 - 1$, in the following equations

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$
(6)
$$\Delta y_t = a_0 + \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$
(7)
$$\Delta y_t = a_0 + \gamma y_{t-1} + a_2 t + \varepsilon_t$$
(8)

A generalized expression of (8) would be an autoregressive process as

$$\Delta y_t = a_0 + \gamma y_{t-1} + a_2 t + \sum_{i=2}^p \beta_i \Delta y_{t-i+1} \varepsilon_t$$
(9)

This paper performs the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test on equation (9) to test for the presence of a unit root in USD/CHF price ranges; if it exists then it is not possible to reject for the random walk model and consequently not possible to reject the market efficiency hypothesis in its weak form.

DISCUSSION

The Unit Root test shows a lack of randomness in the walk of the different high-low spreads succession. There is no clear diffusion process in our results driving us to reject, at least in our model, the Random Walk Hypothesis. It could be possible that by selecting another sample of different days we could have different results.

Just one case, October 15th 2010, was not possible to reject the null hypothesis of a unit root meaning that at least in that date the market for USD/CHF was efficient at least in its weak form. The other dates as compared to the test critical values were possible to reject the unit root null hypothesis or the null hypothesis of a random walk. In most of the cases, the intercept coefficient was statistically significance at a 1% and 5% level, and just one case in June 25th 2010 showed a deterministic time trend coefficient to be statistically significance at 1% level. These results don't lead though to asseverate that a technical strategy will in fact generate abnormal results. This is up to the trader and not to the market. What we are saying is that the market has inefficiency inherent to it and the trader will have to construct its own set of rules and set its mind to procure the better trades. And not every day a successful trade can be made, there will be good days with good opportunities and bad days without opportunities. Or it may happen that a

good day brings good trading opportunities but the trader is having a bad day or is overwhelmed by emotions, independently if those emotions are good or bad.

Friday	Jan 9, 09	Sep 4, 09	Nov 13, 09	Feb 19, 10	Apr 8, 10	Jun 25, 10	Aug 20, 10	Oct 15, 10	Dec 10, 10	Mar 18, 11
\mathbf{a}_0	0.3856	0.1553	0.3237	0.7817	0.2674	0.6144	0.3702	0.1053	0.5311	0.9571
	(2.0048)	(1.7692)	(4.4012)	(5.3745)	(3.4043)	(5.3539)	(3.5994)	(1.1092)	(6.2947)	(6.6014)
a ₂	0.0006	0.0003	0.0003	-0.0001	0.0001	0.0005	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	-0.0002
	(2.4617)	(2.3940)	(3.5527)	(-1.2064)	(1.2670)	(4.0765)	(1.0399)	(1.1656)	(1.6775)	(-1.1374)
g	-0.1772	-0.1596	-0.2943	-0.2258	-0.1757	-0.4102	-0.2033	-0.0931	-0.3239	-0.3184
	(-6.0147)	(-5.2198)	(-7.4358)	(-7.6951)	(-4.5512)	(-9.2983)	(-6.1876)	(-3.4024)	(-9.6331)	(-10.4498)

Table2. Unit Root Test.

Null Hypothesis: g has a unit root. Test critical values: 1% level -3.964516, 5% level -3.412976, 10% level -3.128485

CONCLUSION

The principal contribution of this paper is that using the extreme value method (Parkinson, 1980) we may stand for Dow Theory and defend Technical Analysis. Focusing attention on the high-low ask price spread rather than closing prices, a better load of information is captured that may alight the nature of the foreign exchange market. In this sense, it is shown that price ranges are dependent between them reinstalling the use of chart observation in currency trading activity. Hence, Technical Analysis takes its prominent role in the foreign exchange market. These finding open a wide new field in financial markets research and challenge researchers to further develop historic tests employing price ranges rather than close price quotes. The study of volatility should be further studied under this light.

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BIOGRAPHY

Bernardo Quintanilla is an Assistant Professor of International Finance at the Universidad Autónoma del Carmen. He can be contacted at Email: bquintanilla@pampano.unacar.mx

Jesús C. Téllez is an Associate Professor of International Economics at Universidad Autónoma del Carmen. He can be reached at Email: jctellezg@gmail.com

Art Wolfskill is an Assistant Professor of Agribusiness in the Department of Agricultural and Industrial Sciences at Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas. He can be reached at Email: wolfskill@shsu.edu

THE IMPACT OF RACE ON FACULTY SALARIES

Javed Ashraf, University of St. Thomas

ABSTRACT

This article uses micro-level data from the recently released National Study of Postsecondary Faculty 2004 (NSOPF:04) to compute the differential between the earnings of white and black faculty. We use a variant of the Oaxaca decomposition technique to make our estimations. We find the average earnings gap between white and black faculty to be about 8%. However, it varies considerably across different types of institutions, and across faculty rank.

JEL: J15, J71

KEYWORDS: Race, Faculty Salaries

INTRODUCTION

Relatively few studies have computed the racial earnings gap among college faculty in the United States. Fewer still have engaged in such an exercise with micro-level data – most likely the result of nonavailability of such data. The recent release of the *National Study of Postsecondary Faculty 2004* (*NSOPF:04*) provides us an opportunity to engage in such an exercise. Most previous studies computed earnings premiums to white faculty by using a dummy variable for race. Since this technique involves running only one regression across all races, coefficient estimates for all races are constrained to be the same. The *NSOPF:04* makes the running of separate regressions for whites and blacks possible, thereby obtaining not only much more recent, but also more accurate estimates of the racial earnings gap among college professors than has been possible, to date. In the interest of conserving space, we omit a discussion of earlier literature. The interested reader may refer to Barbezat (1989b) and Ashraf (2006).

Data And Model

NSOPF:04 is a nationally representative study that collects data regarding the characteristics, workload, and career paths of full- and part-time postsecondary faculty and instructional staff at public and private not-for-profit 2- and 4-year institutions in the United States. The data set provides information on 26,108 faculty at 980 academic institutions. Details of the methodology used can be found in Ashraf (2006)

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

To preserve space, a table with coefficient estimates has not been presented in this paper. The table is available from the author on request, and is referred to as Table 1. Table 2 lays out the white-black earnings differential. The gap stands at 7.94% for all institutions. However, it is as low as 0.9% at Comprehensive Universities to as much as 12. 4% at Research Universities. Both the male advantage and the female disadvantage appear to be higher at Research and Doctoral Universities than at other institutions. Across academic ranks, the white-black premium appears to be much lower at the Assistant Professor level (2.6%) than at higher ranks (8.3% and 8.7% for Full Professors and Associate Professors, respectively).

		Oaxaca1			Oaxaca2			Cotton-N	Neumark	
Group	С	D	Т	С	D	Т	С	W	В	Т
All Universities	6.86	1.08	7.94	5.22	2.72	7.94	7.18	0.32	0.44	7.94
Research Univ.	6.50	5.90	12.4	8.50	3.90	12.40	4.50	3.90	4.00	12.40
Doctoral Univ.	5.20	5.00	10.20	0.40	9.80	10.20	3.30	3.50	3.40	10.20
Comprehensive Univ.	0.50	0.40	0.90	0.50	0.40	0.90	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.90
Liberal Art Univ.	4.50	4.10	8.60	1.90	6.70	8.60	2.90	2.90	2.80	8.60
Junior Colleges	3.80	3.80	7.60	7.60	0.00	7.60	3.90	1.40	2.30	7.60

Table 2 : White-Black Faculty Percentage Earning Differentials for Different Kinds of Institutions, 2004

Table 3: White-Black Faculty Percentage Earning Differentials Across Faculty Rank 2004

	(Daxaca1			Oaxaca2			Cotton—Ne	umark	
Group	С	D	Т	С	D	Т	С	W	В	Т
All Ranks	6.86	1.08	7.94	5.22	2.72	7.94	7.18	0.32	0.44	7.94
Full Professors	12.10	-3.80	8.30	14.40	-6.10	8.30	14.0	-2.20	-3.50	8.30
Associate Professors	6.90	1.80	8.70	16.90	-8.20	8.70	9.90	-2.90	1.70	8.70
Assistant Professors	4.00	-1.40	2.60	-1.70	4.30	2.60	-2.80	6.60	-1.20	2.60

Symbols in Tables 2 and 3: C: Characteristics; D: Discriminatory Component; T: Total Differential; W:White Advantage; B: Black Disadvantage Table 3 investigates the impact of race by faculty rank. It is interesting to note that the white-black earnings differential is fairly similar at the rank of Associate Professor and Full Professor (8.7% and 8.3%) respectively. However it is significantly lower at the Assistant Professor level (2.6%). This could result from two possibilities. Firstly, discriminatory sentiment may have declined in recent years. Since Associate and Full Professors were hired well before Assistant Professors, they may have been in a more discriminatory environment that time. Pressures on administrators for affirmative action may well have led to more comparable salaries for Assistant Professors in recent years. Another possibility is that since Assistant Professors have been hired recently, enough time may not have elapsed for discriminatory treatment to be evidenced.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Our study is among the first to use a large micro-level data set to estimate and analyze the white-black earnings differential among college faculty. Consistent with Ashraf (2006) who used data from 1993, the white-black earnings gap is found to be considerably higher at the Associate and Full Professor level than at the Assistant Professor rank. This could be a reflection of lessening discriminatory sentiment in recent times, since Assistant Professors were hired more recently than their more senior colleagues, in presumably more discriminatory times. The lessening of wage discrimination is, of course, welcome news. To the extent that it represents a fairer distribution of rewards to college faculty, there is a need to seek the reasons for the decline in the racial pay gap. It behooves administrators to investigate this phenomenon, and further advance and implement the policies that have led to this decline.

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BETWEEN CHANGE AND CONTINUITY: THE EVOLVING DYNAMICS IN THE PROCESS OF BUSINESS INTERNATIONALIZATION

Graziella Sicoli, University of Calabria, Italy

ABSTRACT

Over the past century the global economic scene has undergone numerous rapid and ongoing transformations. The consequences of these changes are reflected in problems linked, above all, to the ability for organizational and qualitative adaption that companies must carry out in order to compete successfully in areas of strong economic growth and, secondly, to the constant need for accurate and timely information regarding emerging markets. In this context it has become a priority for dynamic companies to take their business overseas in order to grasp all the opportunities offered by foreign markets for their goods and services.

INTRODUCTION

The process of globalization involves numerous market sectors throughout industrialized and developing countries; it represents the key to understanding of how current international competition is evolving. Globalization places markets in ever closer contact, reduces the distance- physical and cultural- and intensifies international competition, and all this puts the survival of various types of companies at risk. Yet, at the same time, it also offers a growing range of business opportunities for enterprising companies, provided that they are able to create a distinctive image for their products and services on the world market. Technological innovations that have reduced cognitive differences allow companies easier and more rapid access to information, and this makes them better able to compete and offers them opportunities for expanding business. Given the ease with which a business can become global, few sectors not even niche or local markets can consider themselves safe. Thus, the only means of defence is to go to the offensive, in other words to accept the challenge and one of the best ways for companies to do this is to launch themselves on the international market. Business internationalization, i.e., the expansion into foreign markets, represents a basic means of creating value, guaranteeing returns on investment, increasing competitive edge, and gaining new opportunities and means for growth.

Nevertheless, the decision involved in going global is a complex one since the factors to be taken into consideration are too numerous and unpredictable, and one can never have all the relevant information on foreign markets or their environmental conditions. This is obviously the case for large companies but also, and especially, for small and medium ones. In the past internationalization was a course nearly entirely taken by large scale companies, that were the only ones in a position to overcome the trade barriers and other obstacles and establish themselves on major overseas markets, thanks to their vast organizational resources and related technological and scientific backing. It is only in recent years that smaller sized businesses have begun, albeit not without considerable difficulty, to become a presence on the international scene. One of the most interesting characteristics of the current global economic situation is the birth of a new phase of internationalization, in which no company of whatsoever size or sector can consider itself to be unaffected.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Global Markets and International Companies

Given that globalization appears to be an irreversible process, competition represents an essential element

for success. To survive and thrive, companies must be competitive and must be able to maintain their position against present or future challenges from their competitors. Market globalization involves companies of all sizes competing against each other on the international market where it is increasingly difficult to assess external threats or opportunities and evaluate strong points or areas for improvement within the company.

Generally globalization is seen as a recent phenomenon, beginning around the end of the 1980s and the start of the 1990s; several factors can be cited to explain its emergence, such as: the marked expansion of the private sector both on the domestic and international scene; the crisis and collapse of Communist block, especially in the Soviet Union; the growth and spread of new information science technologies, both in the business sphere and in every day life, all of which have drastically reduced the time, cost and technical difficulty of long distance communication (Pepe, 2006)

At one time globalization implied the simple exportation of goods and services or, at most, the transportation of plant used for production overseas. Today it involves a lot more than this, and consequently management decision making, rather than being circumscribed by consideration of a single region or nation, must operate on a global level. Globalization imposes new behaviours on companies, that must aim towards the creation of sustainable competitive advantage. The levers required to face this new situation, in a successful way, are innovation, knowledge, information, creativity and the integration of skills and expertise with global networks.

To expand or merely to survive each company must learn to measure their own competitive ability from a global perspective, regardless of whether they operate in the domestic field only or internationally. In such a context the role that government bodies must assume goes beyond providing financial assistance to businesses, to now include providing concrete back up to the drive for internationalization through providing instruments that can help a company overcome the variety of problems and needs it will face the moment it decides to embark on a foreign venture (Oviatt, et. al. 1999).

The most importance consequences of globalization, therefore, can be summarized as follows: the reduction of costs and time required to cross national frontiers reduces the obstacles linked to operating in foreign markets, and thus facilitates the international expansion; the abolition of trade barriers facilitates technological transfers; the geographical growth of trade increases demand on global markets; this, in turn, leads to the adoption of considerable economies of scale

Historical Background: International Business Expansion

If we turn our attention to the historical background of this phenomenon it is necessary to return to the days of ancient Rome; there are still records describing the commercial relations between Greece and Rome in this period. The Romans undertook the construction of ports, roads and other infrastructure in order to guarantee the continuity and safety of commerce. This was a time when everyone spoke the same language (or languages the Greeco-Roman world was bilingual) and followed a similar life style (Falcone, 2007).

After the fall of the Roman Empire, trade declined drastically and new models for living together slowly emerged in the Medieval period. By the 18th century new liberal policies once again encouraged international trade, especially after the French Revolution in 1789. After the French revolution different countries began to form closer relationships; each nation started to emerge from its former isolation and become increasingly dependent on other nations. In these years the international market is dominated by Great Britain that assumed the role of economic world leader. With time other European countries started to catch up and acquire their own colonial empires, but Britain still remained leader until the outbreak of

the First World War. A key development in the global economic history of the 20th century is the Breton Woods conference in 1944, which established the economic and financial relationships between the world's major industrialised states; at the conference a decision was made to set up key international institutions: the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) which today is part of the World Bank. These organizations based on the principal of free trade, were established with a clear aim: oversee international payments, trade and movements of capital. Then in 1945, after the catastrophe of the Second World War 50 countries came together to form the United Nations Organization (the 51st country Poland was not present and had to sign later). The aim of this organization was to further peaceful cooperation between nations across the world (Nifo, 2010). Subsequently, in 1947, twenty three countries signed the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT); this was an international agreement that laid the ground rules for a multilateral of commercial relationships, with the overall aim of reducing customs barriers and encouraging international trade.

In 1961 a group of important industrialized nations, including the USA, Australia, Canada and Japan set up the Organization for Cooperation and Economic Development (OCED) in Paris. This organization was founded with a clear goal: intensify economic development and promote trade links between member countries. In 1995 the World Trade Organization (WTO) was set up to substitute the GATT. The role of this organization is to adjudicate in international trade disputes, and encourage trade between nations in general as well as monitoring the numerous existing economic accords between member states

RESULTS

First Forms of Business Internationalization

In each of the aforementioned periods we find a different form of international expansion. At the beginning, companies adopted a mercantile approach to international trade. Later, internationalization moved on to a translational scale. The key player in this transformation was the US multinational company whose aim was to extent its branches across the globe. In these years, companies privilege an organizational structure on a large scale and use Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) as therein mains of market expansion. FDI favour and multiply movements of capital from countries where the rate of profit is low (developed countries) to those countries with a much higher rate of profit (developing countries). It is through studying the interest rates in different countries that one can begin to understand how the phenomenon of business internationalization originated and developed (Spiegarelli, 2003).

Even today the favoured form of internationalization adopted by companies is the decentralization of various different phases of transformation and production. In recent years, however, there has been a further change in this process; companies are now looking at new forms of collaboration and cooperative agreements at global level. The reason for this is to be found in the continuous evolution of markets, products and technologies that require less hierarchical, more flexible and decentralized structures that are capable of responding and adapting to the ongoing changes in the environment.

Moreover, we can also see a rapid increase in the number of small and medium firms entering the international scene. These days, in fact, it is by no means rare to find a small firm with a small workforce and a minimal management structure involved in commercial relationships with overseas partners. In such a context, therefore, internationalization appears to be not so much an option but a necessity for many businesses. The choice of one means of internationalization over another normally depends on the size of a company. Greater company size tends to coincide with a greater propensity to overseas trade.

Internationalization can take one of two basic directions: one is overseas investment and the off shoring of the production of both goods and services; the other direction is the ability to attract foreign investment. It is clear that these two aspects are closely linked; they are, in fact, aspects of the same

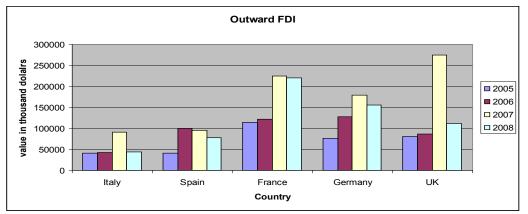
process of the international relocation of productive activity seen from two different perspectives. They require different, albeit closely linked, policies- one cannot utilize foreign investment effectively, without being equally effective in attracting foreign investment in the opposite direction (Vaccà, Rullani, 1983).

If we compare the situation in Italy with that of the other major industrialized countries by looking at both inward and outward FDI (figure 1 and figure 2), we can immediately see a gap that can be attributed to the particular characteristics of size and sector that constitute the strength, but also the main weakness of the Italian system of production.

Table 1: Outward FDI

	Italy	Spain	France	Germany	UK	
2005	41826	41829	114978	75895	80883	
2006	42068	99646	121370	127223	86271	
2007	90781	96062	224650	179547	275482	
2008	43839	77317	220046	156457	111411	

Figure 1: Otward FDI

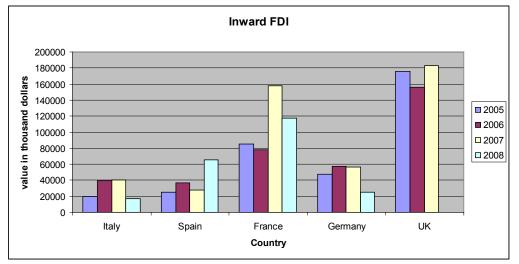


Source: our calculations on Ice-Istat data 2009

Table 2: Inward FDI

	Italy	Spain	France	Germany	UK	
2005	19975	25020	84951	47440	176008	
2006	39239	36949	78154	57147	156183	
2007	40202	28179	157973	56407	183386	
2008	17032	65539	117510	24939	96039	

Figure 2: Inward FDI



Source: our calculations on Ice-Istat data 200

Innovation and Information in Support of Processes of Internationalization

There are numerous factors that can help explain processes of internationalization and the decision companies about to embark on global markets face regarding whether to choose horizontal or vertical integration. Among such factors we should mention technological innovation, and exploitation of the new means of communication and information, such as E-commerce, internet and so on. These technological developments have, in recent years, accelerated the pace and reduced the costs of global communication. Nevertheless, certain authors assert that technological changes alone, notwithstanding their fundamental importance, are not sufficient to explain the phenomena of business globalization (Bertali, Rangene, 2006).

For a company whose aim is to grow and expand, innovation represents a crucial step, because it is through innovation that new solutions are created and added to the company's treasury of knowledge and skills. In brief, we can define it as a continuous process directed, on the one hand, towards modifying the ground rules of current practices, products and services and, on the other, towards developing knowledge and specific skills to be used also outside the local context. (Diuresi, Lisi, 2005) It has become indispensable for every company to reconvert their productive systems along the lines of a model that privileges the qualities, technologies and immaterial resources of their product. Thus, it is now essential to invest in information technology and telecommunications as well as life long learning.

Innovation helps make businesses more competitive both by increasing the value of the service/product in terms of design, and by reducing overall production and marketing costs through the optimization of productive activities. Innovation is also important for the so-called mature technology and can be introduced, not only in the company's very own productive processes, but also in the phases of research and design that come before the realization of a service or a good.

The spread of new technologies (communication, information and the internet) supports processes of internationalization and promotes new forms of collaboration, not so much within companies, but externally through companies connecting with other businesses (trade, production and technology agreements with external partners, alliances, joint ventures and so on). Moreover, the aforementioned reduction of technological and cognitive distance, in terms of time and cost, has enabled small and

medium companies, in particular. to benefit from easier access to the information they need to expand.

Information, therefore, has become a fundamental resource for the growth of world trade. Possession of exact, reliable and timely information lies at the root of company success. The ability to have, at one's disposal, the right information in real time, at an affordable cost, constitutes one of the key ingredients for operating successfully on global markets. Digital information that is concise, transparent and immediately accessible allows companies to acquire and increase the trust of clients and partners and establish stable economic relations at international level (Zucchella, 2004).

Obviously, to put all this in more concrete terms, it is necessary to utilize all the new information and telecommunications technologies correctly and, as regards this, the internet plays a particularly important and incisive role. The use of the net enables companies to become information intensive, i.e. it facilitates the exchange of information, at one and the same time, between business partners, between companies and clients, between companies and their competitors and within each individual company. Information technology allows us to elaborate, memorize, store and communicate information regardless of format, distance, time or volume.

Thanks to these new information and communication tools, and to the reduction of distance between counties, in terms of both space and time, companies now have the opportunity to have access, in ever shorter times and at ever lower costs, to markets that were hitherto considered out of reach; all this enables companies, on the one hand, to exploit, to the full and with greater efficiency, the market potential of their products in different areas spread across the globe and, on the other, to access resources and produce goods or their components in places that are more fruitful strategically and economically. Information, thus, becomes a productive factor of fundamental importance in the process of internationalization. The concept of information is often used as a synonym of communication, but it is important to specify how communication on one side and information on the other represent two different realities, even if both are intertwined in the relationships a company forms when embarking on the market in pursuit of sales or supplies.

Skills That Support Internationalization

Besides the globalization of distribution and commerce, companies have started to expand into international markets in search of a low cost workforce in countries with a profile of a large pool of cheap labour and limited costs. As regards finding the right location for productive activity abroad and placing products on foreign markets, one of the variables to be considered is undoubtedly the choice of the most suitable market on which to launch your products. In particular, to make this choice companies use their previous experiences of similar markets, or they aspire to imitate and follow the moves made by competitors with similar products, dimensions and resources to their own. In order to minimize the financial and economic risks involved, the company must carefully select the right markets, seeking out those characterized by a high potential demand, yet, at the same time, where the competition is not too fierce (Comba, 2009),

Companies need to coordinate and manage their activities in different geographical locations, taking into consideration the diverse conditions found in each area with regard to the availability of raw materials, specialized labour, cheap labour, advanced technology and so on; these are the aspects that lie at the basis of strategic company planning. To this end, the availability of a series of different kinds of precise and timely information enables the company to make rational decisions geared to repeating on the global scale the successes already achieved on the national one and, at the same time, to identify and develop the specific new skills and abilities required to achieve desired results in the international arena. (Freeman, Perez, 1986).Companies that are able to deal with the complexities encountered in the new and wider competitive global environment must measure themselves against the constant need for innovation and

specific lasting expertise. The real sources of competitive advantage can be found in the ability of each company to consolidate technologies and productive skills in practices that ensure the company's capacity to adapt rapidly to the changing opportunities and demands that arise in the global context. Company success on new markets depends basically on the ability to innovate

CLOSING REMARKS

To this end companies, and especially small companies, if they cannot afford a high level of scientific and technological skills, lacking the necessary resources to invest in high tech, in order to compete successfully on international markets, must adopt different strategies, in particular those geared towards the differentiation and personalization of their products. Moreover, companies must be able to develop devolved organizational forms based on synergy and collaboration with suppliers, clients and, where necessary, with competitors.

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BIOGRAPHY

Graziella Sicoli is research of business administration at the Department of Business Science of the Faculty of Economics, University of Calabria. e-mail: g.sicoli@unical.it

MANAGEMENT OF THE CONDITIONS PRECEDENT TO A FINANCIAL CRISIS

Janice M. Barrow, Kennesaw State University

ABSTRACT

This paper builds a model for intervention and/or mitigation of a financial crisis by first identifying those conditions precedent to a systemic based financial crisis, and then outlying a process to integrate firm specific and systematic risk into a comprehensive strategic model. A simple application of the model was able to identify significant outliers. For example, using 2006 to 2010 data, Capital One Financial Corporation was identified for intervention from as early as 2006. This corporation received \$3.56 billion of the Emergency Economic Stabilization Act Federal bailout funds.

JEL: G01 - Financial Crises, G28 - Government Policy and Regulation

KEYWORDS: Systematic risk, financial crisis, banking, reform, failure, regulation, capital, interconnectedness, macro-prudential, micro-prudential

INTRODUCTION

In hindsight, regulators and analysts, alike, have been able to identify several factors that led to the Financial Crisis that began in 2007 (Poole, 2010b). The causes presented include factors such as: inadequate regulation; duration mismatch; federal subsidy of housing; federal subsidy of debt financing; moral hazard; interconnectedness of institutions; and unmanaged systematic risk (Lal, 2010; Poole, 2010a; Poole, 2010b; Scott 2010; Leondis, 2010; Ennis and Keister, 2010). Unfortunately, historically, bank regulations tend to be passed in response to various crises rather than to prevent them from occurring although there is no doubt that financial institutions play an integral role in the functioning of the economy and should be given priority (Barth et al. 2010; Holowecky et al. 2010). Therefore, going forward, the important question that needs to be answered is: In foresight, how can we prevent or mitigate future financial crises, and what regulation is required?

Solution options presented include recommendations to: alter capital requirements; change clearing houses usage requirements; alter the way insolvent institutions are resolved; continue emergency lending by the Fed, and restructure the regulatory system All such solutions have been argued to be burdensome and ineffective to prevent a systematic risk based crisis (Scott, 2010).

Evidence of the ineffectiveness of the proposed solutions is seen in the failure of Basel II, the recommendations on banking laws and regulations issued by the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision created by the central bank Governors of the Group of Ten nations passed in 2004. Also, the Basel III documents submitted in 2009 attempt to answer the question of "What regulation is required?" and its provisions include: changes in the definition of capital; revisions to counter party credit capital standards; new global leverage ratio; explicit capital buffer standards; and new global liquidity standards (Holbrook, 2010). Among other things, these provisions are an attempt to improve the regulation of the financial system but still leaves significant systematic risk exposure which is one of the main factors that helped cause the crisis in the first place (Boerner, 2010; Holbrook, 2010; Weber, 2010; Triana, 2010). For example, Berger et al (2008) show that Bank Holding Companies (BHC) had been actively managing their capital ratios, had set targets substantially above regulatory minima and make rapid adjustments towards those targets. Even the new regulatory requirements under Basel III would not have been adequate to prevent the crisis. Triana (2010) further shows that Basel III: permits higher leverage (higher

risk); has flawed risk measures; and restricts opportunities for higher potential returns – increases risks and lowers returns.

If these solutions presented are indeed ineffective and/or incomplete then the use of early, reliable indicators to signal trouble and trigger intervention could prove invaluable. This paper attempts to provide valuable information in answering the question of how to prevent or mitigate future financial crisis by focusing on managing systematic risk and by developing a model that identifies factors that can signal trouble and trigger intervention.

Conditions Precedent Of The Financial Crisis

There have been many factors identified in the cause of the financial crisis that began in 2007 and there is no clear consensus as to whether regulatory reform would serve to prevent such a crisis from recurring. However, there is consensus on the following three conditions precedent:

Large losses from lending and securitization: This is macro systematic risk related to over-exposure in an upswing of a credit cycle and being overly risk averse in a down cycle (Stucke, 2010). Risk build-up in an expansion is countercyclical (Weber, 2010).

Interconnectedness: This is macro systematic risk related to the failure of one significant institution, which can cause or contribute to the failure of other significant institutions; and the possibility that one exogenous shock may cause or contribute to the failure of multiple significant financial institutions. (Scott, 2010)

Loss of Confidence: This is macro systematic risk related to the level of financial transactions that are not regulated and/or protected, the level of uninsured deposits, credit default risk exposure, innovations such as information technology or information asymmetry (Scott, 2010; Poole, 2010a). Ennis and Keister (2010) conclude that financial crises have a self-fulfilling component and that the banks' operating structure makes them susceptibility to runs and so they are innately fragile.

Modelling Considerations

This paper contends that the measures of those conditions precedent can serve to provide early warning signals of changes in systematic risk and be used in conjunction with regulatory reform to trigger precrisis intervention. Additionally, according to Allen and Saunders (2004) U.S. banking regulators have contended that 15-20 major banks and 5-10 major securities firms dominate critical financial markets, therefore as global financial markets consolidate and harmonize the possibility of contagion risk increases. However, this smaller list of key players could provide a more narrowly focused intervention/mitigation strategy.

The hypothesis broadly stated, therefore, is:

Decision to intervene = f(credit countercyclical risk, interconnectedness, loss of confidence) (1)

Allen and Saunders (2004) define pro-cyclicality as system-wide operational losses triggered by contagion across linked financial intermediaries. They surveyed the effects of pro-cyclicality on risk measures and found that, whereas a fundamentally strong institution can often recover from market and credit risk, it may be impossible for it to recover from certain operational risk events. Therefore, the main concerns are the low frequency/high severity risk events, which occur quite infrequently, consistent with the conditions precedent.

Franz (2010) has shown that the stock market has been highly consistent in predicting economic expansions and contractions. Additionally, Tsai and Chang (2010) have also shown that since macroeconomic factors are affected by government actions, macroeconomic and firm specific factors must be dealt with separately. Their model establishes financial factors, market variables and macroeconomic variables to successfully predict financial distress.

A review of the literature relating to procyclical tendencies of banking shows how banking capital requirements along with monetary policy actually results in the amplification of exogenous shocks. One key factor affecting the magnitude of the procyclical effect is measured by the composition of the banks' asset portfolio (Drumond, 2009). This would then be combined with a measure of macroeconomic policy to estimate the systematic risk associated with procyclical effects. Measures of interconnectivity relate to size and so identification of those major banks and securities firms, that dominate the market, is critical. The factors leading to loss of confidence have to do with the innate fragility of the banking system and can be measured by the leading indicators such as the movement of the stock market as well as bank specific risk factors in their operating environment.

Recommended Process

Step1

Utilize a financial distress prediction model to identify firm specific risks such a discrete-time hazard model like the multi-period logit model, which has been used successfully to estimate the significant parameters in predicting financial distress (Tsai and Chang, 2010, Shunway 2001; Barrow, 1993). The assumed functional form of the logit model is the logistic function:

$$\Pr[Y_i=1) = \Pr[=,(1/(+e^{W_i}), \quad i=1...N \quad (2)$$

Where

$$W_i = b0 + \sum^m b_j x_{ij}$$
(3)

is the logit transformation and is a linear combination of the independent variables and a set of coefficients $b_j = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_m)$ that can be estimated. N is the number of observations; x is the value of the jth variable of the ith observation; and Y sub_i is a dependent variable that represents the final outcome: $Y_i = 1$ for failed institutions, $Y_i = 0$ for nonfailures.

For this application, it is assumed that there is some linear combination of the independent variables that is positively related to financial distress. If Wj exists, it is an index of that institution's propensity to fail or become solvent.

Step 2: The parameters from Step 1 can then be used to identify problem financial in conjunction with a predetermined distress cut-off point.

Step 3: To address the issues of interconnectivity and pro-cyclicality, the next step is to identify the large financial institutions that have a significant impact on economic activity.

Step 4: Closely monitor those institutions identified in Step 3 for vulnerability.

DATA ANALYSIS

There were two key sources of banking data. The first is from Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS), a web-based business data research service from The Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania. Their Bank Regulatory Database contains five databases for regulated depository financial institutions. These databases provide accounting data for bank holding companies, commercial banks, savings banks,

and savings and loans institutions. Their data comes from the required regulatory forms filed for supervising purposes. The second source of data is from the National Information Center (NIC), a central repository of data about banks and other institutions for which the Federal Reserve has a supervisory, regulatory, or research interest, including both domestic and foreign banking organizations operating in the United States. Their web site provides access to NIC data, allowing the public to search for detailed information about banking organizations.

The NIC has a Bank Holding Company Peer Groups report that contains a summary of peer group financial data and a listing of Bank Holding Companies (BHCs) in each Peer Group. BHCs with assets over \$500 million are classified into one of nine tiers. Tier 1 consists of BHCs with consolidated assets of \$10 Billion and over. Given that only the top 20 or so financial institutions dominate the financial markets, the top tier 1 banks with consolidated assets of \$100 billion were selected for review. Table 1 shows 22 institutions that met the criteria. These are the main institutions to monitor in addressing the interconnectedness and pro-cyclicality systematic risks considerations and therefore, the key financial institutions that should play a major role in the financial crisis intervention or mitigation process. Note, however, that the number is not static.

Rank	Institution Name	Location	Total Assets 12/31/2010 (\$'000)
1	Bank Of America Corporation	Charlotte, NC	\$2,268,347,377
2	JPMorgan Chase & Co.	New York, NY	\$2,117,605,000
3	Citigroup Inc.	New York, NY	\$1,913,902,000
4	Wells Fargo & Company	San Francisco, CA	\$1,258,128,000
5	Goldman Sachs Group, Inc.,	New York, NY	\$911,330,000
6	Morgan Stanley	New York, NY	\$807,698,000
7	MetLife, Inc.	New York, NY	\$730,905,863
8	Taunus Corporation	New York, NY	\$372,556,000
9	HSBC North America Holdings Inc.	New York, NY	\$343,699,907
10	U.S. Bancorp	Minneapolis, MN	\$307,786,000
11	PNC Financial Services Group, Inc., The	Pittsburgh, PA	\$264,414,112
12	Bank Of New York Mellon Corporation, The	New York, NY	\$247,222,000
13	Capital One Financial Corporation	Mclean, VA	\$197,503,411
14	Td Bank Us Holding Company	Portland, ME	\$176,972,361
15	SunTrust Banks, Inc.	Atlanta, GA	\$172,875,298
16	Ally Financial Inc.	Detroit, MI	\$172,011,000
17	State Street Corporation	Boston, MA	\$158,890,975
18	BB&T Corporation	Winston-Salem, NC	\$157,081,396
19	American Express Company	New York, NY	\$146,005,718
20	Citizens Financial Group, Inc.	Providence, RI	\$129,969,527
21	Regions Financial Corporation	Birmingham, AL	\$132,399,290
22	Fifth Third Bancorp	Cincinnati, OH	\$111,006,778

Table 1: BHCs with consolidated assets of \$100 Billion and above as of 12/31/2010

This table shows the 22 Tier 1 Bank Holding Companies with assets of \$100 billion or more, taken from the list of top 50 BHCs. There were 34 institutions with consolidated assets over \$50 billion. Source: http://www.fficc.gov/nicpubweb/nicweb/Top50Form.aspx

Table 2: The Pearson's correlation coefficient for the S&P 500 and our top banks

Period/Variable	Average <i>r</i> for the 17 banks	n
Monthly statistics 2006-2010	0.836	60
Monthly statistics 2006	0.728	12
Monthly statistics 2010	0.581	12

This table shows the results of the correlation analysis between the S&P 500 indices and the adjusted stock price for the 17 BHCs for the three time periods indicated.

Fundamental company data was provided by Capital IQ, a business owned by the Standard and Poors Company and accessible from WRDS. Capital IQ provides market data across all major quoted markets

including: equity, mutual funds, fixed income, indices, commodities, currencies, and rates. Equity pricing data includes close, open, bid, ask, mid, low, best, high price values along with volume, splits, dividends, ticker, exchange information, short interest data, and VWAP for select markets. Upon retrieving the data it was discovered that due to various reasons, such as reorganizations (TD Bank Holding Company, U.S. Bankcorp, Ally Financial Inc. and Citizens Financial Group) or is privately held (Taunu Corporations), there were only 17 BHCs with complete market price data for analysis.

Following on Franz (2010), it is assumed that the stock market is consistent in anticipating economic cycles. To confirm this assumption, S&P 500 index monthly data was compared with the adjusted stock prices for the 17 banks using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r). It ranges from +1 to -1. A correlation of +1 means that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between variables. Table 2 shows the results for the five-year period reviewed, 2006 to 2010.

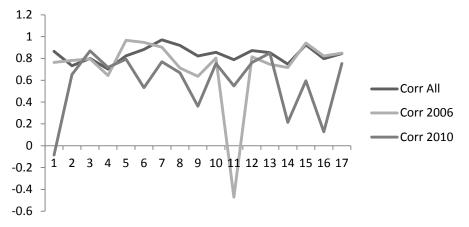
Table 3: Rule of Thumb for Interpreting the Size of a Correlation Coefficient

Size of Correlation	Interpretation
0.90 to 1.00 (-0.90 to -1.00)	Very high correlation
0.70 to 0.90 (-0.70 to -0.90)	High correlation
0.50 to 0.70 (-0.50 to -0.70)	Moderate correlation
0.30 to 0.50 (-0.30 to -0.50)	Low correlation
0.00 to 0.30 (0.00 to -0.30)	Little if any correlation

Source: Hinkle DE, Wiersma W, Jurs SG. (1998). Applied Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, 4th ed. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Based on the "Rule of Thumb" shown in Table 3, there was a very strong correlation between the variables during the period 2006 and 2010, inclusive with no outliers. The period 2006 was chosen to establish a base correlation before the financial crisis that began in 2007. There was a high correlation between the variables with the an outlier exception of Capital One Financial Corporation which had a correlation coefficient of -0.471 and were was the recipient of \$3.56 billion of the Emergency Economic Stabilization Act Federal bail-out in the form of a preferred stock purchase. (WRDS, 2010). The same analysis was done on 2010 to have current data. The correlations in 2010 were moderate, on average, with the outlier exception of Bank of America Corporation, which had a correlation coefficient of -0.0857. It lost \$2.24 billion for 2010 as gradual improvements in its core banking business were offset by charges linked to its disastrous 2008 acquisition of Countrywide Financial (WDRS, 2010). Figure 1 shows the correlation results as well as the magnitude of the outliers, banks number eleven and one, respectively.

Figure 1: Plot of the correlation coefficients for the 17 institutions by Rank



This figure 1 shows the correlation coefficient (r) between the monthly S&P 500 indices and the stock price of the top 17 banks using 2006 to 2010 data, 2006 data and 2010 data. The outlier in 2006 was Capital One Financial Corporation and the outlier in 2010 was Bank of America Corporation.

CONCLUSION

This paper reviewed the literature on the causes of financial crises and many solution ideas, including those recommended by Basel III submitted in 2009, the Group of Ten's Basel Committee on Banking Regulation. The suggestions presented were found to be either ineffective or incomplete. After closely reviewing the proposals and analyses submitted by regulators and analysts, there seemed to be consensus on three key systematic risk factors: large losses from lending and securitization; interconnectedness; and loss of confidence. A four-step process is then presented. Critical to the process is the ability to predict firm specific risks separate from macroeconomic risks. A simple application of the model using 2006 to 2010 data showed how, for example, Capital One Corporation could/should have been flagged for intervention from 2006, before anyone had an idea of the crisis to come. Also, the model has flagged Bank of America Corporation, using the 2010 data. Further study and extensions of the findings of this paper could integrate the four steps in a comprehensive strategy for intervention and mitigation of future financial crises.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Janice Barrow is the Associate Director, Executive Education Programs and a member of the faculty of the Department of Economics, Finance and Quantitative Analysis, of the Coles College of Business at Kennesaw State University. She can be contacted by email at: jbarrow@kennesaw.edu

THE ROLE OF A QUALITY SYSTEM IN PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT – IS ISO 9001 UP-TO-DATE?

Antero Ollila, Aalto University

ABSTRACT

The ISO 9001 quality management system includes a method of continuous improvement that was put in place in 1994. Through this system, audits and reviews are performed to identify, correct and prevent problems. Although the method of continuous improvement, combined with adherence to annual quality objectives, is an important part of the QMS, only a few business managers and quality professionals seem to acknowledge its significance. Whether the organization uses QMS or other improvement programs such as Six Sigma, Lean and TPM, it faces the same key question: how to ensure that methods that were found beneficial during the execution of a project have continuity in the organization after the project has ended? One method of ensuring continuity is to apply QMS at the latest at the end of a project. Many organizations acquire and use ISO 9001 QMS in a limited way, for marketing purposes among other things, without taking a full advantage of its beneficial features. The author has over 20 years of experience in implementing ISO 9001 QMS in five organizations. In addition, he has been engaged in cooperation with three organizations that issue certifications. Using this experience as a guide, the author will analyze various ways by which an organization can use the most beneficial characteristics of ISO 9001 QMS to improve its operations. The author will also contribute to an ongoing discussion that deals with the content and implementation of a quality system version related to ISO 9001 QMS, known as the ISO 9001:2008. After a critical review of the version, the author will propose revisions that he believes will make substantial improvements to ISO 9001:2008.

JEL: L20; L21; L23; M10; M11

KEYWORDS: ISO 9000, quality system

ISO 9000, quality management system, performance improvement, process approach

ISO 9001 QMS has been in use more than 20 years and it has become the most popular industrial standard. This has not, however, left it immune to criticism. In this paper, the author will discuss the most often heard arguments against ISO 9001 QMS and reviews their counter arguments. In addition, the author will address a specific feature associated by some researchers with ISO 9001 QMS, namely the so-called tacit knowledge. For those writing about tacit knowledge, the issue of importance is its transferability into explicit form of knowledge in the context of ISO 9001 QMS. Toward the end of the paper, the author will identify several good features of ISO 9000 and show how they improve quality. Through the exercise of analyzing the present content and interpretations of ISO 9000 as it regards to process approach and actual requirements for processes, the author finds areas for improvement. The author also analyzes the actual quality of certification process in terms of its uniformity. At the end of the paper, the author summarizes his findings about the present state of ISO 9001 standard.

General Criticism Against ISO 9001 and Counter Argumetns

The benefits and functionality of ISO 9001 quality management system has generated criticism from time to time. Curkovic and Pagell (1999) have listed some typical arguments against ISO 9000: System is not directly connected to product quality. An organization does not need to demonstrate that its customers are satisfied. It is paper-driven and overly bureaucratic. Seddon (1998) has written in his paper many examples about the harmful effects of ISO 9000 like:

ISO 9000 makes things worse for their customers.

ISO 9000 is inspection oriented and not development oriented.

Contract reviews have harmful effects.

External auditors define the quality.

Organizations do not achieve the promised results.

Symonds (1998), who was EHS (Environment, Health and Safety) Audit Manager in Mobil Corporation has responded to the claims presented by Seddon. He has two general observations. First, the people who criticize ISO 9000 are usually not directly involved in its implementation. Second, one should not blame the tool, if he cannot use it properly. These observations make sense in regards to all business systems, methods and tools. Thus, some companies are successful in receiving good results by implementing any well-known method while others, while using the same tools, manage to only increase costs and levels of frustration. What explains the failure of some companies to use quality management tools for the benefit of the organization? Usually the root cause of the failure can be found in the top and middle management who lack the skills needed for interpreting and implementing the results obtained through QMS.

Curiously, quite a few researchers have overlooked this role of the management and focus on blaming or praising the methods. When analyzing whether or not the organization has been able to use the information on best practices of a process or activities obtained through QMS, the operational level of an organization also has a role. Harrington (1997) studied 60 organizations and analyzed the extent to which the best practices identified and implemented produced good results. His study showed that there were only five best practices (cycle-time analysis, process value analysis, process simplification, strategic planning and formal supplier certification programs), which always gave positive results regardless of performance level of a company: low, medium or high. In the end, Harrington concluded, it depends on the management, if they really understand in which order their organization can proceed in developing its capabilities. Normally there is no short cut into success. ISO 9001 base QMS can be easily adapted to the level of an organization, because the organization shall define the quality criteria and the procedural requirements based on its capabilities but still there is room for lousy implementations.

Anderson, Daly and Johnson (1999) have referred to several articles that the 20 components of ISO 9000 are consistent with models of effective quality management system. The essential features of ISO 9000 are quality planning, goal setting, task authority assignments, adequate skills of staff, documenting process performance and responding to process failures. There is no scientific evidence that the ISO 9000 contains elements which are harmful or dangerous in producing good quality. On the other hand it is eminent that it does not contain all the good characters of QMS. One good feature of ISO 9000 is that an organization can add any quality practice into their QMS (not conflicting with ISO 9000 principles) and it will be automatically part of certification. In practice almost all companies do this. The author would like to comment some arguments against ISO 9000 based over 20 years implementation of ISO 9001 QMS in a service company, in a multi-division manufacturing corporation and in a project & engineering company:

It is true that ISO 9000 does not define the product quality. Every organization must define quality in its quality documentation. The defined quality should be produced even though a customer does not specify any quality level. Customer satisfaction is the first principle of ISO 9000. In his dissertation work Ollila (1995) carried out a survey about the applied quality tools among 143 Finnish quality companies (94 % ISO 9000 certified). It turned out that the customer satisfaction measurement was the most popular quality tool with 90 % implementation rate. In practice it is an ISO 9001 requirement that customer satisfaction

shall be measured somehow. It has been a great improvement in many organizations, because they normally had no customer surveys in place. It is true that ISO 9001 QMS means more paper work in a medium organization than before. The bad reputation of unnecessary paper work in great extent comes from the early 90's. The quality managers asked from each other "how many meters you have quality documents". The reason was that companies documented their work procedures which were well-known for any professional person in question. This was a general miss-interpretation of ISO 9001 requirements. The latest ISO 9001:2008 version requires that there are only six documented procedures (ISO 9001, 2008b). This requirement may have been a result of the criticism for excessive paper work but the new requirement is over simplification. The author's experience is that in reality much more is needed and actually also applied in a typical certified company.

For some reason some "ISO 9000 outsiders" think that it is external quality auditors that define the quality of a certified ISO 9000 company. The auditors simply try to find out, if an organization has defined the quality of its products/services in measureable terms and if the organization has evidence how well it can reach the quality criteria. No system or method can replace human knowledge and know-how. QMS is a system for utilizing the human knowledge in a systematic way. Some quality experts have learned from experience that systematic processes improvements (like Six Sigma and Lean) are possible only, if the QMS is good enough eliminating majority of human errors (special causes).

Tacit Knowledge and Quality Management

Since Polanyi (1996) introduced the concept of tacit knowledge, it has created many studies about the meaning and the nature of knowledge and the processes of creating and spreading it. Many researchers like Chen, Xu and Wang (2004) believe that tacit knowledge is more important that explicit knowledge in creating the core competences. On the other hand there are many business philosophies that believe in opposite: tacit knowledge should be always transformed into explicit knowledge. The reason is that only explicit knowledge can be transferred between people (Kogut and Zander, 1992; Ollila, 2011). Surely all quality philosophies including ISO 9000 believe in explicit knowledge in improving business performance. Commonly applied quality improvement methods like Six Sigma and Lean utilize documented means in analyzing and improving processes. In both methods improvements must be standardized and there must be documented evidence about the results achieved. This is perfectly in line with ISO 9000 that any essential procedures must be documented. When there is more than one person working in a process, it is impossible to train, to implement and to achieve evidence about the new way of working, if there is no documented material.

The basic idea of ISO 9000 is to document the best practice identified of a process/activity in question. Normally the improvements are achievements of systematic improvement. ISO 9001 (ISO 9001, 2008) has defined that continual improvement may happen "through the use of quality policy, quality objectives, audit results, analysis of data, corrective and preventive actions and management reviews". If a company has own products, the R&D process and know-how is one of the most important assets of the company. Nowadays R&D processes have been described quite well. The same is not true concerning the real know-how, how to develop new products. The author has an experience about a company developing industrial products during more than 100 years. During the bad recession of 90's, the senior product development engineers were fired. The new generation of design engineers started to develop new products – and engineering errors appeared in some design details, which had not happened earlier. The reason was the tacit knowledge, which disappeared from the company in "leather covers". Somebody might consider that this is evidence, how important is tacit knowledge. For me it is evidence, how important it is to document tacit knowledge and especially the product development know-how. This know-how is normally something, which cannot be found in any text books or in scientific articles. It is the combination of engineering skills, calculation methods, material know-how and lessons learnt. Normally it flows from senior persons to junior persons. In the worst case this know-how disappears from

the company to competitors with people. If this know-how is documented, the damage is not so big. The author's experience is that this most valuable know-how of a company is not documented properly.

There are two ways in carrying out improvements concerning planning and documentation activities. Some people believe in approach, which can be called "trial and error". First we try and, if it works, then it will be documented, trained and implemented in a larger scale. This may be justified, if a change is small enough. The author's experience is that "well-planned is half done". Well-planned means that it is documented because then it can be discussed and further developed for example in a team before implementation. A team discussion without using documentation is ineffective – it is hot air created by speaking. By the term of QMS it means that any change is better to document first and then to train and to implement. A rule of thumb in ISO 9001 is that even a big change in a process/activity should be fully implemented after 6 to 12 months from its documentation.

Lillrank (2003) has explored the quality as outcome of standard, routine and non-routine processes. The definitions of his research can be summarized as follows: Standard processes involve identical repetition of standardized tasks. Typical examples are mass manufacturers and high-volume service producers. Routine processes are complicated, detailed and analytical processes within certain boundaries relying on existing knowledge, linear execution and predicable outcomes. A typical example is an airline pilot making decisions about possible actions in various circumstances.Non-routine processes are so complicated that the input variety is larger than the bounded rationality or experience set employed by the process. Typical examples are consultants and specialized doctors in health care.

Lillrank and Liukko (2004) keep routine processes normally non-applicable for QMS. The author's opinion is that standard and routine processes can be documented and therefore also routine processes should be part of ISO 9000 QMS. The criteria of non-routine processes cannot be described in QMS but the process steps and actions are useful to document. Tacit knowledge included in non-routine processes probably becomes gradually common knowledge and one day it can be classified as routine and explicit knowledge fully included into QMS.

As an example we could take a typical engineering project. It falls mainly into the category of routine processes. Project organizations have realized that it is very important to have written procedures. A green field project starts from a feasibility study and proceeds through basic design into detailed design. Only for detailed design exact engineering standards can be defined like ASME. The activities inside the phases and steps are based on the achieved experiences. The predefined execution of these processes is very important in controlling quality. Majority of design solutions must be specified during the project execution. In this sense projects are typical routine processes. In some engineering solutions so much special engineering expertise is required that the most senior person must be involved utilizing his/her large experience – this means a non-routine process. In the written procedures these situations have been identified and it will give a proper guidance in achieving the best possible result.

Good Practices Of Iso 9001: In this chapter the author wants to pinpoint some features, which are very useful in ISO 9000 and they are not usually part of any other quality philosophy.

Contract Reviews: Even though the term "contract review" is not the official terminology of ISO 9001, it is a very good expression about one of the most useful features in ensuring quality deliveries of a company. When people talk about the quality, they normally have visualization that quality problems of a product, what they have experienced, have been created in a production phase. If a product is a little bit more complicated than a standard product – specified by selecting options or even tailor-made – the big quality problems have been usually created in the phase of order specification. The author's experience is that 80 % of major quality problems occur in the phase of contract. If the customer is not able to specify the product in details and the supplier does not know what is really needed, it means major problems. It

is an ISO 9001 requirement that the organization shall review the requirements related to the product (ISO 9001, 2008). The reason is very well established: the organization must be sure about the quality (product suitability, delivery time, production capacity, etc.) before commitment to the customer. In practice this means that the review shall be carried out for each bid/tender, order and contract change. The type of the review should be specified according to the nature of the delivery:

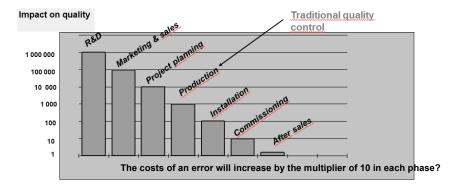
A standard product needs only an approved price list.

A complicated product with options needs a checking by a senior person.

A review meeting is needed in cases, when one person has not all the know-how needed for ensuring the quality. Project type activities need always a review meeting.

In the Figure 2 is an illustration of a quality error. There is a common experience about the project work that an error created in a certain project phase is 10 times more expensive to correct in the next phase. It is the author's experience that the same applies into quality errors in any customer delivery processes. The all phases described in the Figure 1 are not always existing making things easier. Project type activities are very demanding types of business, because they are complicated series of activities and because a project is always a unique performance. The author has an experience about the wrong electronic component choice in the R&D phase flowing through into customer deliveries: one dollar error grew into multimillion losses.

Figure 1: The cost of an quality error from phase to phase



This figure illustrates that an error's impact will increase with logarithmic steps from phase to phase, if it cannot be removed.

The author's experience is that organizations have tendency to avoid contract review meetings and it has in some cases painful results. But on the other hand there are many experiences, when in a review meeting an experienced person has brought forth a concern, which would have been otherwise neglected.

Audits

The author has carried out more than 300 internal audits in the fields of quality, environment and occupational health & safety in five organizations. Internal audits are very important in ensuring that QMS is working as planned. The major lessons learnt are: A qualified auditor can find in any organization deviations from the documented procedures, which should be the identified best practices of the organization. The famous Pareto rule applies into deviations: 80 % of cases should be corrected by following the documented procedure and 20 % of cases the documented procedure should be modified according to the identified practice. This 20 % of cases means that a piece of the organization or even an individual person has created a practice (outside of the system), which is better than the official way of

working. Therefore it is essential to achieve always evaluation from the process/activity owner, what are the corrective actions for each deviation. Sometimes it is a change in a procedure. One sign of the badly functioning process is that there are many audit deviations from year to year.

The simplest indication of the quality culture of an organization is the promptness of the corrective actions. In the good quality culture the deviations shall be swiftly corrected. In the lousy quality culture there are unnecessary delays in corrections. In the worst case the responsible person of a corrective action may even report that the deviation has been corrected but in the next audit it turns out that this was not the case. As always this means that the top and middle management has no real commitment for quality.

The quality of measuring equipment: For many companies implementing ISO 9000 first time, the requirements of maintaining the accuracy and quality of measuring equipment in a systematic way, is something totally new. In some cases an organization has found out that the accuracies of measurement equipment is not good enough in order to achieve the quality of the end product.

Maintenance of the infrastructure: ISO 9001 defines that the necessary infrastructure shall be determined, provided and maintained. The modern production is not possible without production machinery and the quality of machinery has direct impact on the product quality. Ollila and Malmipuro (1999) have shown in their research that poor maintenance in among the three main reasons of production quality problems.

Process Approach of ISO 9001

The process approach of ISO 9001 was introduced in version 2000. It was called to be a major change. By reading the introduction of version 2008 (ISO 9001, 2008) one will get a positive idea about the general definitions being in line with general process terminology and requirements: for example a process means starting from customer requirements and ending to customer satisfaction. Also the chapter 4.1 defines strict requirements for processes like: determination of processes and their interactions criteria and methods for effective control of processes monitoring, measuring and analyzing processes. In real life there is confusion and problems concerning these strict requirements. If these requirements would be followed, the required evidence would not be possible for majority of certified companies for many years. Actually certification bodies require evidence, which is called "anecdotal level" in quality award assessments. Control of processes does not mean that there is a pair of key figures calculated for the outcome of a process. As quality professionals know, the quality is not under control, if you inspect the quality at the end of the production line – it was a practice 70 years ago. Also control of processes means other criteria than a quality measurement only: through put time control, inventory control, smooth work flow, etc. Lean philosophy opens the doors for the effective process control.

The author would like to shortly describe, in which way organizations and researchers define processes. As Corallo & al. (2010) describe, the business process approach has been a most discussed topics in management literature since 1993. The review of some process oriented research papers indicates that researchers are using different process definitions depending on the research angle:

Davenport (1993): operational and management processes Johansson et al. (1993): core processes

Tinnilä (1995): core or key processes, supporting or non-strategic processes

Garvin (1998): work, behavioral and change processes

Rockart (1988): core processes

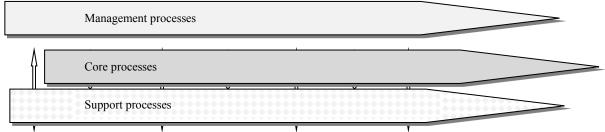
Lillrank (2003): standard, routine and non-routine processes

Galandere-Zile (2009): management, core and support processes

Corallo & al. (2010): management, core and support processes.

This literature review does not give a clear idea, what is the most common terminology. Because the process approach has been a business practice for about 20 years now, the terminology has become more consistent among business companies. Also the presentation above indicates that during the latest years the classification into three main categories is the most common solution like illustrated in Figure 2. In business improvements the core processes have a key role. For example Hammer – a specialist in process management – talks only about core processes (Hammer and Stanton, 1999), because there is the major improvement potentiality.

Figure 2: The most common classification of business processes



This figure illustrates the main process categories interacting with each other.

Kiraka and Manning (2005) have a concern that organizations are facing difficulties in identifying their processes. The author has never experienced difficulties in identifying processes in four different types of organizations but classification of processes is an issue for different opinions. When ISO 9000 introduced the process approach in 2000, it was a general feeling that it will be a big challenge for certified companies. Janas and Luczak (2002) surveyed 160 certified (ISO 9001) German companies, if they shall face problems because of the new requirements. The survey found out that there will be no problems, because the companies already fulfill the new requirements!

ISO 9001 does not classify processes in any terminology presented above. In the paragraph 4.1 (ISO 9001, 2008) there is an expression that "The organization shall determine the processes needed for the *quality management system*". Also the later requirements for processes have been addressed for QMS processes. This is pretty confusing, because QMS is not even a core process. Janas and Luczak (2002) describe that the new ISO 9001:2000 requirements means description of work processes. That is a common understanding among certification bodies and ISO appliers regardless that the ISO 9001 terminology is misleading. As a solution ISO should start to follow the most common practice of process terminology and start using process classification into three main categories: management, core and support processes. A smaller problem of requirements is that actually the process mapping (flowcharting) is not an ISO 9001 requirement. In this respect ISO 9001 lags behind the common business practice common since 10 years ago. ISO 9001:2008 introduction part defines correctly that a process (actually a core process) starts from the customer and ends to the customer. It is crucial in process approach that we consider business processes as a long chain of phases (stages) and steps. In contradiction with this approach is the statement in the introduction part of ISO 9001:2008 that "Often the output from one process directly forms the input to the next".

In properly done process identification this will not happen or it is very rare. All well-defined processes are from customer to customer – external or internal. There are interactions between processes, which is another phenomenon. This same confusion can be found in one popular flowchart application: a process step symbol has been called also a process. This is as confusing as calling a machine part also a machine:

if you use the word "machine", nobody knows, what you really mean. There are some examples that companies have renamed old functional departments to be called processes. This is convenient, because then you need not to change anything else – but you do not get any improvements either!

Other Improvement Items of ISO 9001

Indefinite terminology of ISO 9001 causes troubles for implementation of the standard in some cases. This may create disputes inside of an organization and also the auditors of a certification body may have different opinions what are the real requirements of ISO 9001. In few cases a procedure itself is not well-defined and has created criticism among the quality experts. The unclear terminology and content of requirements make both internal and external auditing difficult.

Review terminology: The word "review" has been used in different meanings (ISO 9001). The table below the author has listed the identified problems and has proposed solutions for avoiding ambiguous meanings of the review word.

ISO	Original expression and a potential problem	Proposal
9001		
4.2.3	Control of documents: Review of documents in the meaning that the documentation is comprehensive enough and up-to-date.	This review activity of documents can be replaced by the expression "to <u>supervise</u> documents".
5.6	Management review: A management meeting has to be organized for reviewing the QMS at least once a year.	This review means a <u>review meeting</u> and it is the real and important requirement for the QMS maintenance and improvement.
7.2.2	Review of requirements related to the products (contract review): The requirements are unclear, because the same procedure is not suitable for a contract of a standard product costing 10 \$ or a complicated project costing 100 M\$.	This requirement can be replaced by the expression of " <u>Checking</u> and reviewing". The checking procedure is a good enough practice for standard products. A real review meeting is needed for complicated products and projects. An organization has to define the criteria for different types of contract procedures.
7.3.4	Design and development review: This review should be a review meeting but sometimes an organization wants to carry out this review as a document checking activity carried out by individual persons.	These reviews should be organized as <u>review meetings</u> , because that is the only way in identifying potential problems and in finding out solutions for the problems normally laying on the borderlines of different design disciplines.
7.5.2	Validation of processes for production and service provision: The first step is "Defined criteria for review and approval of the processes".	The word "review" is not needed at all, because the word " <u>approval</u> " is a good expression for this activity.
8.5.2	Corrective action: Reviewing nonconformities in the meaning that nonconformities are collated and analyzed and reviewing the effectiveness of the corrective action taken.	Reviewing nonconformities can be replaced by the terms of " <u>Collating and analyzing nonconformities</u> ". The latter reviewing activity can be replaced by the expression " <u>ensuring</u> the effectiveness", because that is the real content of the activity.

The expression "review meeting" can be simply replaced by the term "review", if the review always means that a meeting must be organized. This needs to be clarified in ISO 9001 description.

Corrective actions: Some quality experts criticize that the content of this chapter means that a real cause for each nonconformity must be found. In mass production this is not possible. The text should describe that each *special cause* must be identified but the *system causes* can be analyzed utilizing methods specified by an organization. In many organizations these two categories of causes have not been identified at all even though it is crucial in analyzing quality nonconformities according to Deming (1986).

Preventive actions: Preventive action chapter should be removed from ISO 9001. There are hardly any evidences that this is needed or that it is really applicable. In majority of certified companies there is not a single case. The very nature of ISO 9000 QMS has been designed to prevent nonconformities: planning, document checking, contract reviews, design reviews, product quality control, maintenance of processes, etc. The author has seen a certified company without a description of this requirement in its documentation; this is of course mainly a certification issue problem.

Internal audits: In real life many companies utilize unqualified internal auditors. There might be a large pool of trained auditors but they may carry out only 0-2 audits annually. This kind of auditor is almost incompetent. The author has found out that this practice has been justified on the basis that the auditors will make "benchmarking" and they will learn something good from the other departments. The audited activity is not normally any benchmarking case. Benchmarking is a very different process. The results of audits could be sorted out and the real best internal practices should be identified and spread to other departments and processes. Stricter requirements for internal auditors are needed in order to improve the quality of internal audits.

Motivations to Certify and Quality of Certification

The need for the certification of QMS of an organization is based on the real need. Before certification important material suppliers and sub-contracting companies learned that their customers wanted to audit their QMS performances. The number of audits increased and in some companies there were customer audits every week. The same issues were audited again and again. Certification means that a neutral certification body carries out external audits and the customers do not need to audit anymore. Number of certified companies has increased rapidly, because it is in many cases a customer requirement with the message: we shall not audit but the certification body will do it. Some companies have acquired the ISO 9001 certificate even though they operate in consumer business. This is an exception and the real reason usually is to improve the image of the company.

There are common doubts that because a typical reason for certification is customer requirement, the companies seek the certification just in order to indicate fulfillment of regulatory requirement but not to improve quality. Anderson, Daly and Johnson (1999) have carried out a research with a large sample of 514 certified public companies in USA. The results showed that majority of companies (about 80 %) did not seek the certification primarily in response to regulatory requirements but indicating effective quality management practices. This result is in line with the research study of Ollila (1995) that according to the customer satisfaction surveys, 8 from 10 certified ISO 9000 companies in Finland had improved quality as perceived by customers in comparison to the earlier performances before ISO 9000 implementation.

The real problem in certification is that the quality of certification varies too much. There is no scientific evidence but this is a personal experience based on the co-operation with three certification bodies. Variation is mainly due to the skills and attitudes of individual auditors. An auditor may put unnecessary high demands on small details but big deficiencies get not enough attention. Sometimes auditors want to please the customer not being too demanding. Of course there are cases that a customer wants to change an auditor for these two reasons. The real problem is that the customers of certified companies shall find out that the certification process produces too much variation. ISO organization should put more attention for controlling the quality of external auditors.

CONCLUSION

The author has analyzed the criticism for ISO 9000 QMS and found out that there is no good evidence for these allocations. A general mistake is to blame the tool, when the management is not capable in applying the system. The main good features of ISO 9001 QMS in improving the performance of an organization have been summarized: common elements for good QMS, contract reviews, turning tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, audits and control of quality of production machinery and equipment. Even though 90 % of the content of ISO 9001 is up-to-date, there are some improvement items: process definitions and requirements, review terminology, auditor requirements, content of corrective actions and deletion of the preventive actions. Also the certification process produces fluctuations partly because of poor control of external auditors and partly because of content of ISO 9001 definitions and requirements.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Antero Ollila is an Adjunct Associate Professor of Project Quality Management at Aalto University. He can be connected at Policy and Foresight, Aalto University, Otakaari 1, Box 11000, 00076 Aalto, Finland. Email: <u>antero.ollila@aalto.fi</u>

SAS 70 TO SSAE 16 / ISAE 3402: AN INSIGHT INTO OUTSOURCING SECURITY AND PROCESS CONTROLS, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF NEW SERVICE AUDIT STANDARDS

Ankita Sinha, Indian Institute of Information Technology Allahabad Ankita Jaiswal, Indian Institute of Information Technology Allahabad Rahul Gupta, Indian Institute of Information Technology Allahabad Vijay K. Chaurasiya, Indian Institute of Information Technology Allahabad

ABSTRACT

Over the past few years terms like service organizations have become very popular with an adoption of outsourcing of services-seen as a way to contain, if not diminish, costs and simultaneously increase control over revenue utilization. Also having compliance with legal bindings preventing financial frauds and validating efficiency and effectiveness of internal controls which pulls SOX act of 2002 into the scene. In order to enjoy operational and financial security, up to an enhanced level, corporate executives are required to follow SOX Act of 2002. Service providers are organizations who serve private and public companies and deliver services that might substantially influence the company's fiscal statements, thereby enabling service providers to put up with the U.S. Statement on Auditing Standards No.70, in the post SOX epoch. SAS70 catalyzed the gradual emergence and popularity of SSAE 16 and ISAE. This paper is particularly intended to discuss the modifications in service audit standards, why proceed to SSAE16 "the attestation" standard" / ISAE3402 "the assurance standard," from SAS No.70, focusing on the Service Organization's Risks and the significant relationships between the two novel standards. To conclude, it observes major differences, performs gap analysis and suggests the inclusion of control objectives and use of IT General Controls.

KEYWORDS: SAS70, SSAE16, ISAE3402, Outsourcing Controls & Risk Management, Service Audit standards

INTRODUCTION

In this era of globalization and increase in the use of technology in every field of life, outsourcing has gigantically grown. Market demands, worldwide competition and stakeholders' expectations, forced companies to incorporate deductions in their operating costs. Outsourcing alone contributes to US \$180 billion-plus industry and 75 percent of IT industry is using it in some or the other form.

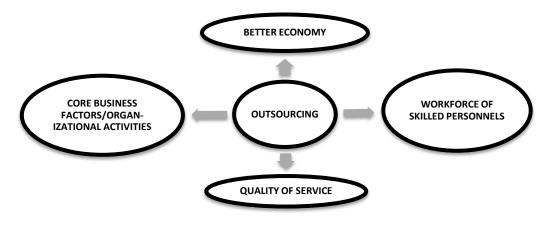
LITERATURE REVIEW

Outsourcing helps organizations to transfer or share the delivery of services to third parties. The advent of outsourcing coined concept of user and service organizations and both aimed to work for the same objective.

Key drivers for outsourcing (figure 1): Figure 1 depicts the cardinal forces responsible for outsourcing. But as there is a famous saying that there is no such thing as absolute security, henceforth there are prevelant risks in business process outsourcing too.

Risks associated with outsourcing: In order to understand the risks associated with the service organizations and outsourcing we need to understand the schema shown in figure 2.

Figure 1: Key Drivers for Outsourcing



DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this era of ICT, capability to control and produce maximum output from critical abilities is the main motive for most of the companies, unlike the traditional concern about abilities related to ownership of a company. The only way to ensure consistency of service provision is to employ an approach that helps and regulates both the client and the supplier interface. Therefore an IS audit of outsourcing must be holistic, capturing the complete picture. SOX require corporate executives to ascertain and give enhanced operational and financial security.

The flow of sequence: The framework shown in figure 3 can explain the sequence of activities in an outsourced environment. The most important Section 404 makes essential for the company's independent auditors to attest to and report on management's assessment and to document the internal controls that affect the financial information. Not only this but also the widely accepted set of documents that is commonly found as the basis for an information security program i.e. the "Control Objectives for Information and Related Technology" (COBIT) has a dedicated process DS2 (from Delivery and support) for managing third party services.

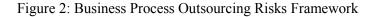
COBIT and third party services: COBIT employs generally accepted structure to do the process of third party audit:

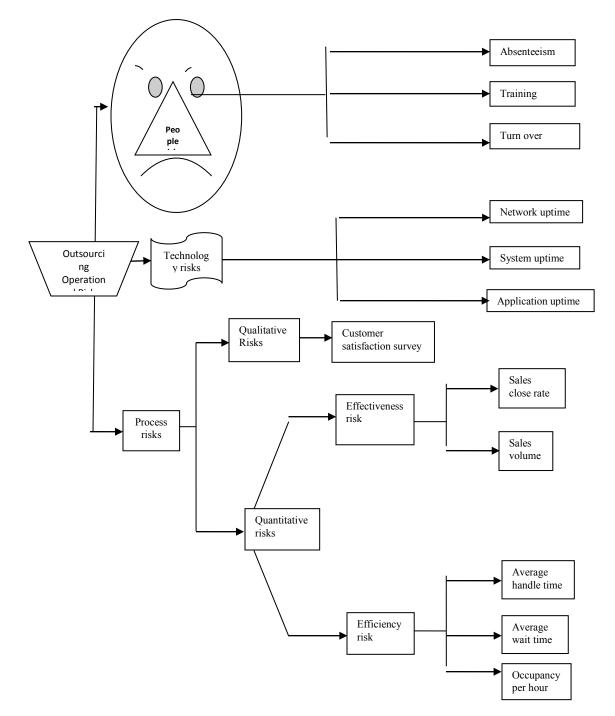
- For the processes being audited, gathering an understanding of business requirements, appropriate and applicable control measures and associated inherent risks
- For the assessment of the stated IT process controls for their appropriateness
- Pertinent to criteria, peculiar to organization being audited, along with application of professional judgments of the auditor and industry best practices, assess the appropriateness
- Assessment of compliance by testing
- Substantiating the control objectives' risks

For example, an entity can plan its contractual relationships with outsourcing partners, negotiation of its IT outsourcing agreements and design strategies under the guidance of DS2. Section 404 of SOX makes essential for corporate executives of public companies to add a report by management, on its report on evaluation of internal controls during the fiscal reporting in each yearly report.

Statement on Auditing Standards No. 70: Over the past 40 years, Statement on auditing standards No.70 (SAS 70) have been the prevalent U.S. standard for reporting on controls at service organizations. A SAS 70 Report discloses control activities and processes of service organizations to customers and their

customers' auditors in a uniform format and helps a service organization to build trust and loyalty with its customers.

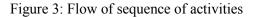


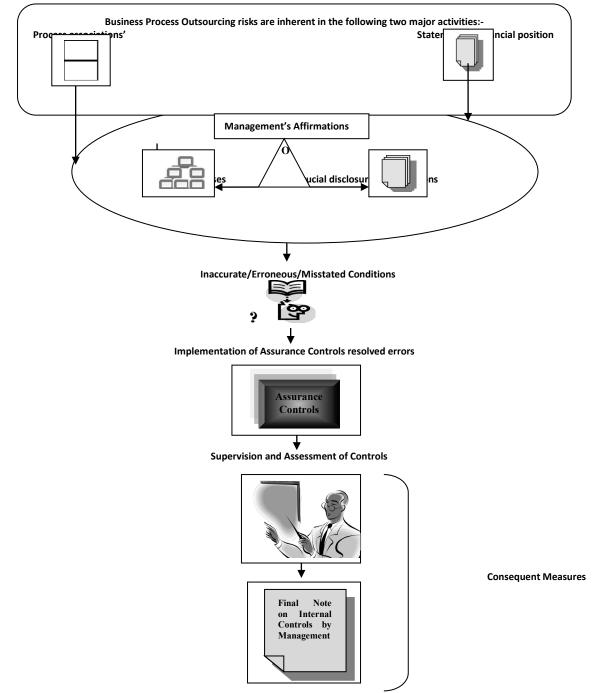


Why was a change in the SAS 70-audit standard needed? The change was required for a variety of reasons. Out of them, the most significant one was to make the SAS 70 audit standard compatible with SOX. SOX compels management to present assertions on their internal controls over financial reporting

while the SAS 70 audit standard is not an assertion based standard. Henceforth SAS 70 became the accelerator for birth of SSAE 16 and ISAE 3402. These two new standards talk about:

• Assertions — Can be defined as the formal management's representations that are incorporated in the financial statements





• Assurance engagement — Documented summary generated by industry practitioner to enhance the extent of client's confidence.

The "International Framework for Assurance Engagements" proposes two types of assurance engagements:

- Reasonable assurance engagement this attribute gives decrement in assurance engagement risks to an acceptable level.
- Limited assurance engagement— this attribute gives decrement in assurance engagement risks to an acceptable level with an addition of the circumstances of the engagement, where certain risks could be greater than an acceptable level, for a reasonable assurance engagement.

SSAE16 is an "attestation" standard, while ISAE 3402 is an "assurance" standard. Being technically different, they both require management to give details of its "system" and a written assertion statement unlike SAS70 standard, which only needed description of "controls."

What is included in ISAE 3402? Affirmation based schema and security risk based methodology are the cardinal constituents of ISAE 3402. Moreover, owing to the need of risk identification, analysis, mitigation and suitably designing the control activities for business processes, the Service Organizations' Management makes affirmations. Then the service auditors reconsider these assertions for their opinion unlike the direct reporting on control activities as per SAS No. 70 audit standard. ISAE 3402 presents a vivid and comprehensive declaration and description about the entities/personnel, performing the testing operation along with the operational performance of testing of control activities. Furthermore, it substantially authorizes service auditors to take legitimate steps in cases involving fraudulent inaccuracies, fiscal or otherwise, and legal binding with the regulations.

SAS70 versus SSAE 16/ISAE 3402 – an insight and gap analysis: Comparing the old with the new we reached to a conclusive table of differences as shown in TABLE 1, which led us to the process of gap analysis between the old and the novel as evident from TABLE 2.

S.NO.	ATTRIBUTE	SAS70	ISAE3402 / SSAE16
1	Board	AICPA	IAASB
2	Scope	Focuses on controls over processing of financial transactions	Can have extension beyond financial reporting
3	Type	Audit standard	Assurance standard
4	Opinion / Assertion	The auditor opines directly on the subject matter without any formal management assertion.	Management provides formal opinion as well as formal assertion, affirming its accountability for the controls in the report.
5	Disclosure Requirements for use of Internal Auditor	Internal Auditor's work to support service auditor's opinion is not disclosed.	Internal Auditor's work used to form service auditor's opinion shall include details of the internal auditor's work and the service auditor's methods with respect to that work.
6	Audit Guide	Annually issued audit guide provides guidance that includes detailed control objectives for various types of service organizations.	There is no separate Audit guide and guidance for the service auditor is solely contained in the ISAE standard itself.
7	Time Factor	For Type II reports, the opinion on fair presentation of the system and suitability of design is as of a point in time.	For Type II reports, the opinion on fair presentation of the system and Suitability of design is for the period covered by the report.
8	Reporting requirement	Description of controls	Description of System

Table 1: Comparison Between Sas70 And Isae3402/Ssae16

LEGEND of terms used for attributes in TABLE 2:

- *FT*: indicate the restrictions of controls, imposed by service organizations, applicable to the processing of fiscal transactions.
- *OT:* indicates extendibility of draft beyond statement of fiscal declarations.

- *MA*: indicates an add-on to the auditor's opinion, provided by the management's affirmations, in the report based upon auditor's opinion.
- *D of IA:* indicates, inclusion of service auditors' modus operandi related to the description of the job of internal auditors, to produce the service auditors' opinion.
- *AG with CO:* For different types of service organizations, this acronym indicates, yearly-renewed *Audit Guide* with *descriptive* control objectives.

 Table 2: Gap Analysis Between The Old (Sas70) And New (Isae3402/Ssae16)

NEW STANDARD →	ISAE3402/SSAE16 →	FT	ОТ	MA	D OF IA	AG WITH CO	TWO TYPES OF REPORT
$\begin{array}{l} \text{OLD} \\ \text{STANDARD} \rightarrow \end{array}$	SAS70 ↓						
S.No.	Attributes considered \downarrow						
1	FT	Y					
2	OT		Ν				
3	MA			Ν			
4	D of IA				Ν		
5	AG with CO					Ν	
6	Two types of report						Y

Legend: Y: Exist In Both N: Indicates Gap

Control objectives: These can be well defined and mapped as shown in the table III. Management always wants their controls to be "effective" which means that controls are effective in prevention and detection of errors. The control objectives specified in TABLE 3 may help

- auditors in assessing the effectiveness of controls in organization; and
- management in giving away affirmations on the auditor's reports

Assertions: Company management, about the financial position, discloses statement of fiscal affirmations. TABLE 4 shows these assertions. TABLE 5 presents criteria of validating the existence of those assertions.

FINDINGS AND PROPOSED VIEWS

The discussions and analysis done so far led us to the conclusion that the area of "defined and descriptive control objectives" is still vague and this inspired us to move ahead reaching to the following set of proposed views.

LIMITATIONS

- Service organizations are going to face a larger amount of responsibility due to introduction of these novel standards.
- Unlike smaller organizations, larger ones with convoluted assembly of processes, has to suffer an increment in time-element.
- During the comment period, it was observed that service auditors were not interested on the disclosure of whether the service auditor or internal auditor performed the testing. The reason behind this may be the confusion of the reader on division or separation of duties or the fact that the engagement of the internal auditor may be questioned if disclosure of amount of testing occurs.
- The new standard may prove to be too burdensome and constraining with regard to fraud exposure or disclosure for the auditor.

• There is no specific application guidance in the proposed standard that may deal with smaller, governmental entities and less complicated entities.

Table 3: Illustrative Control Objectives

S.N O	AREA	CONTROL OBJECTIVES	PROCEDURES	CONTRO LS
A	Information System			
a)	Production programs	Production programs required to process batch and online transactions are correct, valid and executed as well as		
b)	Data Backup	Backed up data is retrievable and retained		
c)	Check on Processing	Complete and timely identification, recording, tracking and resolving of processing incidents in an accurate		
В	Information Security			
a)	Access control	To enable restriction of access to sensitive programs, data and other information, logical security techniques and		
b)	Authorization	To enable only authorized individuals to access or use information physical access restrictions are administered		
c)	Physical Security	Data, programs and other resources are protected against environmental hazards and related damage.		
С	Change Management			
a)	Modifications and up gradation	Modifications and up gradations are made to applications, hardware, the network and systems software are approved		
D	Pension Administration			
a)	Accepting Clients	In accordance with client agreements and applicable regulations, accounts are set up and administered. Prior to		
b) c)	Processing Transactions & Maintaining and	Transfers of members' funds between investment options, contributions to defined contribution plans, benefit Member records are updated regularly		
E)	Updating Information	Investment transactions, related income, balances,		
Ľ	Technology			
a)	Restricting Access to Data	Logical access to master data, computer systems, programs, transaction data and parameters including		
b)	Providing Resilience &	IT processing is scheduled and authorized appropriately, Transaction of data between the service organization and		
c)	Maintaining Hardware,	Development, implementation and maintenance of new systems, applications and software, and changes to		
d)	Monitoring Compliance	Properly monitored and managed outsourced activities		

Table 4: Financial Statement Assertions

S.NO.	FINANCIAL STATEMENT ASSERTIONS	EXPLANATION
1	Existence	An assertion, that at a point in time, an asset or a liability exists.
2	Occurrence	An assertion, that a recorded event or transaction, actually occurred during the period.
3	Valuation or Measurement	An assertion, that an asset or liability is recorded at an appropriate amount. An assertion, that revenue or expense, is allocated to the proper period and a transaction or event is recorded at the proper amount
4	Completeness	An assertion, that there are no unrecorded transactions, events, assets, liabilities or undisclosed items.
5	Rights and Obligations	An assertion, that at a point in time, an asset or a liability pertains to the company.
6	Presentation and Disclosure	An assertion, that an item is properly described, disclosed and classified in the financial statements

Table 5: Validating Existence of Assertions

S.NO.	QUESTIONS REGARDING ERRONEOUS/INACCURATE/MISSTATED CONDITIONS	ASSERTION
1	What ensures correctly coded cash disbursements?	Completeness
2	What ensures that cash disbursements/transfers are recorded in the proper period?	Completeness
3	What ensures that duplicate postings of cash disbursements are not made to the general ledger?	Occurrence
4	What ensures that cash disbursements are real?	Existence/Occurrence
5	What ensures the recording of all cash disbursements?	Completeness
6	What ensures that cash disbursement amounts recorded agree with amounts paid?	Valuation/Measureme nt

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE

Considering the resultant risks in an outsourced scenario, undoubtedly SSAE No. 16 is going to replace the existing SAS 70 audit standard. Moreover, the AICPA has come to a decision to follow proactive tactics of CPA with complete obligation and liability, to ascertain the presence of fraud and develop a draft for the same. SSAE 16 incorporates a risk-based procedure to judge effectualness of control objectives/activities and review the competency of controls. They tend to incorporate, enhanced risk assessment method considering audit constraints, in the company, to find the appropriateness of controls. They can also uncover the less worthy control activities that are not required. They can provide assistance in determining significant but absent controls. They disallow service auditors to involve in the process of assertion.

- Still there is scope of improvement in the new standards; guide of specific control objectives as given in ISO27001 or COBIT standard, is missing in the new auditing standard. The specified sets of control objectives can ease the task of auditor.
- Standards may have such additional application guidance that would recommend the COSO or COBIT report as a reference for service auditors and their clients.

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BIOGRAPHY

Ankita Sinha, ankita.jan2@gmail.com, Ankita Jaiswal, ankitaa.jaiswal@gmail.com, Rahul Gupta, rahulgupta@iiita.ac.in, Vijay K. Chaurasiya, vijayk@iiita.ac.in , can be contacted at Division of Cyber Law & Information Security, Indian Institute of Information Technology Allahabad, Jhalwa, Allahabad-211012, (U.P.) India

HUNTING FOR TRUE GREEN CONSUMERS: A MULTICULTURAL INVESTIGATION OF CONSUMERS' GENUINE WILLINGNESS TO SHARE THE RESPONSIBILITY OF SAVING THE ENVIRONMENT

Samar M. Bager, Kuwait University

ABSTRACT

Our planet has been suffering because of irresponsible human activities. Global warming and scarcity of natural resources are among the growing concerns around the world; especially that their effects on human health and quality of life are increasing rapidly. Since a human's effect on the environment, most of the time, is based on the way he/she consumes, researchers in the marketing field are continuously investigating environmental issues. Therefore, concepts such as green lifestyle and green consumptions are to be used in this research in order to answer the proposed research questions. This research project aims at investigating theses concepts among consumers in three countries: The United States of America, Kuwait, and Turkey. These three countries were chosen based on the level of income and development. The focus will be mainly on exploring the main factors that should be available for consumers to become genuine green ones. A genuine green consumer is an individual who plans his/her lifestyle to become environmental friendly. Moreover, a genuine green consumer is the consumer who not only environmentally responsible, but also is committed to convert his family and friends/peers into green individuals.

JEL: M30, M31 (JIMMR)

KEYWORDS: Green Consumers, Consciousness, Skepticism, Locus of control

INTRODUCTION

The movement for environment preservation and stopping pollution started in the 1960's and since that time the pressure on governments and political systems kept on increasing in order to take actions towards saving the ecological system (Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Alsamdi, 2007). This global concern regarding the environment deterioration translated into a growing commitment of businesses towards changing their processes in an attempt to protect what left in the environment (Farj and Martinez, 2007). The pressure on business started in the 1980's when the academic research proposed the upcoming increasing environmental threats in the 1990's (Straughan and Roberts, 1999). Throughout the years, companies moved from just reducing pollution into changing their products' design and their communication methods in order to keep up with the environmental movement.

The serious deterioration of the environment started to become obvious in the 1990's (Alsamdi, 2007). Most of the strong environmental movements gained their importance during that decade (Paco et al. 2009). The usual dilemma is trying to find the balance between preserving the environment and at the same time sustain the economic growth. Consumers in the United States and in Western Europe are more aware of the ecological problem and they are more willing to become more responsible and careful when it comes to their consumption methods (Stone et al. 1995).

The concept of ecological consumption has been discussed and measures by several methods in previous literature (Granzin and Olson 1991, Guagnano et al., 1995, Stone et al., 1995, Sanchez et al., 1998). Some of the concepts that were discussed are consumer commitments, responsibility, attitude towards recycling,

willingness to pay more for green products, etc... (Farj and Martinez, 2007). One of the changes in the social systems is the emergence of new type of consumers called "ecological consumers" (Farj and Martinez, 2007).

The uniqueness of this research stems from the focus on three different cultures that have different cultural, political, and economic background. The main objective is to identify the profile of genuine green consumer based on the external and internal factors that could affect him/her. The research will start to investigate the external factors that might affect consumers' sense of responsibility towards the environment. These external factors include the government role, business role, and family and social factors. Other variables will be investigated as moderators. These variables include consumer skepticism, locus of control, and beliefs.

General Information about the chosen countries:

USA: The environmental movements in the United States are stronger than the ones in Turkey and Kuwait. The environmental concerns are among the priorities discussed by the American government. There is a continuous growth in the number of companies obtaining certifications for green buildings (Miller and Washington, 2009). Moreover, the use of solar energy (and other forms of natural energy) is on the plan of several big companies such as Kohl's, Macy'a, Target, and Wal-mart (Miller and Washington, 2009). The use of plastic bags is reduced in several retailing shops and eliminated in others such as Whole Foods (Miller and Washington, 2009). These efforts made by companies are increasing consumers' access to green products. Discussing the growth of the green retailing in the United States is not the main concern of the current research. A general picture of the situation is discussed for the purpose of comparing the three countries investigated.

Business research in USA started to show interest in environmental studies since 1960's and link it to the political situation (Roberts, 1996). Based on Roberts (1996), the green consumption had different trends in the 1990's in the United States including: "1) green products became mass market commodities, 2) consumers show preference and support for green companies, and 3) increase of green products' categories". Previous literature has shown that consumers in America are willing to pay higher prices for green products because of their belief that it is going to improve their quality of life in the future (Rao and Bergan, 1992; Lambert, 1996; Vlosky et al., 1999).

Kuwait and Turkey: It is very hard to find environmental research in Kuwait especially; in the field of green business. The lack of interest in such research topic and the low priority that environmental issues have would be among the reasons behind the unavailability of data. Most of the available environmental research in Kuwait is about the oil industry and the post-war situation (after the 1991 war with Iraq). This problem of lack of research is usually common in developing countries (Latvin, 1998).

The environmental situation in Kuwait:

After the Iraqi invasion to Kuwait, the environmental status of Kuwait had changed dramatically due to the damaged marine life and the polluted air. During the liberation war (Desert Storm), the Iraqi regime decided to abuse the environment as means of revenge (Khordagui, 1991). The Iraqi regime damaged the environment in Kuwait through the following actions:

- a. Spilling almost 12.5 million barrels of crude oil in the water and polluting marine life.
- b. Polluting the air through lighting up almost 600 oil-well heads.

c. Destroying the land and the agriculture through tank continuous movements.* (Khordagui, 1991).

In 2001 a sad environmental incident happened in the marine life in Kuwait. Thousands of dead fish washed up on the coast of Kuwait in August 2001(GLEG, www. greenline.com.kw). The sad incident encouraged a group of young Kuwaiti activists to start the first independent green group in the GCC region. The Green Line Environmental Group is still an active source of information for individuals who are seeking information and tools for becoming green citizens (UNEP.org).

Turkey, on the other hand, has established some base of business research in the field of green marketing. Research in Turkey has shown that individuals are usually concerned with the daily challenges and they have little interest in preserving the environment (Muzaffar and Emine, 2005). The authors suggested some remedies for the current situation in Turkey including: 1) educating consumers about the result of their consumption habits on the long run, 2) rewarding concerned consumers as type of encouragement, 3) more media focus on concerned consumers, and 4) collaboration among media, government, and private sector for the purpose of spreading the awareness (Muzaffar and Emine, 2005).

The environment was mentioned for the first time in the Turkish constitution in 1961 (Ozdemir, 2003). The concerns regarding the ecological problems grew rapidly in the 1980's especially in the industrial areas of Turkey (Ozdemir, 2003). More explanations were added to the Turkish constitution in 1982 which led to the use of natural gas and therefore; the reduction of pollution in rural areas (Ozdemir, 2003). Turkey started to change its education system to include environmental studies specially; at the university level with the growth of environmental engineering (Ozdemir, 2003). This happened as a result of Turkey's continuous attempts to join global organizations and the European Union (Ozdemir, 2003).

<u>EVI</u>

Environmental Vulnerability Index is one of the indices used by the UNEP (United Nations Environment Development) and it is usually combined with the social and the economic indices in order to prepare countries for sustainable development.

Based on the EVI Country Profiles presented by the SOPAC, Kuwait and Turkey are both considered highly vulnerable countries with EVI's of 323 and 353 respectively. Apparently, Turkey is very close to becoming an extremely vulnerable country unless they take major actions to reduce the damages (current and expected) in their ecological system. The United Sates, on the other hand, is considered vulnerable with an EVI of 300.

<u>ESI – EPI</u>

Another environmental classification is the ESI (Environmental Sustainability Index). It was an initiative based on the collaboration among Yale Center for Environmental Law and Policy (YCELP), the Center for International Earth Science Information Network (CIESIN) of Columbia University, the World Economic Forum and the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission. The initiative started in 2001 at the World Economic Forum in Davos, Switzerland. At the forum the ESI was defined as "the ability to produce high levels of performance on each of the dimensions in a lasting matter" (World Economic Forum Report, 2001). In 2010 163 countries were ranked based on 25 performance indicators. The United States of America was ranked 61 with an EPI of 63.5. Turkey was ranked 77 with an EPI of 60.4. Kuwait, on the other hand, was ranked 113 with a low EPI of 51.2.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH MODEL

Definitions of Green Consumption

Farj-Andres and Martinez-Salinas (2007) defined the green consumer as an ecological consumer who is "an individual interested and concerned for the environment and shows an important verbal and real ecological commitment". Alsamdi (2007) defined green consumers as "environmentally conscious consumers who are loyal to green products". Another definition of green consumers is: "consumers whom purchases are influenced by the environmental issues", was explained by Shrum et al. (1995). A seminal research of categorizing green consumers was written by Chitra (2007). In that research, the author presented four different categories of consumers: "1) Aspirants: the ones who wish to purchase green products at reasonable price, 2) Addicts: the ones who are addicted to buying green products, 3) Adjusters: the ones who look for satisfying products (green or not green), and 4) Avoiders, the ones who do not believe in green consumption or green marketing" (Chitra, 2007).

Effectiveness: Another seminal paper in the field of green marketing is the one written by Montgomery and Stone (2009). In that paper the authors presented a cultural comparison with regards to environmental attitude in 5 countries (Azerbaijan, Spain, Italy, USA, and Venezuela). The dimensions that were used to measure environmental responsibility were: awareness of the environmental issues, available knowledge, skills, and a true desire to become active (Montgomery and Stone, 2009). The idea of the genuine desire of consumers to convert into effective green consumption was introduced by Fransson and Garling (1999) in their influential paper in the Journal of Environmental Psychology. Fransson and Garling based their work on the scale of ecological attitude introduced by Maloney et al. (1975) in which they relied on four variables: verbal commitment, actual commitment, affect (emotional commitment), and knowledge (Fransson and Garling, 1999).

In the current research, a true green consumer is the one who is going to be transformed into a leader and an influential voice in his/her community. The role of reference groups and opinion leaders has a noticeable importance in affecting the purchasing decision for green products (Welsh and Kuhling 2009).

Consciousness: Alsamdi (2007) defined environmental consciousness as: "showing a strong sense of environmental responsibility". Among the activities that show consumers" consciousness are: recycling, buying environmental friendly products, reducing the use of energy, etc... (Miller and Washington, 2009). Another investigation of consumers' consciousness was introduced by Schlegelmilch et al. (1996). The authors discussed consciousness through four dimensions: perception of knowledge, recycling, attitude, and political actions (Bohlen et al., 1993; Schlegelmilch et al., 1996). Hence,

H1: Environmental consciousness will have a relationship with the creation of True green consumers.

External factors

Media: The media can play a very informative role in the process of educating consumers about the current ecological problem. Advertising could pay more attention to changing the misconception of green life style by showing it as a convenient and affordable one (Laroche et al., 2001). Another aspect that should be advertise is the positive changes in environment that could happen by simple changes in consumers' current consumption behavior (Laroche et al., 2001).

Role of the government: The environment is shared by nations around the world therefore; the reinforcement of an international law is essential for solving the ecological problems facing our planet (Esty, 2008). Each country needs to have a special regulatory system that starts at the city level in order to preserve the environment based on the compliance with a global governance system (Esty, 2008).

Esty (2008) discussed the role of UNEP (United Nations Environment Program) and its diminishing effect on nations due to: 1) the high level of bureaucracy and 2) the lack of the availability of performance indicators of countries to follow. Moreover, the location of UNEP (Nairobi, Kenya) represents another problem when it comes to job demand (Esty, 2008).

Business: With the increase of the ecological knowledge among consumers, companies started to produce green products are less harmful to the environment (Pride and Ferrell, 2008). Alsamdi (2007) defined green marketing as "marketing activities within a framework of environmental responsibility". He also defined green products as "products that do not harm the environment" (Alsamdi, 2007). Companies are increasingly communicating their environmental activities in an attempt to strengthen their reputation and image in the public (Davis, 1994). Moreover, companies advertise their collaboration with NPO's and charity organizations to support their good image (Davis, 1994). Among the environmental activities advertised are: protection of wild life, green business processes, preserving natural resources, etc... (Davis, 1994). Moreover, companies are changing the targeting strategies to include consumers' level of commitment to preserving the environment (Schlegelmilch et al., 1996). Investigating the green consumption habits is one of the important aspects of segmenting consumers by environmentally active companies (Schlegelmilch et al., 1996). Hence,

H2: External factors have a relationship with the creation of True green consumers.

Skepticism: Kolmuss and Agyeman (2002) explained some of the cognitive and emotional barriers that consumers might have a direct effect on consumes' green behavior. Among the discussed barriers are: 1) the idea of slow deterioration of environment, 2) the complexity of the environmental problems, 3) the non-immediacy nature of environmental problems, and 4) lack of awareness hence lack of emotional involvement (Kolmuss and Agyeman, 2002). Another aspect of consumers' skepticism is the confusion associated with the mixed advertisement messages and companies' false claims (Shrum et al., 1995). Moreover, the perceived high cost of green products, level of bureaucracy, lack of environmental regulations, strict regulations, and price/convenience dilemma, could be affecting consumers' level of skepticism with regards to green consumption (Magrath, 1992; Ottman, 1994; Roberts, 1996). Skepticism could be another reason for the gap discussed in previous research between intentions to become green and the actual green behavior (Roberts, 1996). Hence,

H1a: Consumers' skepticism is going to weaken the relationship between consciousness and the creation of True green consumers

H2a: Consumers' skepticism is going to weaken the relationship between the influence of external factors and the creation of True green consumers

Locus of control: Montgomery and Stone (2009) explained the concept of locus of control as the control over external environment. When a person does not have a control over external factors, he/she will not believe in the effectiveness of their actions in preserving the environment. This type of lack of control could cause some level of frustration for individuals; hence they become skeptical and willing to offer their help anymore. The authors called this the locus of control. That's when the individual is having the skills to make others aware of the current environmental issues. Hence,

H1b: Locus of control is going to affect the relationship between consciousness and the creation of True green consumers

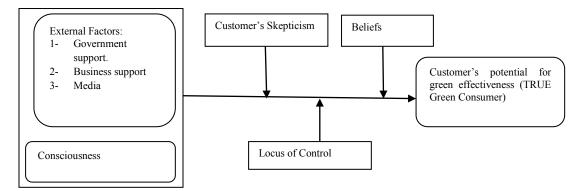
H2b: Locus of control is going to affect the relationship between consciousness and the creation of True green consumers

Beliefs: One would think that the religion will be a source of guidance for the protection of the environment. Eckberg and Blocker (1989) found mixed results with regards to Christian beliefs concerning the environment. The Bible and the Quran interpretations represent guidance for environmental ethics (Ozdemir, 2003). Hence,

H1c: Spiritual Beliefs are going to affect the relationship between consciousness and the creation of True green consumers

H2c: Spiritual Beliefs are going to affect the relationship between consciousness and the creation of True green consumers

Figure1: Model



As depicted above, the independent variables are considered as the antecedents that are important for turning consumers into genuine green ones. The dependent variables represent what this research defines as genuine green consumer. A consumer who not only changed his/her behavior in order to become more committed toward the protection of the environment, but also is committed to influencing his/her family, peers, and society.

Research Design: In this study, three different countries will be investigated. The survey was distributed to students in these three countries. There was no translation needed especially; that the chosen universities are English-teaching ones. Some interviews were conducted with individuals and business experts in the field of marketing as a preparation for the future research.Simple survey is the data collection instrument chosen for this research. The method was chosen for three main reasons: 1) simplicity, 2) time constraints, and 3) high level of generalizability (McGrath, 1982; Ary et al.,1996). English was used in the three countries. The main subjects are undergraduate and graduate students finishing their degrees in Kuwait University, University of Texas at Arlington, and Bilkent University in Ankara.

Validity Issues

- 1) Based on Cook and Campbell (1976), there is a number of threats that could affect the internal validity, but most of which were controlled in this study by the random selection.
- 2) External validity applies in this study since the results could be applicable to different settings, time, and groups of people (Cook and Campbell, 1976).
- 3) The main concern that could be threatening the constructs' validity in this study is the problem of confounding constructs and the level of constructs (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). In the current study, the thorough definition of constructs and the use of multiple scale items were adopted in order to control for other threats to construct validity.

Measures

Some of the questions used in the survey were based on previously developed scales obtained from the literature. Some of the questions were added to some of the scales for a better fit for the context of the current research. Moreover most of the questions were altered to obtain better fit and more simplicity. The following are the resources of the used scales:

- Consciousness: Roberts 1996 & 1999
- Skepticism: Weigel & Weigel, 1978 and Brwon and Wahlers, 1998
- Consumer effectiveness (involvement): Stone et al., 1995
- Government Role: Weigel & Weigel, 1978 and Brwon and Wahlers, 1998
- Beliefs:
- Locus of control: Montgomery and Stone 2009

Data Collection And Ethical Issues

It should be noted that the researchers (in the three countries) had to point out to the subject that the participation of this study is voluntary and that there is no rewards associated with it. An information sheet was distributed with the surveys to indicate that the only benefit of participating is knowledge gaining and research support. The contact information of the principle researcher was listed on the information sheet as well. All subjects were aware that they will not be asked to provide any personal information. There were 300 surveys distributed in the College of Business at Kuwait University. An assistant researcher was hired to administer the data collection process and then be responsible of the data entry stage. The principle researcher had to leave Kuwait to do the same at the University of Texas at Arlington. The research assistant received 260 filled surveys from the subjects.

The number of completed surveys without missing data was 251. The total number of distributed surveys at The University of Arlington at Arlington was 400 and received ones were 270. The number of fully completed surveys was 258. The Principle researcher was not able to travel to Turkey therefore; Dr. Ahmet Ekici (Assistant Professor of Marketing at the College of Business at Bilkent University) was asked to help in the data collection process. More than 300 surveys were distributed and 306 were returned. There were 15 surveys that had a lot of missing data and they had to be eliminated. A total of 282 surveys were complete and used in this study.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The following is general descriptive data of the demographics for the three counties (see Appendix B for the complete tables).

	К	luwait	Tu	rkey	USA		
Response	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
YES	68	27.1	25	8.9	107	41.5	
NO	183	72.9	257	91.1	151	58.5	

Table1: Perception of the country's environmental friendliness

	Ku	wait	Tur	·key	USA		
Response	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
YES	84	33.5	38	13.5	208	80.6	
NO	167	66.5	224	88.5	50	19.4	

Table2: Perception of the country's economic success

Exploratory factor analyses were used for the data obtained from each country. The varimax rotation method was used to have a better description of the extracted factors. A few items had to be deleted due to multiple loadings. The items were deleted in the three data sets. Please refer to Appendix C for the list of factors extracted and the indicators measuring them. In addition, Appendix D provides tables of factor loadings for the three data sets.

Scales' Reliability: To assess the reliability condition and the reduction of random error, this study relied on values of Cronbach coefficient alpha that is equal to or higher than 0.7 (Crano et al., 1973; Nunnally, 1978). The following is a table of the reliability of each factor used in the model for the three countries.

Table3: Scale Reliability

	Kuwa	it	Turke	у	USA	
Scale	Total Var.	Alpha	Total Var.	Alpha	Total Var.	Alpha
	Explained		Explained		Explained	
Consciousness	17.97%	0.751	19.40%	0.848	20.70%	0.865
External	31.17%	0.905	29.30%	0.903	39.90%	0.943
Skepticism	41.34%	0.903	38.54%	0.753	50.70%	0.929
TrueGreen	50.33%	0.873	47.40%	0.896	59.80%	0.907
Locus Control	58.50%	0.906	55.20%	0.699	68.12%	0.920
Belief	65.70%	0.885	62.50%	0.961	76.44%	0.803

Table4: Descriptive statistics

	Kuwait			Turkey	USA			
Mean	Std. Dev.	Ν	Mean	Std. Dev.	Ν	Mean	Std. Dev.	Ν
4.71	1.15	251	4.90	1.20	282	4.22	1.40	258
6.17	0.80	251	6.02	0.92	282	5.68	1.01	258
3.76	1.36	251	5.32	0.66	282	4.04	1.29	258
3.93	1.28	251	4.04	1.36	282	3.62	1.51	258
4.97	1.47	251	5.6	0.805	282	5.27	1.17	258
5.52	1.05	251	3.8	1.89	282	3.67	1.43	258

Н	KUWAIT					TURKEY					USA				
	R2	Adj. R2	Beta	ANOV F	A Sig.	R2	Adj. R2	Beta	ANOVA F	Sig	R2	Adj. R2	Beta	ANOVA F	Sig
H1	.292	.289	.541	102.8	.000	.23	.227	.437	83.46	.000	.34	.334	.580	129.9	.000
H1a	.292	.287	.001	51.19	.984	.24	.235	.248	44.08	.052	.35	.343	.157	68.08	.036
H1b	.302	.296	.136	53.62	.065	.236	.231	.168	43.19	.116	.373	.37	.375	75.82	.000
H1c	.341	.336	.400	64.27	.000	.26	.255	.220	49.1	.001	.38	.37	.291	77.7	.000
H2	.067	.064	.260	17.98	.000	.034	.031	.185	9.87	.002	.303	.30	.550	111.23	.000
H2a	.068	.060	_ .0.09	9.005	.766	.064	.057	.288	9.465	.003	.317	.312	.139	59.19	.022
H2b	.074	.067	.198	9.965	.172	.04	.035	.145	6.06	.138	.336	.33	.269	64.4	.000
H2c	.130	.123	.393	18.55	.000	.102	.095	.283	15.78	.000	.35	.34	.272	68.32	.000

RESULT

Based on the results listed above, one could see that, in the three countries, consciousness has a relationship with the creation of True green consumers (H1). On the other hand, external factors have a clear effect on creating true green consumers, only in the United States (H2). Moreover, skepticism has a negative influence on that relationship (H1a, H2b). The spiritual beliefs have a moderating effect on the relationship between external factors and the creation of True green consumers in Kuwait and Turkey (H2c, H2c).

CONCLUSION

This research aims at finding the right combination of factors that could create a true green consumer who can help in preserving what is left from natural resources. Based on the results, one could see that Kuwait and Turkey are in serious need for environmental education for the populations to understand the dangers of their pattern of consumption. The understanding of the government role and locus of control should have shown more significant results if consumers were aware of the environmental laws and the citizen actions that are available in Turkey and Kuwait.

Limitations: The main challenge facing this type of research is the difficulty of collecting sufficient data from three different cultures. The control over the sampling process and the survey distribution was another challenge especially, in Turkey. Other general limitations are the expected ones while using a survey as the main instrument of data collection. Such limitations include the level of honesty in the answers provided. The time frame of completing this project was another limitation. Such research requires an extra longitudinal type of research in order to capture the change in consumers' perspective over the years.

Future Research

The logical completing step for this research is to focus on the business pint of view. The concept of business sustainability and social responsibility are to be investigated based on the results of this current research. Another direction to be explored is the focus on specific product/service categories and hunt for their true green consumers. It would be interesting to find out whether consumers are considered true green ones regarding specific product categories versus others.

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AN ANALYSIS OF CO2 AND GDP

Peg Horan, Wagner College Jean-Claude Darné, Wagner College

ABSTRACT

At this scientific point in time, it has been irrefutably determined that carbon emissions from the dependency on fossil fuels are the chief cause of global warming. In December 2010, the United States had legislation proposed, which was to make it economically attractive to reduce carbon emissions. The goal here is to reduce by 17% of 2005 levels by 2020 and 80% by 2050. China is often cited as an emerging economy, with a rapidly increasing GDP, with related increases in carbon emissions. In the aftermath of the recession, most governments have given their full attention to issues of economic growth. Inherent in this movement is the relationship between economic growth and carbon emissions which are perceived to moving in tandem. Thus as a research interest, this paper investigates this veracity by exploring the data of four countries characterized by different economic standing to test the hypothesis that a strong correlation between GDP and carbon emissions exist. The results strongly support the hypothesis for the four countries; however, Germany strongly correlates in a negative fashion; rising GDP with decreasing CO₂.

JEL: F01, O13

KEYWORDS: GDP, CO₂ emissions, carbon emissions, United States, Germany, China, Costa Rica, Global Warming

INTRODUCTION

This topic of carbon emissions and its tie to GDP growth starts with the discovery and recognition of Global Warming. Historically as people we have been concerned about the changes in the earth's climate. The study of paleontology or the study of the history of the earth, had started to become a recognized field of science starting in the mid 1700s and its identification of Proterozoic or Ice Age of 800 to 600 million of years ago and its thereafter periods of following changes supported the claim that climate has varied greatly over time. As science became more robust and sophisticated and its ability to measure atmospheric changes were enhanced the notion that human behavior may attribute to atmospheric temperatures was entertained. It was in the 1930s that Guy Stewart Callendar, an English engineer and inventor made the official scientific connection between carbon dioxide emissions and global warming. This accepted theory is referred to as the "Callandar Effect". This also coincides incongruously with the 1920-1925 opening of Texas and Persian Gulf oil fields which initiated a period of inexpensive energy ("The Discovery of Global Warming" 2011).

Over the next thirty years scientists were able to construct complex computer models which were able to depict the past, present and future of changes in global atmosphere due to Carbon Emissions. For a period of time thereafter debate persisted if global warming was scientifically irrefutable or if it was basically an unproven theory that had support of special interest groups. Money for most scientific research came basically from governments, and after World War II, the United States funded much of it research around its concern with Russia and the Cold War. During the 1960s and 1970 the United States created major agencies for space, atmosphere and ocean exploration and concern developed over the effects these endeavors were having on the environment. This was largely from small unfunded environmental groups known as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as the Sierra Club, Friends of the Earth, and Greenpeace (Evans & Steven, 2007) that most likely obtained support of the Flower Children generation. Then political divide over this issue; with conservatives being faulted for not

wishing to make the financial investment to fund this endeavor, with the radical left being faulted for placing the cost of environmental protection before economic development.

The science behind the destruction caused by carbon emissions is that the earth is encircled by a protective shield called the ozone layer that keeps the ultraviolet rays of the sun at bay. Too much gas emission from the CO_2 emission compromises the ozone layer, causing a rise in the earth's core temperature. Once the possible magnitude of this situation became apparent enough for global concern, the world governments created a panel to evaluate the severity of the situation. This Panel is referred to as the Intergovernmental Panel Climate Change (IPCC) which grew out of the United Nations and it was formed in 1988 (Evan & Steven, 2007).

Thereafter there was the World Climate Conference held in Geneva in 1990 and the Earth Summit in Rio DeJaniero in 1992. Then in 1997 the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change was held in Kyoto, Japan. This conference is referred to as the Kyoto Conference, whereby 191 countries ratified the effort to reduce greenhouse gases. Under Kyoto, developed countries agreed to reduce their emissions by and average of 5.2% below 1990 levels by the time the treaty expired in 2012 (Evans & Steven, 2007). Mainstream public awareness was also made through two major movie productions 1) *The Day after Tomorrow* (2004) and 2) in Albert (A1)Arnold Gore's movie *An Inconvenient Truth*.

The latter was released in 2006 in the United States and world wide in movie theatres and was viewed one million people at the box office at the time of its release ("Inconvenient Truth", 2006). This movie was recommended for viewing on the Oprah Winfrey Show and is also been available since its release at Blockbuster and Netflix. This movie came to the public, with the indelible image of a cartoon polar bear fighting for his life as the ice caps he needs for survival melt away, can be recalled by most people who watched the movie. In 2007 Al Gore in conjunction with the IPCC received the Noble Peace Prize in recognition "for their efforts to build up and disseminate greater knowledge about man-made climate change, and to lay the foundations for the measures that are needed to counteract such change" ("The Nobel Peace Prize of 2007", 2007).

The most recent Climate Change Conference was held in Copenhagen, Denmark in December 2009. Representatives from 193 countries met to readdress the climate issues from the Kyoto Conference from 1997 which provisions were to expire in 2012. The European Union was the first region to set up a carbon market which started in January 2005 (Stankeviciute, Kitous & Criqui 2008). At the time of the Conference, the U.S. had made some legislative progress by passing in the House of Representation in June 2009, the American Clean Energy and Security Act, or the Waxman-Markey Bill, which was to put into place a cap and trade system to curtail carbon emissions. However, that bill failed to obtain Senate approval after the Conference in July 2011. The overall consensus was that the results of the conference were disappointing as no hard tangible goals were delineated. The Copenhagen Accord was signed by five major nations being the U.S. China, India, South Africa, and Brazil. The U.S. was represented by our President Obama. The agreement was three-fold in that member countries agree to 1) legislate to effect carbon curtailment, 2) transparency in carbon results reporting and 3) financial assistance to developing countries that are most vulnerable to help them adapt to reduce carbon emissions. President Obama, in his speech at the conference expressed that the U.S. will fund \$10 billion by 2012 and committed to \$100 billion by 2020 in funding to vulnerable countries but expects progress and transparency in reported improvements as conditions. In closing, the group of 77 developing countries denounced the accord (Mill, New York Times, 2010).

That being said the state of the topic is that there is a great divide in the climate control project. The idea of a cap and trade market is to assign tolerable carbon emission by country and then more specifically by industry, and then again by company. The out is that if there are carbon overages, they can be bought away with credits that can be purchased from carbon emission savers, from say a country like Costa Rica.

Although the cap and trade market is only operative in the European Union, there is sentiment that it will be revisited by the U.S. once the financial crisis is put to rest. This however begs the question of this equitability, since it is assumed that CO_2 is driven by GDP, and will this have the result of curtailing GDP development for certain countries.

As it was well put by the report put out by the Friends of the Earth, A Dangerous Obsession, 2009 (p11) when it comes to reducing carbon emission the object is to have it "done in a just and equitable way." This leads to the research question "Is CO_2 driven by GDP" and "Does this depend on the economy type of the country studied". This was explored by following data.

The Data

The data used in this study was obtained from the International Energy Agency (IEA). Among the core objectives of the IEA are worldwide energy security, economic growth and protection of the environment (International Energy Agency, 2010). The IEA collected and shares statistical information ideal for this study. Thus, the researchers herein overcame the need to recalculate incongruent data fro multiple sources, which was the experience in the initial stages of the study in regard to CO₂ emissions and GDP data. The IEA's *CO*₂ *Emissions Form Fuel Combustion Highlights* contains comprehensive GDP and CO₂ emissions data from 1971 through 2008. These were the data points of GDP & CO² for the sample countries of the U.S., Germany, China, and Costa Rica. Also, the IEA Secretariat is an official contributor of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) methodologies for estimating greenhouse-gas emissions and is the most often cited source in this field of research (International Energy Agency, 2010). Finally, these data are for energy-related CO₂ emissions specifically (emissions from fuel combustion only) and therefore relate strongly to economic activity. GDP data is originally sourced from the *National Accounts of OECD Countries, Volume 1* for 2010 and the World Bank's 2010 *World Development Indicators* for non-OECD member countries. 2000 exchange rates were used to convert foreign currencies to US dollars (International Energy Agency, 2010).

GEOGRAPHICAL COVERAGE

The U.S, Germany, China, and Costa Rica represent three economic groups based on the size of their economies. The United States and Germany are industrialized economies actively pursuing green energy programs, China is an emerging economy with growing energy demands, and Costa Rica is a smaller, less developed economy but a world leader in renewable energy investment. These three economic categories were selected to determine if the trends observed differed between economic groupings. The United States includes the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Germany includes the new federal states of Germany from 1970 onward. China includes the People's Republic of China and Hong Kong (China).

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Simple linear regression models were used to study the relationship between CO_2 emissions and the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for each country.

$$y_i = B_0 + B_1 X_i + e_i$$
 (1)

Where y_i =value of the dependent variable in the ith trial or observation which is here the CO_2 B_0 = first parameter of the regression equation which indicated the value of Y when X B_1 = second parameter of the regression equation called regression coefficients, this indicates the slope of the regression line.

 X_i = the specified value of the independent variable in the ith trial or observation which here is the GDP

 e_i = random-sampling error in the *i*th trial, or observation (Kmenta, 1971)

DATA ANALYSIS

P-values were obtained to determine the significance of the hypothesis. In each case, the p-value was less than 0.001%. The results of the study are summarized below in Table 1. The results are statistically significant. A coefficient of determination (R^2) was obtained to measure the degree of variation between the two variables. Worth noting is that US and Germany had lower R^2s (89% and 86% respectively) which may be indicative of the past and present measures taken by these countries to curb CO₂ emissions through investment in clean energy generation while maintaining steady GDP growth (Ernst & Young, 2011). China, U.S. and Germany respectively are the top three leading countries for renewable energy investment in 2011 (Ernest & Young, 2011). It is plausible that the high R^2 of CO₂ emissions and GDP for China of 97% show that the large renewable energy investment is more than offset by its exorbitant growth in GDP with its corresponding emissions. Lastly, despite huge investment in the transport sector, is contributing to the country's CO₂ emissions rise which also reflects a R_2 for CO₂ and GDP of 96%. As such, the relationship between the two variables remains significant for each of the four countries.

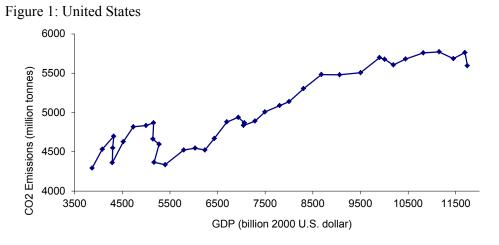
Table 1: Results of Data Analysis

Country	P-value	R ²
United States	0.0000000000	0.89
Germany	0.0000000000	0.86
China	0.0000000000	0.97
Costa Rica	0'0000000000	0.96

This table summarizes the statistical analysis of CO² emissions and GDP data in Table 2. To demonstrate the significance of the data used in this study P-values and coefficients of determination were obtained in the analysis.

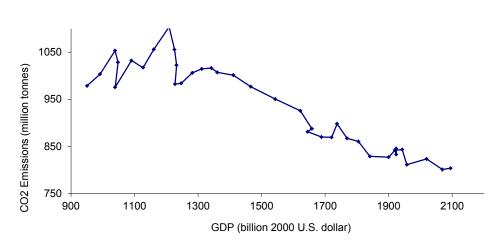
The following is a graphical presentation of the regression results by country and a brief discussion of their implications.

As can be seen from the graph, the trend of rising CO_2 emissions and GPD, there are points in the data that reflect rising GDP data with corresponding improvements or decreases in CO_2 , specifically 2002, 2006 and 2008 (see Table 2). Starting in 1997 and going forward, rising GDP corresponds with a tapering off of CO_2 . With greater investment in renewable energy, CO_2 emissions can be expected to decline. The Obama Administration has set an ambitious 2035 target of 80% of electrical generation from renewable energy sources. This would reduce CO_2 emissions by 49% and result in a net economic saving of \$820 billion over the next 22 years (Ernest & Young, 2011). This implies deviation from the trend of rising GDP mirrored by rising CO_2 emissions. With increased investment and economic saving, GDP would continue to rise as CO_2 emissions drop.



This figure shows the relationship between CO² emissions and GDP in the United States between 1971 and 2008. CO² Emissions and GDP data are taken from Table 2.





This figure shows the relationship between CO² Emissions and GDP in Germany between 1971 and 2008. CO² Emissions and GDP data are taken from Table 2.

As illustrated in Figure 2 and Figure 3 representing Germany CO_2 emissions have been slowly dropping while GDP continues to climb. An extra graph, showing movement in the individual CO_2 and GDP is presented for Germany since the movement here is not in tandem or linear, which is the case for the U.S., China and Costa Rica. The PEW Environmental Group (2011) (that ranks the G-20 nation's renewable energy markets) ranked Germany - Europe's largest economy – higher than the U.S. with \$41.2 billion invested in renewable energy in 2010. Germany plans to generate 39% of its power through renewable energy resources by 2020. This will require a €9.7 billion investment in high voltage lines alone (Ernest & Young 2011).

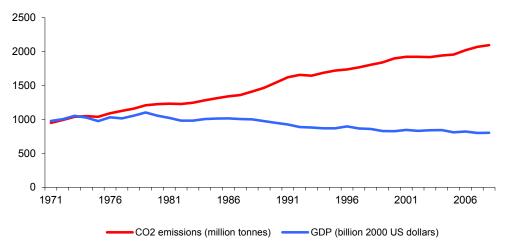
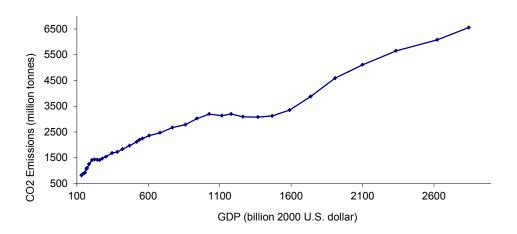


Figure 3: Divergence of CO₂ emissions and GDP in Germany

This figure shows the divergence of CO² emissions and GDP in Germany between 1971 and 2008. CO² emissions and GDP data are taken from Table 2.

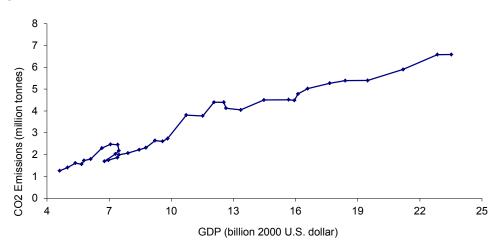




This figure shows the relationship between CO^2 emissions and GDP in China between 1971 and 2008. CO^2 emissions and GDP data are taken from Table 2.

Due to China's rising energy demands, it has replaced the U.S. as the largest emitter of CO₂. At one point, according to the *New York Times* on June 11, 2006, 'Every week to ten days another coal fired power plant opens somewhere in China.' (*Barboza & Bradsher, 2006*) That said, it is also pursuing greener alternatives. In 2011, both Ernest & Young (2010) and The PEW Environmental Group (2011) ranked China as the most attractive renewable energy market with an investment of \$54.4 billion in 2010 (The PEW Environmental Group, 2011). While China's CO₂ emissions are not expected to wane, the government intends to curb investment in renewable energy in an effort to stabilize the overheated economy. The trend of rising GDP and CO₂ emissions is expected to continue.

Figure 5: Costa Rica



This figure shows the relationship between CO² emissions and GDP in Costa Rica between 1971 and 2008. CO² emissions and GDP data are taken from Table 2.

Despite the comparatively small size of Costa Rica's economy, due to its rather unique energy mix, it is an interesting and noteworthy addition to this study. 25 years ago, Costa Rica's energy mix was 50% oil and 50% hydro-electric. After heavy investment in hydro-electric, wind and geo-thermal, by mid-2009 95% of the country's energy came from renewable energy sources (Friedman, 2009). In fact, Costa Rica is the first country to set the ambitious target of carbon neutrality, reducing its net global warming emissions to zero (Natural Resource Defense Council, 2006). So aggressive is its pursuit of this target that when oil was first discovered in Costa Rica in 2004, the government chose to ban oil drilling (Friedman, 2009). The *Natural Resource Defense Council (2006)* view Costa Rica as being the first fossil-fuel free economy, a far more ambitious – yet attainable – goal than carbon neutrality. While Costa Rica can rely on its vast tracks of forested land and reforestation programs to offset its CO₂ emissions, due to its growing economy and an oil-dependant transport sector, (as seen in Figure 6) CO₂ emissions continue to rise relative to its GDP growth.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion the data does show a very strong relationship between CO_2 emission and GDP. Three of the four countries studied are cited as the three top countries with the highest investment in renewable energy. Germany, the abnormally in this study, has a backward or negative slope of CO_2 and GDP. Germany is making great strides to reduce CO_2 emissions. The largest investor in renewable energy is China; however their investment is being more than offset by growing energy usage. The U.S. is making smaller strides in this area. Costa Rica, while being devoted to carbon neutrality still follows the trend of rising CO_2 emissions coupled with GDP growth. Looking forward, global investment in renewable energy is expected to reach \$635.35 billion by 2015 (Alternative Energy eMagazine, 2010) from \$243 billion in 2010 (Ernest & Young, 2011). Overcoming the dependence on non-renewable energy – through greentech investment – provides a number of economic benefits. These include: reduced pollution – reduced human health costs, reduced energy imports – domestic job creation and use of local resources, greater energy diversification – lower, more stable electricity prices (Union of Concerned Scientists, 2005). That said, energy dependence on non-renewable resources (oil, coal and gas) and global warming (from its CO_2 emissions) remain the key motivators for investment in renewable energy today.

APPENDIX

Year		GDP (billion	2000 US dol	CO2 emissions (million tonnes)				
	USA	Germany	China	Costa Rica	USA	Germany	China	Costa Rica
1971	3867	951	133	5	4291	979	810	1
1972	4081	991	140	5	4532	1003	862	1
1973	4322	1039	154	5	4698	1053	896	2
1974	4299	1048	157	6	4548	1029	915	2
1975 1976	4291	1039 1090	168 172	6 6	4361 4628	976 1032	1062 1105	2 2
1976	4523 4733	1090	172	6 7	4628 4817	1032	1250	2 2
1978	5000	1161	207	7	4834	1056	1410	2
1979	5157	1209	224	7	4869	1104	1431	2
1980	5142	1226	243	7	4662	1056	1420	2
1981	5273	1232	258	7	4596	1022	1408	2
1982	5168	1228	278	7	4365	982	1466	2
1983	5402	1247	305	7	4335	984	1541	2
1984	5791	1282	347	7	4522	1006	1679	2
1985	6029	1312	384	7	4546	1015	1727	2
1986	6235	1342	419	8	4522	1016	1831	2
1987	6433	1361	470	8	4669	1007	1970	2
1988	6696	1411	520	9	4879	1001	2118	2
1989	6935	1466	539	9	4937	977	2199	3
1990	7064	1543	560	10	4869	950	2244	3
1991	7045	1622	607	10	4835	926	2361	3
1992	7285	1658	684	11	4890	888	2469	4
1993	7495	1645	769	12	5007	881	2670	4
1994	7803	1689	860	12	5088	870	2781	4
1995	8002	1720	941	13	5139	869	3022	4
1996	8305	1738	1027	13	5304	898	3196	4
1997	8679	1769	1116	13	5482	867	3133	4
1998	9061	1805	1180	14	5479	860	3197	5
1999	9502	1841	1262	16	5506	829	3091	5
2000	9899	1900	1368	16	5698	827	3078	4
2001	10007	1924	1468	16	5678	845	3125	5
2002	10190	1924	1589	17	5605	833	3349	5
2003	10445	1920	1736	18	5680	842	3872	5
2004	10819	1943	1908	18	5758	843	4589	5
2005	11150	1957	2100	19	5772	811	5108	5
2006	11449	2019	2335	21	5685	823	5649	6
2007	11693	2069	2623	23	5763	801	6076	7
2008	11742	2095	2844	24	5596	804	6550	7

Appendix A: Table 2: GDP and CO₂ Emissions Data

This table contains the GDP and Table 2 CO₂ Emissions Data for the four countries in this study. These data are obtained from the International Energy Agency (2010) CO² Emissions from Fuel Combustion Highlights 2010 Edition.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Margaret Horan is faculty member at Wagner College. She can be contacted at Wagner College, One Campus Road, Staten Island, NY 10301, US. Email: phoran@wagner.edu

Jean-Claude Darné is an MBA student at Wagner College. She can be contacted at Wagner College, One Campus Road, Staten Island, NY 10301, US. Email: jean-claude.darne@wagner.edu

CONCEPT THINKING

Mikko Sääskilahti, University of Lapland

ABSTRACT

In this paper we present a new mind-set referred to as concept thinking. Development tasks can be seen as concepts covering all parts of business. Concept thinking ensures large-scale innovativeness and finite entities. We introduce a model which defines the role of engineering and concept thinking in development initiatives. The more abstract a development task is, the greater the role of concept thinking is. Also the results of an interview study on the most successful companies in Finland are presented here. We found that all the companies had sharp concepts and highly specialized business models.

JEL: O21; O31

KEYWORDS: concept thinking, concept development, new business development

INTRODUCTION

In today's complex business environment, it is difficult to separate e.g. new product, service, and business development from one another. The factors leading to breakthrough solutions and innovations may lie within different fields such as products and services, business and finance, organization and networking, and processes and production. We claim that companies need a new mind-set to consider these areas systematically. This paper introduces *concept thinking* as a new approach and mind-set in the aforementioned context. Concept development is traditionally seen as the most critical phase of a development process (Perttula and Sääskilahti, 2004, Orihata and Watanabe, 2000), and very often it has been connected to product and service development activities (Khurana and Rosenthal, 1998, Alam, 2006, Kim and Wilemon, 2002). The front end process is often described as being fuzzy because of its unsystematic nature. Systematic concept development is often seen as a tool to reduce the fuzziness of the early stages of development (Alam, 2006, Perttula and Sääskilahti, 2004).

Nevertheless, Sääskilahti et al. (2008) argue that the traditional interpretation of concept development is not wide enough; business should be considered as a whole. In their paper, Khurana and Rosenthal (1998) argue that the greatest success is achieved by organizations that take a holistic approach to the front end. They continue that a comprehensive approach to the front end effectively links business strategy, product strategy, and product-specific decisions. New concepts can be created by forming holistic packages. In concept thinking, all parts of business will be taken into consideration. Indeed, concept development should be seen as a mind-set rather than a mere phase of the development process.

STUDY AND RESULTS

To examine successful concepts we made a small interview study in Finland in winter 2011. This study is part of the ProtoProducts project carried out by the University of Lapland, Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences, and the Lapland Vocational College. The project is funded by the ERDF (European Regional Development Fund). We picked up fourteen companies among the most successful manufacturing companies in Finland in 2010 to gain an overview of the forerunner concepts supporting our development initiatives within the food industry in Finnish Lapland. We interviewed seven companies from the food industry, three from the textile and fashion industry, and four from other manufacturing industries. The ProtoProducts project aims to understand the mechanisms of the food business and food product development and to find a useful model for concept development in food companies.

In our study we found that the best companies have sharp concepts and a high degree of specialization. The most interesting finding was that food companies and textile and fashion companies had the same recipe for success: they had special raw materials and/or a special manufacturing process, they had found a narrow market niche to which they offered special products with no or low competition, and they had created a unique and authentic brand. Also the role of skilled workforce was considered to be very important because of the special materials and processes used in the companies.

A company must also be agile and be able to serve customers in a tailored manner. We found that when a concept is clear, it is easy to develop new products on it. Both the food and the textile companies had a wide range of products under their brands, and they had reached new user groups by developing suitable products in line with the existing concepts. According to our study, product development was altogether seen as a very important issue. One food company had an especially interesting concept. They had a group of small bakeries that were built on a joint concept. They delivered their products in a different manner compared to their competitors and they guaranteed the daily freshness of their products. They also made sure that the dealers did not have to worry about unsold products. In addition, their products were fancy, featuring unique brands and stories. This company also had a well-defined system for financing its expansion. Multiplying a concept is, of course, nothing new – e.g. supermarket, restaurant, and gas station chains have been doing it for ages. All in all, this proves that there is a great deal of untapped potential in many businesses concepts. Actually, we can say that companies have two ways to grow: either they create new concepts or they multiply one concept.

CONCEPT THINKING

In our approach, a concept is an entity with products and/or services in the core and four main fields around it: offering, process, finance, and delivery. This model is a modification of an innovation classification referred to as *Ten Types of Innovation* (www.doblin.com). We have noticed that all businesses have these components, and most importantly, all these components can be realized innovatively. Thus, when creating a new concept the development activities should cover all these components. Also, this model helps to ensure that a concept will be solid and that no part of it will be discarded without deep examination. Innovative organizations are constantly producing new ideas, but the ideas are often isolated and loosely connected to the business. Thinking through concepts enables innovators to handle larger entities. They are able to think not only in terms of product and service ideas but also in terms of how money can be made, how products and services are delivered, and how value is shared within a network.

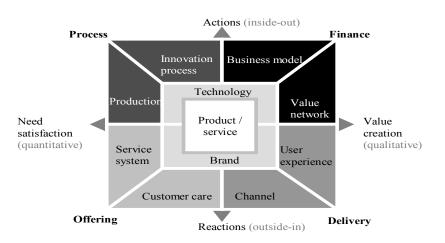


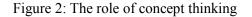
Figure 1: Theoretical structure of a concept

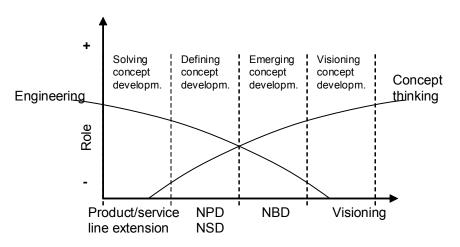
Many companies have multiple businesses in their corporate portfolios, and often these businesses have been built on a specific technology (Burgelman et al., 2009). Traditionally, companies have built businesses on technologies but nowadays technology itself is not necessarily seen as a key to success and, as said before, innovation may emerge in areas such as brand development or product delivery. We believe that concept thinking would help companies to re-evaluate their core competencies and to abandon the thought that technology is in the core of innovation. Companies can build new businesses more freely if they are not tied to certain technologies but can instead find right solutions case by case. There are many examples of businesses that have failed while trying to hold on to a certain technology even though the signs of change have been apparent.

Product-centric thinking is dangerous if there is no clear vision of the whole concept and especially of the user experience. Thinking through concepts, it is easier to draw a bigger picture and understand for example the general purpose of a service system. Design thinking can be seen as part of concept thinking. Basically, design thinking is to think differently (Davis, 2010). In this context, every part of a business must be questioned when developing a new business or when reshaping an existing one. While design thinking is a mind-set forcing people to think out-of-the-box, concept thinking forces one to think in systems. In concept thinking, many parts are linked to one another, and if one part is changed, others need to be redefined too. Büchel (2005) argues that managers dislike new business ventures as they are loose, uncertain, flexible and ever-changing and do not fit neatly into the corporate policies of successful companies. She also continues that innovation is, however, critical to maintaining a competitive advantage, and extending the core businesses only goes so far. We believe that concept thinking would be beneficial in new business ventures.

ROLE OF CONCEPTS

We argue that the more abstract a development task is, the more important the role of concept development becomes. In new business development and visionary work, new concepts and concept thinking become indispensable because of the complex nature of the development activities. And vice versa, engineering work dominates in product and service design but loses its significance when new businesses are developed. In the case of product/service line extension, concept thinking is actually not needed because the concept already exists and stays intact. On the other hand, when creating new visions, all the plans may stay at a conceptual level because the new concepts are formulated only to support decision making – not to be realized as such.





In this model the role of engineering is considered to be strong in the development of new products and services because product (service) development is often conducted by following formal product development processes. However, the more radical a product or service innovation case is, the stronger the emphasis on concept development is. In radical product and service development, the related business areas also need to be restructured, which means that e.g. the value network or delivery issues must be questioned. Then concept thinking should take on a significant role. Nevertheless, when developing line extension or face-lift types of products and services, concept thinking is not necessary because the core concept remains unchanged.

Concept development activities vary according to the type of development in question (Pertula and Sääskilahti, 2004, Sääskilahti et al., 2005). When creating upgrades or line extensions, designers seek the best solutions by developing competitive design concepts. Very often there is a need to solve problems innovatively when designing new products and services. We refer to this type of concept creation as *solving concept development*. In NPD/NSD the role of concept development is to draw a big picture of the development project to communicate and test the concept before it is developed further. Multitalented teams can also divide the design tasks while still heading toward a common target. A well-defined concept is the key to successful product and service development (Sääskilahti, 2010). We call this type of activity *defining concept development*.

In new business development (NBD) new and emerging things are gathered together. We refer to this approach as *emerging concept development*. The role of concept thinking is very strong, and the innovativeness of a concept can depend on various parameters such as the new business model, services, or brand and user experience. *Visioning concept development* is important when developing new concepts for studying and decision making purposes. In this category the main purpose of study may be to develop and test a new business model, a product or service design, user interaction, networking, or delivery channels. Nowadays concept development of this type is mainly restricted to product concepts especially in the automotive and consumer electronics industries and in the IT sector. Visioning is not commonly used when creating new holistic business concepts. In our opinion, new business development has huge innovative potential which is lying dormant because systematic concept development methods and approaches are not used as efficiently as they could be.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we have presented a new mind-set referred to as concept thinking. We argue that the focus is presently moving from product and service development towards concept development, where all parts of business are re-examined. Concepts should be seen as the core of business; some companies grow by developing and launching new concepts, and on the other hand, some grow by multiplying an individual concept. Further product and service development is fluent when there is a strong concept to follow. The ability to change also increases when a business is based on concept thinking because renewals concern whole concepts – not just single products or services. The role of concept thinking changes according to focus. In product development, engineering has a stronger role than concept development but in new business and visioning activities, concept thinking should dominate. Concept thinking enhances the ability to see the bigger picture and makes it possible to question every part of business.

Cooperation inside organizations is a big question mark – how do designers, innovation teams, business people, and managers find a common language so that they can develop new and holistic concepts. What processes, methods, and tools are needed? We are familiar with product and service prototyping and testing, but how do we prototype entire concepts in the early phase? How can we involve customers and other interest groups in the work? The world has plenty of fine companies with interesting concepts, and their best practices should be transferred from one industry to another. Moreover, universities should

think about how multidisciplinary cooperation and concept thinking could be taken into account in their education.

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BIOGRAPHY

Mikko Sääskilahti is a researcher at Faculty of Art and Design, Department of Industrial Design, University of Lapland, He can be contacted at: University of Lapland, Yliopistonkatu 8, FI-96300 Rovaniemi, Finland, Europe. Email: Mikko.Saaskilahti@ulapland.fi

PORTRAIT OF A COMPANY: DEFINED BENEFIT PENSION PLAN SPONSORS

Karen C. Castro-González, University of Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

This study describes firms that sponsor defined benefit pension plans (DBPP) based on firm specific characteristics, financial and operating performance. Firms are classified into portfolios based on their funding levels and described accordingly. The results suggest that firms in the most underfunded portfolio are on average smaller and value firms, with negative stock returns, poor financial and operating performance, lower profitability, invest smaller amounts in advertising, research and development and capital assets and are more indebted with higher probabilities of bankruptcy. The opposite is seen for the least and overfunded firms. The portrayal of these characteristics can help regulators in the effective identification of firms that may confront funding problems before it is too late. The detection of risk behavior or tendencies in terms of firm characteristics can help regulators in establishing policies to decelerate and improve pension plan funding levels and to protect the public interest.

JEL: G11, G23, M48

KEYWORDS - Defined benefit, pension plans, pension management, pension regulation

INTRODUCTION

How do firms that sponsor pension plans look? Do they all look alike? Firms that sponsor pension plans can be described based on their funding levels, size, financial and operating performance, to mention a few. Most importantly, they can be described based on the type of plan they sponsor. A pension plan is defined as an arrangement whereby an employer provides benefits (payments) to retired employees for services provided in their working years. Employers fund pension plans by making payments to a funding agency. The two most common types of pension plans are defined contribution (DC) plans and DBPP. In a DC plan, the employer agrees to contribute to a pension trust a certain sum each period, based on a formula. A company usually turns over to an independent third-party trustee the amounts originally contributed. The trustee, acting on behalf of the beneficiaries, assumes ownership of the pension assets and is accountable for their investment and distribution. The trust is separate and distinct from the employer. In terms of risk, the employee gets the benefit of gain (or the risk of loss) from the assets contributed to the plan.

In contrast, DBPP delineates the benefits that employees will receive when they retire. To meet the DB commitments that will start at retirement, a company must determine what the contribution should be today. Companies may use many different contribution approaches. However, the funding method should provide enough money at retirement to meet the benefits defined by the plan. The employees are the beneficiaries of a DC trust, but the employer is the beneficiary of a DB trust. Under a DB plan, the trust's primary purpose is to preserve and invest assets so that there will be enough to pay the employer's commitment to employees. The trust is a separate entity but the trust assets and the liabilities belong to the employer. That is, as long as the plan continues, the employer is responsible for the payment of the defined benefits (DB) (without regard to what happens in the trust). The employer must make up any deficit in the accumulated assets held by the trust. On the other hand, the employer can recapture any excess accumulated in the trust, either through reduced future funding or through a reversion of funds.

For years, firms that sponsor DBPP have been hard-pressed by regulators, government and employees to meet their pension funding obligations. As a result of these pressures, laws and regulations have arisen in past years. For an employer the cost of sponsoring retirement benefits sometimes is steep. The need to properly administer and account for pension funds becomes apparent when the size of these funds is understood. For example, consider General Motors Corporation. The size of the pension fund for 2004 is \$99,909 million, the pension expense is \$2,456 per employee and its pension expense as a percentage of pre-tax income is 52.27 percent. Consider Hewlett-Packard, the size of the pension fund is \$9,168 million, the pension expense is \$594 million, and the pension expense as a percentage of pre-tax income is 14.16 percent. The size of Coca Cola's pension fund is \$2,800 million, the pension expense is \$122 million and its pension expense as a percentage of pre-tax income is 1.96 percent.

These are a few examples to show the magnitude and impact of pension plans expense and obligation with respect to a firm's income. An overview of the impact of regulations on firms' pension plan accounting is also important to assess.Efforts to improve information disclosure, pension contribution patterns and protection to employees include the enactment of ERISA (Employee Retirement Income System Act of 1974), the Pension Protection Act of 2006 and the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) changes in accounting rules. Regulations like ERISA establish rules as to the way employers comply with the responsibilities related to pension plans they sponsor. For example that employers, in computing the funding status, should compare the market value of plan assets to the present value of future pension obligations, and, if a company has a pension plan that is less than 90 percent funded, it is required to make an additional contribution to the plan to reduce the funding deficiency within three to five years. This requirement impacts immediately earnings and cash flows of the sponsor.

Management has to be aware of the many implications of sponsoring pension plans. They should consider how to effectively deal with a DBPP in order to maintain a strong financial position and comply with regulations. Most importantly, they have to make sure that the pension plan trust managers protect the best interests of their employers and employees. Past studies describe companies that sponsor DBPP based on stock price relation to funding level, earnings and operating performance and level of capital expenditures. But few describe firms that sponsor DBPP in general. The purpose of this study is to describe these firms so regulators can help sponsors in identifying their problems, risks and courses of action in funding their plans.

RELATED LITERATURE

Past studies about companies that sponsor pension plans focus on different aspects related to the impact of these schemes. Some focus on price or returns, earnings and growth. Some like Franzoni and Marín (2006) focus on the impact of DBPP information on price. They find that the most underfunded firms earn low raw returns relative to firms with healthier pension plans. They interpret this result as being due to investors not paying enough attention to the implications of the current underfunding for future earnings and cash flows. Lakonishok, Shleifer, and Vishny (1994) argue that the value premium and the growth discount are explained by overreaction to past operating performance. Chan, Jegadeesh, and Lakonishok (1996) find that firms with negative past operating performance continue to earn low returns within a six month period. Jegadeesh and Titman (1993) propose that return momentum is at least partly due to underreaction to news in earnings. Sloan (1996), Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh and Lakonishok (2006) show evidence that the market does not understand that the part of earnings due to accruals tends to reverse itself. Other studies focus on the restrictions in expenses and investments that may arise from pension plan underfunding. Blackburn (2006) suggests that sometimes firms postpone the funding of employee's pension plans in order to finance capital expenditures and the growth of the enterprise. In other words, employees are financing the projects of their employers.

He offers no empirical evidence that suggests that this could be true. However, Rauh (2006) examines the effects of mandatory contributions to DBPP on capital and research and development expenditures. The author finds that pension sponsors decrease spending on capital expenditures in response to a reduction in internal resources caused by required pension contributions. The author also shows results for firms that do not sponsor DBPP. The evidence suggests that when required contributions are high DB sponsoring firms do not undertake capital investments, and non-sponsoring firms undertake in approximately 12 percent of total capital investment that those firms leave.

When it comes to credit aspects, some studies show that firms with financing problems may choose to delay payments to fund their plans. Ippolito (1986) finds evidence that suggests that firms in financial distress have incentives to underfund their pension plans. Phillips and Moody (2003) examine the relationship between pension plan funding levels and capital structure and provide statistically significant empirical support for the pecking order theory of capital structure. Results suggest that more highly levered firms experience lower profitability and are constrained by a larger dividend payout. In addition, these firms have exhausted their internal resources of financing by underfunding their pension plans, most likely to the extent legally possible. The study shows that underfunding occurs mainly due to a firms' incapacity to fully fund. Other studies consider the impact of taxes on the decision to fund adequately the plan. Thomas (1988) study rejects the view that pension funding status and tax status are unrelated. The results of empirical tests, time-series and cross-sectional, suggest that tax status is an important determinant of pension funding. Firms with relatively higher tax status are frequently overfunded, relative to the accrued liability; 4) low tax status firms are less likely to select DBPP. Tepper and Affleck (1974), Black (1980) and Tepper (1981) find that firms with tax advantages have great or strong incentives to fully fund their pension plans.

Recently, regulators have been focusing on changing the way DBPP information is disclosed. In a recent study, Shaw (2008) argues that SFAS 158 significantly changes the balance sheet reporting for DBPP. Coronado, Mitchell, Sharpe and Nesbitt (2008) state, that since the appearance of SFAS 158 and the increased attention to pension disclosures misuse, investors evaluation of pensions may have changed and so, their investment decisions. Boylan and Houmes (2010) evaluate the impact of SFAS 158 and find that companies use higher discount rates to lower the pension benefit obligations and pension liabilities with the intention of portraying a better financial position. Chen et al. (2010) find that there is a direct relation between the use of pension disclosures and the level of sophistication of users. Castro-González (2011) shows that investors inefficiently value firms that sponsor DBPP even when changes in accounting rules required additional disclosures.

Is more regulation about accounting disclosures going to solve the problem about pension plans underfunding? Or is it necessary to identify the symptoms and find solutions before it is too late? The results of these studies show the characteristics of firms that sponsor DBPP and how the funding status is related to financial and operating characteristics. Moreover, how companies manipulate DBPP information to influence the accounting information that is available to the public. The motivation of this study is to describe firms that sponsor DBPP and to create awareness of the impact of different funding levels.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In order to describe firms that sponsor DBPP data from different sources was obtained. The sample includes all firm years with available data on the Compustat Annual Industrial and Research files for NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ firms. The sample period is the end of fiscal year 1980 to the end of fiscal year 2006. Firms' monthly returns were obtained from the Center for Research and Security Prices

(1)

(CRSP), Monthly Stock database. The variables of interest correspond to different accounting items over the years. Consequently, this accounting data is constructed differently for different periods in the time span that is studied. There are two breaks in the way Compustat informs the data related to pension plans. These breaks result from changes in accounting standards. The first break is caused by the accounting standard SFAS 87. It affects the way pension data is presented starting fiscal years beginning after December 15, 1986. The second break, effective for fiscal years beginning after December 15, 1997, is caused by SFAS 132.

In order to measure the funding status of the pension plans, the procedure used by Franzoni and Marín (2006) is used. Funding status is defined as the difference between the fair value of pension assets (*FVPA*) and the pension benefit obligation (*PBO*). They choose to divide the funding status by market capitalization (*Mkt Cap*) at the end of the fiscal year when the pension items are measured to control for size. As them, this variable is labeled funding ratio (*FR*). This variable is computed as follows:

 $FR_{t-1} = FVPA_{t-1} - PBO_{t-1} / Mkt Cap_{t-1}$

Initially, there were 52,018 observations (firm-years). To correct for the effect of outliers, observations for each year in which the *FR* variable is more than five standard deviations away from the annual mean, were dropped from the sample. As a result, there are 51,515 observations (firm-years) that satisfy these criteria. Firms are included if they have at least two years of accounting data in order to correct for the survival bias (Banz and Breen 1986 and Franzoni and Marín 2006). Firms that do not have at least two years of accounting data were excluded. Finally, 51,441 observations were used in this study.

Portfolio formation procedure: The characteristics of firms with different levels of pension plan funding are important to design a sketch of firms that sponsor DBPP. Accordingly, firms are divided into deciles or portfolios. In order to include a company in a portfolio, it has to satisfy selection criteria. To be included in the *FR* portfolios in year t - 1, a firm needs to have non-missing value for *FR*. In the fourth month, after the end of fiscal year t - 1, the selected companies are allocated to ten groups according to their *FR* at the end of fiscal year t - 1. First, ten portfolios are formed using deciles of the distribution of *FR* for underfunded firms (*FR*<0), while the eleventh portfolio includes all the overfunded firms (*FR*≥0). For the underfunded portfolios, the first portfolio contains the most underfunded firms and the tenth portfolio contains the least underfunded firms. As for the overfunded portfolio, it contains all overfunded firms.

Companies' characteristics

Companies can be described in different ways. As for this study, firms are described based on size of the plan, operating and financial performance, spending behavior, ability to meet obligations and probability of bankruptcy, number of employees and tax advantages. Penman (2010) describes financial statements as the 'lens on a business' and its analysis as the 'calibrator' of the lens to get the business into focus. First, firms are described based on the funding level as described by FR. Then firms are described based on size and book to market ratio (B/M). These two characteristics may have a role on the way market value firms. Smaller firms tend to be less exposed and scrutinized by analysts. Quality and quantity of information available may have an impact in the way the market evaluates them.

Financial and operating performance is also measured for these firms. First, average stock returns (AR) are measured to observe if the stocks of the firms in each portfolio have positive or negative returns.

Then, cash flows to total assets (CF/TA), net income to total assets (NI/TA), sales to total assets (Sales/TA) and sales to net income (Sales/NI) ratios are calculated at the end of fiscal year t - 1. Franzoni and Marín (2006) find that it appears that the two most underfunded portfolios tend to have poorest operating performance before and after formation. Interestingly, they found that, both earnings and cash flows ratios are lower in the first year after formation for the most underfunded firms, while this was not necessarily the case for the other firms. These findings are important because it may be a signal that poor past performance is the reason why these firms did not timely fund their pension liability and developed a large underfunding. They also argue that the fact that the operating performance worsens in the first year after formation liability negatively impacting earnings and cash flows, and that it corroborates their explanation of the observed low returns for underfunded firms.

Spending behavior indicators are also presented. The advertising expenses to sales (AE/Sales), capital expenditures to total assets (CE/TA) and research and development (R&D/TA) ratios are calculated in order to verify if there are differences among portfolios. Rauh (2006) suggests that an inverse relation exists between capital expenditures and contributions to the plan.

In order to verify the level of debt, the ability to meet obligations and the probability of bankruptcy, the long-term debt ratio (LTDR), interest coverage ratio and the Altman Z-score are calculated. The balance in long-term debt for each firm is normalized using total assets. The interest coverage ratio (IntCov) is calculated to observe if firms included in different portfolios can cover their interest expenses with their current earnings. The Altman Z-score is included as a measure of company distress. Altman's Z-score (Altman Z) is used as an ex-ante measure of the likelihood of default. Altman's Z-score is calculated as Z = 1.2 (Working Capital/Total Assets) + 1.4 (Retained Earnings/Total Assets) + 3.3 (Earnings before Interest and Taxes/Total Assets) + 0.6 (Market Value of Equity/Book Value of Liabilities) + 0.999 (Net Sales/Total Assets). Altman (1977) documents that firms having a Z-score less than 1.81 are highly likely to become bankrupt.

The average number of employees is also calculated for each portfolio decile. This is obtained as a means to evaluate the size of the pension plan for the firms in the deciles. Firms with more employees may have higher pension costs because of the number of employees covered by the plan. Lastly, the average annual tax rate (AATR) is calculated. It is calculated in order to verify the magnitude of the tax advantages that firms can obtain from recognizing interest expenses and pension and retirement expenses. Thomas (1988) study rejects the view that pension funding status and tax status are unrelated.

Descriptive Statistics: Table 1 provides summary statistics on the main pension items and the *FR*. Panel A displays summary statistics for the whole sample period. The average *FVPA* is about \$645 million in the whole sample and the average *PBO* is about \$664 million. The average *PBO* corresponds to about 103% of the *FVPA* in the sample period. The average funding level, as measured by *FR* is -17%, in contrast to the median which is almost 0%. These figure results from combining highly overfunded and highly underfunded firms. The minimum *FR* is -5940%, while the maximum is 154%. The average *PRE* is about \$22.3 million, while the median is about \$2.18 million. The minimum *PRE* is -\$3.489 billion and the maximum is \$3.435 billion.

Panel B, C and D present summary statistics for the different accounting related periods described earlier. These periods differ in various ways. The most important differences are observed in the relationship between the average PBO and the average *FVPA*. For the period between 1980 and 1986, the average *PBO* represents about 76% of the *FVPA*. This is reflected in average the *FR* for firms in this period. On

average, they portray a positive FR. Circumstances change, and start to deteriorate, for the next period. This period corresponds to the years between 1987 and 1997. Required accounting disclosures are broader for this period. In contrast, the *PBO-FVPA* relationship weakens. The average *PBO* represents about 95% of the average *FVPA* and the average *FR* is negative. As for the last period, years between 1998 and 2005, a worse scenario is observed as the gap between the average *PBO* and the average *FVPA* widens. The average *PBO* represents about 106% of the average *FVPA*. As a consequence, the average *FR* worsens and continues to be negative. As observed from this description, the DBPP position looks gloomier as years pass.

Table 1: Pension Plan Funding over Time

		Panel A: 198	0-2006	
	FVPA	РВО	FR	PRE
Mean	645.69	664.03	-0.172	22.292
Median	38.71	38.55	0	2.181
SD	3332	3412	29.100	129.74
Min.	0	0	-5940	-3,489
Max.	112,898	109,774	154.05	5,290
		Panel B: 198	0-1986	
	FVPA	РВО	FR	PRE
Mean	155.97	117.748	0.044	13.046
Median	9.012	6.372	0.02	1.135
SD	993.046	700.465	1.464	78.352
Min.	0	0	0 -32.827	
Max.	46380.313	26161.305 133.543		3,516.400
		Panel C: 198	7-1997	
	FVPA	РВО	FR	PRE
Mean	505.855	482.722	-0.018	13.379
Median	43.914	42.555	0.0002	1.682
SD	2521	2454	2.414	81.843
Min.	0	0	-245.273	-709
Max.	78,360	83,390	90.4	4,300
		Panel D: 199	8-2006	
	FVPA	РВО	FR	PRE
Mean	1164.616	1274.331	-0.516	39.851
Median	85.761	102.314	-0.008	4.814
SD	4866	5086.500	49.867	190.955
Min.	0	0	-5940.34	-3,490
Max.	112,898	109,770	154.055	5,290

The table reports the mean, median, standard deviation, minimum and maximum for the pension and retirement expenses (*PRE*), and pension and retirement expenses ratio (*PRER*), the fair value of plan assets (*FVPA*), the projected benefit obligation (*PBO*), and the funding ratio (*FR*). The results are presented for the complete sample period, for the period between 1980 and 1986 (before SFAS No. 87), for the period between 1987 and 1997 (the period after SFAS No. 87) and for the period between 1998 and 2006 (after SFAS No. 132). These amounts are expressed in millions and percentages for the ratios.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Portfolio Characteristics

Table 2 reports the characteristics of the eleven portfolios created according to *FR*. The characteristics in Panel A are measured at the end of fiscal year t - 1 relative to portfolio formation. The difference in the

level of average FR between the most underfunded portfolio and the least underfunded is noticeable. For the most underfunded firms (portfolio one) the average FR is about -515%. In contrast, for the least underfunded firms (portfolio 10) the average FR is about -0.1%. The average FR for the portfolio that contains overfunded firms (portfolio eleven) is about 8.8%.

	Most under									Least under	Over
Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
FR	-5.150	-0.119	-0.062	-0.039	-0.025	-0.017	-	-0.007	-	- 0.001	0.088
Size	2,506	3,319	3,417	3,418	5,195	4,376	4,791	5,396	5,226	7,865	3,137
B/M	21.09	0.830	0.786	0.806	0.721	0.679	0.620	0.605	0.562	0.500	2.003
AR	-0.003	0.008	0.010	0.010	0.013	0.013	0.015	0.016	0.017	0.020	0.013
AR St Dev	0.197	0.140	0.122	0.119	0.118	0.111	0.108	0.117	0.114	0.123	0.111
CF/TA	-0.004	0.005	0.006	0.005	0.014	0.010	0.006	0.009	0.010	0.026	0.003
NI/TA	-0.073	0.005	0.029	0.031	0.025	0.057	0.071	0.069	0.082	0.062	0.044
Sales/TA	1.490	1.439	1.398	1.416	1.396	1.259	1.296	1.337	1.241	1.140	1.332
Sales/NI	0.063	0.110	0.128	0.133	0.137	0.152	0.172	0.176	0.181	0.163	0.146
AE/Sales	0.032	0.021	0.023	0.025	0.029	0.037	0.038	0.034	0.034	0.037	0.037
CE/TA	0.048	0.045	0.046	0.049	0.048	0.048	0.053	0.052	0.056	0.063	0.071
R&D/Sales	0.018	0.019	0.022	0.024	0.028	0.040	0.033	0.035	0.058	0.066	0.030
LTDR	63.69	1.128	0.889	0.698	0.595	0.503	0.434	0.437	0.430	0.394	1.908
Altman Z	1.520	2.436	3.146	3.419	3.612	4.070	4.387	4.770	5.520	5.663	3.656
IntCov	5.60	6.08	10.24	17.30	42.06	40.31	58.26	109.31	361.5	60.79	24.31
Employees	16,80	37,000	17,039	24,166	23,523	27,374	27,81	23,269	18,27	37,89	17,262
AATR	0.348	0.221	0.217	0.294	0.359	0.300	0.342	0.207	0.396	0.479	0.369
Firms	1,668	2,007	2,057	2,072	2,106	2,141	2,133	2,159	2,151	2,149	22,197

Table 2: FR Portfolios Characteristics

In the fourth month after the end of fiscal year t, firms with available data at the end of fiscal year t-1 are divided in deciles according to FR. The stocks in the first portfolio are the most underfunded and the stocks in the tenth portfolio are the least underfunded. Firms with positive FR are assigned to portfolio eleven. The sample period is from the fourth month after the end of fiscal year 1980 to 2006.

As for the average size of firms in each portfolio, size almost consistently increases as the underfunding decreases. Smaller firms are concentrated in the most underfunded portfolio. Interestingly, firms in portfolio eleven have the second smallest average size of all the portfolios. In terms of B/M, value firms are concentrated in the most underfunded portfolio. Portfolio eleven also has value firms but to a much lesser degree. Means and standard deviations for the excess returns of the portfolios are also reported. AR increase as you move from portfolio one through ten. Portfolio eleven has AR equal to firms in portfolio five and six. Portfolio one has negative returns with the highest standard deviation and portfolio ten has the highest AR and a low standard deviation.

This table also reports the ratios that measure operating and financial performance. First, it shows the results for the average change in cash flows to total assets ratio. As Franzoni and Marín (2006) the most underfunded portfolio shows the lowest levels for this ratio. In concurrence to these findings, the results in this study reveal that, on average, at the end of fiscal year before portfolio formation, the most underfunded portfolio shows the most negative change in cash flows. In addition, this portfolio shows that on average these firms reported net losses to total assets. Also, the sales to net income ratio reveals the poor operating performance of these firms. In contrast, for the least underfunded portfolios (portfolios nine and ten) that the cash flow to total assets, net income to total assets and the profitability ratios are

higher. The spending behavior measures are also presented in Table 2. The reported results show that, on average, the most underfunded portfolios report lower advertising, research and development and capital expenditures at the end of fiscal year before portfolio formation. These results could be related to a stringent financial situation. As Rauh (2006) explains, it can also be attributed to the firms' response to a reduction in internal resources caused by required pension contributions.

Measures of company distress and paying ability are also presented. The most underfunded firms have the highest levels of *LTDR*. A consistent decrease in *LTDR* is observed through portfolio ten. The firms with highest levels of pension plan related debt have also the highest levels of long-term debt. As a measure of financial distress, Altman's Z-score is presented for all portfolios. The results show that the most underfunded portfolio contains firms that on average have a higher risk of bankruptcy. In concurrence with these results, the IntCov ratio results show that the most underfunded portfolios (portfolios one and two) are less able to cover their interest expenses at their current earnings levels.

As a means to describe these firms as labor or capital intensive, the average number of employees per portfolio is shown. The most underfunded portfolios have on average fewer employees than the least underfunded portfolios; the least underfunded portfolios have, on average more employees. Finally, the AATR is calculated for each portfolio. The magnitude in tax advantages and the financial position of the firm may have influence in the way firms choose to fund their pension plans. At no surprise the firms with the least underfunded and overfunded firms have higher average tax rates than the others. In these cases management may be benefiting from pension related tax advantages.

CONCLUSIONS

Financial statements reveal the financial history of companies. Financial information may become more useful when relationships among numbers, accounts or pieces of information are made and compared to past years ratios, to competitors or to industry averages. But sometimes financial amounts reflect the symptoms of a current of future negative situation. As for firms that sponsor DBPP and the relationships observed in this study, portraits can be drawn. For example, firms in the most underfunded portfolio are on average smaller and value firms, with negative stock returns, poor financial and operating performance, lower profitability, invest smaller amounts in advertising, research and development and capital assets and are more indebted with higher probabilities of bankruptcy. The opposite is seen for the least and overfunded firms. These differences may have an explanation.

Usually, smaller firms may have less access to different sources of financing (for example bond markets). Analysts do not follow smaller firms as closer as they do with bigger firms. This may happen because of less availability of information and less news coverage. Because of their lessen ability to raise funds, smaller firms may be more inclined to underfund their pension plans. Higher underfunding levels may be accompanied by high levels of long-term debt in order to finance the operations and the pension plans.

The observed characteristics are consistent with the results in previous studies. Franzoni and Marín (2006) find evidence of overvaluation for firms with severely underfunded pension plans; Rauh (2006) finds that pension sponsors decrease spending on capital expenditures in response to a reduction in internal resources caused by required pension contributions; Phillips and Moody (2003) argue that POT explains that firms will borrow, rather than issuing equity, when internal cash flow is not sufficient to fund capital expenditures. It may be possible that firms in portfolio one choose to underfund their plans in order to compensate (use the funds in other activities) for their poor financial performance.

As for tax related issues, Thomas (1988) study rejects the view that pension funding status and tax status are unrelated. The results reveal that firms with higher levels of average tax rates have lower levels of underfunding. This phenomenon may occur because firms identify tax advantages for contributions made

to fund their pension plans. Although this study uses a sample of US public companies with available DBPP information from 1980 to 2005 and does not include pension data under the new accounting rules (SFAS No. 158) the results appear to be dramatic. By considering the characteristics of firms that sponsor DBPP regulators may identify more effectively firms that confront or may confront funding problems before it is too late. The detection of risk behavior or tendencies can help regulators in establishing policies to decelerate and improve pension plan funding levels to protect the public interest.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Karen C. Castro-González is an assistant professor of accounting and finance at the University of Puerto Rico-Río Piedras School of Business. She is also a Certified Public Accountant. She can be contacted at: University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras Campus, College of Business Administration, Accounting Department, PO Box 23326, San Juan, P.R. 00931-3326. Email: cont3005castro@yahoo.com.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF EVOLUTIONARY ALGORITHM PARAMETERS

Andrew Manikas, University of Wisconsin Oshkosh Michael Godfrey, University of Wisconsin Oshkosh

ABSTRACT

Evolutionary algorithms can find good solutions quickly for complex problems. Genetic algorithms were the first implemented algorithms, and they have significant capability in solving complex scenarios. Job Shop scheduling is an NP-hard problem – any algorithm to optimize this problem has an exponential time. We will explore which parameters for a genetic algorithm allow it to solve these job shop problems in limited time trials. Prior literature assumes the use of these parameters is beneficial and the parameter values are either selected based on prior research values or from Design of Experiments (DOE) on a limited values. Using Multiple Linear Regression, we find that some parameters do not significantly improve solutions. Researchers can use a proportional 50/50 crossover with as large a population size that fits within their computation time constraint to obtain good results quickly.

JEL: C20, C60

KEYWORDS: Heuristics, Evolutionary Algorithms, Genetic Algorithm, Regression

INTRODUCTION

Job shop scheduling is a difficult problem because it is NP-hard – any algorithm to optimize this problem has an exponential time – as the size of the problem increases, the computation time increases exponentially. In shop floor scheduling the most important thing is to produce a feasible schedule quickly. In the space of all feasible solutions, company defined goals drive which feasible solutions are better and even which one is optimal. However, as the size of the problem becomes larger and therefore, nontrivial, the calculation time to find the optimal solution increases exponentially. Pure heuristics are quick to produce feasible solutions but when more constraints are added to the model of the manufacturing environment, they cannot handle this added realism so their solutions may be far from optimal.

We will test the ability of a Genetic Algorithm (GA) to achieve a good solution for complex job shop scheduling problems with sequence dependent setup times, staggered job release times (not all materials is available for all jobs at time 0) and recirculation (a job can visit a machine multiple times). Genetic Algorithms are a class of algorithms that can handle much complexity and by design will converge toward an optimal solution as the number of iterations of the routine increases.

This paper is organized into the following sections; §2 is a literature review of job shop scheduling, sequence-dependent setups in scheduling, and GAs as an optimization tool. §3 is a description of the problem we are trying to solve. §4 is the mechanism behind how a GA works in general and specifics on our Genetic Algorithm. §5 contains the results of our regression tests. §6 is the summary and discussion of the implications of the results along with directions for futureresearch.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Job Shop Scheduling: By their nature, job shop scheduling problems are complex. Job shops provide a unique scheduling problem because the routings are based upon the jobs that need to be processed and

therefore the resource requirements are not based upon the quantity as in a flow shop but rather the routings for the products being produced. Heuristics have been developed to find optimal nondelay schedules in a job shop environment (Hutchinson and Chang, 1990). The heuristic in their paper minimizes makespan in an environment that does not contain sequence dependent setup times. Heuristics are often problem size independent but provide good solutions according to single criteria objective functions only. Sequence Dependent Setup Times

Sequence dependent setup times are explored in the literature for flow shops (Vakharia and Chang, 1990). Single machine scheduling with sequence dependent setup times is also explored in the literature. This problem is scheduled using a hybrid Genetic Algorithm (Miller, Chen et al., 1999). Manikas and Chang (2009) use a Genetic Algorithm to solve sequence dependent setup time job shop scheduling problems. However, their GA parameters and settings were based on limited experimental trials.

Genetic Algorithms: Genetic Algorithms are a viable approach to solving optimization problems. The principles of GAs proposed by Holland (1975) are the foundation of evolutionary algorithms. Genetic Algorithms simulate evolution via natural selection. The idea is to evolve a population of candidate solutions using operators inspired by natural genetic variation and natural selection (Mitchell 1996).

Classical job shop scheduling problems with a set of n jobs to be processed on m machines have been solved using a GA. Candido et al. (1998) add realistic constraints and use multiple objectives for their GA. The GA is used to find the initial solutions and refine locally improved solutions. However, this routine cannot handle sequence dependent setup times. The ability of GAs to handle complex constraints is further shown by allowing dual-resource constraints in a scheduling problem (ElMaraghy, Patel et al., 2000). They achieve better solutions by forcing feasible solutions from birth rather than allowing infeasible solutions to exist in the population. They choose to use a random initial population rather than heuristic based. The paper also shows that linear order crossover (LOX) performs better than partially matched crossover for their particular problem. The LOX crossover method preserves relative position between genes (Falkenauer and Bouffouix, 1991).

A GA is used to solve a job-sequencing problem (Zhao and Wu 2001). They show that a feasible, good solution can be found in a reasonable time for this problem. Ombuki and Ventresca (2004) introduce crossover and mutation operators as well as an encoding scheme that ensure the GA schedule remains deadlock free. We chose to always have only feasible solutions in the population because scoring an infeasible solution regarding lateness does not make sense – an "on time" solution that was achieved by having operations scheduled not following the routing cannot be scored as a solution. We encode machine sequences and use mutation and crossover operators that ensure those sequences are always feasible.

Tuning parameters such as population size and number of generations can have a positive effect, but Mattfeld and Bierwirth (2004) state that if the parameters are within useful bounds, the expected improvement usually does not justify the costs of finding an even more appropriate fine tuning. Using domain specific knowledge, Miller et al. (1993) are able to improve the running speed of their GA for a multiple fault diagnosis problem. Najafi et al. (2009) tune population size and mutation probability real-time for a resource investment problem. A GA has certain parameters (e.g. population size, number of generations, mutation rate, etc.) that have to be specified. Finding the correct combination of settings is time consuming so a self adapting Genetic Algorithm is discussed that seeds the parameters with random levels and has mechanisms to adjust them during the run (Sawai and Kizu, 1998). However, real time tuning takes precious CPU time away from the mechanisms in the GA that converge the solution toward optimal. Some research selects parameter values based solely on prior used values in research. Ojha et al. (2009) uses a set value for number of generations and population size.

Nagano et al. (2008) use ANOVA with six levels for population size, and after 68 combinations, find that their largest population size does best. Ruiz et al. (2006) test five levels for mutation probability and four levels for population size for flowshop problems. They find the best population size was the largest one. In our research, we analyze different parameter levels via regression to determine the parameter settings up front. Multiple objectives are handled easily with GAs. Having a single objective to solve for does not give the production planner much control to differentiate among many competing requirements or constraints. Richter (2002) argues that the use of a multiple objective fitness function has a positive effect on convergence speed. Our job shop scheduling problem involves earliness and tardiness as its two criteria which are relatively comparable and competing. A single simple Genetic Algorithm is flexible but cannot be efficient for all problems (Leonhardi, Reissenberger et al., 1998). The encoding scheme, operators (crossover, mutate, elite, etc.) and specific parameters all need to be specified for a particular class of problems. Problem Description

In many manufacturing environments, the sequence of jobs run on a particular machine affects the setup time. Job shop environments can have significant differences in setup times depending on the sequence of jobs run through the resources. For example, products with significant color differences are likely run from lighter to darker colors with minimal cleaning but going from a black color product to a white color would require much more time to prepare the machine to avoid black bleeding through and creating a grayish batch.

In manufacturing environments a feasible solution is a must. An optimal solution to a scheduling model is a goal that cannot often be obtained given data and time constraints. However, a schedule would certainly benefit from having a schedule closer to optimal rather than just merely feasible. Common heuristics such as Shortest Processing Time (SPT) and Earliest Due Date (EDD) can quickly create feasible solutions, but as problem complexity increases the solutions may be far from optimal. A GA may converge to optimal if the number of iterations is large enough. In addition to the parameter specifying the number of generations, there are other parameters that affect the speed with which the GA converges to optimal. We find the appropriate parameter settings for our GA to generate the best solutions quickly.

To make our job shop scheduling problems more realistic, in addition to sequence setup times, the environment contains staggered release dates and recirculation. Staggered release dates means that we do not assume all jobs are ready to start at the same time. Recirculation is the ability of a job routing to visit the same machine more than once. The job shop scheduling problems used in this paper are non-delay, meaning that a machine must process a job if it is available.

The setup times on a machine vary according to the job family of the previously processed job on that machine. A schedule is evaluated by looking at the total tardiness and total earliness. A multiple criteria objective function allows the solution result to better fit a company's needs. In this case, using the single criteria of tardiness may produce a result that has several jobs finishing very early. Having resources committed to finish jobs early reduces flexibility because that capacity could be left free for future orders that really do need to begin processing earlier to meet their due dates. Therefore, adding a second criteria to the objective function to minimize earliness gives additional weight to solutions that are closer to just in time. The weight for tardiness is set to 1000 times that of earliness. A large number was chosen because tardiness is in general much less acceptable in production than being early.

However, among the set of solutions with equivalent tardiness, solutions that are less early are preferred. This rewards a schedule for not being tardy but also gives minor reward for being more just in time. Adjusting the weights can affect the final solution generated by the Genetic Algorithm. This gives flexibility for a production planner to adjust the weights on multiple objectives to force the Genetic Algorithm to find better solutions according to his criteria. Each job's routing is known a priori, but the

operations sequences on the machines are unknown and have to be determined. Randomly generated times for setup times and processing times came from uniform distributions as described in Appendix A.

The objective function is: 1000 * tardiness + 1*earliness. We use just two weighted criteria (tardiness and earliness) here, but having many criteria has little effect on the speed of calculation since only after the mechanisms produce solutions are they evaluated one time according to the objective function. The lower the score according to the objective function, the better the schedule solution. For easier comparison between the different problems solved in this paper as well as between the different methods used, scores presented in the results section are expressed as a percentage of optimal.

Mechanics of Genetic Algorithms

The basic structure of the Genetic Algorithm is: Initialize Evaluate Loop for Reproduction Clone Elite Mutate Breed Crossover Replace Population with Children Evaluate Until Termination Criteria (e.g. one minute time limit)

Finding the optimal values for the GA parameters is important for making the heuristic converge to an optimal solution more quickly (Ponnambalam, Jawahar et al., 2002). From our literature review we decided to focus on seven specific parameters; Elite %, Mutate %, Population Size, Number of pairwise inversions for mutation, Crossover method, Allow crossover, and Allow mutation. Elite %

Elite percent is the top percentage of the population that survives unchanged to the next generation. This ensures that the best solution or solutions are always passed to the next generation. This forces the algorithm to have non-decreasing solutions from generation to generation. The larger the population size, the larger the number of solutions that would be considered elite. Mutate %

Mutate percent allows the population to achieve random differences from those that come about from crossbreeding alone. Mutation percent is different from Elite percent in that an Elite percent of 1% only looks at the top 1% of solutions and duplicates them, while a mutate percent of 1% looks at every solution and each one has a 1% chance of being mutated. If selected, the solution is copied to the next generation and then mutated according to inversion discussed below in §4.4.

Population Size

Population size is how many solutions are in each population. Intuitively, the more solutions in a population, the more likely the best one will be closer to optimal. Number of Pairwise Inversions When a solution is selected for mutation a copy of that solution is made, and pairs of alleles switched.

One pair may be swapped for mutation, or multiple pairs for a mutated solution.

Crossover Method Crossover Method may be a one point method that takes the head of one parent and the tail of the other parent to create a child solution. The other common crossover method is to inter mix alleles. We examine one point crossover that is at the half way point in the solution sequence, and also one point chosen at a random distance within the sequence.

For the intermixing of alleles methods, the crossover gives each parent allele a 50% chance of being selected, thus forming the child solution in sequence. The other intermixed method gives a higher

percentage change of selecting the more fit parent. For example, if parent 1 had a score of 100 (where lower scores are better), and parent 2 had a score of 200, rather than a 50% change of each parent's allele being chosen, parent 1 would have a 67% change and parent 2 would have a 33% chance of its allele chosen at any point in the sequence. Crossover Allowed This parameter turns crossover breeding on or off. This is used to explore the possibility that mutation only can produce good solutions. If this parameter is set to off, then mutation is forced on. Mutation Allowed This parameters allows mutation to occur or not. This parameter is used to explore if mutation is needed to maintain diversity, or it can be done solely via crossover. If mutation is not allowed, then crossover is forced to be on.

5 Test Specification and Results

Regression Model for Tests

Values for the each of the four parameters fell into certain ranges:

Elite Percent was in the range [1%, 50%], and was a ceiling function. We must have at least the single best scoring solution survive to the next generation

- Mutation Percent was in the range [1%, 50%]
- Population Size was in the range [10, 1000] increments of 10
- Number of Pairwise Inversions was in the range [1, 10]
- Crossover Method was equally likely to select one of four methods; One point crossover at a random location, one point crossover at the halfway point of the sequence, 50% likelihood of each chromosome's allele being chosen when constructing a child sequence, and likelihood of a chromosome's allele being chosen proportional to the fitness of each parent
- Crossover allowed (Yes/No). If no, mutation must be allowed and no parent breeding will occur.
- Mutation allowed (Yes/No)./ If no, crossover must be allowed and mutation percent is set to 0% and the number of pairwise inversions is set to 0.

1000 runs of the algorithm were made with random combinations of parameters above in their respective given ranges. With seven predictor variables the regression model is a hyper plane:

 $Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i1} + \beta_{2}X_{i2} + \beta_{3}X_{i3} + \beta_{4}X_{i4} + \beta_{5}X_{i5} + \beta_{6}X_{i6} + \beta_{7}X_{i7}$

Interaction is assumed to not exist between these parameters and therefore the first-order model above is for additive effects on mean response. Results The results of the multiple linear regressions are shown in Table 1

As shown in Table 1, the R-Squared is.1339. This was calculated as SSR/SST (or equivalently 1 – SSE/SST). This measures the proportionate reduction of total variation in Y (schedule goodness) associated with the use of the set of X parameters. Adding more parameters to this model can only increase R-Squared and never reduce it since SSE can never become larger with more X parameters and SST stays the same. Therefore, the adjusted coefficient of multiple determination adjusts R-Squared by dividing each sum of squares by it associated degrees of freedom. In this case, adjusted R-Squared is .1278. Note: A large value of R-Squared does not necessarily imply that the fitted model is a useful one. For example, MSE may still be too large for inferences to be useful when high precision is required.

Due to the randomness inherent in the genetic algorithm, there are a wide range of values for scores. However, the coefficients for the four predictor variables and their associated p-values make it clear that there is a difference in what level each of the parameters is set to when running the genetic algorithm to solve this particular problem.

Multiple R	0.365938695				
R Square	0.133911128				
Adjusted R Square	0.127799614				
Standard Error	259371.4242				
Observations	1000				
ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	7	1.03183E+13	1.47405E+12	21.91128473	1.211E-27
Residual	992	6.67353E+13	67273535674		
Total	999	7.70537E+13			
	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	
Intercept	2,641,539	93498.54127	28.25219224	2.5745E-129	
Elite%	(1,825)	574.514914	-3.177133603	0.001533344	
Mutate%	(1,144)	1179.128499	-0.970522334	0.33202277	
Pairwisel	26,333	7860.24912	3.350124722	0.000838189	
Popsize	(207)	28.27834893	-7.325413463	4.92564E-13	
Crossmeth	(28,811)	8535.239764	-3.375564701	0.000765204	
MutateYN	(205,636)	42989.89086	-4.783368124	1.98516E-06	
CrossYN	(50,913)	92936.63766	-0.547829895	0.58393195	

Table 1: Multiple Linear Regression Results

Regression Statistics

Using SPSS v14.0, the following results were obtained for stepwise linear regression.

Table 2: Stepwise Regression

Model Summary										
					Change Statistics					
			Adjusted R	Std. Error of the	R Square					
Model	R	R Square	Square	Estimate	Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.237 ^a	.056	.055	269929.828	.056	59.528	1	998	.000	
2	.317 ^b	.100	.098	263695.297	.044	48.749	1	997	.000	
3	.336 ^c	.113	.110	261993.307	.012	13.996	1	996	.000	
4	.351 ^d	.123	.120	260599.115	.010	11.686	1	995	.001	
5	.363 ^e	.132	.128	259395.097	.009	10.258	1	994	.001	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mutate?

b. Predictors: (Constant), Mutate?, Pop Size

c. Predictors: (Constant), Mutate?, Pop Size, Crossover Meth

d. Predictors: (Constant), Mutate?, Pop Size, Crossover Meth, Pariwise Inter

e. Predictors: (Constant), Mutate?, Pop Size, Crossover Meth, Pariwise Inter, Elite%

The results above confirm the regression done in Excel. Since mutation percent is not statistically significant we set it to halfway within our range of values, so 25%. The number of pairwise inversions per mutation was significant, specifically the more inversions the worse the final solution. Therefore, the number of pairwise inversions was set to one. The next tests focused on crossover method and population size only. The results of these tests are shown in Table 3.

Regression St	atistics				
Multiple R	0.711598437				
R Square	0.506372335				
Adjusted R Square	0.505382109				
Standard Error	1031.910283				
Observations	1000				
ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	1089054260	544527130.1	511.3704662	1.4443E-153
Residual	997	1061644316	1064838.832		
Total	999	2150698576			
	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	
Intercept	4285189.125	80.62141977	53151.99282	0	
Popsize	-2.401068208	0.117395366	-20.45283635	6.52906E-78	
Crossmeth	-680.0652322	29.21284138	-23.27966743	4.44055E-96	

Table 3: Regression for Population Size and Crossover Only

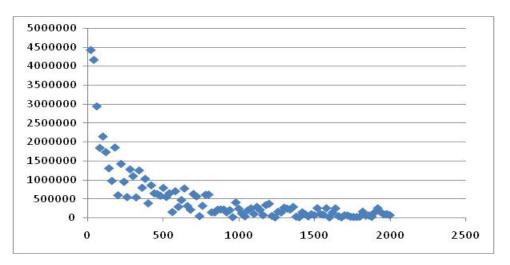
This means we can simplify the model and worry only about two parameter ranges (population size and the number of generations). The programming complexity is thus reduced, and speed of computation improved. We also know that increasing either of these parameter values has a positive effect on the Y (score reduction).

The significance is high so it is highly unlikely that the results seen are due to random chance of the experiment, but rather due to the change in predictor value. Furthermore, this analysis is helpful since Population Size has a coefficient of -4495 and Number of Generations has a coefficient of -1985 we can see that we get more reduction in score by increasing population size than by an equivalent unit increase in the number of generations. Time tests of the routine show that a unit increase in population size or number of generations increase the run time of the algorithm at approximately the same near-linear rate. Therefore, to maximize solution goodness from the genetic algorithm in the shortest time, we would not worry about mutation or elite percents and increase population size most.

Given the results of the regression, further tests were done to determine the impact of population size given the time limit. Without a time limit, increasing population size can produce better solutions. However, given time constraints, is having a larger breeding population worth trading off generations of offspring. For population size 20 to 2000 step 20. For each population size, 10 replications were done.

There is statistically significant difference staking into account population size 20 through 1400 (p-value = .0000), however, from 1400 through 2000, the p-value is .98, meaning that score improvements are likely random versus correlated with the population size increase. This may be partly due to the increased population size limited the number of generations of breeding of fit solutions that can occur in the one minute time limit. The cutoff of 1400

Figure 1: Score per population size



IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Common heuristics and Genetic Algorithms can find quick, feasible solutions to job shop scheduling problems that involve complexities such as sequence dependent setup times, spaced release dates and multiple objectives. Common heuristics run quickly but do not converge to optimal like a GA. Not all parameters for the Genetic Algorithm affected affect the output goodness equally. Population size and the number of generations run have the most effect on the solution goodness. Mutation is marginally important given the 10% p-value. Elite solutions must survive, but having more than the single best solution survive actually have a detrimental effect on solution goodness.

Because of the speed with which the Genetic Algorithm runs, changes to customer release and due dates, routing changes, and order deletions and additions can be reflected in a new schedule quickly. Because the Genetic Algorithm converges to optimal, planner can trade off how long he wants the routine to run versus the predicted percent of optimal of the solution output. The results for these four problems demonstrate that near optimal solutions may be achieved in a very short timeframe with the Genetic Algorithm. Future research using genetic algorithms to solve sequence dependent job shop problems likely does not require researchers to use DOE to find if more generations or larger population sizes are best. In our regression analysis we have shown conclusively that these two parameters are statistically significant over a wide range of values, with solution goodness increasing as these two parameters increase.

A limitation of this research is that it focused on Genetic Algorithms only. A future study could examine the parameter effects of hybrid GAs or Scatter Search (Manikas and Chang, 2008). Since some of the parameters are common amongst evolutionary algorithms, we would predict similar significant parameters as we found here. A further limitation of our research is that it was used to solve sequence dependent job shop scheduling problems only. Other studies that investigate parameters for other NPhard problems might yield different parameter settings as optimal. This Genetic Algorithm can be enhanced by adding more weighted objectives. Resource calendars, alternate machines with different costs or scrap rates, learning curves on machines and other complexities can be added to this algorithm with relatively little additional computing power required.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Manikas earned his B.S. in Computer Science and M.B.A. in Materials and Logistics Management from Michigan State University, and his Ph.D. from The Georgia Institute of Technology. Prior to that, he was an instructor for supply chain optimization courses for i2 Technologies. Prior to that, he worked as a management consultant for KPMG Peat Marwick, CSC, and Deloitte Consulting. Email: manikasa@uwosh.edu

Dr. Godfrey earned his B.S. in Operations Management and M.S. in Management Information Systems from Northern Illinois University, and his Ph.D. in Production & Operations Management from the University of Nebraska - Lincoln. He is department chair of the Supply Chain & Operations Management department at UW Oshkosh. He is a CFPIM, CIRM, and CSCP through APICS and a CPSM through ISM. Email: godfrey@uwosh.edu

MANAGING CLOUD ADOPTION

Peter Géczy, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST) Noriaki Izumi, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST) Kôiti Hasida, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST)

ABSTRACT

Cloud computing adoption by organizations has been minor despite the initial optimism. The primary concerns obstructing effective adoption of cloud-based services are security, loss of control, and inadequate legislative. In a cloud-based model, information technology services are distributed and accessed over networks such as intranet or internet. Intranets are inside organizations and internet outside. The main concerns are inherently linked to employing services provided by other organizations and accessing them over internet. Generally, valuable organizational data and services are transferred to providers. The provider or other entities may compromise organizational data and services, thus posing significant security risks. By moving data and services to outside providers, organizations also loose substantial control over timely management and retention. Organizations must follow the rules set by the providers–which may not be well suited for them. The providers legally distance themselves from liabilities in important cases such as security, data loss and damage. There are several other pertinent factors. Proper cloud computing adoption and utilization by organizations requires balanced approach. We elucidate various factors and highlight proper strategic concepts for effective cloud adoption management—benefiting both organizations and providers.

JEL: M15; O14; O32; O33; L86; K12; K23; K42

KEYWORDS: cloud adoption management, cloud computing, cloud-based services, providers, information technology management, actionable knowledge.

BIOGRAPHY

The authors can be contacted at:National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST) 2-3-26 Aomi Koto-ku Tokyo 135-0064 Japan

AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF JAMAICA'S IMPORT DEMAND FUNCTION: 1996 - 2010

Kira Hibbert, Stetson University Ranjini L. Thaver, Stetson University Mark Hutchinson, Stetson University

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates Jamaica's aggregate import demand function in relation to the United States, and the UK, from January 1996 to September 2010, using the bounds testing approach to co integration and error correction modeling techniques. Using real gross domestic product, relative price of imports, real foreign reserves and exchange rate volatility, as our independent variables, evidence suggests a unique cointegrating relationship between imports and its regressors. This unique relationship enabled us to study the short-run and long-run elasticities of the variables. In the case of Jamaica-US trade, income has a lower and negative elasticity in the short run (-.9900) compared with the long run (5.5836). Relative prices are three times as elastic in the short run (2.068) than the long run (.6825). Whereas volatility is negative as expected in the long run (-.0810), it is positive in the short run (.04688) and has a much smaller effect on imports. Foreign reserves behave the same irrespective of time. Except for relative prices, change takes place much faster in the long run than in the short run. In Jamaica-UK trade, GDP, and volatility are less elastic in the short run (0.1163; -.08753) than in the long run (2.4067; 0.1061), but real foreign reserves and relative price adjust much faster. Moreover, unlike the long run, real foreign reserves and volatility are both negative in the short run. In addition, in the short run, unlike the long run, tight monetary policy has had a significant impact on Jamaica's import demand function with the UK, but not with the US.

JEL Classifications: F14, F31, F43, O54

KEYWORDS: import demand, exchange rates, open economy growth, Jamaica

INTRODUCTION

Jamaica, an island economy, is one of the most trade-dependent countries in the world with total trade valuing 116.4 percent of GDP in 2006. Moreover, as a small, open economy with a narrow production base, it is technologically and structurally dependent on imports. In addition, because Jamaica, like most other developing countries, seeks to enhance its trade position in an interdependent globalized world, it is reasonable to study its import demand function. However, it is well understood that most empirical studies of aggregate import behavior have focused almost exclusively on developed countries, and Latin America or Asia, while ignoring developing countries and island economies such as Jamaica. As such, this present study seeks to fill this gap in the literature.

The objective of this study is to estimate the import demand function for Jamaica with two of its top ten trading partners, namely, the US and UK for the period 1996 - 2010, for which reliable import data are available. The appropriate import demand function is estimated using the bounds testing approach to cointegration and the unrestricted error-correction model.

We proceed in the next section with a brief history of Jamaica. Thereafter we specify an import demand function for Jamaica. Subsequently we provide a description of the variables and data used for estimation.

We then present and discuss our empirical results, after which the final section concludes the paper with policy recommendations.

BRIEF HISTORY OF JAMAICA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO IMPORTS

Jamaica is the third largest island of the Greater Antilles, and is the largest of the West Indian islands of the British Commonwealth Caribbean. It is situated in the middle of the Caribbean Sea on direct trade routes between North and South America and between Europe and Panama. Throughout the island's history, its location at the crossroads of the sea's communication routes has significantly influenced its history, political, economic, social and professional development (Bakre, May 2008). Gaining independence from colonialism in 1962, Jamaica has aspired to make itself a world-known place whose affairs illuminate many of the post-colonial dilemmas of the third world as a whole (Payne, 1995).

Jamaica is classified by the World Bank as an upper-middle income developing country with real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of J\$8,400 in 2010 (The World Bank, 2010). Despite being a small open economy, Jamaica is highly developed compared to most Caribbean island economies. It has a vital financial sector with many international banks, a large skilled workforce, and a relatively broad-based economy (*All-Jamaica*, 2011).

The island's economy, however, is beleaguered by serious long-term problems: a sizable merchandise trade deficit, high inflation rate of 9.6%, large-scale unemployment and underemployment, corruption, and a debt-to-GDP ratio that is currently estimated at 139.7 percent (World Bank, 2010). Jamaica's onerous debt burden, the fourth highest per capita, is the result of government bailouts to ailing sectors of the economy, most notably the financial sector during the 1990s (The Economy: Country Profile Jamaica, 2008). According to *Congressional Research Service* (2007), economic growth averaged 1.5% between 1990-2007, barely above the population growth rate. Major constraints for growth have included the country's vulnerability to external shocks and the large public debt burden (Sullivan, 2010).

According to Baker (2003), a significant portion of the economy is dependent on imported consumer goods and raw materials, and the propensity to import is high (Alleyne and Karagiannis, 2003). To finance the process the island is reliant upon foreign credit, foreign direct investments, and aid. Consequently, the last three decades have seen a downward trend in its external trade balance. For example, total imports in 2007 were valued at US\$6.9 billion, and increased dramatically to US\$8,4 billion in 2008 (Statistical Institute of Jamaica, 2011).

The United States is Jamaica's largest trading partner, accounting for just under half of Jamaica's exports and approximately 40 percent of its imports (Taylor, et. el, 2007; World Bank, 2010, Statistical Institute of Jamaica, 2011). The UK ranks in the top 10 of all imports, but most of it is in the form of consumer goods. The major commodities imported by Jamaica include food and other consumer goods, manufactured goods, industrial supplies, chemicals, fuel, parts and accessories of capital goods, machinery and transport equipment, and construction materials (Statistical Institute of Jamaica, 2011).

Given the importance of imports to the Jamaican economy's sustainability, it is imperative to understand its import demand function so as to inform appropriate public policy. However, international economic literature shows that many studies have investigated import demand functions by and large for developed countries, but not enough for developing island economies such as Jamaica. As such, this study attempts to understand the factors that influence the country's import demand through an empirical estimation of its determinants from the Q1: 1996 to Q2:2010. The import demand function is estimated using the bounds testing approach to cointegration and the error correction model.

MODEL SPECIFICATION

Jamaica is considered a price taker in international markets with respect to imports (Robinson, 2001). Further, because the world supply of imports to Jamaica is perfectly elastic, we consider using single equation techniques for estimating the aggregate import demand function. As in Thaver and Ekanayake (2010), we assume that only normal goods are imported, and that as a developing country, real imports, GDP, relative price, foreign reserves, and exchange rate volatility are crucial variables in our model because the effectiveness of import trade policy is heavily dependent upon the size of their respective elasticities. Jamaica in 2000 also implemented tight monetary policy that affected import demand, and we include this policy in the form of a dummy variable. Consequently, the long-run aggregate import demand function for Jamaica, in natural logs, is specified as follows:

$$lnM_t = B_0 + B_1 \ln RGDP_t + B_2 lnRP_t + B_3 lnRFR_t + B_4 VOL_t + B_5 D_t + \varepsilon_t$$
(1)

where the dependent variable M_t represents the real import volume in period t, and the independent variables used to predict it include $RGDP_t$, the real GDP in period t, RP_t is the relative price of imports in period t, RFR_t is the real foreign reserves in period t, VOL_t is the exchange rate volatility, D_t and ε_t the error term.

The first variable $RGDP_t$ in the specified model measures the real GDP of Jamaica. Economic theory suggests that income of the importing country is a major determinant of a country's imports and has a positive impact. Thus, we expect that $\beta_1 > 0$ (Thaver and Ekanayake, 2010). The second explanatory variable, RP_t measures the relative price of imports and is calculated as the ratio of import price to domestic price as measured by the CPI. Economic theory posits that an increase in the relative price of imports discourages imports so β_2 is expected to be negative (Thaver and Ekanayake, 2010). The third explanatory variable, RFRt measures the availability of foreign reserves, which can be used to Jamaica's ability to import. This variable does not appear in the traditional import demand function. However, it is an important determinant of imports for developing countries. Since higher real foreign reserves tend to encourage imports, we would expect that $\beta_3 > 0$ (Thaver and Ekanayake, 2010). The fourth explanatory variable, VOL_t measures the standard deviation of real exchange rate. The volatility of exchange rates is the source of exchange-rate risk and has certain implications on the volume of international trade. Widespread view has it that an increase in volatility will reduce the level of trade. As such, we would expect that $\beta_4 > 0$. The effects of tight monetary policy on import demand may be assumed to be negative and therefore we expect that $\beta_5 < 0$. The expected signs of β_1 , β_2 , β_3 and β_4 are borne out in empirical results by Modeste (2010), Hye and Mashkoor (2010), Thaver and Ekanayake (2010), Ghorbani and Motalleb (2009), Rehman (2007), Narayan and Narayan (2005), Chang, Ho and Huang (2005), Dash (2005), Razafimahefa and Hamori (2005), Tang (2002, 2003), and Dutta and Ahmed (1999), among others.

To determine the short-run effects from the long-run effects, Equation (1) must be specified in an error correction model (ECM) format following Pesaran, et al. (2001), which has been used in many recent studies, including Dutta & Ahmed (1999), Tang (2002), Chang, Ho, & Huang, (2005) and Thaver & Ekanayake (2010). Utilizing the theory of cointegration via the bounds testing approach, equation (1) is rewritten in an ECM format in Equation (2) below:

$$\Delta \ln M_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \Delta \ln M_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \gamma_{i} \Delta \ln RGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \delta_{i} \Delta \ln RP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \eta_{i} \Delta \ln RFR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \psi_{i} \Delta \ln VOL_{t-i} + \alpha_{1}D_{1t} + \lambda_{1}\ln M_{t-1} + \lambda_{2}\ln RGDP_{t-1} + \lambda_{3}\ln RP_{t-1} + \lambda_{4}\ln RFR_{t-1} + \lambda_{5}\ln VOL_{t-1} + \omega_{t}$$

(2)

All variables are defined as before, except the first difference operator, which is Δ . The bounds testing approach of Pesaran et al's (2001) is based on two destinctive routine steps. Step one involves using an F-test or Wald test to test for joint significance of the no cointegration hypothesis, $H_0: \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = 0$ against an alternative hypothesis of cointegration, $H_1: \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \neq \lambda_3 \neq \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 \neq 0$. This test is performed using Equation (2). The advantage of such a method is that unit root testing is not necessary, as is done in cointegration analysis (Thaver and Ekanayake, 2010). Pesaran, et al. (2001) provides two sets of critical values for a given significance level with and without a time trend. As such, it is assumed that variables are I(0) and I(1). And if the calculated F-values surpasses the upper critical bounds value, H_0 is rejected signifying cointegration among the independent variables; if the F-value falls below the critical bounds values, we consequently reject H_0 , and lastly, if the F-statistic falls within the bounds, the result is inconclusive. The next logical step following the evidence of cointegration is to estimate the short-run and long-run coefficients of the cointegrated model (Pesarin et. al., 2001).

DATA SOURCES AND VARIABLES

Quaterly data for the period Q1:1996 to Q3:2010 are used in our model. The data on nominal imports, the import price index, real GDP, foreign exchange reserves series, and domestic price index are taken from the International Monetary Fund's *International Financial Statistics Yearbook* (2010). Nominal imports measured in Jamaican Dollars (JMD) are deflated by the GDP deflator to derive the real import variable for Jamaica. The real GDP variable is computed in millions of 2005 constant JMD. The relative price of imports series is constructed as the ratio of the CPI of the exporting country (2005=100) to domestic CPI, as measured by the consumer price index (CPI) (2005=100). To obtain the real foreign reserves series, we deflate the nominal foreign reserves series by Jamaica's GDP deflator.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Cointegration among Variables

To determine whether or not cointegration exists among variables, a bound test is executed. As such, Table 1 presents the bounds test results of cointegration for the aggregate imports of Jamaica. To establish the bounds test for cointegration between variables, the familiar F-test is carried out to determine the joint significance of the lagged level variables. This is done by comparing the computed F-statistics against its critical values set by Pesaran et al. (2001).

	10 percer	nt level	5 percent	level	1 perce	ent level
k	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
4	2.45	3.52	2.86	4.01	3.74	5.06
Calculated	F-statistic:					
	EIMDO	GDP, RP, RFR, VOL)	6.613***(US)	16.413***(UK)		

Table 1. F-test Results for Cointegration: Jamaica-US and Jamaica-UK Trade

Note: This table shows the results of the ARDL bounds testing for cointegration. The Critical values are from Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001, Table CI(iii) Case III, p. 300). k is the number of regressors. *** indicates the statistical significance at the 1 percent level.

These authors tabulate an upper bound critical value, assuming all variables to be I(1), and a lower bound critical value, assuming all variables to be I(0). Utilizing Equation (2), each variable in our specified Equation (1) is defined as a dependent variable in the calculation of the *F*-statistic and the estimated *F*-statistics are reported in Table 1. In this analysis, when the dependent variable is taken to be import demand, the calculated *F*-statistic for Jamaica-US is 6.613, and for Jamaica-UK it is 16.413. Both these estimates are higher than the upper bound critical value of 5.06 at the 1 per cent level of significance, as seen in Table 1. This result implies that the null hypothesis of no cointegration cannot be accepted for

Jamaica in its trade with the US and the UK, and a unique cointegration relationship between imports and its determinants is observable.

Long-Run and Short-Run Elasticities

After ascertaining a long-run cointegrated relationship between import demand and its determinants, we now estimate the long- and short-run elasticities, which are presented in Tables 2 & 3. As can be seen in Table 2 adjusted \overline{R}^2 is sufficiently high, indicating that these variables adequately explain the long-run elasticities in the import demand function for Jamaica. Interestingly, aggregate imports seem to be mainly determined by real gross domestic product and the relative price of goods in the Jamaica-US trade relationship. For instance, GDP is statistically significant at the 1% level, and has a highly elastic (5.84) effect on import demand. In the case of Jamaica-UK however, while the relationship is elastic (2.41), it is not significant in the long run. Relative price for both trading partners is highly significant, but has a positive and inelastic (0.6825) impact on import demand, rather than the expected negative relationship. Import demand with the US, while inversely related to volatility is highly inelastic (-0.0810) as expected, but not statistically significant in the long run. In the case of the UK, it is positive elastic (2.16) and highly significant. The foreign reserves coefficient, while meeting theoretical expectations, also differs for the US (0.1143, not significant) and the UK (2.21, significant). Reasons for these differences point to the fact that Jamaica is at the same time a developing economy and import dependent on capital goods and raw material. (Baker, 2003; World Bank, 2010, Statistical Institute of Jamaica, 2011). It is more dependent on trade with the US than the UK, but the US is also Jamaica's largest trade partner, whereas the UK lingers around 6th and 7th (Taylor, et. el, 2007; Statistical Institute of Jamaica, 2011). Also, Jamaica is a beneficiary of the Caribbean Basin Initiative (CBI), a U.S. preferential trade agreement (Sullivan, 2010), but there is no such agreement with the UK, revealing that Jamaica is more dependent on trade with the US than the UK.

Dependent variable: LnM							
	Un	ited States	United Kingdom				
Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	t-statistic	Coefficient	t-statistic			
Constant	64.8534***	-4.2403	-30.17444	-1.621433			
InRGDP _t	5.8357***	4.3613	2.406755	1.562121			
lnRPt	0.6825**	3.0045	0.9310635***	3.787455			
lnRFRt	0.1143	0.5672	0.4409097**	2.211998			
lnVOLt	-0.0810	-0.9715	0.1061394**	2.158203			
D _{1t}	-0.2173	-1.4118	-0.1309211	-0.740401			
Adjust. R-squared (\overline{R}^2)	0.5162		0.6176				

Table 2. Long-run Elasticities for Jamaica's Import Demand Function (1996-2010)

Note: This table shows the long-run elasticities of the estimated import demand function for South Africa.

*** and ** indicate statistical significance at the 1% and 5% level, respectively .p-values are in paranthesis.

The coefficient for restrictive monetary policy dummy variable, D_1 is also revealed in Table 2. The D_1 coefficient for both countries are negative (-0.22-US; -0.74-UK) but insignificant, implying that the restrictive monetary policy of 2000 intended to curb the demand for foreign exchange and imports, has been ineffective in impacting Jamaica's import demand function in the long-run.

Short-run elasticities are presented in Table 3 revealing a few significant differences from Table 2. In the case of Jamaica-US trade, income has a lower and negative elasticity in the short run (-.9900) compared with the long run (5.5836). Relative prices are three times as elastic in the SR (2.068) than the long run (.6825). Whereas volatility is negative as expected in the long run (-.0810), it is positive in the short run (.04688) and has a much smaller effect on imports. Foreign reserves behave the same irrespective of time. Except for relative prices, change takes place much faster in the long run than in the short run, as expected. In Jamaica-UK trade, GDP, and volatility are less elastic in the short run (0.1163; -.08753) than

in the long run (2.4067; 0.1061), as expected, but real foreign reserves and relative price adjust much faster. Moreover, unlike the long run, real foreign reserves and volatility are both negative in the short run.

 Table 3. Error-Correction Representation for the Selected ARDL Model

	D	Dependent variable: ΔlnN	1	
	United S	States	United Kin	gdom
Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	t-statistic	Coefficient	t-statistic
Constant	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
∆lnIMPt- <i>i</i>	0.3537***(4)	3.365	0.1258 (3)	1.421
ΔlnRGDPt- <i>i</i>	-4.9900**(3)	-3.251	0.1163*** (4)	2.809
∆lnRPt- <i>i</i>	2.068*(3)	2.260	3.614 (2)	1.600
∆lnFRt- <i>i</i>	0.1614 (1)	1.476	-0.9004***(3)	-3.081
∆lnVOLt- <i>i</i>	0.04668(1)	1.158	-0.08753 (3)	-1.526
Dt	-0.1326**	-3.509	-0.1682**	-2.057
ECMt-1	-0.6100***	-6.024	-1.285***	-9.512

Note: This table shows the results of the short-run elasticities of the error-correction model.***, **, and * indicate statistical significance at the 1% 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Number of lags are indicated in paranthesis.

As seen in Table 3, unlike Table 2, the coefficient for D_1 is significant for Jamaica-UK, but remains insignificant for Jamaica-US at the 5% level, meaning that in the short-run, unlike the long-run, tight monetary policy has had significant impact on Jamaica's import demand function with the UK, but not with the US. Therefore, in the short-run, the government adopting tight monetary policies worked effectively to reduce import demand from the UK, but not the US. Our earlier assertion that Jamaica is more dependent upon trade with the US than the UK has been reinforced by these results. The error correction term, ECM_{t-1} in trade with both the US (-0.61) and UK (-1.285) is negative and statistically significant, making certain that the series is non-explosive and that long-run equilibrium is attainable. However, once the model in Equation (2) is shocked, convergence to long run equilibrium after the shock is slow in Jamaica-US trade with only 61% of the adjustment occurring in the first year. In Jamaica-UK relations the adjustment process is very fast at 128%, twice the rate of the US.

Table 4. Results of the Diagnostic Test for the Selected ARDL Model

	Unit	ed States	United Kingdom		
Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	p-value			
R^2	0.6257		0.7076		
\overline{R}^2	0.5592		0.6532		
Durbin Watson Test	2.2242	p-value: 0.668	1.8265	p-value: 0.2163	
Breusch-Godfrey Test	3.4415	p-value: 0.0163	1.7932	p-value: 0.1498	
Reset Test	0.3512	p-value: 0.7058	3.7855	P-value: 0.031	
Jarque Bera Test	1.9371	p-value: 0.3796	3.9876	p-value: 0.1362	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test	2.408	P-value: 0.5372	-3.1907	p-value: 0.09785	

Table 4 shows the results of diagnostic tests that we ran on our short-run model. These tests include the Durbin Watson (DW) test, the Breusch-Godfrey test (BG), the Reset test for correct model specification, the Jarque Bera (JB) normality test for the error term, and lastly, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF). The results are ambiguous. While our model representing Jamaica-US reveals that the model is overall well behaved, the Jamaica-UK model is less clear-cut, with the RESET and ADF tests showing significance at the 5% and 10% (Brown, Current Account Determinants for the Jamaican Economy. , 2007) levels. On the other hand the UK model's adjusted R^2 (0.65) is much better than the US (0.56) model, and they both are large enough to indicate that a significant percent of the variation in import demand is explained by the variables in the model.

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study estimated an aggregate import demand function for Jamaica for the US and the UK for the period 1996 - 2010, utilizing the bounds testing approach to cointegration. The empirical evidence suggests that that import demand is dominated by the independent variables suggesting that a unique cointegration relationship between imports and its regressors, real GDP, relative price of imports, real foreign reserves, and exchange rate volatility, exists. This unique relationship enabled us to study the short-run and long-run elasticities of the variables. In the case of Jamaica-US trade, income has a lower and negative elasticity in the short run (-.9900) compared with the long run (5.5836). Relative prices are three times as elastic in the SR (2.068) than the long run (.6825). Whereas volatility is negative as expected in the long run (-.0810), it is positive in the short run (.04688) and has a much smaller effect on imports. Foreign reserves behave the same irrespective of time. Except for relative prices, change takes place much faster in the long run than in the short run, as expected. In Jamaica-UK trade, GDP, and volatility are less elastic in the short run (0.1163; -.08753) than in the long run (2.4067; 0.1061), as expected, but real foreign reserves and relative price adjust much faster. Moreover, unlike the long run, real foreign reserves and volatility are both negative in the short run. D_1 is significant for Jamaica-UK, but remains insignificant for Jamaica-US, meaning that in the short run, unlike the long run, tight monetary policy has had significant impact on Jamaica's import demand function with the UK, but not with the US. Therefore, in the short run, the government adopting tight monetary policies worked effectively to reduce import demand from the UK, but not the US. Our earlier assertion that Jamaica is more dependent upon trade with the US than the UK has been reinforced by these results.

From a policy perspective, Jamaica clearly must focus on monetary and fiscal policies that would reduce its imports of capital and intermediate goods, especially oil, while simultaneously focusing on diversifying its export base. Strengthening trade relations with other island countries, among them Trinidad and Tobago, and possibly create a regional currency with island trading partners. This policy could possibly reduce its dependence on imports from the US and UK, and in turn improve its exchange rate, increase its foreign reserves, and in turn, its balance of payments.

This study is one of very few studies to focus on the import demand function for a developing island economy such as Jamaica. Our results provide fodder for further research that could overcome the limitations of the present model. Since our diagnostic tests were not all according to theoretical expectations we would have to reconsider what independent variables would have better explanatory power. In the case of Jamaica-US model, we may want to eliminate volatility and D₁ since they are both not significant in the short and long run. In the case of Jamaica-UK, since GDP is not significant in the long run, and since mostly consumer goods are imported from there, it may be better to disaggregate GDP into its component parts to determine if we could get better results. In addition, since Jamaica has been characterized by increasing crime, which has affected its trade structure, future studies could include the crime rate as a fifth regressor to capture its effect on import demand, allowing for possibly more robust results.

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BIOGRAPHY

Kira Hibbert is a senior Economics major at Stetson University. She is a citizen of Jamaica, and this paper is part of her senior research project with Professor Thaver. Contact information: Department of Economics, Stetson University, Box 8392, Deland, FL 32723, USA. Phone: (386) 822-7573. E-mail: khibbert@stetson.edu.

Dr. Ranjini Thaver is an Associate Professor of Economics at Stetson University, Deland, Florida. She earned her Ph.D. in Economics in 1995 and an M.A. degree in Economics in 1989 at the Notre Dame University. She is currently the Chair of Economics Department at Stetson University. Dr. Thaver is also the Director of Center for Holistic Microcredit Initiatives (CHOMI), and the Director of CHOMI Tanzania. Contact information: Department of Economics, Stetson University, Box 8392, Deland, FL 32723, USA. Phone: (386) 822-7573. E-mail: rthaver@stetson.edu.

Mark Hutchinson is a senior Economics major at Stetson University. He is a citizen of Jamaica, and this paper is part of his senior research project with Professor Thaver. Contact information: Department of Economics, Stetson University, Box 8392, Deland, FL 32723, USA. Phone: (386) 822-7573. E-mail: mhutchin@stetson.edu.

THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC LIBERALIZATION ON SOUTH AFRICA'S DISAGGREGATED IMPORT DEMAND FUNCTION WITH NIGERIA

Ranjini L. Thaver, Stetson University E. M. Ekanayake, Bethune-Cookman University Daniel R. Plante, Stetson University

ABSTRACT

This paper estimates South Africa's disaggregated import demand function with Nigeria over the period 1992 to 2010 utilizing the bounds testing approach to cointegration, and the unrestricted error-correction model. We also utilize the autoregressive distributed lag model to estimate South Africa's short-run and long-run import elasticities. Our results reveal that not all the long-run elasticities display the theoretically expected signs, and neither are they all significant. The disaggregated expenditure variables are all elastic, and even though consumption (3.3567) and export expenditures (1.7661) are positive, they are not significant. Investment (-3.1495) is significant at the 10% level, but it negatively affects imports. Real foreign reserves (0.0249) and volatility (0.1424) both yield expected signs, but are highly inelastic and not significant in the long run. Similarly relative prices, contrary to theoretical expectations, is directly related to import demand and is highly elastic (3.3145), which contradicts other studies. In the short run, unlike the long run, and except for consumption (-0.1156) and export (-1.930) expenditures, all the expected elasticity coefficient signs are met, and they are all statistically significant. Our study further discloses that South Africa's commitment to increasing intra-African trade applies inversely to Nigeria. We argue that appropriate public policy at the regional level is necessary to effectively increase trade with Nigeria, given South Africa's reliance on oil imports.

JEL: F14, F31

Keywords: : South Africa, Nigeria, disaggregated import demand, real exchange rates, volatility, elasticity, Conditional variance, Cointegration.

INTRODUCTION

South Africa is at the same time an African economic giant and a middle-income dualistic developing country (Truett & Truett, 2003). Until the financial crisis of 2008, it was deemed one of the fastest growing economies on the globe and was characterized as an emerging market ripe for foreign and domestic investment and trade. As the economy aspires to compete effectively in the global economy, while increasing its economic footprint on the African continent, the need to study its import demand function in general, and specifically with particular countries and in targeted intra-African regions is very clear. So far, very few studies have been done on these import demand functions at both the aggregate and the disaggregated level, and this study seeks to fill this void in the literature. Our objective is to investigate South Africa's disaggregated import demand function and its associated short-run dynamics with Nigeria for the period 1992-2010. This import demand function is estimated using the bounds testing approach to cointegration and the error-correction model.

MODEL SPECIFICATION

The long-run disaggregated import demand function for South Africa (in natural logs) is thus specified as

$$\ln M_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln RP_t + \beta_2 \ln FR_t + \beta_3 \ln VOL_t + \beta_4 \ln CG_t + \beta_5 \ln INV + \beta_6 \ln EXP_t + \beta_7 D_{1t} + \varepsilon_t$$
(1)

In Equation (1), in period t and where ln represents the natural logarithm, M_t represents the real import volume; RP_t is the relative price of imports; FR_t is the real foreign exchange reserves; VOL_t is a measure of exchange rate volatility; CG_t represents the sum of the government and private consumption expenditure in real terms; INV_t is real investment; EXP_t represents real exports; D_{1t} is a dummy variable representing South Africa's commitment (1996-2010) to increase trade with other countries in the African region; and ε_t is the error term.

In the specified model, the first explanatory variable, RP_t , is calculated as the ratio of import price to domestic price. Economic theory posits that an increase in the relative price of imports discourages imports so β_1 is expected to be negative. FR_t measures the availability of foreign reserves, which can be used to represent the ability to import. Following Hoque and Yusop (2010), we have included the real foreign reserve variable to capture the impact of export earnings on import demand, as export earning is one of the major sources of foreign reserves. While this variable does not appear in the traditional import demand function, it is an important determinant of imports for developing countries, and therefore we include it in our model. Since higher real foreign reserves tend to encourage imports, we would expect that $\beta_2 > 0$. To convert CG_t , INV_t , and EXP_t into real terms, we divide each by South Africa's GDP deflator (2005 = 100). Economic theory suggests that these components of income and expenditure is a major determinant of a country's imports and under the assumption of imperfect substitution theory, has a positive impact on import demand. Thus we expect that β_4 , β_5 , and β_6 are greater than 0. VOL_t is a measure of exchange rate volatility. Since the effects of VOL_t on imports have been found to be empirically and theoretically ambiguous (Bredin, *et al.* 2003), β_3 could be either positive or negative.

Given recent advances in time-series analysis, in estimating the long-run model outlined by Equation (1), it is now common practice to distinguish short-run effects from long-run effects. For this purpose, Equation (1) must be specified in an error-correction model (ECM) format following Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001), which has been used in many recent studies, Razafimahefa and Hamori (2005), and Tang (2004). Using the bounds testing approach to cointegration analysis, we rewrite Equation (1) in an ECM format in Equation (3) below.

$$\Delta \ln M_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \Delta \ln M_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \delta_{i} \Delta \ln RP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \eta_{i} \Delta \ln FR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \gamma_{i} \Delta \ln VOL_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \varphi_{i} \Delta \ln CG_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_{i} \Delta \ln INV_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} \xi_{i} \Delta \ln EXP_{t-i} + \alpha_{1}D_{1t} + \lambda_{1} \ln M_{t-1} + \lambda_{2} \ln RP_{t-1} + \lambda_{3} \ln FR_{t-1} + \lambda_{4} \ln VOL_{t-1} + \lambda_{5} \ln CG_{t-1} + \lambda_{6} \ln INV_{t-1} + \lambda_{7} \ln EXP_{t-1} + \omega_{t}$$
(3)

with all variables defined previously, except the first difference operator, which is Δ . Pesaran et al's (2001) bounds testing approach is based on two procedural steps. The first step involves using an F-test or cointegration hypothesis of the Wald test to test for joint significance no $H_0: \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = \lambda_6 = \lambda_7 = 0 \text{ against an alternative hypothesis of cointegration, } H_1: \lambda_0 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_3 \neq 0, \quad \lambda_4 \neq 0,$ $\lambda_2 \neq 0$, $\lambda_3 \neq 0$, $\lambda_5 \neq 0$, $\lambda_6 \neq 0$, $\lambda_7 \neq 0$. This test is performed using Equation (3). The advantage of this approach is that there is no need to test for unit roots, as is commonly done in cointegration analysis. Pesaran, et al. (2001) provide two sets of critical values for a given significance level with and without a time trend. One assumes that the variables are I(0), and the other assumes that the variables are I(1). If the computed F-value exceeds the upper critical bounds value, H_0 is rejected signaling cointegration among the independent variables. If the computed F-value is below the critical bounds values, we fail to reject H₀. Finally, if the computed F-statistic falls within the bounds, the result is inconclusive. After

establishing cointegration, the second step involves estimating the short-run and long-run coefficients of the cointegrated model, the mathematical derivation of which can be found in Pesaran et al. (2001).

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Cointegration among Variables

Table 3 presents the bounds test results of cointegration for the disaggregated imports of South Africa from Nigeria. Comparing the computed *F*-statistics against its critical values, which are extracted from Pesaran et al. (2001), we can establish the bounds test for cointegration. Using Equation (3), each variable in our specified Equation (1) is defined as a dependent variable in the calculation of the *F*-statistic which is estimated at 8.926, and is higher than the upper bound critical value of 4.43 at the 1 per cent significance level. This implies that the null hypothesis of no cointegration cannot be accepted, and a unique cointegration relationship between imports and its determinants is observable in our model.

Long-Run and Short-Run Elasticities

Having established a long-run cointegrated relationship between import demand and its determinants, the second step involves estimating the long- and short-run elasticities, the results of which we present in Tables 4 & 5. In Table 4, \overline{R}^2 is relatively high, indicating that the regressors reliably explain the long-run elasticities in the import demand function for South Africa's trade with Nigeria. However, not all the long-run estimated elasticities exhibit the theoretically expected signs; neither are they all significant. The disaggregated expenditure variables are all elastic, and even though consumption (3.3567) and export expenditures (1.7661) are positive, they are not significant. While investment (-3.1495) is significant at the 10% level, it negatively affects imports – for every 10% rise in investments, imports increase by 31.5%. This is in line with the strengthening of South Africa's domestic investment climate, but also, the lack of appropriate productive capital in Nigeria. Real foreign reserves (0.0249) and volatility (0.1424) both yield expected signs, but are highly inelastic and not significant in the long run.

Dependent variable: LnM _t		
Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	t-statistic
Constant	-36.3147	-1.5890
In FRt	0.0249	0.0720
In RPt	3.3145***	3.3978
In VOLt	0.1424	1.2238
In CGt	3.3567	1.2387
In INVt	-3.1495*	-2.3611
In EXPt	1.7661	1.5755
D ₁ t	1.1355	-1.4064
Adjusted R-squared (R ²)	0.654	

Table 4. Long-run Elasticities for South Africa's Import Function with Nigeria: 1992-2010

Note: This table shows the long-run elasticities of the estimated import demand function for South Africa. *** and ** indicate statistical significance at the 1% and 5% level, respectively.

Relative prices, contrary to theoretical expectations, is directly related to import demand, is highly elastic (3.3145), and is statistically significant at the 1% level. So, a 10% rise in relative prices correlates with a 33% increase import demand. However, because South Africa is highly dependent on oil imports from Nigeria, this result makes sense in light of hikes in the price of oil in the last decade.

We present the estimated short-run elasticities in Table 5 showing that unlike the long-run elasticites, and except for consumption and export expenditures, all the expected coefficient signs are met, and they are statistically significant. Consumption (-0.1156) in the short run is negative, very inelastic, and significant compared with the long run. This means that a 10% increase in consumption will decrease import demand by 1.1% in the short run. Similarly, a 10% increase in export expenditures (-1.9130) will decrease import demand by 19.1%. Investment (2.608), unlike the long run, positively affects imports – for every 10% rise in investments, imports increase by 26.1%.

Dependent variable: $\Delta \ln M_t$						
Explanatory Variables	Coefficient	t-statistic				
Constant	0.000	0.0000				
$\Delta \ln M_{t-2}$	0.2139*	2.660				
$\Delta \ln FR_{t-1}$	0.7651***	3.700				
$\Delta \ln VOL_{\rm t}$	-0.2143***	-2.698				
$\Delta \ln RP_{t-2}$	-8.4250***	-5.473				
$\Delta \ln CG_{t-1}$	-0.1156**	-2.615				
$\Delta \ln INV_{t-1}$	2.608***	3.226				
$\Delta \ln EXP_{t-2}$	-1.9130**	-2.414				
D_{1t}	-0.6650**	-2.504				
ECM _{t-1}	-0.5857***	-8.394				

Note: This table shows the results of the short-run partial elasticities of the error-correction model. *** and ** indicate statistical significance at the 1% and 5% level, respectively.

Real foreign reserves (0.7651) exhibit thirty times its long run elasticity, but it is still inelastic, meaning that it does not influence import demand from Nigeria by a significant margin. Since most imports from Nigeria are in the form of oil, demand will not be that responsive to changes in foreign reserves. Relative prices, contrary to the long run, meet theoretical expectations and are highly elastic (-8.425), and it is statistically significant at the 1% level. So, a 10% rise in relative prices correlates with an 84% decrease in import demand. While most other studies reflect an inelastic response to changes in relative prices, the availability of oil from countries other than Nigeria may be the reason for such a high elasticity. Congruent with this assertion, imports from Iran fell from a rank of 6 in 2009 to 10 in 2011 (Department of Trade and Industry, 2011; Thaver and Ekanayake, 2010). Nigeria improved from 10 to 8. Clearly, political movements and stability affects the import demand function for a specific country. Volatility, while positive (0.1424) and not significant in the long run, exhibits negative (-0.2143) and significant coefficients in the short run. The partial elasticity is twice that of the long run, indicating twice as rapid a response rate.

In Table 5, unlike Table 4, the coefficient for D_1 is statistically significant at the 5% level, meaning that in the short run, unlike the long run, South Africa's commitment to increased African trade has had a significant impact on South Africa's import demand function with Nigeria, but in an inverse manner. This may be perplexing, but it is possible that rather than increasing trade with African countries, South Africa merely redirected trade from some African countries to others. Part of this redirection may also be due to its negative trade balance with Nigeria (-R11.7 million in 2010) despite its positive trade balance with African countries as a whole (R2,648 million in 2010) (Department of Trade and Industry, 2011).

The error correction term, ECM_{t-1} , gauges the rate at which import demand adapts to changes in the regressors in the short run before returning to its long run equilibrium level. The coefficient for ECM_{t-1} is -0.5857 meaning that once the model in Equation (2) is shocked by changes in one of the import demand determinants, convergence to equilibrium is above average with 59% of the adjustment occurring in the first year. None of the diagnostic tests are statistically significant, suggesting no evidence of autocorrelation in the disturbance of the error term. Finally, the adjusted R² of 0.69 indicates that 69 per

cent of the variation in import demand is explained by the variables in the model. Hence, based on these statistical properties, it is reasonable to say that the model is well behaved.

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In this paper, we estimated a disaggregated import demand function for South Africa with Nigeria during 1992-2010 using the bounds testing approach to cointegration. Our results suggest that a unique cointegration relationship between imports and its regressors, namely relative prices, foreign reserves, exchange rate volatility, and the components of aggregate income, namely consumption, investment, and exports, exists. This unique relationship enabled us to study the short-run and long-run partial elasticities of South Africa's import demand function.

Our results indicate that not all the long-run estimated elasticities exhibit the theoretically expected signs, neither are they all significant. The disaggregated expenditure variables are all elastic, and even though consumption (3.3567) and export expenditures (1.7661) are positive, they are not significant. While investment (-3.1495) is significant at the 10% level, it negatively affects imports. Real foreign reserves (0.0249) and volatility (0.1424) both yield expected signs, but are highly inelastic and not significant in the long run. Similarly relative prices, contrary to theoretical expectations, is directly related to import demand, is highly elastic (3.3145), and statistically significant which contradicts other studies.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Ranjini Thaver is an Associate Professor of Economics at Stetson University, Deland, Florida. She earned her Ph.D. in Economics in 1995 and an M.A. degree in Economics in 1989 at the Notre Dame University. She is currently the Chair of Economics Department at Stetson University. Dr. Thaver is also the Director of Center for Holistic Microcredit Initiatives (CHOMI), and the Director of CHOMI Tanzania. Contact information: Department of Economics, Stetson University, Box 8392, Deland, FL 32723, USA. Phone: (386) 822-7573. E-mail: rthaver@stetson.edu.

Dr. E. M. Ekanayake is an Associate Professor of Economics at Bethune-Cookman University, Daytona Beach, Florida, USA and an Adjunct Professor of Economics at Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, Daytona Beach. He earned his Ph.D. in Economics at the Florida International University, Miami in 1996. He has many publications to his credit. Contact information: School of Business, Bethune-Cookman University, 640 Dr. Mary McLeod Bethune Blvd., Daytona Beach, FL 32114, USA. Phone: (386) 481-2819. E-mail: ekanayakee@cookman.edu.

Dr Daniel R. Plante is an Associate Professor of Computer Science at Stetson University, Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, 421 N. Woodland Blvd., DeLand, Florida, USA. He received a PhD in Physics from the University of Notre Dame in 1995 and a Master of Engineering in Computer Science from North Carolina State University in 2003. He can be contacted at <u>dplante@stetson.edu</u>.

MAPPING THE PARIS-METROPOLE: CULTURAL PLANNING AND CITIZEN POLITICS IN AN AGE OF DEMOCRATIC DISTRUST

Lara Sofia Romero, Stanford University Rafael Romero, State University of New York Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

Is it possible to reinforce new democratic practices through urban cultural planning? Caught in the midst of a massive expansion of identities and claims for justice that have driven the city's political culture since 1789, Paris offers a privileged terrain for thinking about how forms of citizenship have changed across urban space over the last twenty years. This article investigates the current crisis of democracy in Paris, France and how strong individual and community identities around urban scenes and consumption could be used to promote original forms of democratic engagement. The study finds that the arrondissements and suburbs of Paris with the greatest number of recorded cultural amenities tend to generate the highest voter participation rates, whereas those with few tend to generate higher abstention rates. A more elaborate palate of scenes based on maps and databases is suggested to continue research on the metropolitanization process of the Paris-Metropole.

JEL: R12

Key Words: Democratic Engagement, Urban Scenes, Metropolitanization Process.

INTRODUCTION

Paris' unprecedented demographic boom has fueled a transformation of the city. While Paris continues to evolve, policy makers have been forced to tackle core problems such as urban violence and social exclusion and address the relationship between urban growth and infrastructure. Will Paris maintain an organic and open structure to accommodate migrant communities? How will people continue to create a sense of place, community, and urban identity in the midst of rapid demographic change? What are the opportunities for individuals, community organizations, and social movements to shape city life? These are some of the questions that civic leaders, city-builders, architects and academics from around the world ask when they discuss the future of a city facing momentous growth.

Meanwhile, it has been widely established that democracy has entered a new period of crisis worldwide. Unprecedented levels of abstention, crises in citizen confidence, and low levels of associative activity, have all contributed to a general malaise in democratic politics. Titles of some of the current literature on democracy include: *Distrust and Democracy, Why People Don't Trust Government, The Vanishing Voter, and Discredit to Politicians*, to name a few. The rise of significant, pervasive, and highly vocal discontent with the political process, political leadership, and policy outcomes is one of the most important phenomena of contemporary mass politics. Citizens worldwide have disengaged from political involvement including decreased voter turnout, public meeting attendance, and working with political parties. Robert Putnam suggests in his book *Bowling Alone* that civil society in the United States is breaking down as citizens are becoming more disconnected from their families, neighbors, communities, and the republic itself.

If Putnam is correct and we are increasingly "*Bowling Alone*," is Paris destined to an age of democratic dystopia? This research suggests that although the changes in the present democratic culture are profound, changes in the democratic landscape can be guided in positive and original directions. Lamenting

democratic shifts may only serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy, reinforcing their negative impacts while ignoring new foundations for democratic action will remain understudied. Rather, studying new factors such as urban scenes and cultural consumption and how they form part of a broader shift in democratic action and legitimacy could strengthen civic participation.

This research project on the Paris-Metropole region serves as introduction for thinking about the structural changes of Paris and the impact of the dynamics of cultural consumption. It is part of a larger project coordinated by Stephen Sawyer of the American University of Paris with team members from the "Magistere d'Amenagement de Paris-1 Pantheon-Sorbonne," and the University of Chicago. Specifically, we worked with a research team generating a database that registered the cultural installations of Paris by department in Paris by arrondissements. Our research segment, which is part of the larger project, is designed to investigate the present crisis of democracy. It analyzes voter participation, the general state of mistrust that has emerged among citizens, and more specifically, their relationship to the urban environments that serve as foyers for the tension between deeply cosmopolitan communities, robust individualist searches for authenticity, and contemporary shifts in citizen efficacy.

Four widely accepted basic premises serve as the basis for the study when considering the political role of cities in contemporary democratic urban settings such as Paris. 1. Our post-industrial urban environments are increasingly driven by financial service sectors and consumption alongside industry and production. 2. The scalar shifts that are undermining the city/nation-state relationship are embedding cities in new territorial forms such as global spaces. 3. There is renewed pressures towards metropolitanization in an effort to alleviate fiscal strain and the needs for cities of unprecedented sizes, economic, and ethnic diversity that generate hybrid and cosmopolitan spaces on an entirely new scales. 4. There is a return to early twentieth-century radical inequalities in access to services as well as financial and natural resources and the responses to these same individuals and communities that are brought together in our twenty-first century metropolises. These four transformations in the economic, territorial, and social role of cities in our contemporary democracies are essential to redefining the relationship between cities and democratic practices and the foundations of democratic legitimacy. As a result, these tectonic shifts are no doubt part of the general contribution to the present sense that citizens are living in a disaffected democracy.

The hypothesis of this paper is that Parisian citizens may also be part of a broader shift towards a democratic legitimacy based increasingly on consumption. Instead of decrying the rise of individualism, excessive consumerism, and identity as a sort of retreat into the halls of narcissism, strong individual identities fed by consumer and cultural amenities may actually be foundations for civic efficacy and building forms of public engagement. The study is divided into three parts. First, we begin with a discussion of the diagnosis on how the relationship between strong individual identities and community identities has been redefined in the context of citizen politics. Second, we define how recent theories have helped to rethink the role of culture in constructing identity in the urban democratic environment. Third, we present our study of the Paris Metropole, the results of the study, and then sketch the broad outlines of a future research agenda for examining the political impact of territorial cultural identities in the metropolitianization process of the Paris-Metropole. We only include the third part in this proceeding. For the first time in history, more people live in cities than in the countryside. By 2050, three quarters of the world's population are expected to be urbanites. Philosopher Henri Lefebvre anticipated this situation in the 1960s as he argued that industrialization was being replaced by urbanization. Today, there is much discussion about having moved from the industrial age to the information age. But this is also the urban age. The main question is the following: how do we create cities that are not just containers for tightlypacked populations, but pleasant and equitable places to live?

Vibrant communities, thriving music and theater venues, lively restaurants, beautiful buildings, high quality festivals, and interesting museums, among other things, all contribute to the quality of life and attractiveness of a city. Due these qualities, culture matters for policy because by understanding culture

we can advise policymakers about how to invest in their cities' infrastructure. Cities with robust cultural lives tend to be populated by high human capital individuals who heavily contribute to robust economies. The larger theory upholding this thesis—and the larger project directed by Stephen Sawyer of the American University of Paris-is that cultural policy can be developed through analysis of scenes and cultural ambiances. Scenes capture the distinct ways in which concrete patterns of cultural amenities and personality characteristics attract groups of people according to shared sensibilities. Coming to understand how scenes work, where they are, who joins them, and how such people make decisions about spending their time and money has much to offer urban policymakers who wish to make their city more attractive. Paris offers a fecund terrain to research the relationship between culture, scenes and urban development. In spite of its status as the leading European metropolis, Paris has not been free from internal political conflict as it faces problems of urbanization. The separation of the urban center from the periphery, a result of historical city planning, as well as social segregation and an increasing housing shortage, have been conspicuous problems of the Paris conurbation. Redesigning Paris as a modern metropolis is the aim of a public competition initiated by President Nicolas Sarkozy in 2009 under the heading "Le Grand Paris." President Sarkozy's current goal is to integrate the inner suburbs, or banlieues with the central city of Paris. With large-scale urban planning operations and iconic architectural projects, his vision for building a Paris metropolis of the 21st century will define future development in Greater Paris for the next thirty years.

Contrary to the opinion of President Sarkozy, however, this study suggests that new structures and large budget infrastructural projects may not necessarily be the best strategy for enhancing the actual performance of the contemporary Parisian metropolis. The hypothesis is that Parisian citizens might be part of a broader shift towards a democratic legitimacy based increasingly on consumption. The results show that neighborhoods with more amenities for consumption tend to produce higher voter participation, whereas those without tend to generate higher abstention rates. It was also found that Parisian regions with a high concentration of large supermarkets and fast food restaurants have some of the highest voterabstention rates. These results demonstrate that Paris is as much a site of consumption as it is a site of production. According to Richard Florida, citizens are opposing more and more work over leisure. Urban planning policymakers should therefore aim to fuse work with leisure and think of Paris as a kaleidoscope: filled with a unique history, places for employment, and cultural amenities. In sum, Paris is no longer a function of distinct elements- production and consumption- but a true mix of the two. The Paris-Metropolis in the next thirty years will become not only a place of work or a place of residence, but a place of production and cultural consumption on a worldwide scale.

The strength of this study lies in its ability to isolate amenities and correlate them with urban voting patterns. It establishes concrete data by studying and investing in individual cultural atoms. Yet a drawback of the study is that cultivation of a neighborhood is always a holistic activity; it does not take place in isolation. The study does not have enough data to be able to characterize arrondissements or suburbs on the whole. Rather it focuses on the impact of isolated amenities, which may, to a certain extent, truncate the study. More research must be completed to understand how can scenes be created or facilitated. While the theories that link cultural consumption to urban development and voter participation are sound, in the absence of a unified Parisian database on amenities, research on the relationship between culture and urban development remains conjectural. To move beyond conjecture to testable hypotheses about the impact of particular amenities on Paris, more empirical data must be found.

Further research should clarify Parisian amenities and identify the different types of mixes of scenes. Further research should define the specific values that characterize an arrondissement with high voter participation and then define what makes different mixes of scenes attractive to different groups of people. In turn, policymakers should focus less on massive infrastructural projects and more on preexisting urban ambiances. Results of further research could imply that certain neighborhoods need more amenities such as coffee shops, bookstores, bakeries, and libraries, that help define the neighborhood, and less of others that might already be in abundance. Policymakers should realize that the right combination of urban amenities could have more of an impact on the economic and social wellbeing as well as political participation of residents, than does a full range of architectural and urban transformations. The larger implication of consumption being strongly correlated with voter participation is that Parisian ambiances are essential for combating political apathy. Scenes, or elements of urban life, are essential for driving economic development and migration. On the other hand, Sarcozy's modern urban planning models may even destroy communities and innovative economies by creating isolated, unnatural urban spaces. Rather than over-emphasize massive infrastructural projects, an urban developer's comprehension of Paris' urban ambiances is what can make the city truly attractive.

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BIOGRAPHY

Lara Sofia Romero: Currently Legal Assistant at HHR, LLP, New York, New York. Formerly BS Student in International Relations at Stanford University. She can be contacted at: HHR, LLP, One Battery Park Plaza, New York, New York 10004-1482, USA. Email: lromero1@stanford.edu

Rafael Romero: Associate Professor of Economics and Finance at SUNYIT. He can be contacted at: Dept. Business Management, SUNYIT, 100 Seymour Rd, Utica, NY 13502, USA. E-Mail: frr1@sunyit.edu

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MODEL FOR INFORMATION ANALYSIS AND DECISION MAKING IN SELECTING A NEW BRANCH LOCATION AT THE NATIONAL TERRITORY SCALE -GENETIC ALGORITHMS

Victor Ioane, The Academy of Economic Studies Bucharest Laurentiu Pestritu, The Academy of Economic Studies Bucharest

ABSTRACT

Within the strategy of large companies that extend their commercial activities at national scale, the evaluation and selection of the next location of a new branch is of particular interest. The paper presents a brief review of previous models employed by managers, utilized for identification and analysis of various relationships that are to be considered when making decisions. Our approach implies creating a model in a two-step process: the selection of factors, dependent on the industry field, and associating different weights to each factor. Unfortunately, the scientific and professional literature in this field offered so far little information on suitable procedures for making complex decisions for a succesful expansion. When finding the optimal weights for these factors, there must taken into consideration the decisions made by the company or by other companies when expanding. Our approach uses Genetic Algorithms in order to compute the best weights for each factor, having as final goal an efficient method for managers on possible facility sites evaluations and selection. The case study that considered significant for the paper's topic describes the development of a company at national territory scale in the field of industrial laundry and textile rental services.

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KEYWORDS: Expansion, location, region, genetic algorithms, selection criteria

INTRODUCTION

One of the main preoccupations of the managers of the companies that have expanded in the last years in a country at the national territory scale was the choice of a new location. A factor that has made the application of an expansion strategy interesting was the market's saturation in the cities where the company was already present. National expansion offers access to new markets and also offers opportunities of multiplying the turnover. In order to ensure a successful expansion the companies must identify locations that match the internal strengths and weaknesses.

Unfortunately, many companies that expand do not choose the best locations. This happens because they do not understand the multiple implications that settling into a new business environment entails.

These challenges are amplified by the fact that the expansion is a two-stage process. In the first stage, the company must determine the regions where there is an attractive market and an operative general environment. Afterwards, it must be decided which locations are the best match from a strategic point of view. Previous models have succeeded in answering only partially to this complex challenge and have not taken into account these two steps. The presented method is based on knowledge in the field of strategic management and utilises modern programming – genetic algorithms- for justifying the decisions of expansion with the help of computer intelligence.

The purpose of this article is to offer to managers a modern and efficient model of choosing a location, with the following main objectives:

- The analysis of previous models and the identification of their strengths and weaknesses;

- The development of previous models by combining concepts of strategic management with evolutionary programming;

- The application of the presented model on a case study regarding the expansion of a company providing industrial laundry services in Romania

Genetic Algorithms

Genetic algorithms are a part of evolutionary computing, an expanding area of artificial intelligence. Genetic algorithms offer a an evolved solution to a problem and are inspired by Darwin's theory about evolution. Genetic algorithms (GAs) were invented by John Holland, who described them in his book "*Adaption in Natural and Artificial Systems*" published in 1975. In 1992 John Koza evolved programs through a method called "genetic programming" (GP).

In solving problems, we are searching a solution, which has to be the best among others. The space of the feasible solutions in called search space. Finding the solution is equal to looking for the extremes (min or max) in the search space. The search space can be entirely known, but normally we know only a few points from it and we generate other points, as we continue the process to find the solution.

Often the search can be very complicated, because you don't know where to look for the solution and when to start. Through the different methods to find a suitable solution (hill climbeing, genetic algorithm), we come to a solution which is considered good, because sometimes it is difficult to prove which is the real optimum.

The genetic algorithm starts with a set of chromosomes (solutions), called population. Solutions from one population are taken and used to form a new population, with the hope, that the new population will be better than the old one. Solutions are selected according to their fitness to form new solutions (offspring). The mathematical model of Genetic Algorithms states that, at a specific step, the set of possible solutions are encoded such as the values of each factor that influences a solution are stored. At this step, some solutions are saved as-is, others are selected and combined to form other potential solutions and others are randomly modified.

Encoding of a Chromosome

Encoding of chromosomes it's a very importing issue, when solving problems with genetic algorithms. Encoding depends a lot on the problem. In the following we present only 2 types of encoding. Binary encoding This way of encoding is the most common, because first models of genetic algorithms used it. In binary encoding, every chromosome is a string of bits, 0 or 1.

Chromosome A	101100101100101011100101
Chromosome B	111111100000110000011111

Permutation Encoding

Permutation encoding can be used in ordering problems, such as travelling salesman problem or task ordering problem. In permutation encoding, every chromosome is a string of numbers, which represents number in a sequence.

Chromosome A	1	5	3	2	6	4	7	9	8
Chromosome B	8	5	6	7	2	3	1	4	9

Crossover: After deciding the encoding, the crossover step can be made. Crossover selects genes from parent chromosomes and creates a new offspring. The simplest way how to do this is to choose randomly some crossover point and everything before this point point copy from a first parent and then everything after a crossover point copy from the second parent. Specific crossover made for a specific problem can improve performance of the genetic algorithm.

Chromosome 1	11011 00100110110
	11011 11000011110
Offspring 1	11011 11000011110
Offspring 2	11011 00100110110

Mutation: After a crossover is performed, mutation takes place. This is to prevent falling all solutions in population into a local optimum of solved problem. Mutation changes randomly the new offspring. For binary encoding we can switch a few randomly chosen bits from 1 to 0 or from 0 to 1. Mutation can then be following:

Original offspring 1	110 <mark>1</mark> 111000011110
Original offspring 2	1101100100110110
Mutated offspring 1	110 <mark>0</mark> 111000011110
Mutated offspring 2	110110 <mark>1</mark> 1001101 <mark>1</mark> 0

Our model states that, having the optimal values for the OPFs and the values in each potential expansion region, we should be able to conclude which region is the best choice. For that, we need to associate different priorities to each OPF. We will use Genetic Algorithms to find the best choice for each priority.

DETERMINING THE FACTORS OF OPTIMAL PERFORMANCE

The purpose of the first stage is to determine which external factors a region have to suit as well as possible the internal environment of the company. These external factors will be labelled optimal performance factors of the region (OPF), because they are very important to the future performance of the location.

The objective characteristics of the environment can be identified on two levels: (1) the general environment, consisting of technological, political, economic, physical and social factors and (2) working factors, which include potential buyers, suppliers and competitors. Many of these factors are:

- Economic factors such as interest rates, commissions, salary level, construction costs, prices;

- Social factors such as the crime rate, demographics, the role of women and minorities in society, business ethics, the medium level of education of the workforce and the general atmosphere in the community;

- Political factors, including relations that can prevent entering a location with high taxes, protectionist laws or any other type of governmental restrictions that can impact operating;

- Technical factors, referring to production and supply costs of the service, raw materials and the degree of innovation;

- Physical factors, including the probability of a natural disaster, seasonality, accessibility – proximity to highways and airports, restaurants, cultural activities;

- Working factors include the basis expected by the clients, market growth, number and strength of competitors, accessibility of suppliers.

The purpose of the model's second stage is to determine the attributes of the future location, for the region determined in the first stage, that best match the company's general strategy. Determining the OPFs is based on attributes that ensure the success of current locations and general firm strategy.

Research literature suggests that attributes of the locations include: size, price per square meter, total cost, renovation necessities, leasing/buying options, accessibility, visibility, traffic volume, expansion possibility in adjacent spaces and terrains, location prestige, neighbours, regional market growth, market price, number and power of competitors in the region, crime rate and parking spaces.

In both of the model's stages, a company will have to analyse the critical factors that are the most important for the performance of the future region or location. In the presented model, the order of the factors primarily does not take into account their importance. Note that, as stated above, Genetic Algorithms are used to solve problems that do not have a complete description. However, a training-set is needed; we need to have a set of particular inputs and their solutions.

In our case, there are a number of possible training sets:

- 1. previous expansions conducted by the same company. In this case, a training input is comprised of:
 - 1. a particular region with all its possible expansion areas;
 - 2. the area the expansion was made in;
 - 3. the values for each OPF in each area;
 - 4. the optimal values for each OPF;
 - 5. [possibly] the priorities chosen for each OPF.
- 2. expansions conduced by other companies. In this case, a training input is comprised of:
 - 1. a particular region with all its possible expansion areas;
 - 2. the area the expansion was made in;

In this case, it is very unlikely we will have access to the values of each OPF or the optimal values for each OPF (and therefore to the values for the priorities). This problem may be solved by conducting surveys or analizing the market. In both cases, it is possible to quantify the success of the expansion.

Our model states that, having the optimal values for the OPFs and the values in each potential expansion region, we should be able to conclude which region is the best choice. For that, we need to associate different priorities to each OPF. We will use Genetic Algorithms to find the best choice for each priority.

Outline Of The Basic Genetic Algorithm

- 1. [Start] Generate random population of *n* chromosomes (suitable solutions for the problem)
- 2. [Fitness] Evaluate the fitness f(x) of each chromosome x in the population
- 3. [New population] Create a new population by repeating following steps until the new population is complete

1. [Selection] Select two parent chromosomes from a population according to their fitness (the better fitness, the bigger chance to be selected)

2. [Crossover] With a crossover probability cross over the parents to form a new offspring (children). If no crossover was performed, offspring is an exact copy of one of the parents.

3. [Mutation] With a mutation probability mutate new offspring at each locus (position in chromosome).

4. [Accepting] Place new offspring in a new population

- 4. [Replace] Use new generated population for a further run of algorithm
- 5. [Test] If the end condition is satisfied, stop, and return the best solution in current population
- 6. [Loop] Go to step 2

Formulating The Model Of Structuring The Choice Of A New National Location

In order to show how the above presented model can be formulated, we shall consider the case of a supplier of industrial textile laundry services that wishes to expand outside Bucharest. At the present moment, the supplier covers the market in Bucharest and 100 Km around the capital city, offering laundry services for hotels, hospitals and industry.

By taking a simple example, we can assume that the supplier wants to expand to the next region of Romania (Ardeal, Banat, Dobrogea or Moldova), having 3 potential areas (counties) [Table 1].

Depending on the priorities of each OPF, it is possible to choose area 1 (OPF2 is more important), area 2 (OPF1 is more important) or area 3 (OPF1 and OPF2 are equally important). In this case, choosing which OPF has a bigger priority is straight-forward; however, this changes when the number of OPFs increase or when the company has little knowledge of the situation in the areas they expand in.

Table 1: Table Example for OPFs and Their Values/Priorities

OPFs	Target value	Priority (P _k)	Area 1	Area 2	Area 3
OPF1	100	?	50	100	80
OPF2	10	?	10	5	8

This table features the OPFs and their values for the areas in the target expansion region.

In this situation, the only solution is to analyze the decisions made by the company when expanding to other previous regions, or, even better, the decisions made by other companies when expanding to the target region. Each case will be encoded in a table having the same OPFs. In the first case, the values of every cell of the table will be known, therefore differentiating between the priorities of the OPFs will be extremely easy [Table 2]. However, these cases are not always reliable, as the expansions were made in other regions and should offer general guidelines.

Table 2: Table Example for OPFs with Known Values

This table features the OPFs with known values, which makes the differentiating between them very easy.

On the other hand, the second case is more reliable, as it offers information about the target region. The cells in this table will most likely be empty, and the only pieces of information known will be the target values for the OPFs, the potential areas and the chosen (winner) area [Table 3].

Table 3: Initial Table Featuring the OPFs for an Expansion Made by a Similar Company in the Same Target Region

OPFs	Target value	Priority(Pk)	Area 1	Area 2	Area 3 (winner)
OPF1	100	?	?	?	?
OPF2	10	?	?	?	?

This table features the OPFs with unknown values, but known winner.

Finding the values for each OPF can be accomplished by analyzing the market or by conducting surveys, thus leading us to [Table 4]

Table 4: Table 3 after the OPF Values Have Been Completed. The Priorities Are Still Unknown

OPFs	Target value	Priority(P k)	Area 1	Area 2	Area 3 (winner)
OPF1	100	?	40	60	90
OPF2	10	?	9	8	7

This table features the OPFs with completed values, known winner and priorities to be determined.

The steps of the Genetic Algorithm presented in the Outline can be now adapted to our case study.

1.[Start]. We must set the priorities for all the potential OPFs. In this simple case, the number of OPFs is 2, therefore each chromosome will contain 2 decimal numbers, between 0 and 1. Chromosome = [P(OPF1), P(OPF2)].

For the initial population, we can choose these chromosomes randomly. However, since we already have information about a previous expansion [Table 2], we can insert those values too, as the chromosome [0.3, 0.7].

2.[Fitness]. We must compute the fitness of each chromosome (the greater the fitness, the more probable to be the solution). There are several factors that influence the quality of the solution:- closeness to the choices made by other expansions;

- the rate of success of each expansion (directly proportional);

- distance between the best chosen area and the second-best chosen area in each region (directly proportional);

3.[New population]

3.1 [Selection] Based on the fitness computed at step (2), we now choose the best chromosomes to be combined and passed to the next generation. The probability of a chromosome being selected is directly proportional to its fitness.

3.2 [Crossover] At this step, we have already selected chromosomes to be passed to the next generation. We must now combine them in order to create a new population. The easiest and probably the most efficient way of doing this is to average the priorities. Given two chromosomes [P1(OPF1),

P1(OPF2)] and [P2(OPF1), P2(OPF2)], the new chromosome resulted will be [P1(OPF1) + P2(OPF1), P1(OPF2) + P2(OPF2)].

3.3 [Mutation] In order to escape from local minimums, a mutation may sometimes be applied. In our case, an efficient mutation can be tweaking a priority. [P(OPF1), P(OPF2)] will become [P(OPF1) x

K, P(OPF2)] or [P(OPF1), P(OPF2) x K], where examples of K are { 1.1, 0.9, etc. } 3.4 [Accepting] The new chromosome is moved in the new population.

3.5 [*] Typically, a further step is applied here, called [Elitism]. Rather than replacing every chromosome in the old population with new ones, we keep a fraction of the best ones so far (those with the highest fitness), so as not to lose the best solutions so far.

3.6 [Replace] We now replace the old population with the new population and proceed with the algorithm.

Solution for the Case Study

Taking into consideration our example of the laundry service company, we simplified the case study by taking into account only 4 of the OPF's. The goal is to find out, which are the priorities and to compute the best area for the next expansion.

OPF	Unit of measure	Target value	Priority (P _k)	Ardeal	Banat	Dobrogea	Moldova
Personnel costs	Total € / h	1.5	?	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.7
Land price / m ²	€	0	?	80	100	90	40
Hygiene standard	Kg of changed laundry / occupied hospital bed	1.5	?	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4
Political influence	Scale of 1 to 5	1	?	2.5	3	4	4

Table 5: Case Study from the Laundry Business

This table features the OPFswith known values from the laundry business priorities to be determined through genetic algorithm.

We already have the information from a previous expansion our own company made to another region:

Table 6: Training-set-	Previous	Expansion	of the	Same	Company
		P			

OPF	Unit of measure	Target value	Priority (P _k)	Scotland	England (WINNER)	Whales	New Ireland
Personnel costs	Total € / h	1.5	0.4	3.4	5	1.6	2.3
Land price / m ²	€	0	0.3	80	90	50	77
Hygiene standard	Kg of changed laundry / occupied hospital bed	1.5	0.7	0.9	1.4	0.7	1.1
Political influence	Scale of 1 to 5	1	0.55	2.5	3	4	3

This table features solution of a previous expansion of the same company in a different region.

And also the expansion another company made in our target region, after we conducted the survey and found the values for each OPF:

OPF	Unit of measure	Target value	Priority (P _k)	Ardeal	Banat (WINNER)	Dobrogea	Moldova
Personnel costs	Total € / h	1.5	?	2.4	2	1.7	2.2
Land price / m ²	€	0	?	90	100	90	66
Hygiene standard	Kg of changed laundry / occupied hospital bed	1.5	?	0.5	0.6	0.3	30
Political influence	Scale of 1 to 5	1	?	2.5	3	4	4

Table 7: Training-set- previous Expansion of Another Company

This table features solution of a previous expansion of another company in the same region.

We assume that we have reached a random iteration in the algorithm and we have a following population (P_k), out of which we choose 2 chromosomes for crossover / mutation: (0.6, 0.4, 0.5, 0.2) and (0.3, 0.6, 0.2, 0.4). The crossed chromosome will be (0.45, 0.5, 0.35, 0.3), while a possible mutated chromosome may be (0.6, 0.4 x 1.1, 0.5, 0.2). These will be placed in the new population, to be used in the next iteration. This example is trivial, because we can manually choose what the best region is, even without considering the values for the OPFs, nor their priority. However, when we expand to a bigger training set, and when we consider that not all expansions take into account all OPFs, we cannot have a clear, global view of the situation, that this fuzzy, evolutionary approach tries to solve.

CONCLUSIONS

National expansion is a critical and complex problem for companies and must be treated continuously by top managers. This article presents a computer model for selecting a new national location, which offers a series of advantages in comparison to previous models:

- It uses of a two-stage model for evaluating the expansion alternatives in the region, and then in the selected locations;

- It simultaneously takes into account all the decision criteria (internal and external factors) in order to offer an optimal solution;

- It offers the possibility to adjust the parameters to optimise the solution with minimum effort from the management.

Although the model presented in this article offers a powerful instrument in making expansion decisions, it also has some limitations. One of these is the fact that there is a need for a thorough training set in order to obtain good results. Therefore, a Genetic Algorithm will be best used when there is sufficient information about the solutions set (in our case, the target region).Despite its limitations, applying correctly the methodology proposed in this article will reveal useful pieces of information for the managers accountable for identifying locations for expansion. As stated above, the advantages of Genetic Algorithms include the fast conversion rate to incomplete, tough problems, the ability to adapt easily to disturbances, the ability to make relatively valid predictions.

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PRINCIPAL AND AGENT PROBLEM ON INSOLVENCY

Tatiana Skerlíková, University of Economics, Prague

ABSTRACT

In this paper, the agency theory is applied to the current law of insolvency proceedings in the Czech Republic. Firstly, it gives a short overview on regulation of insolvency in the Czech Republic then the comparison to U.S. legislation is given. This section also includes the tract about various ways by which trustee's compensation is calculated and its impact on the proceeding. The basic theory of principal – agent problem and its application on recovery insolvency procedure is carried out in second part. In conclusion, further possibilities in research are given.

INTRODUCTION

"There are several ways of dealing with insolvency in the Czech Republic (European Commission, 2010):

Bankruptcy proceedings represent a gradual sale of the bankrupted property, the acquired revenue being divided among the creditors, new forms of managing insolvency proceedings, such as reorganization and discharging the debt."In general, the course of insolvency proceedings in the Czech Republic could be summarized in four basic phases:

- 1) submission of an insolvency proposal to a Court;
- 2) commencement of an insolvency proceeding;
- 3) decision (made by a Court) if the debtor is in a bankruptcy;
- 4) decision on how the debtor's bankruptcy will be dealt with.

The insolvency proceeding has two main phases. The first phase is mainly about whether there is a bankruptcy and the second stage then decides on how to resolve the bankruptcy. All information about company's insolvency is available to the public in the Insolvency Register. "The Insolvency Register is a public database (accessible also electronically) providing information on insolvent parties, the status of insolvency proceedings and the delivery of court documents. Entries in the Insolvency Register are performed by the relevant Regional Court and the Ministry of Justice then performs the entry in the list of insolvency administrators." (European Commission, 2010)

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN U.S. CHAPTER 11 BANKRUPTCY AND CZECH INSOLVENCY ACT

The most significant difference between the U.S. Chapter 11 Bankruptcy and current Czech law is a size limit for companies which can file for reorganization in the Czech Republic. Reorganization is allowed only in the case of businessmen where the debtor has achieved a turnover of MCZK 100 (it is approximately USD 5.8 million) in the last accounting period or employs at least 100 people." (European Commission, 2010). The limit was set to protect creditors, because reorganization is a very expensive process as costs of it are high and can consume whole property of the debtor (Richter, 2006). There is also an option for smaller companies to undergo reorganization, but those companies have to prepare so-called "Prepacked reorganization plan". If this is not the case, reorganization is allowed only if the debtor has submitted to the court, together with the insolvency application, a reorganization plan approved by at least half of the creditors, and both the secured and unsecured ones." (European Commission, 2010). It is

prepared in cooperation with its creditors before submission of insolvency proposal. In the U.S., anyone can undergo reorganization. Thus, in the U.S. there are no limits prohibiting some from reorganization process. The other difference is according to the U.S. Chapter 11 Bankruptcy; all individuals can file for reorganization, but they are advised to consider this option wisely because the whole process is expensive. In the Czech Republic, the recovery procedure available for the non-commercial legal persons is Discharge of debt only. Next, I will focus on dealing with insolvency by reorganization in the Czech Republic the most. Discharge of debt involves a recovery method of resolving a bankruptcy, which is specified only for natural persons who are not business owners. " (European Commission, 2010) As the focus of the paper is on problems of legal persons this method will be not discussed.

Who Is Agent and Who Is PRINCIPAL - DESCRIPTION of Relation Origin

When debtor does not settle its debts, a basic relationship between creditor (as a principal) and (debtor as an agent) is moved forward. The creditor asks the court to help him to settle his overdue claims. The Stages are submission of an insolvency proposal to the court and commencement of insolvency proceeding.

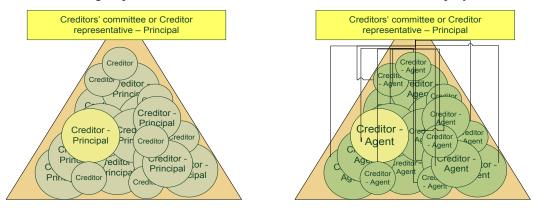


The court does not act itself, but it calls in the trustee in bankruptcy to act in this issue. The Stages are: the decision if the debtor is in bankruptcy; the decision on how the debtor's bankruptcy will be dealt with; and trustee in bankruptcy is assigned.

	Court - Principal		Bankruptcy Trustee - Agent
At this s	tage, there is a new	relation between the trustee in bankruptcy and the	creditor (creditors).



The first creditors' meeting is summoned together by the Court. At this meeting, the creditors appoint its creditors' committee or creditors' deputy; furthermore, they generate a group. Due to this fact other relations between the group of creditors and creditors' committee or creditors' deputy are formed.



Of course in reality the whole situation is even more complicated. It has also to be considered the influence of a debtor's management and the influence of an auction agency. In some cases, the situation can be simplified. The simplified situations according to the Czech law follow;

• Liquidation in the over-indebted company (transfer of the right to disposal of the property from the owner to the trustee in bankruptcy)

When the sum of liabilities exceeds the value of the business owner's assets, a debtor has almost no option to the disposal of its assets. Thus his influence can be considered zero. In this case, here remain only two parties; the creditors to whom belongs a residual part of the debtors' property and the trustee in bankruptcy who has the right to the disposal of debtor's assets. The trustees' composition is assessed as a percentage of the proceeds designated for distribution to the creditors. The trustee is motivated by his composition to maximize creditor recoveries. The task of the court is just the supervision of the process.

• Reorganization in the insolvent company (without the transfer of right to the disposal with assets)

In this case, the supervision is done by the trustee and the court. The owner of the company has limited options to disposal of its assets, or more precisely he shall act upon the reorganization plan. Generally the company's management is in charge of the implementation of the reorganization plan. So, only two parties remain here; namely the creditors who own the assets and the managers who administer and dispose it (with respect to the reorganization plan). The creditors have the option to inspect and control the activities and decisions of the owner or manager, but they do not have any possibility to motivate him by recompense (trustee's remuneration is fixed, provided by law and paid monthly from the debtor's assets). The creditors' position is thus worsened; they undergo greater risks with smaller chance of reducing it. Therefore the creditors are reluctant to agree with the reorganization in the Czech Republic.

Monitoring, Bonding And Residual Agency Costs

The agency costs which came from reorganization process have a significant impact on residual value of company after bankruptcy proceeding. Jensen and Meckling (1976) defined not only monitoring and bonding (motivating and penalty instruments) agency cost, but also identified other agency costs, so-called residual agency costs. These residual agency costs have been summarized in four categories and characteristically titled by Marek (2006).

Residual agency costs: Agency costs (residual part after deducting monitoring and bonding costs), which originate from losses caused by difference between principal interests and agent interests, were titled as follows (Marek, 2006):

- Fraudulent behavior;
- Excessive consumptions wasteful use of principal resources;
- Incompetence or inability of trustee (agent);
- Indifference of agent.

Fraudulent behavior is a substantial problem in the Czech Republic as the most significant crimes committed are connected with a problem of a bias between the creditors and the trustees and sometimes even between the judges, the creditors and the trustees. It is stipulated by the law that the trustee and the creditor have to be independent, but the reality is different sometimes.

The Trustee in Bankruptcy has the legal guaranty provided by the law that the consumption of cash expenses is reimbursed in full amount up to the limit of 5% of his whole remunerations. This can result in

even higher costs of reorganization and residual value of the company. At this point, the other problem is with all the employees' behavior in this crisis situation; the employee's tendency to drag out of the company's resources for their own benefit grows stronger. Due to this crisis situation, there is a problem with employee's behavior. Every debtor's reorganization and dealing with insolvency is different. Sometimes just to get familiar with all the property relations and business flows can take significant time and energy. Even an experienced trustee can get confused.Not only incompetence but also lethargy of trustee can result in poor fulfillment of his obligations. A trustee as well as a manager in a company can tend to avoid their duties such as inspection, monitoring process or contributing to fulfillment of reorganization plan, because it requires too much effort to learn about new debtor or process within the debtor's company.

Monitoring costs: The model implies that follow-up activity carries an additional cost but reduces the impact of costs from asymmetric information. The monitoring costs are reimbursed by the Court or by the debtor. The trustee's compensation is financed from debtor's assets or if that is not possible then from the state resources. The creditor's committee compensation is calculated by the court. Just a mere existence of control might have a positive effect on the agent behavior. Further information and reports about the monitored persons' behavior can be found in articles by Bateson – Nettle – Roberts (2006).

Bonding costs (motivation or sanction instruments) The problem between agent and principal in this case is that agent in the Czech Republic is not paid by principal. Principal – the creditor entrusted the task to recover its receivables to an agent - trustee in bankruptcy, but cannot motivate him by compensating him. The trustee is in both cases (reorganization and liquidation) paid from debtor's assets and that fix amount is stated by the Insolvency Public notice. This could influence the trustee's performance. On the other hand, there is a leverage to reduce undesirable performance by sanction, which is the change of the trustees.

Information asymmetry in Bankruptcy: The trustee in bankruptcy has more information about reorganization process than the creditor. However the debtor's manager has the most information. Therefore, the creditor cannot truly decide about suitability of the trustees' action. Information asymmetry models assume that at least one party of a transaction has relevant information (the trustee and the debtor) whereas the other does not (the creditors) (Akerlof, 1970).

In adverse selection: models, the less informed party lacks relevant data while negotiating (creditors have to vote how the bankruptcy will be solved but the information they have at the time is limited).

In moral hazard: the ignorant party lacks information about performance of the agreed-upon transaction or lacks the ability to retaliate for a breach of the agreement - when the reorganization fails it is usually too late to come up with an objection.

Factors affecting creditors' decision on the approval of the reorganization are:

• significance of risk

The unsecured creditors undergo greater risk than secured creditors. The secured creditors are entitled to interest their debt (a value of the debt depend on market value of security assets) from the day that reorganization is initiated; however when the reorganization fails and the company ends up in the liquidation process, they could end up with less.

• high proportion of the debtor's turnover;

- such as substantial volumes of funds in the bank, or a significant volume of banking transactions; It is obvious that unsecured creditors would prefer reorganization proceedings instead of liquidation; especially when they would not get any resources back in case of liquidation. On the other hand, there is already a formal protection not to let decide only one part of creditors for example unsecured creditors. An approval from half of the secured and half of the unsecured creditors' group has to be received before reorganization plan can be admitted in the Czech Republic as well as under the U.S. Chapter 11 Bankruptcy. The liquidation could be less beneficial to creditors and the owner (after time spent on putting together a reorganization plan and of here negotiating that plan with creditors and persuading the court). A lot of money has to be spent on all the above mentioned actions moreover the value of the insolvent company by itself substantially decreases in time (due to bad reputation). Barth, Bartholomew, and Bradley (1990) show that the principal determinant of the average loss rate experienced in unwinding thrift insolvencies has been the length of time that an institution is permitted to operate after it becomes insolvent.

Second factor that was mentioned is to be tied to the debtor's turnover. This is mostly significant for outsize debtor and a bank as a creditor. The banks are dependent on dealing with lot of financial resources as financial intermediaries and for realizing their main functions; considerable outflow and inflow of resources are inevitable.

CONCLUSIONS

It is clear how alive the legislation is, always in progress, developing. In particular, the best way how to find and identify the bottlenecks of the act is through its application. The new Insolvency act has been in force for four years, but the number of reorganizations remains still low. The insolvency register in the Czech Republic shows increasing number of approved reorganizations by the court, but only a fraction of them is successfully implemented. The most significant issue in Czech law concerning bankruptcy is trade with debtors' receivables. From this point of view the bankruptcy is a business by itself and the possibility to invest for speculators. Further investigation of relations needs to be done especially on good and unfair intentions of speculative investors. If the size of the creditor's receivables is considerable it could complicate the whole process. One substantial creditor can almost overrule the whole creditors' committee. Speculative investors usually buy a substantial amount of debts, so they have the majority share from the whole creditors' group.

So the most important deficiency is still rather on the law enforcement and the debtors' attitude on timing for bankruptcy which is obligatory (those factors influence the value of the company greatly). The identification of the problem is therefore not limited to the bankruptcy law, but it is necessary to include the aspect of the criminal law (economic criminality). Countries might avoid some mistakes and learn from experiences of other countries (for example as the Czech Republic has learnt from new insolvency law application in the Slovak Republic). Insolvency law is important aspect in every country. Each country has different economic environment and law should reflect and comply it. Thus insolvency law varies from country to country. Many can be learnt from analyzing them.

The situation in the Czech Republic demands amendments of insolvency law to suit better the current situation. But the state particularities have to be considered; such as if the reorganization is available for all it could overwhelm courts with reorganization plans and also number of the unfinished reorganization would rise substantially. Thus changes must count with the manner of the Czech legal persons.

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ARE BUYBACKS INCREASING EPS?

Margaret (Peg) Horan, Wagner College

ABSTRACT

Trends indicate that treasury shares or buyback shares are gaining new momentum and intensity and maybe effecting reported EPS. This study was undertaken by evaluating the buyback activity in the S&P 500, for the period of 2005-2008, and it was compared to the Hribar et al (2004 and revised 2006) study of buybacks for their period of 1988-2001. Their study reflected that buybacks were not dominant due to their tri-model of 1) low number of share being repurchased, 2) the high number of companies experiencing a loss and 3) high P/E multiples. This study experienced greater frequency and intensity of buybacks, due to a reversal in the three conditions being 1) larger number of shares purchased, 2) lower incident of losses and 3) lower P/E multiples. The findings are that buybacks are more frequent and more intense having an increased accretive effect on EPS. Also presented here is a new EPS model that reports EPS in segments; those from operations and those from buybacks when the effect is \$.01 or more. This is a new financial tool that is responsive to the changing financial landscape and is deserving of attention at this time of international accounting assessment.

JEL: M41, G35

INTRODUCTION

According to Statement of Financial Accounting Standards (SFAS) No. 128 paragraph 8 "the objective of basic Earnings Per Share (EPS 0 is to measure the performance of an entity over the reporting period." EPS computations have changed significantly over the years in terms of the United States Gernerally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP0. The Security Exchange Commission (SEC) has ultimate authority over accounting here in the United States. It has announced that the United States will adopt International Accounting for exchange filing requirements. Meanwhile the International Accounting Standards (IAS) has been adopted by over 114 countries during the past decade, which was led by its adoption by the European Union in 1998. To make this a peaceful transition the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB0 and the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) have been round tabling on which accounting for the international world best suits its needs and its financial complexities.

However, each item under consideration has been given serious consideration as to what represents the best practice. One area that has not been resolved is the accounting for EPS. It involves not only income issues but also equity issues. One item that is an equity issue is treasury shares or buyback shares. In the past these amounts were not of consequence. However, the economic landscape is continually changing, especially in this regard specifically since 2005 The earning (net income) applicable to each share of common stock is perhaps the single most-quoted figure in an annual report, primarily because investors are so heavily interested in the effect of such earning on the market price of the stock. It is heavily documented that the market reacts very strongly to EPS. (p.276) Management may announce targeted EPS that are projected for and an upcoming quarter, and then those targets are compared to the actual results. Earnings figures that are off by one penny can have a tremendous effect on the market value (e.g. Skinner & Sloan 1998, Barth, Elliot & Finn 1999, Larcker 2003). Thus management is motivated to present the figures in the most favorable light. This is exacerbated by the corporate stock option plans that many executive now enjoy and is further compounded by the agency problem between management and the stockholders that Jensen & Meckings presented in 1976.

Strangely enough, EPS was not originally an accounting item; rather it emerged from the finance community. The investing community was the creator of the EPS figure which was used by them to

report as a one liner the results of a company's performance. In actuality it reports on the income of a company and gives no reflection of the resources used to create those returns. In the earlier days of accounting developments the Committee on Accounting Procedure, specifically Accounting Research Bulletin No. #32 in 1947 "admonished financial statement users against placing undue prominence on a single net income or earnings per share amount"

The most recent Accounting Standard in regard to EPS is published through FASB 128 (12/1997) which made some minor changes. Basically it was to make GAAP EPS comparable international EPS which is governed by IAS 33. The two major changes were 1) to change primary EPS to basic EPS and 2) to have reconciliation between the basic EPS and fully diluted EPS. Thus, the evolved basic EPS equation is EPS= Net Income – Preferred Dividends/ Weighted Average Number of Shares Outstanding less Treasury Shares. When a company buys its own stock back, this repurchased stock is called treasury stock. One could suppose that the term comes from putting it back in the treasury or as the Merriam Webster refers to treasury defines treasury as a "place in which stores of wealth are held." The Merriam Webster refers to treasury stock as stock that is repurchased and held as an asset. This is partially untrue since treasury stock is debited and Cash is credited. However, the treasury-stock account is not included in the asset section of the balance sheet but it is included as a contra-equity account since it is subtracted from equity. Besides, any gains or losses realized from the purchase or sale of treasury stock are not reported on the income statement, even though they have tax consequences.

The gains or losses are reflected as pluses or minuses from equity and circumvent the income statement. Treasury stock may not be voted and it does not collect dividends. It is more or less taken out of circulation for the time being. Treasury stock affects EPS since the denominator of the EPS ratio is outstanding stock, which excludes treasury shares. Thus when treasury shares are purchased the outstanding stock is reduced; and if it is of magnitude, it may result in increasing EPS even though net income has not increased. There is a degree of disconnect in the literature regarding EPS and buybacks, even though they are closely related. The computation of EPS is considered an accounting topic, while buybacks are considered a financial topic, which gives way to a gap in the literature. On the accounting front, earlier studies around 1966 and 1969 during the time of Accounting Principal Board (APB) #9 and APB #15 dealt with "better" ways to calculate EPS for GAAP. Relatively recently, Casson and McKenzie (2007) also devised an alternate method for calculating fully diluted EPS. Their model was fashioned after the Black-Scholes Model, and allowed for anti-dilution residual securities to be factored into the calculation which is not the case with current GAAP. Their study covers the GAAP of Financial Accounting Standard 128 Earnings Per Share which is presently operative. Their findings were that the method per FASB 128 for fully diluted EPS, specifically the treasury stock method has a poor performance when evaluated against their bench mark.

The financial side of the literature offer that buybacks is management's way of sharing inside information and communicating that the shares are undervalued. Then on the financial side the topic starts with the signaling theory. Vermaelen (1981) published one of the first papers in regard to repurchases as a market signal. The signal that repurchases give out is that " the observation that repurchases via tender offers are followed by abnormal increase in earnings per share and that mainly small firms engage in repurchase offers, provides further support for the signaling hypothesis." (p.139). Notice in this statement that the increase in market value is attributed to the increase in EPS. Today, it is not obvious if an increase in EPS is due to an increase in the operating income, or the mechanics of the EPS ratio.. Vermaelen also called for more regulation to resolve the asymmetric information problems. The United States, according to Vermaelen is one of the few countries that allow firms to make tender offers for their shares at prices above market, and this could lend itself to insider manipulation. This is especially so when the insiders hold a sizeable portion of stock and the insiders may also be the management offering to buy the stock at a price higher than the market.

Even further, Grullon and Michaely (2002) state that "in some countries such as Austria, Norway and Israel, open-market share repurchases are prohibited and are considered price manipulation. Although share repurchase programs had never been explicitly prohibited in the United States, there is reason to believe that regulatory agencies have been concerned with the potential impact of these programs on stock prices. This concern was expressed in the following statement from the Senate Committee in 1967:"Whatever the motive behind the repurchase program, if the repurchases are substantial they will have a significant impact on the market"(Senate Report No. 550, 90th Congress; 1967).

Studies have show that the prices do out perform the market for an extended period after the repurchases. Ikenberry, Lakonishok and Vermaelan (1995) documented that the stocks of companies that are repurchased that are considered "value stocks" increase in market value by an abnormal percent of 45.3% over the four year buy and hold period. Then Kahle (2001) finds evidence that buybacks are a function of stock option plans; that they are a pragmatic solution to getting the shares in house to meet this requirement. The comparison of dividends and repurchases is often made and is warranted. One is that both dividends and repurchases result in a decrease to cash and decrease to equity. Dividends reduce retained earnings, while repurchases increase the Treasury Stock account which is contra equity. To the stockholder, value is added from the dividends through the cash payment, and value is created but not realized from the repurchase through a market price appreciation. Value from the repurchase can be realized if the stockholder sells the amount of shares that represent the appreciation from the stock repurchase. However, the unrealized appreciation can be lost due to downward market conditions, and the appreciation in the market value may be due to the increase in the EPS as a result of the repurchase, not necessarily from an increase in income from operations.

Fama and French (2000) discuss the disappearing dividends with the corresponding increase in repurchases and address three questions 1)What are the characteristics of dividend payers 2) Is the decline in the percent of payers due to a decline in the prevalence of these characteristics among publicly traded firms and 3) Has firms with the characteristics of dividend payers become less likely to pay? The opening observation is that the dividends were once at an all time high , that the characteristic of the dividend payers is that they are more profitable than the non-payers, that they derive more of their market value from expected growth and are not the companies issuing new equity. In regard to companies that are involved in repurchases, they follow the same pattern of the dividend payers, and most of the companies involved in repurchases are also those which payout dividends. The reason cited is the companies have become aware of the tax disadvantage of dividends. The tax law of this study taxed ordinary dividends as regular income at the top ordinary rate of 35%, while the long term capital gain tax was only 15%. Twenty 20% of a dollar is a substantial portion.

One extensive study that covered the accounting and the financial aspects of EPS was by Hribar, Jenkins, and Johnson in 2006 which covered the period of 1988 thorough 2001 which studied a sample of 133,149 firm- quarters, of which 26,410 had firm quarters with repurchases. The findings were that most of the repurchases in their sample was not EPS accretive. Accretive is the term that is used when the transaction make the EPS increase. The reasons given were that 1) The volume of buybacks was relatively small and 2) High percentage of firms had losses and 3) High P/E multiples.

In their research "Stock Repurchases as an Earnings Management Device", by Hribar et al. the authors hypothesized that the repurchase of shares is a tool employed to manage earnings per share. Treasury shares reduce the number of shares outstanding, which can cause an increase or accretive earnings per share. The impetus for the study was a survey of 384 CFOs of which 75% reported that the desired effect of a stock repurchase was to increase EPS. According to the summary "the findings were that only 19.9% of the stock repurchases in our sample increased quarterly EPS by one penny or more when the foregone profit on funds used to finance the buyback- the numerator effect was ignored (p.31)." This leads to the

question if these findings would be similar using more current buyback data. According to Gumport (2007) this is s different to the post 2004 period which state that buybacks are at consequential amounts and are being used as a financial tool that is "flying below the accounting radar". Investors perceive EPS as the measure of the firms earning capacity. Cash used for buybacks reduce the economic base of the company. It shrinks the balance sheet and the future potential for future cash inflows.

HYPOTHESES

This leads to the following research question; is the situation for the 2005-2008 period the same as it was for the Hribar et al 2006 study which takes form as hypothesis:

 $H_{1:}$ Buybacks are more frequent for the period of 2005-2008, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

Since 2008 was a difficult year financial for the economy, due to the fall out from the Financial Crisis of 2007, which may distort the above results, this generated a research question that took form as the following hypothesis:

 $H_{2:}$ Buybacks are more frequent for the period of 2005-2007, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

Frequency is a measure of occurrence, not necessarily impact or magnitude. This leads to the following question which takes the form as the following hypothesis:

 $H_{3:}$ The accretive affects of the buyback are more dramatic for the period of 2005-2008, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

Sample Selection

The object was to collect a related data sample that is to replicate in part the data analysis that was made in the Hribar's et al 2006 study to test the hypothesis that treasury shares are having a more dramatic effect on the computation of EPS. In the extensive Hribar et al study (2006) "the stock repurchase sample spanned s a 13-year period from 1988 to 2001 and included only U.S. firms listed on the NYSE, AMEX or NASDAQ exchanges" (p.9). The stock repurchases sample includes all firms that reported a quarterly stock repurchase of \$10,000 or more and excluded financial, utilities and transportation companies since they have regulatory restriction on treasury stock repurchases. Their extensive study yielded an overall sample of 133,149 firm quarters, and a sample of 26,480 firm quarters with stock repurchases.

The sample of this study was the Standard and Poor's 500 (S&P500), on a quarterly basis for 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008. Of the 500 companies for which the data was requested 490 was retrieved in 2005 and 497 was retrieved for 2006, 2007 and 2008. The company data was retrieved by ticker symbol for the companies that were in a part of S&P Companies as 2009. Ten of these companies, according to ticker symbol were not in existence in 2005 due to merger, acquisitions, or S&P company replacement. For 2006, 2007 and 2008 the three missing companies were General Motors (GM), Aon Corporation (AOC) and Waste Management (WMI). General Motors filed for bankruptcy in July of 2010 and is now a reorganized company financed primarily from the United States Treasury through the use of Transitory Asset Relief Fund (TARP). Aon Corporation is no longer under the ticker symbol of AOC; it has been changed to AON. Also the Waste Management Company is no longer under the ticker symbol of WMI; it has been changed to WM. Thus what was retrieved was used as the data base, with the above exception

noted. In cases where there was missing data in the COMPUSTAT retrieval, this was supplemented by the data that was retrieved from the Business and Company Resource database.

It was also necessary to determine what stock splits or reversals were announce during the study period and have them reflected correctly, and not incorrectly as possibly additional issued shares or repurchases. This was also applied to be consistent with the Hribar's et al 2006 study Information regarding stock splits and reversals was retrieved from Standard and Poor's was reflected as adjustments to beginning shares outstanding in the applicable quarters. Also, similar to Hribar's et al (2006) any quarterly stock purchase that was greater than 20% of shares outstanding was eliminated. In this data sample, there were no repurchases that were of this magnitude in one quarter.

For 2005, COMPUSTAT retrieved 490 companies, times four quarters reported 1960 data points, of which three quarters were used to since quarter one's ending shares outstanding were used for quarter two's beginning shares outstanding and the same suit followed for quarters three and four yielding 1470 data points. For 2006, 2007 and 2008 497 companies, correspondingly yielded 1491data points for each of the three years. Next eliminated were companies that did not have repurchases. Then eliminated were the companies that were classified as financial, utilities or transportation companies according to the Global Industry Code Standard as prescribed by Standard and Poor's.

Thus for the final accounting of data points which started with 1960, 1988, 1988 and 1988 for 2005-2008 for a total of 7,924 was reduced by 490,497,497 and 497 to access beginning shares outstanding for quarters two through four and was then again reduced by 571,478, 433 and 545 for quarters with no repurchases, and then reduced by 148, 205, 206 and 195 for financial, utilities and transportation companies to an annual data base of 751,808, 852 and 751 for each of the following years respectively 2005,2006, 2007 and 2008 which is a total data pool of 3162.

Thus in comparison, the Hribar et al (2006) study yielded an overall sample size of 133,149 firm quarters and a sample of 26,400 firm quarters with stock repurchases which is 19.82% compared to this study which has an overall working sample size of 5,943 firm quarters and a sample of 3,162 firm quarters with stock repurchase which represents 53.21%. This reflects a smaller sample that reports a greater incidence of repurchases. Therefore, although this sample is for a few number of companies over a few number of years, the comparison is justified in pointing to a difference in trend specifically for this broad market index, as this smaller sample still robustly supports a difference in findings that will be discussed in the statistical findings. Also, the results here maybe even more pronounced than if the Hribar et al 2006 sample were used, as this sample includes only the large companies, and earlier studies by Vermaelen (1981) find that buybacks are more accretive for the smaller firms that are not represented here.

For hypotheses one through three, the "as if" EPS to measure what EPS would have been without the repurchase as calculated in a replicated fashion as the Hribar et al 2006 study. This measure (ASIF_EPS) ignores the repurchase numerator effect(assumes r = 0) and is computed

$ASIF_EPS = NI_t / (Shares outstanding_{t-1} + 0.5 x Shares issued_t).$

where $NI_{t \ is}$ net income before extraordinary items available for common stockholders, *Shares* outstanding_{t-1} the shares outstanding at the beginning of the quarter and *Shares* issued_t the number of shares issue. In this study. shares outstanding at the beginning of the quarter was needed and is not a data item on COMPUSTAT, and was necessary to replicate the Hribar's et al (2006) study. Thus the ending shares outstanding of the one quarter was used as the beginning shares outstanding of the following quarter. COMPUSTAT had available at the retrieval date the total shares repurchases for the quarter. Number of issued shares for the quarter were not available but were computed by taking endings shares outstanding + treasury shares and – beginning shares to calculated Issued shares.

In deference to the Hribar et al 2006 study the following assumption was also assumed:

It was assumed that new shares are issued uniformly over the quarter. By constructing "as-if" EPS in this manner allows the repurchase timing parameter (*w*) to vary across firms. This is important because strategic repurchases intended to manage EPS are likely to be made earlier in the quarter than are other non-strategic repurchases and the computation allows for this possibility. (p.11) The *ASIF_EPS was* compared to the regular EPS published and the difference was determined for each item in the sample and the results were summarized.

Statistical Findings

The statistical sample results were summarized and are presented here for consideration in Table One and Table Two. The presented results are compared to the results of the Hribar et al 2006 study. Hribar et al 2006 was undertaken since "despite the obvious popularity of stock repurchases among corporate managers, there is little systematic evidence regarding the claim that repurchases are used to boost reported EPS". (p.4) In regard to the following hypotheses:

 H_1 : Buybacks are more frequent for the period of 2005-2008, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

In, the Hribar et al (2006) study the experience was that only a small percent of the sample had repurchases. It was a studied sample of 133,149 firm quarters over fourteen years of 1988-2001 and was to document the frequency of such buybacks and the frequency was 26,400 firm quarters. This is approximately a 20% frequency. This studied sample of 5,943 firm quarters over a four year period documents buyback frequency of 3,162. This is approximately a 53% frequency. This represents more that twice the frequency from the prior study. This supports the hypothesis that this sample period of study from 2005-2008 has had buybacks at a frequency which is more than two times as great as the Hribar's study.Column One of Table One, are the data points for the 2005-2008 period that can be compared to the third column which are the data points taken from the Hribar et al (2006) study for details on the descriptive statistics. The mean dollar of the purchases of the 2005-2008 period is \$351 million, per quarter compared to \$34 million for the prior study. This is a multiple that is greater than ten. The median for this study is \$110 million compared to \$3 million which a 37 multiple.

All of the figures presented in Table One for the number of shares repurchased again present factors that are at least 10 times the figures of the prior period. Thus the average number of shares repurchased in this time period is 9 billion per quarter compared to 1 billion for the prior study. In comparing the individual years clearly the pattern reflects of rising purchases for each of the individual years of 2005, 2006, 2007 and then reversal of the pattern in 2008. This is the case for both an analysis of the dollar value of repurchases and then for the number of shares repurchased. It could be justly speculated that the 2008 drop in repurchase activity was due to the Financial Crisis that started in 2007.

On Table One the repurchases in this sample as a percent of outstanding shares is also larger. The median here is .92% while it is .59% in the prior study and the average was larger as well 1.41% versus 1.28%. It is 1.83% compared to the 1.53% for the top 75 percentile. This reflects greater magnitude, to a greater extent. This is more pronounced when evaluating the individual year of 2007 which has the highest value in all data points in regard to shares repurchases as a percent of beginning shares. In 2007, the mean was 1.71% and the 75% quadrant was 2.17%. This is a moving increase that has its start here in 2005 through 2007 then abruptly changes in 2008. However, over all this four year period still maintains an overall frequency, despite the turn in statistics in 2008.

 $H_{2:}$ Buybacks are more frequent for the period of 2005-2007, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

Across the board in all categories the experience of 2005-2007 was greater than 2005-2008 and also by association greater than the Hribar et al 2006 studied period. Thus not only is the frequency more pronounced in this sample period of 2005-2007 but also the dollar amount greater and the intensity of the buybacks are stronger.

Table Two, gives some descriptive statistics of repurchasing firms of the samples, we see that when the 2005-2008 and the 2005-2007 periods are compared to the prior study, we visualize different types of firms. This is most evident form the asset section of the statistics. We see a much larger asset base, averaging \$26million for the current study and \$4billion for the prior study. Sales hold a related relationship to the asset bases and follow in tandem with sales approximating 20% of the asset holdings. Also, in continuation share price of the current study almost twice of the earlier study; average \$47 verses \$28, and median of \$42 verse \$22. What is similar is the cash as a percent of total assets., Cash is available for both studies in the range of 12%-17% as a percentage of assets.

Hribar et al(2004 p.29) stated that " stock repurchases by firms with high P/E ratios are less likely to have an accretive effect ". The average the P/E multiple is in the Hribar et al (2004) study was 27 times, that converts to an earnings to a reciprocal 3.7% of the stocks price. Management will not be served with an accretive EPS through a buyback if the profit on the forgone cash used to buy or finance the buyback is greater than the reciprocal P/E. Therefore, a P/E of 27 is a return of 3.7%, thus if the return on the cash that is to be used for the repurchase is 5%, this will not increase earnings per share, but will dilute it by the loss of the incremental 1.3%. The reasoning is that it would be unusual that the cash return on the incremental funds would be lower that the P/E recipricol. However, this study has a lower average P/E multiple of 25, higher overall return which should be more conducive for accretive EPS buybacks . It must be noted that if the cash is idle and not generating any return, its use on buybacks will be accretive. In both studies, not all buybacks resulted in an accretive EPS. Accretive EPS is that the earnings per share are greater by one penny or more due to the buybacks. Skinner & Sloan (2001) showed that missing the quarterly forecast by \$.01 can lead to a dramatic loss in market value.

Some buybacks had no effect or a negative if they were offset by issued share which could increase outstanding shares, or that the forgone profit on the cash used to repurchase was too great to offset the denominator effect of the buyback shares. Several reasons were cited in the Hribar et al 2004 (p,17) study " to believe that many of the open-market stock repurchase in their sample are not EPS accretive since 1) the repurchases are relatively small since the median repurchase eliminates less than 1% of the shares outstanding. 2) Second, 12.3% of the quarters studied involved a loss for the current quarter, since a stock repurchase cannot increase the earnings per share of these firms and 3) Third., more that onequarter involved firms where the P/E exceeds 20 which makes it more difficult for the buybacks to be accretive. The higher the P/E multiple the more difficult for stock repurchases to be accretive (Hribar et The Hribar et al 2004 study present a model that predicts the accretiveness of al 2004 version p.29). buybacks as a function of three factors 1) the size of the buybacks as a percent of shares outstanding, 2) the amount of companies with a loss and 3) as a function of the P/E ratio. Their model holds true for this sample period, however with different results due to a reversal in the conditions one, two and three here mentioned.

 $H_{3:}$ The accretive affects of the buyback are more dramatic for the period of 2005-2008, especially more so than the period of Hribar's et al (2006) study which covered the period of 1988-2001.

This is effect of the intensity and the degree of the accretion accretion in the sample that is one penny or more is as follows. Of the sample of 2005-2008 which was of 3162, 1824 had repurchases that did not have the accretive effect of increasing EPS by a penny or more. Only 1337 had this effect which is as a percent is 42%. So the conclusion is that the majority of the buyback activity in this sample was not

accretive. The theory is that shares are bought back for a variety of reasons, one which is to have a treasury of shares available to meet option needs among others, and not necessarily to affect EPS. This can be compared to the earlier study somewhat. According to the information presented on Hribar et al 2006 (p.12) 4,466 firm quarters or 17.6% of the stock repurchases increased current quarter EPS by one penny. This study finds 1337/3162 or 42% of the stock repurchases increase current quarter EPS by one penny. Again, in the line with the other findings, of a dramatic increase. Also according to the Hribar et al 2006 study 84.1% of the accretion was by \$.01 and \$.02 which confine the accretion to a narrow area. According to this study, the results were similar. In 86% of this accretive sample the confines were also in the \$.01 and \$.02 range. It appears that the accretive affects are more dramatic due to the larger percent that is causing a difference of \$.01 or more. This is of interest since if a difference of \$.01 is considered as having market effect, then the effect of the buybacks on EPS should be transparent.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion there is statistical support that the model presented by Hribar et al 2004 to explain the lack of frequency for their study of 1988-2001, works in reversal for the 2005-2008 period due to a change in financial and economic conditions. Their study found frequency to be weak due to three factors; 1) low number of shares repurchased 2) large number of firms with losses and 3) high P/E. This study found that greater impact given the reversal of the situations whereby 1) the dollar amount, the number and the percentage was umber greater volume. The mean dollar amount , mean number of shares, and shares repurchased as a percent of beginning shares were \$350 million, 9.23 million and 1.41% compared to \$34 million, .87 million and 1.28% 2) lower number of firms with losses : 5.4% compared to 12.3% and 3) lower P/E multiples: mean P/E of 24.69 compared to 27.41 Also supported was that the accretive affects appear were more dramatic here at 42% compared to 17.6%. In both studies the affect is in the about \$.01 -\$.02 for 80% plus of the firms reporting EPS accretion. Literature review has shown that a \$.01 can have market value ramifications. This here introduced is a new model allows for the analyzing EPS in a in a segmental fashion. It isolates he EPS from operations from the EPS from the equity component due to the treasury shares.

This is presented and illustrated in the following formula:

Yt = Nt / It - ((Nt / It) - Nt / (It - Tt))

Where

Yt = EPS reported for the curruent quarter Nt= net income at present time It= = issued shares in the present quarter Tt= treasury shares.in the present quarter

For illustration purposes the hypothetical company has the following data.

$$Yt = EPS = \$5$$

$$Nt = net income = \$100$$

$$It = issued shares = 25$$

$$Tt = treasury shares = 5$$

$$Yt = Nt/It - ((Nt/It) - Nt/(It - Tt))$$

$$\$5 = \$100/25 - ((\$100/25) - \$100/(25 - 5))$$

5 = 4 - (4 - 5)5 = 4 + 1 (1)

The value added by segmentalizing the EPS, is that it make it possible to isolate the earnings from operations which in this simple example is \$4 and to isolate the EPS from the equity component contributed from the treasury shares which in this illustration is the \$1 is EPS and the total of \$5 is the sum of the two. In conclusion, although this study is of a different sample size for a smaller number of years the supported conclusion is that the buybacks are occurring with greater frequency, with greater dollar amount and with greater intensity.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for sample of repurchase firms

			Note *		Individual Years		
	2005-2008	2005-2007	1990-2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
Repurchase activity vari	ables.						
Dollar Value of Repurch	ases(\$M)						
Mean	350.7	369.32	34.31	284.16	357.1	455.95	290.9
Std. Dev	844.17	836.47	141.04	652.13	810.7	1032.2	801
25th	27.1	33.1	0.56	20.66	33.4	46.21	15.02
Median	109.78	124.06	3.05	93.11	122.8	153.55	79.27
75th	320.46	339.83	16.42	246.52	325.1	437.05	235
Shares Repurchased(M)							
Mean	9.23	9.758	0.87	8.010	10.130	10.94	7.54
Std. Dev	22.28	23.848	2.687	21.010	25.270	23.848	17.61
25th	0.648	0.712	0.038	0.500	0.750	0.921	0.44
Median	2.65	2.788	0.168	2.230	2.800	3.494	2.343
75th	7.449	7.693	0.64	6.050	7.360	10.292	6.87
Shares repurchased as a	percent of						
beinning shares outstand	ing (%)						
Mean	1.41	1.49	1.28	1.21	1.51	1.71	1.18
Std. Dev	2.08	2.24	1.99	1.69	2.64	2.24	1.35
25th	0.29	0.33	0.18	0.27	0.35	0.38	0.2
Median	0.92	0.93	0.59	0.81	0.94	1.04	0.69
75th	1.830	1.890	1.530	1.750	1.970	2.17	1.65

Note*: Per the statistics reported Hribar et al 2006 study, p10

The comparison is justified in pointing to a difference in trend specifically for this broad market index, as this smaller sample still robustly supports a difference ias reported in the statistical findings. Also, the results here maybe even more valid than if the Hribar et al 2006 sample were used, since this sample includes only the large companies, and earlier studies by Vermaelen (1981) find that buybacks are more accretive for the smaller firms that are not represented here. Buybacks are becoming more common place and more robust, and the conclusion drawn is not that buybacks are primarily being undertaken to increase EPS, but that their occurrence is more frequent and the occasion of accretive EPS is greater, it may be of interest to evaluate or make transparent that situation in which EPS are accretive in an amount which is greater than \$.01 which may affect market value. This, buybacks are becoming less innocuous and more dominate and this may be the point in financial innovation to have an innovative tool to report on the components of published earnings, specifically the model presented that segmentalizes EPS into two components.

		2005-2008	2005-2007	1988-2000*
Repurchase activit	v Other Variables			
Sales (\$millions)				
	Mean	5,303.8	5,119.9	892.
	Std. Dev	10,078.8	9,343.0	2,825.
	25th	940.300	931.5	46.
	Median	2,127.0	2,130.0	159.
	75th	5,176.4	5,058.0	564.
E/P		-,-,-,-	-,	
	Mean	0.0372	0.0499	0.047
	Std. Dev	0.2804	0.0897	0.090
	25th	0.0409	0.0398	0.034
	Median	0.0556	0.0537	0.055
	75th	0.0734	0.0690	0.077
P/E ratio	for positive earning firms onl		0.0090	0.077
1/L Idilo	Mean	24.69	25.57	27.4
	Std. Dev	60.88	61.42	94.3
	25th	13.25	14.24	12.3
	Median	17.44	14.24	12.5
	75th	22.78	23.85	23.7
Share Price (\$)	/30	22.78	25.85	25.7
Share Price (\$)	Man	46.080	48.840	27.64
	Mean	46.980	48.840	27.64
	Std. Dev	35.770	35.110	23.34
	25th	27.930	30.330	11.81
	Median	42.000	44.370	22.13
	75th	59.180	60.940	36.88
Assets (\$ millions)				
	Mean	26,393.5	26,208.4	4,006
	Std. Dev	60,057.7	58,765.5	16,024
	25th	4,292.2	4,184.7	167
	Median	9,727.0	9,603.0	586
	75th	24,355.0	24,154.5	2,190
Cash (% of assets)				
	Mean	13.7	12.8	12.
	Std. Dev	12.7	13.8	16.
	25th	3.2	3.2	1.
	Median	7.5	7.6	5
	75th	17.3	17.5	16
EPS (\$)				
	Mean	0.64	0.70	0.3
	Std. Dev	1.29	0.82	0.5
	25th	0.32	0.33	0.1
	Median	0.58	0.59	0.3
	75th	0.94	0.94	0.5
Note* · Par the stat	istics reported Hribar et al 2006 stu		•••	0.0

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Financial Characteristics/ Repurchasing Firms

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Ileana Iulia Istudor, University Valahia from Targoviste, Romania Florina Mocanu, University Valahia from Targoviste, Romania

ABSTRACT

The concept of value creation is used to give substance to a new integrated approach to the enterprise activity, respectively the value based management. In this context, the present paper aims to highlight the key aspects of the enterprise's performance analysis based on value creation. There are identified the necessary stages in order to determine the cost of capital, crucial information for assessing value creation, based on the weighted average of resources cost made available to the enterprise by the funds holders. Further work will present strategic assessment models used in the analysis of value creation, namely: Strategic Planning Associates, Marakon Associates, Mc Kinsey and LEK Consulting. All models of value management highlight three basic elements: generating time of available cash flows, discount rate and the choice of financing structure, which directly affects the weighted average cost of capital. An analytical study of these three fundamental elements firstly involves identification and analysis of the value inductors, i.e. those variables that can influence the value creation. Based on these operational and financial inductors the main levers can be determined, levers upon which the company's management will act in order to create value for shareholders.

JEL: L25, G32

KEYWORDS: value creation, cost of capital, performance, strategic evaluation

INTRODUCTION

Classical indicators provide information on the company's historical performance without taking into account the cost of invested capital but the results of its use. The management of the value integrates information relative to the cost of capital, which is not the case with traditional methods of performance evaluation and it generalizes systematic comparisons between internal performances and the stock value of the enterprise. A company creates value as long as it provides remuneration of capital at a rate of return that exceeds its cost (Valceanu et al., 2004) or, in other words, when the economic profitability is superior to the weighted average cost of capital. Increasing the value of the enterprise is listed or not (Vernimmen, 2009).

An enterprise is successful in its whole to the extent that it succeeds to meet expectations of all partners. At present, company owners are privileged concerning their needs of information relative to value creation because the socio-economic organization system of developed countries favor the business owner who invests and takes risks; so its interests will always be on the first place and the enterprise will foremost seek to meet its expectations. Different analysis methods of value creation are based on the same theoretical framework, that of micro-financial economy and use a common variable, the cost of capital (Hoarau, 2008). Conceptual groundwork of value management models is determined by the neoclassical microeconomic theory and by the financial theory on enterprise assessment.

COST OF CAPITAL – ESSENTIAL INFORMATION IN VALUE ANALYSIS

The effective use of enterprise's resources requires investing in projects whose expected return is at least equal to the cost of capital, which allows adequate remuneration of risks assumed by the enterprise's management and also allows maintaining this value. The cost of capital is the weighted average cost of resources provided to the enterprise by the fund holders (shareholders and creditors). Establishing the cost of capital consists of three steps (Hoarau, 2003, 2008):

1) Determination of a particular financial structure (an objective structure of capital). This stage involves:

• Establishing the current structure of capital (taking into account the market values and not the accounting values of the elements);

• Comparison of this financial structure to the one of similar enterprises, especially with those considered more efficient in the field;

• Analyzing funding sources accessible to the enterprise and the consequences of their use upon the objective structure of capital.

2) Assessing the cost of each funding source. The cost of capital must be calculated using the current cost (and not the historical cost) of different funding sources applied to their market value (and not at their book value). For financial liabilities, it is particularly used the actual cost after-tax, i.e.: interest rate x (1 - t), where t represents the profit tax rate. The cost of equity is difficult to predict especially if enterprises are not listed. A reasonable calculation of this cost should be achieved by applying the following four methods: the historical rate of return, dividend growth model, capital asset pricing model (CAPM) or bonds yield increased with risk premium.

3) Determination of overall cost of capital:

$$CMPC = R_i \times \frac{CP}{CP+D} + i \times (1-t) \times \frac{D}{CP+D}$$
where:

$$CMPC = \text{weighted average cost of capital}$$
(1)

CMPC = weighted average cost of capital $R_i = cost of equity$ i = interest rate on debtt = profit tax rateCP = equityD = financial liabilities

METHODS FOR STRATEGIC ASSESSMENT OF VALUE CREATION

The value creation process can be measured by the ratio Market Value/Book Value of equity (Hoarau, 2003, 2008), this expressing the creation or the destruction of value by comparing the two variables. The market value of equity is given by market capitalization in the case of listed enterprises, or the present value of available cash flows, in the case of enterprises that are not listed. In the latter case, the used discount rate is given by the cost of capital.

Market value of equity represents an indicator that reflects the present and future of the enterprise's potential, while their adjusted book value enables an estimation of all the resources invested in the past by shareholders. By comparing the two variables it can be estimated if, in future, the enterprise will keep on, will create value or, conversely, it will be destroyed:

• MV/BV = 1: neutral position, the enterprise maintains its previously created value;

- MV/BV > 1: value creation;
- MV/BV < 1: value destruction

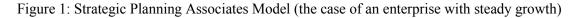
A monetary unit invested in an enterprise whose report MV/BV is more than one will generate a higher value than a monetary unit invested in an enterprise whose stock value is inferior to its adjusted net equity. The relationship between the ratio MV/BV and the ratio Return/Cost of Capital is called value curve. This relationship forms the basis of several Anglo-Saxon strategic assessment models used in analyzing the value creation.

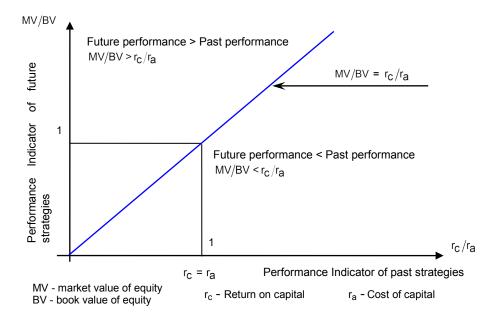
Strategic Planning Associates Model

This model (Hoarau, 2003, 2008) links the future performance (MV/BV) to the results of strategic decisions applied in the past, appreciated at the rate r_c / r_a , where:

- r_c : Return on invested capital;
- r_a: Aspired return on equity (the cost of capital)

According to this method, the enterprise that presents a rate MV/BV superior to the rate r_c / r_a will improve its performances and will create value in the future. On the contrary, a rate MV/BV inferior to the rate r_c / r_a indicates the acquiring of some reduced future performances and the destruction of value (Figure 1).





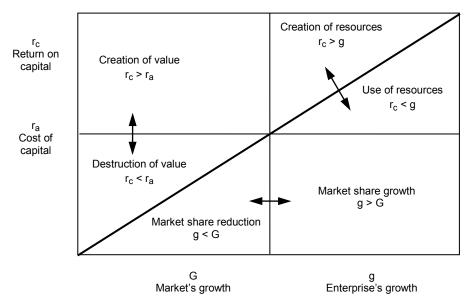
⁽Source: Hoarau, 2008: p. 99; Hoarau, 2003: p. 38)

Marakon Associates Model: In this model the index MV/BV is compared to the difference $r_c - r_a$ resulting four possible scenarios. The situation of revitalization corresponds to the enterprises whose future performances will be superior to those obtained in the past. The excellent situation is specific to the enterprises, which will maintain in the future their good performance obtained previously. Under a normal situation, the enterprises cannot improve in the future their mediocre performances from previous

period. Enterprises situated in a position of decline will register a degradation of their former performances (Hoarau, 2003, 2008).

The cabinet Marakon Associates has also developed a matrix that differentiates the activities depending on how these create/destroy value and according to the obtained result, reflected in the increase/decrease of the market share. This matrix is structured on two variables, the return on invested capital and the enterprise's rate of growth. When not engaging in the distribution of dividends, asset growth represents a function of profitability. If asset growth is superior to the profitability, the resources generated by the enterprise's activity are insufficient to maintain this growth. As with the previous model, value creation involves a return on invested capitals superior to the cost of capital. This matrix reflects the fact that a balanced portfolio of activities (in terms of financial flows) can lead to loss of value, while an unbalanced portfolio may lead to value creation (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Marakon Associates Profitability Matrix



⁽Source: Hoarau, 2008, p. 100; Hoarau, 2003, p. 41)

Mc Kinsey Model

This model has origin by W.E. Fruhan but it has developed within the Mac Kinsey's cabinet (Hoarau, 2003, 2008). The model compares the indicator MV/BV to the ratio EV/BV, where:

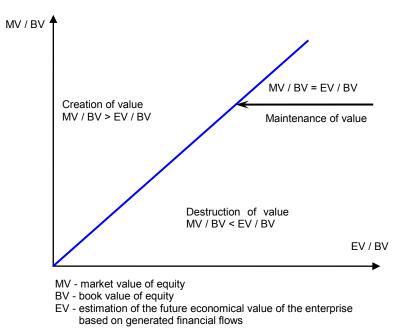
• EV: estimation of the future economical value of the enterprise based on generated financial flows;

• BV: book value of equity.

This management method determines the intrinsic economic value of equity invested by shareholders as a difference between the total economic value of the enterprise and the market value of financial liabilities. The economic value of the enterprise corresponds to the current value of available cash flows released during the forecast period, and also to the "residual" value of the enterprise at the end of the forecast period. Determining the economic value of the enterprise requires covering the following steps:

- determining the future cash flows of the forecast period (usually drawn up between 5 and 10 years);
- determining the weighted average cost of capital (used as discount rate);
- estimating the enterprise's value at the end of the forecast period;
- assessment of financial debt.





⁽Source: Hoarau, 2008, p. 101; Hoarau, 2003, p. 42)

The strategic approach proposed by Mc Kinsey's cabinet consists in establishing a thorough diagnosis of existing situation and in setting a strategy likely to create value in a sustainable manner. This approach involves five phases, corresponding to the five issues that must be analyzed as enterprise activities (Figure 4). Strategic approach begins with a thorough analysis of the enterprise's market capitalization. This market value will represent the basis of reference in assessing the risk of takeover of the enterprise.

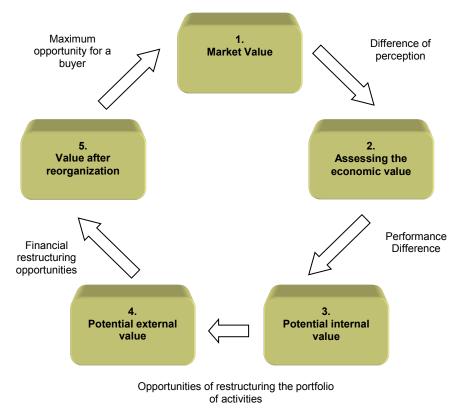
The next stage, the assessment itself, consists in determining the economic value of the enterprise by updating available cash flows using as discount rate the cost of capital. This value is determined without taking into account the financial policy or the eventual changes in the enterprise's activity. By comparing the current market value with the economic value thus established there are identified speculative phenomena and differences in perception from the market due to failures of communication.

After this stage, it takes place the appraisal of potential internal value corresponding to the intrinsic economic value obtained by improving the internal factors such as increasing the turnover, the commercial margin, the reduction of the need of working capital related to exploitation, etc.

The key factors in creating value are different for each activity; in order to be determined it is possible to proceed to the division of the enterprise in centers of profit, which allows the comparison of costs structure, the productivity and the related investments to each competing activity. Thus, a more efficient management of assets can lead to the diminution of the negative perception from the market.

The fourth stage involves determining the potential external value by identifying the external restructuring opportunities of the portfolio of activities; for example, the assignment of units, which did not generate value or, on the contrary, the purchase of some units, which present growth potential within the company. The optimal value of the enterprise after restructuring is determined within the last stage, respectively the maximum value obtained by ameliorating internal and external factors also by financial engineering, especially by changing the financing structure. The difference between this optimal value and the one determined by the market represents a spore value which can be obtained by applying this strategic demarche by the management of the enterprise.

Figure 4: Framework for assessing the restructuring possibilities in conformity with the Mc Kinsey model



Lek Consulting Model

The total economic values of the enterprise carry two components: the present value of available cash flows generated during the chosen forecast period and the enterprise's value at the end of the forecast period (residual value). Unlike Mc Kinsey's model, within the Lek Consulting model the available cash flows are more detailed, being calculated on the basis of some key variables expressed in relation to the turnover and considered as value indicators (Hoarau, 2003, 2008):

$$CF_{t} = CA_{t-1} \times (1+c_{t}) \times RMA_{t} \times (1-T) - CA_{t-1} \times c_{t} \times (INV_{t} + NFRE_{t})$$
(2)

where:

- CA_{t-1}: previous year turnover;
- c_t : anticipated growth rate of the turnover for the forecasted period;

• RMA_t : anticipated operating margin rate for t year, defined as the ratio between the net operating result and the turnover;

- T: profit tax rate;
- INV_t : net investment rate, i.e. the ratio between the effectuated investments and the turnover;
- NFRE_t : necessity for operating working capital expressed as a percentage of the turnover.

The estimation of the residual value on the basis of the perpetual upgrade of operating flows using as discount rate the weighted average cost of capital, without introducing a growth rate (as in Mc Kinsey's model) conveys that the enterprise's future profitability generated by new investments will be equal to the cost of capital. Lek Consulting method considers that during the chosen forecast period the enterprise does not create additional value. This conservative assumption is based on the idea that a long-term sustained growth faces certain economic limitations. In long term, as a result of competition, a growth likely to release continuously super profit cannot be anymore achieved. On long term, it is considered that, the efficient enterprise is the one that succeeds maintaining the shareholders' asset value.

CONCLUSIONS

All the models of value administration highlight three basic elements: the generating moment of available cash flows, the discount rate (in this case, the cost of capital) and the selection of financing structure, which directly affects the weighted average cost of capital. An analytical study of these three fundamental elements firstly involves an analysis of the value inductors, i.e. those variables that can influence the value creation. Based on these operational and financial inductors there can be determined the main levers upon which the enterprise's management will act in order to create value for shareholders. Among these, can mention:

• Increase productivity by reduction of the costs. For this purpose, the staff reductions it is usually used, corresponding rather to a crisis management and of enterprise survival than creating medium and long-term value; from this perspective, this measure is not likely to motivate staff;

• Modification of strategies for identifying internal and external opportunities is likely to emit a superior efficiency of the cost of capital. This strategic rethinking will operate internally by developing the activities and the gainful distribution channels, and externally by divisions, cessions of tangible and financial assets, etc.;

• Involving all participants in the enterprise's life within this strategy of value creation. A certain "pressure" within the organization will be felt by assessing internal performances in comparison to the external performances (the market value) and by developing a system destined to motivate and to involve staff based on the indicators of value creation for the shareholders.

• Financial optimization in order to reduce the cost of capital; it is mainly influenced by the interest rate, the enterprise's level of risk premium and the debt policy. Thus, depending on the evolution on the long-term of the interest rate, the enterprise will proceed to the increase or the decrease of the financial debt to enhance shareholder value.

The enterprise's appraisal of performances based solely on value creation present however a number of limitations, including:

• The lack of accuracy of medium and long-term forecasts relative to available cash flows and to the residual value of the enterprise;

• Systematic reporting to the cost of capital leads to the assessment of internal performances based on volatile external indicators determined in the financial markets. In addition, the calculation of the cost of the employed capital represents a delicate subjective operation with a decisive influence on the creation/ destruction of value.

• An incorrect assessment of the cost of capital leads to an inefficient allocation of resources; thereby, an underestimation of the cost of capital will be translated by a reduced return on investment, while an overestimation will deprive the enterprise of the opportunity for profitable growth;

• The methods of administrating the value ignore the differences between the participants in the enterprise's life. The strategy of maximizing the value for the shareholders will result in excessive valuation of the financial capital to the detriment of human one;

• There exists the risk of abandoning the development of new markets or products, of innovation to a long-term strategic vision

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BIOGRAPHY

Ileana Iulia Istudor is an Associate Professor of Finance at University Valahia from Targoviste. She can be contacted at Faculty of Economic Sciences, Accounting - Finance Department, 35 Lt. Stancu Ion Street, Targoviste - 130105, Dambovita, Romania. Email: iulia_32@yahoo.com.

Florina Mocanu is a Lecturer of Finance at University Valahia from Targoviste. She can be contacted at Faculty of Economic Sciences, Accounting - Finance Department, 35 Lt. Stancu Ion Street, Targoviste - 130105, Dambovita, Romania. Email: <u>florinamocanu78@yahoo.com</u>.

Giovanni Bronzetti, University of Calabria Romilda Mazzotta, University of Calabria Maria Teresa Nardo, University of Calabria

ABSTRACT

In this paper we analyze both structure and substance of the planning process support documentation. We have identified a set of dimensions widely used in both theory and practice and related to what is commonly referred to as Performance (Performance management). For research purposes we distinguish between process related dimensions and substance related dimensions. With respect to the for mentioned distinction we construct a cluster matrix of the universities where a position of a single university inside the projection is defined as a function of the plan quality variables and the process quality variables.

JEL: M10

KEYWORDS: Strategic Planning, Italy, university

INTRODUCTION

Prescribed by the Italian State Law 168/169 and followed by other legal regulations Italian Universities have obtained vast statutory, organizational, financial, accounting and administrative autonomy. In other words, it has become a prime necessity for the universities to define their mission, analyze their frontiers and identify eventual growth and improvement opportunities in the public competition setting. All this to acquire planning and programming autonomy which would guarantee successful outcome of the implemented strategies.

The new ministerial procedures on planning and valuation of universities are designed to offer to the universities new planning possibilities in line with the new setting requirements. Adoption of new regulations, as defined by the article 1 ter of the Italian State Law n. 43/2005 represents a cornerstone of the new setting as it entrusts the universities with the planning task and responsibility to define their own planning process within the macro-areas of intervention as defined by Ministry of Education and Research (MIUR).

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 briefly discusses the relevant literature. Legislative references are described in Section 3. Data selection and research methodology are described in Section 3. Section 4 are illustrated the dimension of strategic planning and in Section 5 are analyzed the empirical findings and Section 6 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Strategic Planning in Universities

In recent years dynamic landscape and constant change in university environment forced the Italian university system to introduce business administration tools and rational, as says Terzani (1999), prone until recently solely to private enterprises. A process for some time known to Italian public as "aziendalizzazione" has received a strong support through a law designed in favor of the universities' autonomy and rationalization of the problem of scarce availability of resources as indicate Rebora (2003).

In this derived setting programming and controlling tools took a central role in strategic planning, as demonstrate in various works Amigoni (1979), Brunetti (1988), Osborne, Gaebler (1992), Mussari, (1994), Hood, (1995), Farneti (1995), Borgonovi, (1996), Pozzoli, (2000), Anselmi (2003). Under strategic planning is assumed a capacity to manage a change on the basis of predefined objectives all reachable through an established process and series of interrelated actions as indicated by Fici L. (2001), Anthony, Young, (1982).

The planning process is simply a mean with which the universities respond to the external challenges of ever greater complexity According to Bryson strategic planning is "an excellent method for organization – a governmental or quasi-governmental one – to contend with fluctuating situations and circumstances". That is a process through which an organization identifies mission and the best solution for its implementation. Bryson (1995) proposes a model consisting of 10 steps which starts with the strategic planning process and leads, if necessary, to a strategy reassessment (a final reassessment of the strategic plan and the strategic process). All steps of the model have to be assigned a performance measurement system capable of verifying whether the objectives have been completed.

It has become apparent that the strategies defined and the medium and long run objectives imposed by the universities have been reached and accomplished through the strategic planning. The strategic plan is a formalised written document which contains complete list of decisions taken by the university governing institutions and defines the streams of action to undertake in order to attain the predefined objectives. At this point the plan is considered a pivotal element of the strategic planning process and requires explicit elaboration as established by law.

However, structure and purpose wise, universities are considered a unique institution type. Thus, it would be a mistake to adopt unilaterally the planning practices considered in corporate landscape. Universities are not to be considered homogeneous institutions: each university is organized in faculties with distinctive educational capabilities shaped to provide knowledge base for the array of different professions. Furthermore, the difference between academic and corporate personnel lays in the nature of their autonomy. Academics are not subject to any institutional or directional authority their sole role and purpose being to promote knowledge through distinctive competences. Governance systems of corporate and academic landscape are equally different. Universities are characterized by joint governance consisting of the Academic Senate, the Board of Directors and boards of each faculty and department as indicate Paletta (2001).

Legislative References

An evolution of the university legislation has caused Italian universities to adopt strategic planning tools and controlling mechanisms. A long path of this evolution can be summarized in the following phases:

- The Italian State Law 9/03/89 n.168, Ministry of University (MURST) has been established and the universities, in accordance with the article 33 have been granted teaching, research, organizational, financial and accounting autonomy;
- The Italian State Law 421/92 has established an organizational base for the introduction of financial and accounting autonomy further defined by the financial law 537/93.
- The Presidential Decree 25/98 regulated the programming and development procedures of the university education system;
- The Italian State Law 15/03/97 n.59 has ratified planning criteria of the university education system in the article 2.

The actual legislation concerning the university program issues in the Law Decree dated march 31 2005 n.43 has profoundly modified the preceding legislation introducing both different methodology and

procedure to attain. In accordance with the new Law Decree implementation, the Ministry of Education entrusted the task and the responsibility to define medium and long-term strategic objectives directly to the universities as well as the responsibility to plan their actions allowing them to enhance specific characteristics as well as distinctive capabilities and other skills related to particular academic context. The implementation decree 43/2005 issued throughout the course of 2007 has defined a draw up procedure of the three-year strategic plan. Fruit of this action has been practical application of the strategic planning within the Italian universities. It is also important to understand what are the phases of the planning process and the players involved as well as the substance of the documents and their formalization as established by the legislation.

The legislation establishes a draw-up plan procedure to be accomplished within a three-year period and an approval of the same within July 30 of the successive year. The legislation does not specifically elaborate on the substance of the plan nor it specifies an executive body to vote the approval. Generally as established by university statute and/or internal regulations the universities assign an academic council – an academic body of the highest authority - for the definitive plan approval. The DM 216/2006 specifics that the validity of approved plans is three years (the most recently approved plans relate to 2010-2012 time period). The plan may be adapted annually (by 30 July of each year) on the basis of evaluation and monitoring carried out by the referent Ministry and the National Committee for University System Evaluation (NCSVU). The monitoring and measuring criteria such as quantities are established by the Ministry. The programmers' need not be delivered to the Ministry. Instead weights should be assigned to the results obtained as established by the article 4, comma 33, of Ministerial Decree as of July 3 2007, n.362. As of new regulation the university programs are evaluated ongoing and ex-post with reference to an implementation as a function of specific indicators. An ex-ante quantification of indicators (target value) is not required by law.

Players and phases of the process: The actors within the planning process are classified as internal and external with respect to university campus. The external actors are the Conference of Italian University Rectors (CRUI), National Academic Council (CUN), National Council of University Students (CNSU), National University System Evaluation Council (CNVSU), the Court of Accounts and the Minister. The first three representative bodies (CRUI, CUN and CNSU) are involved in the definition of general guidelines from the very inception of the process which has not been the case in past. The Minister sends out the documentation to CNVSU and subsequently defines the general guidelines in the form of a special decree. Prior to the decree issue the Minister takes account of CRUI suggestions (consultative role of CRUI) and makes use of NCSVU data consisting of "parameters and criteria" provided for. On the basis of these initial steps are then carried out further evaluations and periodic monitoring of the process. The ministerial decree is then published in the Official Gazzette. Once published the decree enters in force. At that point the universities prepare their three year programs in line with the general guidelines before 30 July of each year in order to meet the general guidelines objectives (ministerial objectives)

The ministry periodically evaluates, monitors and reports on the results of implementation activities in order to allocate resources on the basis of "criteria and parameters" identified by the Minister in close cooperation with CRUI and CNVSU. The internal players to the process are the Academic Senate, the Dean and the Board of Directors.

Plan Substance: The legislation requires that any activity related to planning is defined by the general guidelines of the system. Furthermore the universities have to adopt a three-year plan in line with the ministerial guidelines. Current ministerial guidelines are as set forth:

- Rationalization and requalification of academic programs; stronger support for major courses that vary with respect to academic profile selected reinforced with higher value of resources distributed, more efficient and less time consuming job placement process, coherence with scientific tradition, launch of new interfaculty and joint university cooperation programs to capture existing economies of scale and extinguishment of existing courses which fall outside defined catchment area; improvement/enhancement of scientific research programs with scope to incentivize and sustain all initiatives focused on research development (through promotion of Ph.D programs, scholarship awards, university cooperation with local community, firms and technology clusters)
- Provide support activities, enhancement and provision of student-oriented services and joint cooperation between student organizations and high schools to generate and sustain pupils' interest in higher education enrolment;
- 3) Internationalization programs aimed at incentivizing exchange initiatives among universities, researchers and students and strengthening cooperation ties with foreign universities;
- 4) Demand for dedicated academics to be evaluated not on the basis of existing contract types (fulltime contract and temporary contract) and demands for working mobility but on the basis of proved correlation with projected results of the three year plan and objectives attainment; objectives being recalibration of academics and recruitment and integration of new generations of researchers.

Evaluation and monitoring phase: Based on the predefined indicators, quantities and quality levels the Ministry constantly monitors and evaluates on the programs offered by the universities. The reference Figure proposed by the ministry contains a set of 21 indicators belonging to 5 distinctive action areas. Keeping in mind varying specificity of the academic program planning each university may give weight to an academic area of choice assigning between 10% to 30% of the total assuming the total remains at the base level of 100. The planning process may be adapted after interim monitoring and evaluation of the process by June 30 of each year.

"A partial index" of result variation (on year-to-year basis) is calculated for each indicator as a difference between the values of single indicators obtained at the year end and the average of the results in preceding three year periods. The obtained results are then standardized to take values between 0 and 1. Final objective is to obtain an index which synthesizes the overall variation of results for one university with respect to the other universities; all this to be able to compare the level of performance of the different universities controlled for.

Monitoring and evaluation activities are relevant for the distribution of the Fund of University Financing (FFO). Monitoring and evaluation activities are a competence of CNVSU and the Ministry. On the basis of the predefined indicators assigned by the ministerial decree the above mentioned institutions evaluate and monitor ex-post the implementation of the planning process. At the end of the three year period each plan is subject to a written report which is submitted to the Parliament.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Research objectives : The purpose of this research is to analyze the three year plans/strategic plans of the public universities both process and substance wise. Our enquiry line has a two-fold research objective:

1) Identify the dimensions of what we consider a "good practice" of the strategic planning distinguishing the process related dimension from the substance related dimension;

2) Examine the implementation state of the strategic planning tools in the Italian public universities compiling the "process-substance" matrix ad hoc.

Methodology : The research work accomplished is characterized by four distinctive phases:

- 1. Data mining and analysis of the public universities three year plans/strategic plans;
- 2. Identifying the elements considered what we call "positive" within the process and the substances of the strategic planning process (dimensions of "good practice")
- 3. Construction of the "process-content" matrix on the basis of the "positive elements" identified;
- 4. Positioning and pattern analysis for the set of universities subject to strategic planning process research.

Data mining of the analyzed documentation for 1) the first phase of the research framework has been carried out online for those universities that offer online access. A written request was sent to the strategic planning, controlling and evaluation departments of those universities that do not offer online access to the enquired data. The written requests were targeted sent to the above mentioned players as we consider those being the cornerstones of the strategic planning process.

Strategic planning dimensions in 2) the second phase are defined with respect to the doctrinal positions (Cugini, Pilonato, 2007) and the guidelines related to the area of research on both national and international levels (Miur, Higher Education Management review Committee's, English Higher Education Founding Council's – HECFE, Civit, ecc.).

The positioning of the universities within the "process-substance" matrix in 4) the fourth phase has been based on the analysis of the collected strategic plans.

Research Sample: The research has been carried out on 59 Italian state universities branched in the following groups defined by the number of enrolled students (size) in 2009-2010 academic year: mega size (over 40.000 enrolled), large (20.000 to 40.000 enrolled), medium (10.000 to 20.000 enrolled) and small (less than 10.000 enrolled). The data has been extrapolated from the MIUR National Student Record (last update as of September 2010). According to the analyzed distribution there are 11 mega size universities, 18 large universities, 18 medium universities and 12 small universities. We have omitted from our research two public universities for foreign students in Perugia and Siena and 6 specialized academic institutions (Scuola Normale di Pisa, S.Anna di Pisa, SISSA Trieste, SUM Firenze, IMT Lucca, IUSS Pavia). We have collected online 16 three year plans/strategic plans out of 59 universities in total. The remaining universities have been contacted via phone and/or via e-mail. A number of 5 more planning documents has been collected which gives us 21 university that have provided for required documentation. The sample contains data from the universities as follows:

- 6 mega size universities (Bari, Bologna, Firenze, Palermo, Roma La Sapienza e Torino) out of 11 existing (55% out of total);
- 4 large universities (Calabria, Pavia, Politecnico Torino e Verona) out of 18 existing (22% of total);
- 5 medium size universities (Ferrara, Macerata, Modena e Reggio Emilia, Udine e Trieste) out of 18 existing (28% out of total);
- 6 small size universities (Cassino, Foggia, Reggio Calabria, Roma Foro Italico, Sannio e Teramo) out of 12 existing (50% out of total).

STRATEGIG PLANNING DIMENSIONS AND "PROCESS-SUBSTANCE" MATRIX

There have been defined two macro strategic planning dimensions; one for the process and one for the substance. Following elements have been taken in account in order to define the two above mentioned macro dimensions:

- 1) Form of document presentation and web release to obtain larger transparency;
- 2) Shareholder participation in defining mission, vision, strategy and objectives (involvement strategy);
- 3) Process clarification;
- 4) Strategic plan synchronization with other planning documents and available financial resources;
- 5) Devotion and competence of participating support institutions in plan drawing up;
- 6) Voting body individuation.

We have omitted points 5 and 6 from the further research procedure due to the impossibility to explain these dimensions in quantitative terms and impossibility to distinguish between the quality of two different plans approved by the Academic Senate and the Board of Directors respectively. We have been identified 11 elements to define the substance dimension:

- 1) Plan formalization of mission, vision and social values of analyzed university;
- 2) SWOT analysis construction to identify stakeholder expectations and strategies;
- 3) Definition of strategic plans and their coherence with ministerial guidelines (MIUR)
- 4) Presence of ministerial indicators;
- 5) Presence of alien indicators of performance to those defined by Ministry;
- 6) Temporal consistency of data analyzed (historic value series);
- 7) Target definition;
- 8) Specification of liable parties;
- 9) Benchmark analysis;
- 10) Explicit monitoring related expectations;
- 11) Description of strategic plan process framework and dynamics.

The choice of the list of elements stems from the fact that the majority of performance measurement studies have used it for their research purposes, as indicate, for instance, Bouckaert-Halligan (2008) and Otley, (1999) These elements have also been used in OECD studies (OECD, 1997, 2004, 2005).

Assuming the above defined elements of the process and the substance dimensions we have constructed a matrix with an X-axis defines as "the process quality" and Y-axis as "the plan quality" (Tab. 1). We have synthesized all the elements of the substance dimension in "plan quality" variable. We have synthesized all the elements of the process dimension in " process quality" variable respectively. Two macro-variables (the process quality and the substance quality allowed us to construct a matrix with "low" and "high" quadrant area as drawn below.

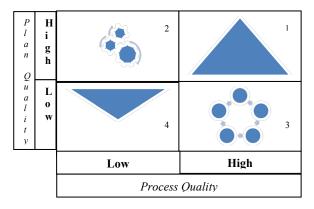


Figure 1 - Dimensions of "Process-Substance" Matrix

After manipulating our variables we have been to identify four different theory profiles which define the diverse approaches to the strategic planning process.

First profile contains the characteristics that are prone to "the best" () performance strategic planning adopters (quadrant 1). The characteristics of the first quadrant are represented by:

- Distinctive plan quality and presence of impact and result indicators, historic value series and target (measurement dimensions);
- Interconnection and synchronization with other documents (coherent dimension);
- Stakeholder involvement at process planning (strategic involvement dimension);
- Strategic plan distribution to various users, both externally and internally(transparency dimension).

The universities characterized as "lagging behind" () in new governance policy implementation are those that have scored low on levels of distribution and disclosure to the external parties (performance dimension) as well as those that obtained low scores on the description of the plan substance and mission, vision and values to the external and internal users (mission and strategy). The universities with low levels of objectives quantification and the resources in presence of the indicators without target have also been placed in the fourth quadrant.

A situation described as "hermetic" () is characteristic for the universities that give more importance to the plan quality with respect to the process quality. At the same time these universities fail to launch and implement the strategic involvement and/or fail to connect the plan to the financial resources (3rd quadrant). These universities use external plan distribution for political/formal purposes without any strategic involvement present.

"The dynamic elements" (^(*)) represent an exemplary reality where the strategy involvement process has been launched and the aspects of the substance in terms of objectives indicators and target have been met (2nd quadrant). The universities which freely disclose the strategic plan to the external parties have also made part of the transparent elements. Inside each quadrant the process quality and the substance quality vary. The value is growing as one moves up and to the right.

RESULTS

Process Variable Results

Already a first phase of the research framework has revealed scarce web disclosure of the three year plans. Only 16 universities disclose to the public the strategic plan and in other 3 universities the document has been identified on the web but not accessible to the general public due to password protection (University of Milano, University "Cà Foscari" Venezia and University of Tuscia). At the web pages of the rest of the sample there is no visible trace of the three year plan / strategic plan. The online document search and the phone and e-mail requests gave us the first insight on the level of transparency of the strategic plan distribution to the users. A very scarcer level of external and internal disclosure emerged. The principle of external transparency is alien to the 73% of the universities. That includes 68% of those that do not publish the strategic plan online and 5% of those that keep it password protected. In the course of research we have revealed that most of the internal support offices do not know precisely all the information disclosed in the strategic plan while some portion of the contacted personnel have not heard of its existence. According to the academic literature the stakeholder involvement has been considered for decades on of the crucial elements of the strategic planning process (Coda, 1988; Donaldson-Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). In the public sector where citizen expectations are centered around the predefined objectives one of the key elements to be considered is the process quality of the strategic planning implementation.

Analysis of the single documents have revealed a discouraging examples of strategy involvement. In order to examine the existence of the strategy involvement process there have been considered particularly those plan contents which have contained the description of the implemented process. From this analysis it has emerged that not all the universities describe the process within the plan. Furthermore, in those that disclose the description of the process it is not always the case the involvement strategy has been implemented.

There is evidence that those plans that do disclose the report tend to share the plan and its strategic objectives amount different interest-motivated parties. The example of shareholder involvement refers to University of Bari (the proposals and observations regarding the plan definition have been integrated in the final version of the plan). Furthermore the University of Foggia has been found to refer to the stakeholder involvement citing the following: "the process has to be of ongoing and open kind") while Politecnico of Torino have included the "the process is fruit of democratic involvement of parties" sentence in their strategic plan. It has been found that in 48% of the cases the strategic objectives have been jointly defined.

Regarding the element described as "Competence of the support departments in the plan drawing up process", we have been able to analyze it only for those universities which have explicitly stated the name of the group members participating in the process planning. Some of strategic plans show that during the strategic planning process there have been organized the specialized committees/discussion groups. The University La Sapienza is the only Italian university which has delegated the supporting role to the Evaluation Committee. The University of Bologna has employed the Planning and Controlling Department to design the strategic plan. We have found that in 54% of cases the plan design has been supported by the committees and commissions created for that purpose.

We have also found that there exists a link between the strategic plan and the financial resources provided for and other planning documentation. The evidence has shown that the link with the financial resources available referred specifically to the operational part of the plan. The University of Ferrara have limited themselves to the simple listing of financial resources needed without further explanation on their application. University Mediterranea of Reggio Calabria have provided more detailed information on those activities which require more financial resources than available.

As appears from the analysis conducted on the statutes, in 33% of cases the development of the plan is the explicit responsibility of the Academic Senate. The remaining cases show that the competences of the Academic Senate are generally those of coordination and planning of the teaching process and the research process. However in 58% of the cases the plan has been approved by the Academic Senate or the Senate in close cooperation with the Board of Directors.

We have identified only one case where the approval has been voted inside an adjusted body such as the Enlarged Academic Senate. The sole case where the Board of Directors has been responsible for the plan approval is that of University of Pavia. In two cases responsibility of the Academic Senate has consisted only of the plan design with no explicit guidance of how the plan should be approved.

Substance Variable Results

The plan has been given different names ranging from "The Three Year Plan" (Bari, Foggia, Modena-Reggio, Emilia and Florence) to "The Program and the Three Year Plan" (Roma Foro Italico, La Sapienza, Udine, Verona and Cassino) and more "The Planning" (Pavia) and more "The Planning Plan" (Torino). Some have called it "The Document of Three Year Period Planning" (Trieste). There are also variations such as "The Three Year Development Plan" (Macerata, Sannio and Benvento). However in the majority of cases it has been simply called "The Strategic Plan" (Bologna, Calabria, Ferrara, Mediterranea Reggio Calabria, Teramo, Politecnico Torino and Palermo) (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Document Taxonomy

The level of detail and substance quality for the above mentioned plans differs significantly despite the fact some plans carry the same name. Generally speaking all plans have included the minimum amount of content as established by the legislation. At first this might seem obvious. However, in our understanding of the problem the universities should not limit themselves to the established legislation but to seek more explicit ways to formalize the plans. All this despite the legislation which does not oblige the universities to send more information to the Ministry than raw results obtained from the level of indicators established. As an example the strategic plan of the University of Bologna presents beyond what has been written in the general guidelines. University Mediterranea of Reggio Calabria, the University of Palermo and The Politecnico of Torino follow this trend.

The level of detail and quality of the document could be attributed to the university aspirations. For example, the University of Palermo have seemed through the document draw up to build a base for the wider consensus among faculty on the future path of the university that could strengthen its position among other universities on national level. University of Bologna found the plan draw up as an opportunity to motivate the work of the academic staff on the process quality and other activities and how they may be linked to the scarce financial resources without raising the tensions among the faculty. The level of detail decreases in those cases where the sole purpose of the document is to meet regulatory compliance.

The plan must be flexible and in line with the ministerial guidelines. Constant adjustment is need in accordance with the interim results obtained. However, we have found only two cases in which the annual plan adaption process took place (Bari, Calabria). There has been noted one case in which the university Statute prescribes the plan adaption process every fourth year (Mediterranean University) despite what has been established by the legislation.

The document introduction has generally described the process of the document build up. (72% of the plans examined). Mission and strategy definition has been present in 71% of the plans analyzed and objectives have been defined as a function of SWOT analysis in (57% of cases) and in line with the ministerial guidelines. In general all universities have used a uniform way to identify the objectives.

Each University has given different taxonomy to the objectives and the ministerial directives. University of Bari defines first the university guidelines (not in line with the Ministerial guidelines) and priority areas to follow in the three year period. It then turns to the definition of strategic objectives which are coherent with mission and values of the University. The strategic objectives are sought to be a function of the operational objectives and their attainment is directly related to them. University of Calabria has

identified first the five areas of the ministerial involvement which are later transformed into the strategic objectives, operational objectives and defined streams of action. The Politecnico of Torino, University of Modena-Reggio Emilia and University of Palermo have omitted operational objectives substituting them with the development guidelines which are to be combined with the distinctive strategic objectives and initiatives/specific actions defined. The strategic plan of the Mediterranea of Reggio Calabria is similar with the change in taxonomy and number of designed elements (12 strategic missions, 75 objectives and 160 strategic micro actions). In University of Firenze discloses three branches of action (traditional, research and teaching, organizational and human resource) articulated through the functional initiatives to be implemented. Variety of objectives requires adequate measuring tools (Bryson, 1995), which are defined as indicators. The Ministry has identified 21 indicators (target values) related to the predefined action areas. In 71% of the cases universities have explicitly referred to the indicators, while in 60% of the cases historic value series are available for the indicators enquired. There are few universities that have assigned weights to the choice area of study despite the list of those is easily reachable in the three year planning program of Cineca (PRO3). The universities includes other than ministerial indicators in the 63% of cases. University of Bari, for example, proposes the positioning indicators and the performance indicators specific to each activity carried out. University of Calabria uses various indicators used by the institutions such as FFO, ACQUIS and the National Italian Census. University of Foggia, Torino, Bologna, Politecnico of Torino, University of Torino and University of Sannio do not disclose explicit and formalized information on the measurement tools even if in the formal documents all of the above mentioned have stated the goodwill to include these measurements. The interim target evaluation is another important element of university comparison. This practice, however, has not been very popular among the universities. Among those that adopt a "good practice" are the University of Bologna. The deadlines to each action undertaken has been assigned a time limit inside which it has to be accomplished. University of Teramo draws up the predicted results yet not in quantitative but only qualitative (e.g. how to evaluate on academic programs in the setting of international standards). University of La Sapienza and Mediterranea give the exact year inside which an initiative must be accomplished. We have identified only one case in which the targets have been assigned for each branch of objectives defined University of Calabria) and for some and for all guidelines (University of Bologna and University of Ferrara).

Some universities explicitly state responsible party for objectives attainment (University of Teramo, Calabria, Bologna, Palermo and Bari). The definition of liable parties is the central issue of the supervisory system (Terzani, 1999). Not all the universities explicitly state the process of implementation of the interim monitoring (Monteduro, 2006) and planning activities. These elements are disclosed in the strategic plans of Bologna, Calabria, Ferrara, Macerata, Pavia and Mediterranea. There are few universities which carry out benchmark analysis (La Sapienza Roma, Mediterranea, Bari). University of Firenze, Sannio, Terramo, Udine and Verona have been excluded from these analysis as the plans received from them did not contain this information.

University Positioning

The analyzed universities have been distributed using a ranking system of the above described matrix. University positions have been obtained from the values attributed to the process and substance variables.

Quality of the process variable depends on the nominal values which are could not be quantified. However, it is possible to express quantitatively the information contained in qualitative variables. To obtain this we control the categorical variables (process and quality variables) for the presence/absence of the modalities. For this purpose we assign to the single variable 2 types of value: 1 if condition exists and 0 if condition is absent (dichotomy variable)

With this approach a maximum value obtained for the process quality is 4 (this is due to the fact that four aspects of the process are used in the plan analysis: presence of involved strategy process, document

disclosure, linkages of three year plan with financial resources and other university documents). A maximum value obtained for the plan quality is 11 (Plan formalisation of mission, vision and social values, SWOT analysis presence, definition of strategic plans and their coherence with ministerial guidelines (MIUR), presence of ministerial indicators, presence of alien indicators of performance to those defined by Ministry, temporal consistency of data analyzed (historic value series), target definition, specification of liable parties, benchmark analysis, explicit monitoring related expectations, description of strategic plan process framework and dynamics)

Once the process quality variable and the plan quality variable have been quantified we need to determine the medians, as indicate Agresti and Finlay (2009). The four quadrants of the matrix are in function of the medians determined. Those universities which plan quality and process quality are above the median represent a sample of the universities with superior quality of planning activities. On the other hand those universities which score below the median are considered to have the weak planning activities. Our intention has not been an identification of "good" and "bad" universities but to compare universities against the identified variables. The universities have been positioned in the matrix as described in the Figure 3.



Figure 3 – University Positioning in "Process-substance" Matrix

As could be deduced from Figure 3 the best planning practices are in University Mediterranea of Reggio Calabria which is positioned in the extreme of quadrant 1 (high plan and process quality). University of Calabria, La Sapienza Roma, Palermo, Bari, Ferrara and Bologna have also been placed among the best practices. The universities in the 2nd quadrant are defined as hermetic and are characterized by weaker process quality variable (University of Pavia, Modena, Reggio Emilia and Trieste). The 3rd quadrant is characterized by the universities with the weaker plan quality variable (University of Foggia, Macerata, Torino and Politecnico of Torino. These universities identified as "dynamic" have applied involved strategy process which differs in content from the predefined objectives. Hermetic and dynamic universities assuming small adaptations of their strategic plans could be easily transferred to the 1st quadrant together with the "best practices". Those universities that have entered the 4th quadrant are lagging behind in the new governance policy interpretation. These universities have not disclosed the strategic plan in accordance with the ministerial guidelines but have submitted the excerpts of other official academic documents (University of Firenze, Verona and Sannio)

CONCLUSIONS

The objectives of this research are to investigate on the different modalities of the strategic planning process implementation and the different uses of the three year plans in the strategic planning process of the public universities. Our first findings have shown that the universities are organizing their planning processes both out of necessity and legal obligations. The analyzed strategic plans have provided us with the variety of contents, objectives and their detail level, correlated indicators, targets and public disclosure. Autonomy of the process formulation have made a task of finding common elements suiFigure for research more difficult but not impossible.

The strategic plan analysis has allowed us to obtain both qualitative and quantitative results. Summing up the qualitative results we conclude that: 1) the public disclosure of the three year plan has not been satisfactory; 2) there are four different approaches to the strategic planning process as identified by our model (placement matrix) 3) successful placement of all universities which strategic plans have been analyzed.

As of quantitative aspect of the research we conclude that the correlation analysis found evidence of positive correlation between university size (in terms of students enrolled) and the process and plan quality. Our findings are that the best strategic plans are in the mega size universities.

The three year plan formulation is a complex task characterized by high level of uncertainty, numerous difficulties and asymmetric information. If the scope of the plan drawing up does not solely have a purpose of obligatory bureaucratic procedure we would witness more harmonic development of universities with greater planning process transparency divided within the academic community.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Giovanni Bronzetti is an Associate Professor of Business Administration at University of Calabria, He can be contacted at Facoltà di Economia, Università della Calabria, via P. Bucci, 87036 Arcavacata di Rende (CS), Italy, Email: giovanni.bronzetti@unical.it.

Dr. Romilda Mazzotta, is a research of Business Administration at University of Calabria. She can be contacted at Facoltà di Economia, Università della Calabria, via P. Bucci, 87036 Arcavacata di Rende (CS), Italy, Email: romilda.mazzotta@unical.it

Dr. Maria Teresa Nardo, is a phd at University of Calabria. She can be contacted at Facoltà di Economia, Università della Calabria, via P. Bucci, 87036 Arcavacata di Rende (CS), Italy, Email: mt.nardo@unical.it

For academic reason, even if the work has been lead by the three authors together, section 1,2, 3 can be attributed to Giovanni Bronzetti, section 4,5,7 to Maria Teresa Nardo, section 6and 8 to Romilda Mazzotta.

GLOBALIZATION DETERMINANT FACTOR OF THE VULNERABILITY ENTERPRISE'S RESULT

Ileana Iulia Istudor, University Valahia from Targoviste, Romania Florina Mocanu, University Valahia from Targoviste, Romania

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to presentation the enterprise's result in the global understanding like the main indicator that describes performance's management team. In the context of globalization the determination of the enterprise's result is a complex demarche, been in the continuous evolution determined by profound changes and challenges of the world economy. Enterprises can be considered open systems that interact with the external environment (the market).Globalization has produced major changes in the economy and financial reporting. Development of IFRSs to meet the needs of users of financial statements in the context of globalization has led to the appearance of new concepts that are closely linked to enterprise's result: fair value, comprehensive income, maintaining the capital. The impact of fair value over the result has led to an increase of its volatility. The global result (comprehensive income) has become the new indicator for measuring the enterprise performance. Its presentation in financial statements is one of the main information resources provided to the external environment. To understand this information should be submitted in a single form, consistent and concise. This has been achieved through the elaboration of International Financial Reporting Standards, which is a product of the globalization.

JEL: M41, M49

KEYWORDS: globalization, fair value, net income, comprehensive income, financial statements

INTRODUCTION

The globalization designates a ubiquitous term in the ideas debates of the contemporary society. An attempt to define globalization could be as follows: globalization is a process of international (market) integration, where local economies and social systems experience a rapid increase of their sphere of action and their reciprocal interdependence (Mastrostefano et al., 2009).

The economy's globalization highlighted that the different states' closed economies characterized by the existence of dissociated national markets have been replaced by a global market. In a closed economy, the companies procured the financial resources necessary to the development from the present banks on the national market. Concerning the global economy characterized by worldwide economic changes, the companies become multinational, providing their funding from the international financial markets.

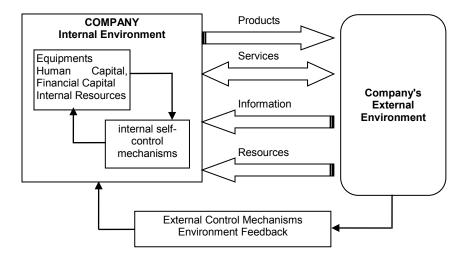
In global acceptation the income of the company represents the main indicator that describes its performance and also for its management team. The companies' activity has a dynamic character. In the current context of globalization, determining the income of the company represents a complex demarche. The determination of the income is subject to the accounting science, a dynamic science situated in a constantly evolution due to the profound changes and challenges of the economy in the context of globalization.

The Enterprise and Business Environment - A Systemic Approach

In a comprehensive presentation, the companies can be regarded as open systems that interact with the external environment (the market). The company's interaction with its environment is emphasized in the Figure 1. In the context of globalization, the external environment is no longer a matter of proximity to the company, this one expanding worldwide. The interaction is manifested by flows of various types that can be targeted either towards the company or from company towards the environment. The flows represent transport vectors of various resources necessary to the company to meet its main objective namely the creation of added value.

Niculescu and Lavalette (1999) identify five types of resources the company uses: natural resources, equipments, human capital, financial capital and information. The authors state that these resources may be existent and explicit or latent. The manner in which resources are combined to create added value represents a specific skill that can generate a competitive advantage. Flows' intensity is set by internal mechanisms of the company (e.g. the production function requires a certain amount of inputs of resources - raw materials, energy, financial resources, etc..) or external (e.g. changing global market conditions require a resizing of the flows, whether they are incoming or outgoing ones).

Figure 1: Company's Interaction with the Environment



In the context of globalization, the national diversity of the human resource imposed to the companies (particularly to the multinationals ones) the creation of an organizational culture of their own meant to harmonize different customs and practices, specific to nations and to geographical areas.

Information has always been an important resource for those who had it, but economic globalization has transformed it in a strategic resource. Gaining the competitive advantage on the market depends on the company's ability to rapidly obtain, interpret and exploit the information. A decisive role is held by the information and communication technology (ICT) without which a business could not operate.

The Influence of Globalization on The Company's Financial Reporting

Over time, the income of the company represented an important indicator for assessing its performance. Its presentation in the financial statements reflects one of the main informational resources given to the external environment. To understand this information it should be submitted in a unique, consistent and concise form. And that was achieved through the development of international financial reporting

standards (IFRS), these being a globalization product. According to Diaconu (2006), *the communication in a unique language provides a greater level of trust and leads to the increase of access opportunities to the capital market*. These considerations made necessary the accounting standardization at international level and identified inside the multinational companies the main beneficiaries of this standardization. In the Figure 2 is presented an analysis model of IFRS implementation in Romania.

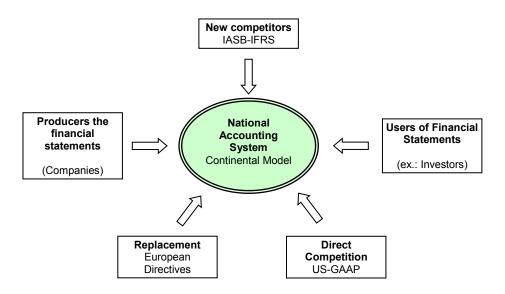


Figure 2: Analysis Model of IFRS Implementation in Romania

The development of IFRS to meet the needs of financial statements' users in the context of globalization led to the emergence of new concepts, closely linked to the company's income: fair value, comprehensive income, maintain of the capital.

THE FAIR VALUE

Introduced by IFRS the fair value concept has emerged as a result of the pressure wielded by investors to have a real image of the company's value. From the investor's point of view, a real image of the company's value can be determined only after an assessment of assets (liabilities) at fair value.

Mitu (2008) summarize some of the definitions of fair value as they appear in the main conceptual frameworks: the Anglo-Saxon (issued by IASB, FASB) compared with French and Romanian (table 1).

The fair value is still a controversial concept, particularly because of its dependence on certain specific conditions - the existence of an active market, listed, liquid for the items assessed on the fair value. In the opinion of Bertoni and De Rosa (2007) whereas the fair value represents a price on an ideal market, it incorporates all information available to participants on a market, so that the information delivered by the fair value provides to the users of the financial statements complete information, relevant and reliable, that will have as result an improvement of decision making.

The use of a forecasting model, in the case of inactive or inefficient markets, calls for the achievement of some approximations concerning the estimation of future cash flows related to an asset. The obvious problem of such approximations is that these strongly subjectivise the notion of fair value - from external and consensual value of reference, it becomes a theoretically estimated value and therefore inevitably influentiable by the company. The recourse to fair value makes the company to appear as a sum of

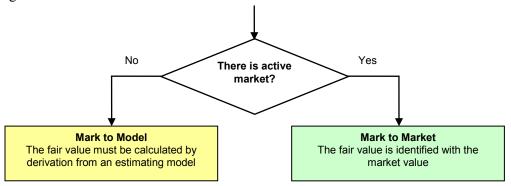
removable, marketable items, disregarding the human resource and not as a complex mix of elements, as an institution that presents also social functions.

Table 1	: Definition	of the Fair	Value
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Conceptual framework	IASB	FASB	French	Romanian
Fair value	Represents the amount to which an active can be dealt or discounted a debt, willingly, between parties, learnedly, within the framework of a transaction where the price is objectively determined	Represents the amount to which an active can be bought or sold in a current transaction (other than the liquidation one) which takes place between parties, according to their will and the amount to which that debt is established within a current transaction (other than a liquidation), between the parties acting willingly	Does not designate a fair value or more fair than another, including the idea of pertinence (fact for which the term <i>"fair value</i> " from English has not been translated into French by <i>"valeur juste</i> ", but through the collocation <i>"juste valeur"</i>)	Represents the amount to which an active can be dealt or discounted a debt, willingly, between parties, learnedly, within the framework of a transaction where the price is objectively determined

The determination of fair value is closely correlated with the existence or the nonexistence of an active market (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Determination of Fair Value



This figure shows the method of determining of the fair value. If there is an active market, the fair value is identified with market value (mark to market). If an active market cannot be identified, the fair value must be determined using an estimating model (mark to model).

Fair value has been criticized also because of its contribution in setting off the global economic crisis. Fair value presents a *pro-cyclical feature* (from French language *caractère procyclique* - which acts in the sense of amplifying the effects of the economic cycle) and helped keeping the stock market spiral downward. Such an opinion arose at the European meeting of professional accountings in December 2008. At this meeting Noyer (2008), Governor of the Bank of France, stated: *the highest sensitivity of the balance sheets to market fluctuations is induced by a fair value accounting and it is not clearly irrelevant to financial stability*. The fair value has a pro-cyclical feature due to the fact that the assessment of certain assets, especially financial ones, is made based on a market value; when market value increases, the assets' value increases and vice versa. Mistral (2008), director of economic research at IFRI - French Institute of International Relations, estimated that *the new accounting standards nurtured, during the period of growth, a sense durability of gains*.

The fair value cannot always rely on markets when these are ineffective. It is considered that a market is efficient if it manages to integrate in a very short time all the relevant and available information. Operators evolving on such market have fast and free access to information that they use in adopting rational decisions. The quality of the assumed decisions depends on overall market and not on the behavior of a single operator only. On such a market, the price of shares cannot be decisively influenced by the behavior of a single operator. The use of fair value as an assessment criterion is justified when total confidence exists in such market. Efficient markets theory that justifies the use of fair value as an assessment criterion is invalidated by the reality of the current economic crisis (Burlaud and Colasse, 2010). Normal competitive conditions specified in the definition of fair value are not always respected. Sometimes we cannot determine the fair value because markets are affected (situation that began in the second half of 2008).

The financial statements related to financial instruments, fair value and risks lack transparency and comparability. The critics' main argument consisted in the fact that financial statements ought to provide a clearer and more appropriate image of the risks involved in using some sophisticated financial instruments, enabling investors and other stakeholders to properly assess the assets, the liabilities and the equities of companies (Huian, 2009). Financial statements were characterized by a high volume of information provided at the expense of comparability and transparency. Information about financial instruments, fair value and financial risks has been impressive as volume. This has obstructed the increase of comparability and transparency desired to be assured by the new international accounting standards. Reacting to the de facto state, European Union asked the IASB to allow the reclassification of financial instruments by companies without being assessed at fair value (ECOFIN Council - Council of Finance Ministers of EU Member States, October 7th, 2008). The result of this action was that some financial institutions have managed to maintain the accounting profits by reducing the value of depreciations.

By reference to the fair value, the income of the company includes virtual items generated by the development of the market. These are added to the operating income obtained from effective transactions. Thus, in the income are included adjustments of the value of assets and liabilities according to the market estimate. The new components added to the income lead to an overall result, which represents a new vision of IFRS on the company's income.

The Model of the Company's Comprehensive Income

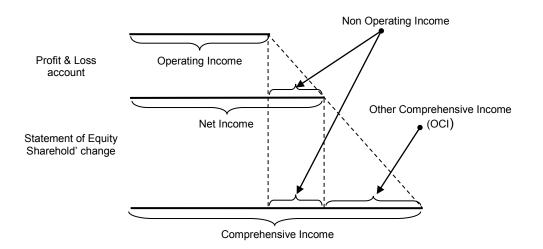
In 2003, IASB and FASB launched a joint project on financial statement presentation, which brought back in debate the income concept. The first phase of the project materialized in the revision of IAS 1 standard, *Presentation of Financial Statements*. New concepts concerning the income have been introduced. In the new vision the income was extended by adding to its classic elements (profit or loss) a new component called *Other comprehensive income* - OCI. This new component includes incomes or expenses that are not part of the income but which are permitted by certain standards of international accounting referential. The concept of comprehensive income arose in the context of the IASB's desire to capture the performance of a company through a single financial statement. This demarche of IASB was also a step towards approaching the FASB standards that had a tradition in assessing the performance through the comprehensive income. In this respect IASB together with FASB form a partnership that aimed identifying the best solution of inclusion in the financial statements of the comprehensive income.

Casta and Ramond (2007) inspiring from US GAAP - SFAS 130 *Reporting of Comprehensive Income* - present a pyramidal approach of the comprehensive income (Figure 4). In the profit and loss account are included the consequences of operational activities, normal operations of the period. In the situation of equity changes there are included the gains and losses from the revaluation of investment property, the

gains and losses from the revaluation of financial instruments available for sale, the gains and losses from the coverage of risk associated to the cash flows and the investments in a foreign entity, etc. (OCI).

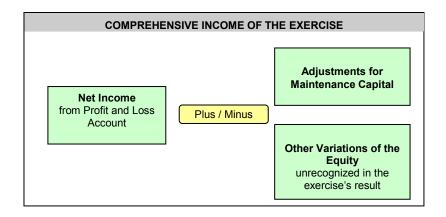
Figure 4: The Comprehensive Income versus the Operating Income

The Income Russian Dolls Pyramid



The comprehensive income concept can be regarded also from the perspective of the concept of capital maintenance. The capital maintenance concept refers to the modality a company defines the capital wanted to be maintained. This approach can be seen in two aspects: the maintenance of financial capital and the maintenance physical capital. Both approaches are presented in the IFRS Conceptual framework. The influence of maintaining the capital on the comprehensive income is represented by the adjustments on the income as described in the model from Figure 5.

Figure 5: The Model of Comprehensive Income Influenced by the Concept of Capital Maintenance



The close relation between the yielded profit of a company and its capital is consistent with the theory supported by the international accounting standards, which stipulates that only entries of additional assets made to maintain the capital may be regarded as profit. According to this approach, the company's profit is perceived as a residual value remaining after deducting all expenses from the obtained income, including those related to the adjustments necessary to maintain the capital. Niculescu (2003) states that

the two methods of capital expression (financial and physical), respectively capital maintenance, condition the measurement of the company's performances.

The Income Vulnerability - Consequence Of Globalization

The assessment at fair value refers to an accounting model that favors measuring the company's performance by the variation of assets and liabilities. The representation of the company as a portfolio of changeable assets and liabilities constitutes the founding principle of the current system of international accounting standardization. The expansion of the use of fair value involves actually the increase of accounting assessments at prices based on models, much more difficult to estimate and with a greater margin of uncertainty. Hence results a greater opacity of the company's incomes.

From an accounting approach, the company's income is given by the difference between incomes and costs engaged to achieve the revenues. From economic perspective, the income is defined as an increase of the company's wealth between two periods. The increase of the company's wealth is reflected by the value creation represents the result of decisions taken by the company's management. In the context of globalization, taking decision becomes a complex process influenced by an abundance of factors external to the company, constituting real challenges for the management. Globalization manifests by the internationalization of capital, the globalization and liberalization of financial markets, the increase of labor mobility, the globalization of markets and intensification of competition. All these globalization manifestations can constitute success factors for a company or conversely, may represent insurmountable obstacles. Generated by causes that can not be controlled by the decisions of managers of the company (by including some potential gains or losses), the income presents a volatile feature because it incorporates the evolution of some parameters on the market, for example the interest rate, exchange rate, stock market, real estate prices, etc. Accounting income volatility introduced by fair value could have repercussions on the budgetary resources of the state.

CONCLUSIONS

Globalization has generated a broad changing process in the economy. In this process of change, adopting new standards for reporting the financial performance of the company brought a series of new concepts and approaches that have significantly influenced the determination of the income. By including in the income some components determined by the application of the assessment at fair value of the company's liabilities and assets, it is more vulnerable in the conditions of a global market. In the context of this paper, we attempted the presentation of some aspects related to the influence of globalization on the company's income.

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Ileana Iulia Istudor is an Associate Professor of Finance at University Valahia from Targoviste. She can be contacted at Faculty of Economic Sciences, Accounting - Finance Department, 35 Lt. Stancu Ion Street, Targoviste - 130105, Dambovita, Romania. Email: iulia_32@yahoo.com.

Florina Mocanu is a Lecturer of Finance at University Valahia from Targoviste. She can be contacted at Faculty of Economic Sciences, Accounting - Finance Department, 35 Lt. Stancu Ion Street, Targoviste - 130105, Dambovita, Romania. Email: florinamocanu78@yahoo.com.

Olabode O. Ayorinde, Obafemi Awolowo, University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

The banking industry is over a century old in Nigeria, the first bank having been established in 1883. The industry has not been stable due mainly to absence of laws in the first instance and later a combination of inadequacy of capital and mismanagement. The mass failure of banks before the 1952 Banking Act was blamed on the absence of laws and Regulatory Agencies. Banking laws emerged in 1952 and then Regulatory Agencies. Several laws had since been promulgated, but the long desired stability is yet to be found in the Nation's banking industry. In 1996, 26 banks got liquidated in one swop. Licenses of 64 banks were revoked in 2007. The latest episode was blamed on the inability of the affected banks to garner twenty five billion naira minimum shareholders fund. This paper traces the history of banking and legislative control of banking capitalization in Nigeria and its effects on the banking industry. It concludes that continuous weakness of banks in the industry is a revelation that heavy capital alone can not engender growth and stability in the banking industry and that a number of other factors must be examined to enhance its growth and stability.

KEY WORDS: Banking Industry, Banking Laws, Shareholders Funds, Banking Capitalization

INTRODUCTION

In July, 2004, the Governor of Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) at a meeting with Chairmen and Managing Directors of all the 89 banks operating in Nigeria at that time, directed all licensed banks in the country to increase their shareholders' funds to N25 billion from N2 billion. Citing the powers conferred on him by the law, the Governor said that it was no longer acceptable for banks to operate in Nigeria relying on depositors' funds. He went further to set a time-limit of 18 months within which all banks must comply with the directive, failing which he would invoke the power conferred on him by the law to revoke the licenses of banks that fail to meet the ultimatum. He directed banks that may not be able to meet the ultimatum to merge with others or close shop.

The directive led to series of negotiations amongst the banks and the Capital Market was inundated with issues of shares by almost all the banks, struggling either to meet the N25 billion requirements or to enhance whatever each of the banks had in order to increase their negotiating power in the consolidating exercise. A year earlier, the Bank had directed all licensed banks to increase their paid up share capital from N1 billion to N2 billion. That directive was met by less than 50% of the 89 banks.

The paid up share capital of banks is the total capital contributed by the shareholders of the banks. It is the registered capital as contained in their Memorandum of Association. The shareholders' funds, unimpaired by losses, encompass the registered capital as well as all reserves and undistributed profits that are accruable to the shareholders of the bank. Hitherto, bank capital requirement has been directed at the registered capital only. At the conclusion of the consolidation exercise, 31st December 2005, 25 banks emerged while the licenses of 14 banks were revoked, and 50 other banks surrendered their licenses, lost their corporate identities and became defunct. So many directors lost their positions and a large number of bank employees were displaced.

This paper critically examines an aspect of the reforms in the banking sector, namely, the increase in the shareholders' funds of banks, the rationale behind the astronomical increase in the shareholders' funds of

licensed banks within a very short period of time, and the consequences of these actions in the banking industry in Nigeria and the economy of the Nation at large. The paper also compares the relevant Nigeria legislation with those of other jurisdictions. It concludes by making suggestions that will prevent such high-handed approach in future reforms of the banking industry.

Evolution Of Banking Industry

The word 'bank' was originally derived from the Italian word "banca" meaning bench or counter. The bank of the Rialto chartered by the Venetian Senate in 1587 is considered to be the first modern bank in the world. Some forms of early bankers are said to be the Goldsmiths when gold was used as money and a means of exchange. The goldsmiths were trusted to have a "strong room" where gold was kept and thus emerged as 'the first banks' where gold could be saved for security reasons. The major need for banks in early civilization was the need for safety. The goldsmiths soon discovered that not all the depositors of the gold demanded for them at the same time. In fact, some of the gold depositors would not demand for their gold for a long time. They then unconsciously developed credit facilities by lending gold to needy persons at a 'price' later known as interest, while depositors were also charged for keeping their gold with the goldsmiths for safe keeping. So, the early bankers earned interest both for safe keeping and lending services. When depositors got to know of the lending activities of the goldsmiths, they demanded for interest on their deposit and in order to encourage gold depositors, the goldsmiths soon evolved the practice of giving interest to depositors rather than collecting money for security services rendered to them. In effect, the early bankers were trusted for "security of gold deposited" with them and not for the quantity of gold owned by the goldsmith (capital).

The strength of the early banker was on how safe the "gold" kept in its custody, and his ability to manage his savings and lending portfolios so as to be able to meet the gold demand of depositors. An assurance that when the depositors demanded for their gold, they would be given within a short notice was the strength of the early banker. The lending activities of the early banker developed to what is today known as the primary duty of a banker, which is the duty of intermediation. A modern bank is expected to source fund from the surplus unit of the economy at a price called "interest paid" and make available to the deficit or needy sector of the economy, also at a price called "interest received". The interest rate charged through the deposit activities of bank customers is usually lower than the interest charged on lending activities, the difference between the interest received and the interest charged being the major profit of the modern bank. Though during much of recorded history the practice of charging interest or 'usury' was extremely controversial, sometimes illegal and even punishable by death in ancient Greece.

Banking Industry In Nigeria

Nigeria is Africa's most populous country with a population of about 150 million people. It has an estimated 3% of the world's known oil reserves and 2.8% of the world's gas reserves (representing Africa's largest gas reserves and the seventh globally) substantial solid mineral deposits and attractive opportunities in the power and manufacturing sectors. The country currently has the fastest growing communication network and abundant agricultural resources. It is therefore imperative that its financial sector is well-positioned to assist in the development of the nation's economy.

Banking was introduced into Nigeria¹ in the later part of 19th century by Elder Dempster Company. It was the first bank in Nigeria, established in 1893 but opened for business in 1894. It was first established and named Bank of British West Africa (BBWA) which name was later changed to Bank of West Africa (BWA) and much later changed to Standard Bank of Nigeria Limited (SBNL) and finally renamed First Bank of Nigeria Plc. Several other banks had since been established with a few surviving reforms after reforms. Before the banking consolidation of 2005, the banking industry had passed through turbulent

times of distress, collapse and license revocation, largely due to inadequate capital, mismanagement, deficiencies in banking laws and lack of professionalism.

The Era of Banking Without Legislation

The early part of banking business in Nigeria was largely not regulated by law. The period between 1883 and 1952, when the 1st banking ordinance was enacted, can better be described as a period of banking lawlessness. Except for the activities of the West African Currency Board (WACB) which has the authority for the issuance, redemption and conversion of the currency circulating within Nigeria, banking business was all-comers affair. Many banks were established between 1893 and 1959 with a few surviving for a while, while some collapsed as soon as they were established.

The activities of these banks were largely uncontrolled beyond the granting of charter by the colonial government. The Banking Ordinance of 1952 introduced the principle of bank licensing, and other specific licensing requirements. However, not until 1959 when the Central Bank of Nigeria was established were some regulations introduced into the banking industry, and partial normalcy felt in the Nigerian financial system.

A few of the banks established between 1929 and 1959 survived. The Industrial Commercial Bank set up in Lagos in 1929 was liquidated a year later. It lent large loans to its Managing Director. The same Managing Director presided over another bank – Mercantile Bank founded in 1931 and was closed down in 1936. The National Bank of Nigeria, African Continental Bank and Agbonmagbe Bank now Wema Bank survived because of Government interest both in their equities and patronage. The former two passed through the valley of distress, "died" and "resurrected" and were later consumed by the consolidation exercise of 2005, while Wema Bank continues to whether the storm by surviving all banking reforms since it was established in 1945. In summary, below is the table, which shows the picture of how banking faired between 1883 and 1952.

S/N	BANK	DATE ESTABLI-SHED	REMARKS	PRESENT STATUS
1	African Daulin - Companyian	1892	Absorbed by BBWA (1 st Bank) in 1894	
1.	African Banking Corporation			Defunct
2.	British Bank of West Africa	1893	Now 1 st Bank	Existing
3.	Bank of Nigeria	1899	Absorbed by BBWA (1 st Bank) in 1911	Defunct
4.	Colonial Bank	1916	Barclays Bank concluded arrangement with it on a new name (Union Bank)	Existing
5.	Industrial Comm. Bank Ltd	1929	Liquidated in 1930	Defunct
6.	Merchantile Bank	1931	Liquidated in 1936	Defunct
7.	National Bank of Nigeria	1933	Distressed but	Defunct
	-		resuscitated and later absorbed by Wema	
			Bank	
8.	Nigerian Farmers & Comm. Bank	1947	Liquidated in 1953	
9.	The Nigerian Penny Bank	Not known	Failed 1946	Defunct
10.	African Continental Bank	1947	Distressed but	Defunct
			Resuscitated and later absorbed by	
			another bank	
11.	British & French Bank	1948	UBA since 1961	Existing

Table 1: Banks Status

Source: Adekanye F.A. The Elements of Banking U.K. Graham Burn, 1983

Facts in the table represent the scenario of banking business before the Paton Commission of Enquiry's report, which led to the first banking ordinance, signed in 1952.

History of Legislative Control of Banks Capital in Nigeria

The 1952 Banking ordinance made far-reaching provisions to abate distress and outright failure in the system. Some of the provisions were:

- 1. Reservation of banking business to only registered companies
- 2. Introduction of minimum paid up share capital of £12,500 for local banks and £100,000 for foreign banks desirous of operating banking business in Nigeria.
- 3. Creation of statutory Reserve Fund
- 4. A ceiling on lending to bank directors was put at N300,000

The second banking ordinance retained the paid up share capital of a banking company with head office in Nigeria at $\pounds 12,500$ but increased that of foreign banks doing banking business in Nigeria from $\pounds 100,000$ to $\pounds 200,000$. The enactment of the 1958 law was followed by the establishment of the Central Bank of Nigeria in 1959.

The 1958 Banking ordinance was amended in 1961 without mention of anything about banks capital. Further amendments introduced by the 1962 Amendment Act however had two effects on banks capital.

- (i) Increment of the minimum paid up share capital of indigenous banks from £12,500 to £250,000.
- (ii) Substituting minimum paid up share capital of foreign banks, which was fixed at £200,000 by the 1958 Act, with the phrase "Assets amounting to" not less than £250,000.

By the 1958 amendment, the banks minimum capital requirements were made uniform except for the change in the nomenclature of foreign banks capital. No new banks were established in Nigeria between 1962 and 1970 and no bank failed during the stated period. It is not clear whether the lull in the establishment of new banks was majorly due to the astronomical increase of 1000% in the mandatory minimum capital from $\pounds12,500$ to $\pounds250,000$ or due to some other factors.

The next in the series of amendment to the Banking ordinance was in 1969. The 1969 Amendment Act came at a time when Nigerian currency has been changed from pounds to Naira. The amendment increased the capital requirements as follows:-

- (i) Indigenous commercial banks from $\pounds 250,000$ to N600,000
- (ii) Foreign commercial banks from £250,000 to N1.5m.
- (iii) Foreign Merchant banks from $\pounds 250,000$ to N2 million.

One pound initially exchanged for two naira, so the percentage increase in capital requirement for local banks was minimal. The amendment had greater on foreign banks than their local counterparts. Though there are no statistics to reveal the effects of this very high increase in the capital requirement on the establishment of foreign banks in Nigeria, the amendment actually slowed down the pace at which foreign banks sought for approval to operate in Nigeria.

The amendments introduced by the 1969 Act lasted for 22 years, after which two new laws were enacted to regulate the industry. These laws repealed the existing banking ordinance and all its amendments. Of relevance to banking capital requirement is the Banks and other Financial Institutions Act which made provisions for banks capital requirement as follow:

(1) The Bank shall, from time to time, determine the minimum paid-up share capital required of each category of banks licensed under this Decree.

(2) Any failure to comply with the provisions of this section of this Decree (Act) within such period as may be determined by the Bank, from time to time, shall be a ground for the revocation of any license issued pursuant to the provisions of this Decree (Act) or any other Act repealed by it.

The prescribed minimum paid up share capital is by this provision to be determined by the CBN and no longer by statute. As a result of this power, The Bank directed increment in the banks minimum paid up share capital at various times as follows:-

1991 Commercial banks N50 million Merchant banks N40 million
1997 The dichotomy in banks was abolished and all banks were required to have a minimum paid up share capital of N500 million
2000 The CBN again directed all banks to increase their minimum paid up share capital to N1 billion.
2003 The minimum paid up share capital was again increased from N1 billion to N2 billion.
2004 The CBN changed the requirement from minimum paid up share capital to "minimum

shareholders fund" and increased the amount to N25 billion.

It was a 2000% increase (one long jump) 10 years after the introduction of legislative reform to the mandatory minimum capital requirement in the banking industry (1959 to 1969). It took a long time for the banking industry to adjust, after which the duo of the Central Bank Act and the Banks and other Financial Institutions Act, were enacted in 1991. The increment in minimum capital requirement between 2003 and 2004 was 100% i.e. N1 billion to N2 billion while that of 2004 and 2005 was 1,250%. The increment within 3 years i.e. 2003 and 2005 was from 1 billion to 25 billion naira amounting to 2,500% increment. The astronomical increase which led to the emergence of the 25 banks had the following immediate effects:

- (a) The capital market was overheated as almost all the banks exploited the avenue to chop up their share capital. The Manufacturing Association of Nigeria had to cry out that the purchasing powers of the Nigerians were being eroded thereby negatively affecting the manufacturers.
- (b) 14 banks that could not meet the deadline have their licenses revoked and their share holders lost their total investments.
- (c) 50 other banks surrendered their licenses having lost their identity by merging with other banks or taken over by the 25 banks that survived the onslaught. One of such banks was the Cooperative Bank Plc established in 1953 with 62 branches nationwide and 2600 staff. The bank merged with four other banks to form Skye Bank Plc.
- (d) Bank depositors suffered a great deal. The Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC) is legally saddled with the responsibility to indemnify depositors who have N50,000 or less in any account. These depositors were not promptly settled and depositors with higher amounts either lost their deposits or had to wait until NDIC had realized the sale of physical assets of those banks or recover debts from the bank's debtors.
- (e) Many of the bank employees, whose career were terminated prematurely, lost their lives and many families were dislocated with a debilitating effect on children and dependant relatives. Some of the affected staff committed suicide and left suicide notes. Though there was no statistics to buttress these points but two of such that left suicide notes before their death were – Olayiwola

(f) Many wives have to engage in untoward activities to feed their children, while a number of men flee in want of school fees of children. The number of dislocations in families, though not statistically established, had significance effects on the lives of the people of Nigeria. Ultimately, some of the children affected will increase the army of criminals on Nigerian streets.

One can not adequately enumerate the negative effects of the sudden jump in the banks minimum capital requirement. It is however a glaring and indisputable fact that the policy had not achieved its desired results.

The CBN Annual Report for 2006 categorized 10 out of the 25 banks as "sound", 12 as "satisfactory" and 3 as "marginal." Worse still, in 2009, when the tenure of the Governor of CBN expired and a new Governor assumed office, within three months of assumption of office, he declared that 10 banks were technically insolvent. He sacked the Boards and the Chief Executive Officers of five of the banks and injected N520 billion in the distressed banks in other to keep them afloat. All these happened three years after the conclusion of the consolidation exercise

In-Built Legal Provisions For Capital Growth

In recognition of the importance of growth of capital in banks, enshrined in the law are various provisions, as stated below, that would enhance best practices to systematically increase the shareholders funds of licensed banks.

- (a) Statutory Reserve Fund (SRF): The law makes it mandatory for licensed banks to transfer a percentage of its profit after tax to a Statutory Reserve Fund by way of saving. The amount to be transferred is made statutorily to depend on the state of affairs of the banks Reserved annually. If the Reserve Fund is less than the paid up share capital, transfer to the Reserve Fund shall be a minimum of 30% of the Net Profits after tax. However, if a bank's Statutory Reserve Fund is equal to or in excess of the paid up share capital, transfer to the Reserve Fund shall be a minimum of 15% of the Net Profit after tax with a provision that no transfer shall be made until all identifiable losses have been made.
- (b) Minimum Capital Ratio (MCR): This ratio is prescribed for each bank by the CBN periodically. It is defined in the law as "Capital funds unimpaired by losses, expressed as a ratio to all or any assets or to all or any liabilities or to both assets and liabilities of the bank in all its offices in and outside Nigeria". When a bank has not met the prescribed ratio it cannot declare dividend. A bank that has not met the ratio is compelled to plough back its profit or to call on its shareholders to increase the share capital of the bank.

A licensed bank, unlike other incorporated companies, can not declare dividend for the benefit of its shareholders unless and until it has met the Minimum Capital Ratio and the Statutory Reserve Fund requirements.

The combination of sections 13, 16 and 17 of the law and the section that empowers the CBN to vary the conditions upon which a bank was licensed constitute an alternative avenue by which the capital or shareholders fund of a bank can be systematically enhanced without causing distortion to the entire system.

Bank Capital Requirements In Other Jurisdictions

This paper now examines the legal requirements for bank capital in other jurisdiction.

Singapore: Singapore government revised the Banking laws to set a minimum financial requirement to meet capital adequacy requirements as suggested by Basel Accord (By the 1988 Basel Accord, banks operating internationally were required capital adequacy ratio of 80%). Domestic banks in Singapore must have a minimum tier of one capital adequacy ratio of 12% and minimum capital funds of \$800 million. 100 domestic banks currently have BIS capital adequacy ratios in excess of 20% and are therefore regarded as very sound and well capitalized. From the above analysis, the following facts emerge about banking capitalization in Singapore which has a population of about 4.5m people.

- (i) Banks are categorized as domestic banks and international banks.
- (ii) 100 domestic banks met capital adequacy requirement and the others were not liquidated.

South Africa: The South Africa Banking Act provides for minimum share capital and unimpaired reserve funds to be R250,000,000 million and R1,000,000. A bank of which the business does not include trading in financial instruments shall have the sum of its primary and secondary capital and its primary and secondary unimpaired reserve funds, not less than R250,000,000. However, the banking institutions and building societies must maintain a minimum fund of R 1,000,000. The law also specifies the minimum capital requirement trading in financial instruments to be an amount not less than R250,000,000 or a prescribed percentage of the sum of amounts calculated by multiplying the average of the amounts shown as assets and liabilities of the bank.

These provisions mean a deregulation of bank capital requirement such that a bank can exist either as a small bank (R1,000,000), a bank which business does not include trading in financial instruments (R250,000,000) and a bank which businesses include trading in financial instruments (R250,000,000). The Governor of the country's Reserve Bank still derives his authority from the Minister of Finance.

Costa Rica: Banking business in Costa Rica is regulated by a number of laws which include Organic law of National Banking system Act No. 1644; Law for the regulation of the Financial System Renewal Act No. 7107 and the Organic law of Costa Rican Central Bank Act No. 7558. The Central Bank of Costa Rica formulates banking policies while the General Supervisory Agency of Finance (SUGEF) has the responsibility to ensure compliance. The capital requirement for banking license in coaster Rica is deregulated. Commercial banks require a minimum of 100 million colonies, a minimum of 5 million colonies would secure a license for Cooperatives and a minimum of 20 million colonies is required of Savings and Loans.

France: The minimum capital of credit institution in France is governed by Regulation 92 - 14 of December 1992. The Regulation provides for 4 categories of credit institutions and the appropriate maximum capital in a deregulated form as follows:-

5 million euros for banks, mutual or cooperative banks, savings and provident institutions, municipal credit banks other than those referred to under (b) and (c) below and specialized financial institutions.

 a) 2.2 million euros for municipal credit banks which undertake under the terms of their articles of association not to collect funds from the public and to restrict their lending to the granting of loans secured by tangible collateral and credits to individuals, and financial companies other than those referred to under (c) below;

- b) million euros for those municipal credit banks which confine their activity to lending against physical collateral, financial companies whose authorization is confined to the provision of guarantees and those securities houses whose banking activity is confined to leveraged spot foreign-exchange transactions accompanied by a credit operation.
- c) 1 million euros for electronic money institutions, the total amount of whose financial liabilities relate to outstanding electronic money does not exceed 5 million euros under normal circumstances and 6 million euros under any circumstances. The value of electronic money units stored on a device issued by such institutions may not exceed 150 euros at any time.

United States of America: Banks are regulated by state laws in America, and so the minimum paid share capital of banks is highly deregulated. It differs from state to state and also depends on the size and operations of each bank. For example in the State of Illinois, the law stipulates the following as the "capital minimum" for the stated type of banks.

(a) \$5,000,000 for such a bank that is located in Chicago's central business district; or such greater minimum as is determined appropriate by the Commissioner depending on the bank's size and the scope of its operations;

(b) \$3,000,000 for such a bank that is located in the Chicago metropolitan area, other than those located in Chicago's central business district; or such greater minimum as is determined appropriate by the Commissioner depending on the bank's size, the scope of its operations and its geographical location within this area;

(c) \$2,500,000 for such a bank that is located outside of the Chicago metropolitan area; or such greater minimum as is determined appropriate by the Commissioner depending on the bank's size, the scope of its operations and its geographical location; and

(d) a lesser amount of capital than specified above if the Commissioner determines, in circumstances involving a merger resulting in a state bank pursuant to Section 22 or Section 30 of the Act, [205 ILCS 5/22 or 5/30 (1998)] a conversion resulting in a state bank pursuant to Section 26 or Section 30 of the Act.

Indonesia: The minimum capital requirement of banks in Indonesia is Rp 80 billion. The Bank of Indonesia announced towards the end of 2007 that two commercial banks have not met the minimum requirement a week ahead of the Dec. 31, 2007 deadline. The Chief of the Central Bank of Indonesia threatens that

"If they are unable to meet the Rp80 billion minimum capital requirement on December 31, Bank Indonesia will write to them on January 2 declaring them banks with limited activities (BKT)", he said. If in the next two years they were still unable to meet the requirement as stated in the Indonesian Banking Architecture (API), they would have their status downgraded to smallholder credit banks (BPR).

There was no threat of revocation of license. Rather banks that could not meet the ultimatum set would be downgraded to small holder credit banks, after a two year extension. The Central Bank of Indonesia mapped out progressive development plan for banks to enhance their capital as stated below:

a.	Increase the minimum core capital requirement of conventional and	
	sharia banks (including BPD) to Rp 80 billion	2007
b.	Increase the minimum core capital requirement of conventional and	
	sharia banks (including BPD) to Rp 100 billion	2010

c. Maintain minimum paid up capital requirement of Rp 3 trillion for

	establishment of a conventional bank until 1 January, 2011	2004-2010
d.	Set the minimum paid up capital requirement at Rp 1 trillion for	
	establishment of sharia banks	2005
e.	Set the capital requirement at Rp 500 billion for sharia banks that are	
	a spin off of a Sharia Business Unit	2006
f.	Shorten the deadline for Rural Bank compliance with the minimum	
	paid up capital requirement from 2010 to 2008	2008

Bangladesh: The Banking regulation and Policy Department of Bangladesh by a circular directed Chief Executive of all scheduled banks to ensure that their minimum paid up capital and Statutory Reserve Fund is at the minimum ceiling of "taka 200.00 crore". The circular advised all banks to achieve 50% compliance by June 2008 and full compliance by June 2009, failing which defaulting banks will not be allowed to pay or declare cash dividend. Yet there was no threat of license revocation.

Pakistan: The state bank of Pakistan (central bank) by a circular, quoting the relevant laws directed all licensed banks to ensure that their aggregate capital and unencumbered general reserves is of minimum value of Rs 500 million. The directive, which must be complied with not later than 31st December, 1998 also contains provision for extension of time for compliance. The circular stated that "the State Bank shall, on request from a banking company (that could not meet the minimum requirement at the close of the ultimatum) consider grant of extension in time for meeting the required capital adequacy." There was no record of any bank loosing license in Pakistan.

Malaysia: Minimum capital funds of licensed banks shall be determined by the Minister on the recommendation of the Central Bank. Malaysia Banking Consolidation was in two phases. The first phase of banking consolidation was initiated by government when it imposed RM2 billion as minimum capital requirement for banks. The second phase of banking consolidation that took place in year 2000 involved banks and their subsidiaries. Each Anchor Bank has at least a commercial bank, a finance company and a Merchant Bank. After the second phase of Banking Consolidation, 10 anchor banks emerged as against 54 domestic banking institutions. The anchor banks operate as holding companies to the smaller banks with minimal integration, without staff layouts and casualties.

CONCLUSION

The July 6, 2004 directive of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) that all banks should increase the minimum shareholders' fund of banks from N2 billion to N25 billion might have been well intentioned, but its implementation was defective in a number of ways, which include the following:

1. The directive, having not been based on any scientific analysis, could have been implemented in phases, to prevent the collapse of 64 banks in one day, the highest in the history of banks distress in Nigeria. A long jump of 2,500% increment cannot be justified given the purchasing power of Nigerians.

2. The refusal of the Bank to allow extension of time within which banks that could not meet the deadline, could comply with the directive made the implementation of the exercise to be concluded in hurry.

3. A policy later announced by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) that a Microfinance bank could operate a one branch bank with a minimum of N30 million shareholders fund and more branches within a state in Nigeria with a minimum of N1 billion shareholders fund would have saved a lot of investment and jobs, if the banks that could not meet the N25 billion mark had been downgraded to Microfinance banks as was the case in Indonesia.

4. The eventual revocation and withdrawal of licenses of 64 banks were made in error without proper sensitization analysis to prevent the serious dislocation that followed the decision.

5. Three years after the destructive effect of the consolidation exercise, the CBN announced a package of deregulation of banking capital requirement, which allows regional banks to maintain lower capitals. Pleas for this option were stoutly rejected in 2005 by the CBN preferring revocation of banking licenses and its consequences.

Given the unsatisfactory consequences of the directive of CBN that banks should increase their shareholders fund from N2 billion to N25 billion within 18 months, this paper will suggest a review of the laws regulating the Central Bank of Nigeria as well as its supervisory roles on the licensed banks. Many Advance Countries permit their central banks to operate without recourse to their Finance Ministers, it appears that Nigeria is not ripe for such freedom. It is therefore imperative to amend S.9 of Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act such that the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) can not increase the authorized share capital without reference to the Minister of Finance or the National Assembly. It is equally desirable that the Banking law adopts the position of Senate by creating, in the law, categories of banks with varying degrees of minimum paid up capital requirement. This will be in conformity with what is obtainable in civilized nations.

In every developing economy, every sector of the economy has different strata of operations. While Mega banks are proper and required to drive big industries and the oil and gas sector, smaller banks would be more at home to take care of cottage industries. Also important for the development of the industry, is the need for professionalism. This is required to transform the industry from the savings and loans services to more innovative financial services. A good number of bank employees including Managing Directors of banks, the Governor and Directors of the CBN are not professionally qualified. The banking profession is not exactly the same as Economics or Accounting. It is very disturbing that a whole lot of bank employees do not know the meaning of negotiable instrument which is the commonest instrument used in banking transaction. Training and professionalism in the industry should therefore be codified in the law, so as to prevent such policy summersault of the like of July, 2004.

Finally, the process for enhancement of bank capital should be statutorily provided for, such that the licensed banks would know the statutory provisions for increment and be able to plan towards it. It is hereby proposed that S.13 of the law should be made a specific quantifiable ratio. The Amendment proposed to Section 13 would remove the misuse of the discretionary power of the CBN in determining what the ratio of shareholders fund should be to a bank's Assets and liabilities at any point in time. When the exact minimum capital ratio is a statutory provision, a bank would not be able to declare any dividend or bonus shares if the ratio is not met. This is preferred to the arbitrary provision currently contained in S.9 which is capable of being abused.

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BIOGRAPHY

Ayorinde O. Olabode teaches Banking Law and Law of Business Association at the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Prior to his legal studies and lecturing assignment, he had worked on various desks at the Cooperative Bank Plc for ten years. He is an Associate of the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria (ACIB) and about defending his Ph.D thesis in Banking Law. He can be contacted at the Department of Business Law, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. E-mail: ayorinde60@yahoo.com

RAPE CULTURE: PERFORMANCE AND PROFITS

Florina Liliana Stan, University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine, Bucharest

ABSTRACT

The many advantages offered to products grower and consumer, have made the culture of rape processing increasingly sought. Therefore, the trend is clear-producing companies to create hybrids tolerant to diseases, tolerance to stress in a variety of climates and soils. All this under a combination of qualitative and quantitative dimensioning of yield and oil content. The rape culture, besides providing an alternative energy source of fuel, biodiesel fuel is an environmentally friendly alternative to diesel much cleaner, also offers the advantage that can be produced from renewable sources, is also a source of profits today. This paper focuses on increasing the financial benefits, through a more efficient use of resources and equitable provision of non-renewable and alternative energy sources, to support sustainable development prerequisites.

JEL: Q32, Q42, Q55, Q57.

KEYWORDS: rape culture, hybrids, alternative energy sources, biofuel profits.

INTRODUCTION

Assuming that the European Union requires that, by 2020, 20% of fuel used must be by ecological nature, we can see the upward trend of recovery of agricultural potential by encouraging alternative crops, in order to provide an alternative fuel source. Equally reduce environmental pollution and conserve non-renewable energy resources, is a goal of sustainable development.

Besides providing an alternative fuel energy source, which will generate benefits for the future, rapeseed it is also a source of profits in present time. From this perspective, rape is a basic element in crop rotation next to sugar beets, potatoes and grains, with positive effects on key economic balance of agricultural farm.

Furthermore, it is clear that the producing companies trend is to sell seed hybrid, outrunning the rapeseed varieties, from the perspective of a high potential for advancement in productive performance. Thus, the profit per hectare increased significantly with the transition from variety to hybrid.

That is why, rapeseed crop protection has become a sine qua non condition, of achieving the desired level of profit, the companies producing pesticides opened the market with integrated solutions to meet the farmers neccesities with latest technology.

Also, in order to increase profitability of production of rape cultures, it should be chosen cultivars adapted to specific climatic conditions of each farm. Equally, the companies must design and redesign strategies in order to support rape surfaces dimensioning by ecological and financial point of view.

TRENDS IN AGRICULTURE IN THE NEW ERA

Given the spectacular growth of the areas planted with rape, clearly illustrated in Figure 1., we forecast an upward trend for the current year.

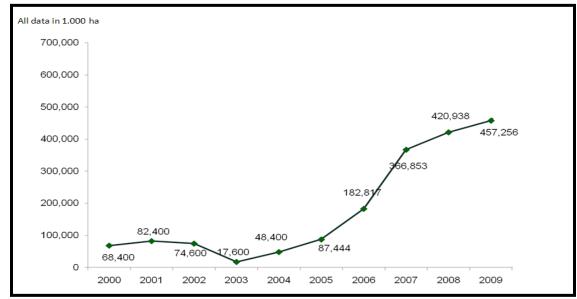


Figure 1. Surface Evolution of rape culture 2000-2009

Source: 2009 Kleffmann

From this perspective, we should mention that, most companies producing hybrid seed are organizing harvesting with public, in real time ,within which they compare the productivity per hectare of hybrid versus rape variety, in terms of accessing the same type of technology. Thus, higher productivity of hybrids lead to obvious option to increase farmers' acreage hybrids.

Thus, multinational companies test their range of hybrids, all over the country to identify the type of hybrid that will best adapt to the reference area. Therefore, sowing rape in an area that has not grown in recent years, will be gradually done after several years of cultivation on smaller surfaces in order to diminish risk factors.

Also, a growth factor of the planted surfaces with rapeseed is the existence of a secure market for the sale of production achieved. From this point of view, the integrated companies hold the winning ace by provide complete technological packages, having as componenta: the financial capital for the prior technological foundation rapeseed crop works, diesel fuel, chemical fertilizer, certificated pesticides and the purchase of the final output in consistence with the evolution of agricultural prices in the exchange market, in accordance with the provisions of a signed contract.

From this point of view, one important factor is the selection of strategic partners, to ensure confidence in the payment term by risk-free conditions. Moreover, farmers can associate and can negotiate the price for harvest. Thus, rapeseed production for profit can significantly improve per farmer.

On the growth of cultivated areas with rape, illustrated in Figure 1. integrated companies stand and support farmers: providing free agricultural corrections, informative, progressive and creative consultance services, in solving problems related to crop productivity and achieving the expected profit in the agricultural farm.

RAPE CULTURE- THE FUTURE CULTURE

The many advantages offered by the grower and consumer products of processing, have made the culture of rape a culture increasingly sought. The profitability lies in the possibility of using lower technology production achieving a minimum of 1200-1500 kg / ha. Moreover, the tendency of big companies is to comercialize and promote hybrid in the detriment of varieties, known for the production performance of these hybrids.

Using hybrids has significant benefits, compared with rapeseed varieties, like springing fast and vigorous growth, good branching capacity and the need for a much lower seeding rules. Moreover, hybrids present a much higher tolerance to diseases, a comparatively high resistance to cold and shaking, as well as greater flexibility in sowing time.

It is therefore manifesting a clear tendency for the producing companies to create hybrids tolerant to diseases, tolerance to stress in a variety of climates and soils. All this under a combination of qualitative and quantitative dimensioning of yield and oil content.

In favor of maintaining the current areas occupied by this culture, we reveal the argument that rape is one of the most important oil crops occupying third place in the world after soybean and palm. Also, canola oil is an excellent cooking oil, thanks to performance improvement process through which plants were obtained varieties and hybrids lately, so free of erucic acid and glucozinolati. Other arguments for maintaining the culture of rape in the farm rotation are:

- very good prior to all cultures (except those who have diseases and pests common) but especially for winter crops;
- > safe market product sales worldwide as demand is greater than supply;
- is less demanding compared to the climatic conditions and accidents in climate (freeze) the costs are almost fully recovered, less the cost of seed;
- > species with high power compensation after accidents or technological climate;
- ➢ fertilizers build better managed;
- > rape culture technology is not complicated and allows for complete mechanization;
- existing varieties and hybrids on the market with high potential production (4000-5000 kg / ha) with resistance to frost, disease, shaking etc.
- build good rainfall over the winter and matures before the installation of summer drought;
- ➤ a good plant for the honey production.

However, the rape culture is not protected from risk. From this point of view, sizing rape surface, occurs concurrently with the design of new approaches to problems of plant protection, given that we are witnessing a significant increase in the reserve of diseases and pests, present with high attack frequencies and intensities. Also, it is necessary, in order to protect this type of culture in terms of obtaining the expected profit, knowledge expression characteristics and evolution of the pest-specific.

Continuing on the same line, to point out that non-implementation of an appropriate time in terms of seed treatment, browsing or using the F2 semnces and inadequate seedbed preparation can lead to serious risks, materialized even into the total loss of production. Furthermore, we recommend promoting an integrated system in terms of weed control. But it is also necessary to customize strategies and systems rapeseed crop protection, depending on the characteristics of each sole crops.

BIOFUEL – ECOLOGIC ALTERNATIVES TO DIESEL FUEL

Biodiesel fuels stands for an ecological alternative to diesel fuel, being much cleaner, and also offers the advantage that can be produced from renewable sources, the main method being used being from vegetable oils. The source of vegetable oil in rapeseed oil normally is a species with a high oil content and adapts well to cold climele.

Biodiesel is a synthetic liquid biofuel, obtained from natural fats like vegetable oils or animal fats, new or used industrial processes of esterification and transesterification. Can be used in total or partial substitution of petro-diesel.



The main advantages of biodiesel:

- It is cheaper than petroleum diesel;
- It is biodegradable;
- > The use of local resources (crops rapeseed, sunflower, etc.);
- Reduce the effect of global warming and environmental pollution because it does not contain sulfur, its emissions of hydrocarbon being 50% lower than the diesel, and carbon dioxide emissions are neutral;
- > It is not readily flammable, therefore less dangerous to store and transport;
- European alignment with the possibility of accessing funds and grants;
- The development of rural areas by attracting investors in areas with agricultural potential for rape.

Harnessing the potential of agriculture needs encouraging alternative crops, in order to provide a fuel alternative energy sources. European Union required that, by 2020, 20% of fuelmust by bio. We must underline that biodiesel can be blended with diesel derived from petroleum refining in different quantities. The speciality market releals the abbreviations used according to the percentage of biodiesel in the blend: B100 when using 100% biodiesel, or notations such as B5, B15, B30 where the number indicates the percentage of biodiesel in the blend.

In conclusion, we focus on scaling growth, considering a more efficient use of resources and equitable provision of non-renewable and alternative energy sources, to support sustainable development prerequisites.

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ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF THE "SUSU" SCHEME IN GHANA: THE VERDICT OF CONTRIBUTORS

Michael Adusei, Ghana Baptist University College Sarpong Appiah, Christian Service University College

ABSTRACT

The study explores the impact of the "susu" scheme (an informal banking mechanism for daily or weekly collection of deposits prevalent on the West African markets) on small businesses in Ghana. Evidence gathered from the analysis of a randomly-drawn sample size of 1,600 small business owner contributors indicates that their average daily/weekly contribution to the scheme is three Ghana cedis and that majority of them have seen its positive impact on their businesses. Binomial logistic regression analysis results support the contention that it is possible for one to predict the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on the business of its contributor by the number of years of contribution, the number of years in business, marital status, the number of dependants, gender and the amount contributed daily or weekly.

JEL: G20, G21, G23

KEYWORDS: "Susu", Microfinance; Small business; Impact, Contributors, Ghana

INTRODUCTION

Access to finance has been one of the priorities on the agenda of policy makers worldwide. This is because without credit availability economic growth is stifled, culminating in the escalation of poverty with dire social consequences for an economy. Research using firm-level surveys has shown that improvements in the functioning of the formal financial sector abate financing constraints more for small firms (Beck, Demirgu[°]c,-Kunt, Laeven, and Maksimovic, 2006). Research also indicates that access to finance promotes more start-ups (Klapper, Laeven and Rajan, 2006). Improved access to the financial system also enables existing firms to attain a larger equilibrium size by enabling them to take advantage of growth and investment opportunities (Beck, Demirgu[°]c,-Kunt, Laeven, and Maksimovic, 2006).

Making credit available to small business entrepreneurs who are mostly poor for productive economic activities requires the role of financial institutions with commercial banks playing the pivotal role. However, over the years, commercial banks have shown a great deal of reluctance to serve the lower end of the economic spectrum-micro and small enterprises (Westley and Shaffer, 1999). It has long been argued that commercial banks have not provided for the credit needs of relatively poor people who cannot provide loan guarantees but who have feasible and promising investment ideas that can result in profitable ventures (Hollis and Sweetman, 1998).

The cumbersome features of formal financial institutions in the delivery of credit have led to the development and growth of a considerable number of microfinance institutions (MFIs). Microfinance is seen as the key innovation of the last 25 years in terms of means of reaching out to the poor and the vulnerable (Montgomery and Weis, 2006). The microfinance concept has emerged as a development tool aimed at providing credit and financial services to the productive poor who lack access to formal financial intermediation and are engaged in small and micro enterprises (Kyereboah-Coleman, 2007).

One of the innovations in microfinance aimed at helping the poor and the financially excluded to cultivate the habit of saving and to have access to uncollateralized loans at affordable rates is the 'susu' scheme. "Susu" is seen as a major component of finance for urban poor entrepreneurs in Ghana, particularly

apprentices and artisans (Alabi, Alabi and Ahiawodzi, 2007). According to the World Bank (1994) "susu" is believed to be the poor and financially excluded's sole source of getting established for livelihood. Owing to this significant role of the scheme now almost all rural banks, savings and loans companies and commercial banks in Ghana have created "susu" department often called microfinance department devoted to daily collection of small deposits from people who otherwise would not have access to the banks. This has made the "susu" scheme a popular tool for savings mobilization and financial management in Ghana.

However, to the best knowledge of the authors, the question of whether or not in the opinion of its contributors, the scheme is making any positive impact on their businesses has not been adequately addressed in the microfinance literature. The only report available on this topic is one published by (Alabi, Alabi and Ahiawodzi, 2007) who studied the impact of the "susu" scheme on micro and small - scale enterprises using 101 organized and unorganized micro and small businesses. They used the number of employees employed and the turnover before and after the "susu" scheme as barometers to measure the impact of the scheme. Although their work provides some insights into the impact of the scheme from the perspective of its beneficiaries should offer better understanding of how the scheme is promoting small businesses in Ghana. The current study, therefore, seeks to measure the impact of the "susu" scheme from the perspective of its contributors. The study seeks to find evidence to answer three main questions: (1) what is the average daily or weekly contribution of a "susu" contributor in Ghana? (2) Has the "susu" scheme on the businesses of its contributors?

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature on the "susu" scheme and sets up hypotheses to be tested. Data collection, research methodology and empirical model are described in Section 3. Section 4 provides analysis and interpretations of the empirical findings and Section 5 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

"Susu" as one of the microfinance schemes in Ghana is thought to have originated from Nigeria and spread to Ghana in the early twentieth century (Asiama and Osei, 2007). It is an informal financial identification for daily or weekly collection of deposits which is prevalent on the West African markets (Alabi, Alabi and Ahiawodzi, 2007). In Ghana, for example, it is now common to find that large numbers of individual "susu" collectors have established offices (kiosks) at various points in cities and towns where their clients can actually walk in to make deposits and engage in other transactions (Aryeetey, 2008). "Susu" can be described as a form of banking because it is a system of trading in money which involves regular and periodic collection of fixed amount of deposits that are made available to the owners after a specified period of time or when required or to borrowers within the scheme at a fee. Interest on deposits is almost non-existent (Aryeetey, 2008). Borrowing under the "susu" scheme does not require collateral; it relies on a guarantee system to reduce risks associated with 'clean lending' (Alabi, Alabi and Ahiawodzi, 2007). Lending is for short periods (Aryeetey, 2008). The essence of the "susu" scheme is to help contributors (who are mostly small business owners) to protect their daily earnings from competing claims and ensure working capital to restock supplies at the end of the month.

To provide customized service, most "susu" collectors begin mobilizing daily deposits around noon each day which provides the clients with an opportunity to transact business and earn some income before saving. This strategy offers convenience for the rural and urban poor women whose income is too low to deposit large amounts of money with the formal banking institutions (World Bank Group, 1999).

In terms of collection of daily or weekly deposits, the scheme uses two main methods: independent/private (non-salaried) collectors and salaried/commissioned staff. Under the independent (non-salaried) collector's method, the collector undertakes daily door-to-door collection of agreed fixed amount from clients for a cycle, usually one month. In each cycle the collector's reward for rendering this service is a day's deposit of each client. For example, if in each day a client contributes one Ghana cedi then at the end of the contribution cycle the collector will subtract one Ghana cedi from the contributor's total deposit as service fee. The major risk inherent in dealing with private collectors is possibility of the collectors absconding with contributions. However, evidence suggests that the private collectors have been found to be more aggressive in reaching out to more potential savers since their profit is contingent on the number and per capita daily contribution of their clients. Under the salaried/commissioned staff deposit collection, the collecting agents are full-time employees of the MFI who undertake the door-to-door collection for and on behalf of the MFI for basic salary.

This is the practice at most banks (CHORD, 2000).Basu, Blavy and Yulek (2004) identify four different types of "susu" institutions that have influenced the operations of MFIs in Ghana. These are "susu" collectors; "susu" associations; "susu clubs and "susu" companies. The "susu" collectors offer a saving vehicle by collecting daily amounts voluntarily saved by their clients which they return at the end of the month, minus one day's amount as a commission. The "susu" associations are either (i) rotating (ROSCAs), collecting savings from their members and allocating them to each member in turn, or (ii) accumulating associations, which allow regular contributions to be accumulated to cover the lump sum costs of such special future events as funerals. The "susu" clubs which combine the modus operandi of "susu" collectors and "susu" associations operated by a single agent in which members commit to save a pre-defined amount over the medium-term (50 to 100-week cycles) and pay commissions on each payment and fees when they are advanced the targeted amount before the end of the cycle. The "susu" companies are more recent (late 1980s) and registered. In addition to savings collected using traditional "susu" collectors, "susu" companies provide loans after a minimum saving period.

The 'susu' scheme cuts across a wide range of socio-economic or occupational groups such as farmers, petty traders, artisans, food processors and salaried workers. For many petty traders, market women, apprentices and artisans, "susu" is alleged to be their trusted and reliable source of starting, sustaining and growing their businesses (Alabi, Alabi and Ahiawodzi, 2007). These groups are generally within the low income bracket and many of them are women (CHORD, 2000).

Johnston and Morduch (2008) find that low-income households often apply loans to household needs, including school fees, medical treatment, daily consumption needs, and social and holiday expenses. Female entrepreneurs tend to allocate a greater share of profits for family and child welfare, and that there is a strong relationship between female entrepreneurial activity and children's welfare (Kessey, 2005). Women have a predisposition to use profits to meet family needs rather than to reinvest (Downing, 1990; Clark, 1991). "Women have been shown to spend more of their income on their households; therefore, by helping women increase their incomes, you are improving the welfare of the whole family" (Cheston and Kuhn, 2002 p.9). This suggests that personal factors of "susu" contributors should correlate with the impact of "susu" interventions. The paper, therefore, includes the number of dependants, marital status, and gender of the contributor as predictors of the possible impact of the "susu' scheme on contributor's business. This leads to the following hypotheses:

 $H_{l:}$ Unmarried "susu" contributors should experience the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on their businesses

 $H_{2:}$ The number of dependents of "susu" contributor should be negatively related to the positive impact of "susu" on business

 $H_{3:}$ Male "susu" contributors should experience the positive impact of "susu" on their businesses

The number of years a business has been in existence should influence the possible positive impact of the "susu" scheme because stage models of the firm theorists (Dodge and Robbins, 1992) argue that older firms will adopt a more professional management style, and more sophisticated control systems. It is, therefore, expected that contributors with more experience in business should be efficient and effective in the management of the proceeds from the "susu" scheme; hence, possible positive impact. This variable has also been used as a proxy for the time the firm may have known its customers and the firm's quality and reputation (Petersen and Rajan, 1997). It is expected that there will be a positive relationship between the age (AGE) of the contributor's business and the "susu" scheme. This leads us to this hypothesis:

 H_4 . The number of years in business is positively associated with the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on business

"Susu" collectors help contributors to protect their daily earnings from competing claims and ensure working capital to restock supplies at the end of the month. It is, therefore, reasonable to propose that the number of years of contribution, amount contributed and the ability to contribute everyday or every week should correlate with the positive impact of the "susu" on the contributor's business. This leads to the following hypotheses:

 $H_{5:}$ The number of years of contribution should be positively correlated with the positive impact of "susu" on business

 $H_{6:}$ Amount contributed should be positively related to the positive impact of "susu" on business $H_{7:}$ Ability to contribute everyday or every week should be positively related to the positive impact of "susu" on business

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Data for the study were collected through a cross-sectional "susu" survey undertaken by the authors using questionnaire as the data collection instrument. The use of sample survey strategy offers some advantages: representativeness of the findings; ease of data standardization, aggregation and synthesis; and ability to cope with non-attribution problem (Montgomery et al., 1996). A sample size of 1,600 contributors was used in the study. This sample was chosen based on the ability to reach the "susu" contributors. The sampling procedure was simple random sampling in which "susu" contributors at various commercial centres in Ghana were interviewed at random. Market centers are places with a large density of enterprises, especially those operated by women (World Bank Group, 1999). The questionnaire was administered to respondents after they had indicated that they were "susu" contributors. The 'susu' scheme cuts across a wide range of socio-economic or occupational groups such as farmers, petty traders, artisans, food processors (CHORD, 2000). Thus, respondents in the survey were petty traders, artisans, food processors, retailers, and dealers.

Johnson (1998) describes impact assessment in microfinance as focusing on the impact of services on users. Thus, in order to analyze the dichotomous variable of whether or not a "susu" contributor is likely to experience the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on his or her business, an appropriate econometric tool is a binomial logit model (Kim and Yoon, 2004). The following binomial logit model is, therefore, constructed to relate the probability of "susu" positive impact on business to explanatory factors: number of years of contribution (CONTYRS); number of years in business (YRSINBUS); marital status (MSTATUS); number of dependants(NDEPENDANT); amount contributed daily or weekly(AMTCONT); and gender (GENDER). Summarily, the model is expressed as:

$$\Pi_{\rm in} = F(\mathbf{X}'_{\rm in}\beta),\tag{1}$$

Where Π_{jn} is the probability that *n*th "susu" contributor will experience positive impact of the "susu" scheme on his or her business, X'_{jn} is a vector of explanatory variables, β is a vector of coefficients to be estimated, *F* represents the cumulative logistic distribution function. Expanding equation (1), the logistic regression equation becomes:

 $\Pi \text{ impact} = \alpha_{0+} \beta_1 \text{CONTYRS} + \beta_2 \text{YRSINBUS} + \beta_3 \text{MSTATUS} +$

$$\beta_4$$
NDEPENDANTS+ β_5 AMTCONT+ β_6 ABILITYCONT+ β_7 GENDER + μ (2)

Where

 Π impact= probability of a "susu" contributor experiencing its positive impact on business

Bk= are unknown parameters to be estimated

 μ = the stochastic error term

Description of the variables used in the study has been presented in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Description of Variables

Variable	descripcion
Dummy for impact (dependent	= 1: Contributors with positive impact on
variable)	
business;	
=0: Otherwise	
Dummy for ability to contribute	
everyday (ABILITYCON) =1:	
Ability to contribute everyday;	
=0: Otherwise	
Dummy for GENDER (GENDER)	=1: Male =0: female
Dummy for marital status	= 1: Married; =0: Otherwise
(MSTATUS)	
Number of dependants	=Continuous variable
(NDEPENDANTS)	
Years in business	= Continuous variable
(YRSINBUS)	
Number of years of contribution	
(CONTYRS) = Continuous	
variable	
Amount of contribution	= Continuous variable
(AMTCONT)	

This table provides a description of the variables used in the study and how they were measured.

The impact of the "susu' scheme is measured from the perspective of the respondents. The respondents are asked to indicate whether or not in their opinion the scheme has made any positive impact on their businesses. Thus, positive impact or no positive impact is the predicted variable. Where a respondent indicates that the scheme has positively impacted his or her business, the value of "1" is assigned; otherwise "0" is assigned. The independent variables are years of contribution (YRSCONT); years in business (YRSINBUS); marital status (MSTATUS); number of dependents (NDEPENDANTS); and amount contributed (AMTCONT) and gender of respondents (GENDER). The variables MSTATUS, ABILITYCONT and GENDER are dummy variables. If a respondent is married "1" is assigned; otherwise "0" is assigned. If a respondent is able to contribute daily or weekly "1" is given; otherwise "0" is given. If a respondent is a male the value "1" is assigned; otherwise "0" is given.

The descriptive statistics of categorical and continuous data and the results of the logistic analysis have been presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of Categorical Data

		Frequency
Gender of Respondent	Male	683
1	Female	917
Marital status	Single	702
	Married	898
Ability to contribute	NO	653
everyday/weekly	Yes	947

This table provides the descriptive statistics of the categorical data

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Data

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Number of Years of contribution	3 years	1.442
Number of years in business	7 years	6.231
Number of dependants	2 dependants	2.046
Amount contributed	GH¢3	1.508

This table provides the descriptive statistics of the continuous data.

Table 4: Logistic Regression Analysis of Determinants of Positive Impact of "Susu" Scheme on Small Businesses in Ghana

Variable	В	S.E	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
CONTYRS	0.446	.114	15.323	1	.000	1.562
YRSINBUS	-0.068	.022	9.598	1	.002	.934
MSTATUS(1)	0.872	.233	13.991	1	.000	2.392
NDEPENDANTS	0.196	.094	4.295	1	.038	1.216
GENDER(1)	0.836	.243	11.852	1	.001	2.308
AMTCONT	0.512	.101	25.599	1	.000	1.669

This table shows the results of the logistic regression analysis performed. The Significance level is 5% The number of observations is 1,600 Notes: CONTYRS, number of years of contribution; YRSINBUS, number of years in business; MSTATUS (1), marital status of "susu" contributor (1=married); NDEPENDANTS, number of dependants of contributor; GENDER (1), gender of "susu" contributor (1=men); AMTCONT, amount contributed daily or weekly.

Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics of the categorical data. It shows that of the 1,600 respondents, 683 and 917 were male and female respectively; 898 were married whilst 702 were single; 947 were able to contribute to the scheme every day or every week whilst 653 were unable to. Table 3 also shows the descriptive statistics of the continuous data. The average number of years of contribution was 3 years; the number of years in business was 7 years; average number of dependants was 2 and the average amount of contribution was GH¢3.

Out of the 1,600 "susu" contributors who participated in the study, 1,539 representing 96.2% indicated that they had seen some positive impact of the "susu" scheme on their businesses. Only 61 representing 3.8% of the sample indicated that they had not seen any positive impact of the scheme on their businesses. This finding is significant in the sense that it underscores the importance of the "susu" scheme to the development of small businesses in Ghana. Over the years, the economic activities of the poor but economically productive small business owners in Ghana have been hampered by their lack of access to the formal financial institutions because of their prohibitive operating procedures. Specifically, collateral

requirement that has been the fulcrum around which the lending wheels of formal financial institutions revolve has succeeded in warding off small business owners, bogging them down in the quagmire of mediocrity. It is, therefore, refreshing that these small business owners who have sought refuge in the safe and comfortable bosom of the "susu" scheme have experienced its positive impact on their operations. Policy makers can, therefore, marshal their resources towards the operations of the "susu" scheme as it has the potential of not only inculcating in small business owners the habit of saving and financial management but also contributing immensely to poverty reduction and its concomitant ramifications for the Ghanaian economy. Streamlining the operations of the scheme, flushing out the unscrupulous collectors who capitalize on the gullibility of poor small business owners to the scheme. This will culminate in improved access to finance which will promote more start-ups (Klapper, Laeven and Rajan 2006) and also enable existing firms to attain a larger equilibrium size by enabling them to take advantage of growth and investment opportunities (Beck, Demirgu[°]c,-Kunt, Laeven, and Maksimovic, 2006).

Table 4 reports the binary logistic analysis of the determinants of the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on small businesses. The predictive power of the model, measured by Cox & Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square, lies between 66% and 88%.

Evidence in Table 4 supports the argument that married "susu" contributors are more likely to experience the positive impact of the scheme on their businesses than unmarried contributors. Therefore, hypothesis H_1 is rejected. Marriage involves a lot of financial obligations. Thus, inability of a couple to manage their finances well can plunge them in poverty with catastrophic consequences. Since the "susu" scheme offers the financially excluded the opportunity to save, the possible explanation of the positive relationship between the married respondents and the positive impact of the "susu" scheme is that married couples, especially those with children, are more prudent in their financial management and would ensure that their "susu" contributions are galvanized to support their business operations in order to sustain themselves. The number of dependants of contributors appears to have a weak positive relationship with the propensity to see the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on business. In other words, increase in the number of dependants of a contributor positively correlates with the propensity to experience the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on business. Therefore, hypothesis H_2 is rejected.

The interpretation is that, all things being equal, most small business owners in Ghana who contribute to the "susu" scheme do not channel their contributions to fulfilling their domestic and social obligations. Instead, they use the funds to support their operations. This suggests that small business owners in Ghana who contribute to the "susu" scheme are able to draw a line of demarcation between their businesses and their domestic and social obligations. This finding is heartwarming because written on the tombs of many extinct small businesses is the canker of intermingling of personal funds and business funds (Yilmazer and Schrank, 2006). Table 4 shows that male "susu" contributors (the predicted sex) are more likely to see the positive impact of "susu" on their operations than their female counterparts. Therefore, hypothesis H_3 is accepted. This implies that male contributors to the "susu" scheme are more likely to use their contributions to support their businesses than their female counterparts. This finding dovetails into the available evidence that female microfinance clients are more likely to spend their income on their families than to reinvest it in their businesses (Downing, 1990; Clark, 1991).

The number of years in business (AGE) has been found to be inversely related to the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on business. Thus, hypothesis H_4 is rejected. One possible interpretation is the theory of business life cycle. Firms that operate in declining industries should not experience any positive impact of the scheme on their operations. On the other hand, the inverse relationship between the number of years of contribution and the positive impact of "susu" on business could be interpreted in the light of stage models of the firm theory (Dodge and Robbins, 1992) which argues that older firms will adopt a more professional management style, and more sophisticated control systems. It is possible that as small

businesses grow and find their bearings, the "susu" contributions of their owners are not for supporting their businesses but for meeting their domestic obligations. This last interpretation seems more likely than the first because female entrepreneurs, for example, have been found to have a predisposition to use profits to meet family needs rather than to reinvest (Downing, 1990; Clark, 1991).

A strong and significant positive relationship has been found between the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on small business and the number of years of contribution, suggesting that the more time contributors contribute to the scheme the higher the likelihood that they will experience its positive impact on their businesses. Therefore, hypothesis H_5 is accepted. This finding is in line with the conventional wisdom that the impact of any programme or policy is felt when it is practiced for some time. This suggests that small business owners in Ghana must be encouraged to maintain consistency in their contribution in order to experience the positive impact of the scheme on their business operations.

The amount contributed by a "susu" client positively relates to his or her likelihood of seeing the positive impact of the scheme on his or her business. Therefore, hypothesis is H_6 is accepted. This is understandable because the higher the amount a person contributes to the "susu" scheme the higher the savings he or she accumulates at the end of the contribution cycle. Small business owners who contribute more should accumulate huge working capital for their operations. Raising huge working capital opens up the business to a lot of opportunities for growth and innovation (Beck, Demirgu"c,-Kunt, Laeven, and Maksimovic, 2006). No association has been found between contributor's ability to contribute to the "susu" scheme daily or weekly and the propensity to experience its positive impact on contributor's business. Therefore, hypothesis H_7 is rejected. This implies that it is not possible for one to predict the probability of a "susu" contributor seeing the positive impact of the scheme on his or her business by whether or not he or she is able to contribute to the scheme daily or weekly.

CONCLUSION

The above findings support some conclusions. The study has demonstrated that the average daily or weekly contribution of a "susu" contributor is three Ghana cedis (GH¢ 3). Evidence abounds from the study that many of the small business owners in Ghana who have signed up to the "susu" scheme have seen its positive impact on their businesses. The nature of the "susu" scheme makes it an ideal vehicle for deposit mobilization in an economy like Ghana where inflation has always been a headache for policy makers. The scheme has the potential to assist the Central Bank and the Government of Ghana in their interventions aimed at controlling inflation and empowering the poor and financially excluded in the economy. This, therefore, calls for some preponderant attention to be given to the scheme. Over the years, the canker of some "susu" collectors absconding with the contributors and, to a very large extent, warded off potential contributors to the scheme.

The swift arrest, prosecution and retrieval of contributors' deposits from such unscrupulous "susu" collectors will rid the scheme of 'filth', regenerate interest, enthusiasm and confidence in, and attract more contributors to, the scheme which will lead to economic growth and development. In addition, strengthening institutions like Bank of Ghana and Ghana Cooperative "susu" Collectors Association (GCSCA) for effective monitoring and supervision of private "susu" operators will go a long to make the scheme much more efficacious and responsive to the needs and aspirations of its contributors. Intermittent workshops and seminars aimed at building the capacities of private "susu" operators, equipping them with best banking practices and effective financial management skills will enrich the potential of the "susu" scheme as the best vehicle for accomplishing financial inclusion in the Ghanaian economy. Furthermore, the Government of Ghana must show commitment towards the rigorous enforcement of the non-bank financial institutions law in order to ensure best practices in the "susu" scheme. For enterprise development and promotion much campaign is needed to sensitize owners of

small businesses who have not signed up to the scheme to do so immediately. This will improve access to finance for their businesses which will contribute to economic growth and development.

Evidence presented in the above analysis supports the conclusion that it is possible for one to predict the positive impact of the "susu" scheme on the business of its contributor by the number of years of contribution, the number of years in business, marital status, the number of dependants, gender and the amount contributed daily or weekly. One policy implication of this finding is that "susu" operators must encourage their contributors to maintain consistency in their contributions for an appreciable time so that they can experience the positive impact of the scheme. Another implication is for "susu" operators to encourage their clients to contribute larger amounts to the scheme so that they can experience its greater positive impact on their business operations.

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BIOGRAPHY

Michael Adusei is a Banking and Finance lecturer at Ghana Baptist University College in Ghana. His email address is madusei10@yahoo.com.

Sarpong Appiah is a Marketing lecturer at Christian Service University College in Ghana. His email address is sarpongappiah@yahoo.co.uk.

Richard Griffin, University of Tennessee at Martin Angelina S. MacKewn, University of Tennessee at Martin Ernest Moser, University of Tennessee at Martin K. W. VanVuren, University of Tennessee at Martin

ABSTRACT

Universities and colleges are very interested in understanding the factors that influence their students' academic performance. This paper describes a study that was conducted at a mid-sized public university in the mid-south, USA, to examine this issue. In this study, the 10-scale "Learning and Study Strategies Inventory" (LASSI) assessment device was administered to 107 students to measure receptivity to several skills and strategies that purportedly enhance a student's ability to learn and successfully perform in an academic setting. The results of this study showed that the LASSI scales dealing with attitude, concentration, information processing skill, motivation, self-testing and review techniques, use of study support techniques, time management, and effective test-taking strategies all correlated positively (with statistical significance) to student GPA. There were also statistically significant differences between males and females in their mean scores for several of the above mentioned LASSI scales. Every LASSI subscale, where females significantly outscored males, positively correlated with superior academic performance (i.e., GPA). A final regression analysis indicated that the over-riding influence promoting enhanced academic performance is simply the student's motivation to succeed.

INTRODUCTION

It has been observed via numerous studies over the years that academic performance varies along various parameters. Prior academic research is replete with studies observing apparent differences in academic performance according to gender. It has been observed that females often outperform males in collegiate academic performance (Sheard, 2009). Nguyen, Allen, and Fraccastoro (2005) found this to be the case at both the undergraduate and graduate level. Others have found statistically significant evidence that females tend to achieve university degrees with honors at a rate disproportionately higher than males (Barrow, et.al. 2009; Farsides & Woodfield, 2007; Richardson & Woodley, 2003). Cullen, et.al, (2004) found that females achieved better grades than males in both university English and Math courses; and Busch (1995) observed superior academic performance by female students of Business Administration. Some studies have examined gender performance differences at a more detailed level within an academic discipline. For example, Gammie, et.al.

(2003) found female students achieved better grades than males in first year accounting and auditing courses. Lipe (1989) also observed superior academic performance in female accounting students, but only when the instructor was also female. Buckless, et.al. (1991), when surveying accounting instructors, found that females were perceived to be superior accounting students in their academic performance. Even in the sciences, where the conventional wisdom has been that males often outperform females, at least in terms of number degrees earned (Taasoobshirazi & Carr, 2008), females have been observed to outperform males in some instances. Tai (2008) found that females achieved higher grades in undergraduate algebra-based physics courses while males had higher grades in calculus-based physics courses. Finally, Chyung (2007) found that females achieved higher exam scores than males in an on-line course environment. The current study makes a deeper

exploration into the perception of gender differences in academic performance and focuses on the possible impact that learning and study skills have on these differences.

Participants And Assessment Instrument

The Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) (Weinstein, Palmer & Schulte, 1987) is a wellknown and well-respected test for assessing students' knowledge and use of various skills and strategies for achieving learning in an academic environment. In total the LASSI consists of 80 question items organized into 10 separate scales and three main sections. The three scales include will, skill, and self-regulation. A brief description of the ten scales is as follows:

- Anxiety (ANX) The Anxiety Scale addresses the degree to which students worry and experience anxiety about academic performance. Since anxiety is logically assumed to be negatively correlated with performance (i.e., the greater the anxiety, the poorer the performance), the scale is reversed scored. This means that a low score on the scale indicates high levels of anxiety associated with academic performance; and may indicate the need for the student to develop stronger, i.e., more effective, anxiety coping-skills.
- 2) Attitude and Interest (ATT) The Attitude and Interest Scale assesses how facilitative or debilitative students are in their general approach to academic studies. Low scores on the scales indicate low interest and suggest that the students judge there to be little connection between academic performance and the achievement of their future life goals.
- 3) Concentration and Attention (CON) The Concentration Scale assesses students' ability to concentrate and maintain focus when dealing with academic tasks. A low score indicates poor concentration and little ability to "block-out" distracting thoughts and feelings when dealing with academic tasks.
- 4) Information Processing (INP) The Information Processing Scale addresses how well students can use imagery, verbal elaboration, organization strategies, and reasoning skills to obtain and retain knowledge. A low score indicates a deficiency in the ability to make information meaningful to the task at hand and then retaining it for future recall.
- 5) Motivation (MOT) The Motivation Scale assesses students' diligence, self-discipline, and willingness to exert the requisite effort necessary to achieve satisfactory academic performance. A low score indicates a lack of academic performance goal setting and an unwillingness to accept responsibility for poor academic performance.
- 6) Self-Testing (SFT) The Self-Testing Scale addresses students' use of reviewing and self-monitoring techniques to determine whether they understand and retain information that they are trying to learn. A low score on the scale indicates a lack of skill in adequately preparing for classes and test-taking.
- 7) Selecting Main Ideas (SMI) The Selecting Main Ideas Scale assesses students' ability to identify and sort out the most pertinent information, amongst a mass of data, relevant to the academic task at hand. A low score indicates a lack of the ability to identify the most importance information and main ideas.
- 8) Study Aids (STA) The Study Aids Scale assesses the students' use of support techniques or materials that can help them obtain and retain learning. Examples range from such tools as end-

of-chapter exercises and problems, within-chapter italics and headings, to PowerPoint slides, etc. A low score indicates a lack of use of these support techniques and materials.

- 9) Time Management (TMT) The Time Management Scale assesses students' focus on time management in the pursuit of achieving academic goals. Aspects addressed are procrastination, control of non-academic activities, and others. A low score indicates a lack of devotion to time management in the pursuit of satisfactory academic performance.
- Test Strategies (TST) The Test Strategies Scale assesses students' ability to effectively take tests and prepare for the taking of tests. A low score indicates the application of virtually nonexistent or ineffective test-taking strategies.

The scales generally range from the low-teens to 40 and are scored on a percentile basis. The general interpretation, for any one individual student, is that a score on a particular scale of 75-percentile or above indicates a relative strength in that area. A score of 50-percentile or lower is generally construed to be a relative weakness. In this study, the LASSI was administered to 107 freshmen undergraduate students at a mid-sized public university in the mid-south, USA. Of the 107 students, 41 were males and 66 were female; the break-down by major was 43 business majors and 64 non-business majors. Most recent cumulative official GPA was collected for all the participating students gathered concurrently in the semester in which the students supplied the LASSI data.

STATISTICAL METHODS AND RESULTS

Research Question #1: Are There Academic Performance (GPA) Differences By Gender Or By Major? The first issue examined was whether the academic performance differences by gender and academic discipline that have been observed in some prior studies are present in this sample. To assess this question, the current GPA of each student was observed as a proxy for their academic performance. A univariate 2x2 ANOVA, with GPA as the dependent variable and with gender and major as the two grouping variables, was conducted. A significant interaction was found between gender and major, F(1, 105) = 6.89, p = .01. See Figure 1 for a graphical presentation of these results.

Figure 1: Mean GPA of gender (male and female) by major (business and non-business)



Although no significant main effects were found, gender did approach significance, F(1,105) = 2.39, p = .063 (one-tailed). Because so many prior studies show evidence that females outperform males in a number of academic areas, a one-tailed p-value was used rather than a two-tailed. All mean GPA computations (total, by gender, and by major) are indicated in Table 1.

	Business Mean (<i>SD</i>)	Non Business	Total
Male	2.36 (0.96)	2.85 (0.76)	2.53 (0.92)
	(n = 27)	(n = 14)	(n = 41)
Female	3.07 (0.54)	2.66 (0.74)	2.76 (0.78)
	(n = 16)	(n = 50)	(n = 66)
Total	2.62 (0.89)	2.70 (0.74)	2.67 (0.80)
	(n = 43)	(n = 64)	(n = 107)

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviation GPA's by Gender and Major (business and non business)

Even though significant differences in GPA were not found by gender there could still be an indirect connection between gender and academic performance via the LASSI scores. This is the next research question examined.

Research Question #2: Are There Statistically Significant Correlations Between Academic Performance And LASSI Scores? To address this question, bivariate correlations (Pearson, two-tailed) between GPA and the ten LASSI scales were conducted. See Table 2 for the correlations. Table 2 indicates statistically significant correlations between academic performance (GPA) and eight of the ten LASSI scales. The only two scales that did not correlate with GPA with statistical significance were Anxiety and Selecting Main Ideas. Although statistical significance was not achieved, the direction of the correlation between Anxiety and GPA was negative, as predicted. All the others were positively correlated with statistical significance. Attention was directed again to possible gender influences because of the strong statistical evidence that GPA is influenced by learning and study strategies and the gender main effect for GPA was approaching significa

GPA with	Pearson Correlation (2-tailed)	p-value
Anxiety	-0.12	0.22
Attitude	0.29**	0.00
Concentration	0.27**	0.00
Information Processing	0.225*	0.02
Motivation	0.29**	0.00
Self-Testing	0.19*	0.05
Selecting Main Ideas	0.09	0.34
Study Aids (use of)	0.22*	0.02
Time Management	0.20	0.04
Test Strategies *Significant at $p \le .05$ **Significant at $p \le .01$	0.21	0.03

Table 2: Bivariate Correlations for GPA with Ten LASSI Subscales

Research Question #3: Controlling For The LASSI Scores, Does Academic Performance (GPA) Differ By Gender? In order to verify the lack of any direct main effect of gender on academic performance and to test for a third variable problem, a series of 2x2 ANCOVAs were performed with GPA as the dependent variable, the LASSI scores (each one individually) as the co-variate, and gender and major as the grouping variables. The purpose of this analysis was to exclude variance in GPA that was determined by the LASSI factors. Once again, however, no statistically significant gender main effect was observed.

These results suggest that although there is strong statistical evidence that abilities measured by the LASSI correlate with academic performance, there is weak statistical evidence that gender is a mediator variable for this relationship. This raises the possibility that there may be an indirect influence on academic performance by gender via the LASSI scores.

		G	ender			Ma	ijor	
DV		Mean	Standard Deviation	p-value		Mea n	Standard Deviation	p- value
Anxiety	Male	26.8	5.24	0.05*	Business	26.2	5.95	0.29
	Female	23.3	7.10		Non-business	23.6	7.03	
Attitude	Male	30.1	4.36	0.19	Business	30.7	4.98	0.50
	Female	31.0	5.03		Non-business	30.6	4.69	
Concentration	Male	25.5	6.01	0.39	Business	26.2	6.51	0.63
	Female	26.2	6.54		Non-business	25.8	6.25	
Information Processing	Male	26.7	4.58	0.04*	Business	28.1	5.06	0.13
	Female	28.2	5.31		Non-business	27.3	5.10	
Motivation	Male	29.6	4.30	0.00**	Business	32	4.61	0.03*
	Female	32.7	6.05		Non-business	31.2	6.25	
Self-Testing	Male	23.3	5.56	0.00**	Business	25.4	6.02	0.50
	Female	27.8	5.41		Non-business	26.6	5.77	
Selecting Main Ideas	Male	27.4	5.26	0.67	Business	27.3	5.72	0.95
	Female	26.8	6.02		Non-business	26.9	5.77	
Study AIDS (use of)	Male	24.0	5.55	0.01**	Business	25.3	6.35	0.89
	Female	26.1	5.81		Non-business	26.6	5.42	
Time Management	Male	21.2	5.82	0.00	Business	23.9	6.16	0.20
	Female	25.9	6.17		Non-business	24.3	6.65	
Test Strategies	Male	28.1	4.04	0.93	Business	28.3	4.17	0.84
	Female	28.0	4.74		Non-business	27.8	4.68	

Table 3: ANCOVAs - LASSI score as DVs; Gender (Male and Female) & Major (Business and Non-business) as Grouping Variables

*Significant $\leq .05$ ** Significant $\leq .01$

Research Question #4: Do LASSI scores differ by gender or major, and what is the nature of these differences? To address this question, a series of 2x2 ANOVAs were performed with gender and major as the grouping variables and the ten LASSI subscales as separate dependent variables. Results are presented in Table 3. Notice from Table 3 that of the ten LASSI - ANOVAs, six (Anxiety, Information Processing, Motivation, Self-testing, use of Study Aids, and Time Management) show statistically significant group differences by gender. In five of the six cases, females score significantly higher than

males on that LASSI scale. The one scale where females scored lower than males on average was Anxiety. Recall that Anxiety is the only LASSI scale that is reversed scored, i.e., a relatively high score means the student is experiencing a relatively low amount of anxiety. If one ascribes to the theory that higher anxiety, within reason, is a good thing in that it indicates a greater degree of concern which in turn logically should translate into enhanced academic performance, female scores on the six significant LASSIs all have positive implications for promoting better academic performance.

Evidence has been presented that academic performance is influenced by some of the various learning skills and study strategies, as measured by the LASSI scales, and that scores on some of the LASSI scales differ by gender. The final analysis step was to bring the significant LASSI scales together and make an aggregate assessment to answer the question of which of these has a significant influence on academic performance.

Research Question #5: Of the four LASSI scales showing significance for gender, which of these factors has a statistically significant influence on academic performance (GPA)? A multiple regression was performed, using the enter method, with GPA as the outcome variable. Only the four LASSI scores (Motivation, Self-testing, use of Study Aids, and Time Management) which showed strong statistical significance (i.e., $p \le .01$) with GPA were designated as predictors. The model was significant, F(4,102) = 2.85, p = .03, but only Motivation was a statistically significant predictor of GPA, t = 2.16, p = .03. Results are presented in Table 4.

Predictors	Betas	t	p-value
Motivation	0.238	2.158	0.03*
Self-Testing	-0.043	0.289	0.77
Study Aids (use of)	0.128	1.041	0.30
Time Management	0.052	0.389	0.70

TABLE 4: Multiple Regression with GPA as Dependent Variable and Motivation, Self-Testing, Study Aids, and Time Management as predictors

*Significant at $\leq .05 R^2 = .10$

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the results of this study indicate that 8 of the 10 Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) scale scores for the 107 students in the study correlated with statistical significance with GPA. The statistically significant correlating scales, Attitude, Concentration, Information Processing, Motivation, Self-Testing, use of Study Aids, Time Management, and Test Strategies are all attributes of student learning and study skills that correlate positively with GPA. In other words, it was observed thatthe higher the score on the subscale, the higher the students' observed GPA Follow-up ANCOVAs confirmed that after excluding the variance in GPA that was determined by the LASSI co-variates, variance in GPA was not explained solely by gender or major.

To test if there might be gender differences between the LASSI scores, 2x2 ANOVAS were conducted with the individual LASSI scores as dependent variables and gender and major as grouping variables. Females recorded scores more conducive to superior academic performance than did males on the subscales of Anxiety, Information processing, Motivation, Self-testing, use of Support Techniques, and Time Management. Males did not significantly outperform females on any subscale.

Finally, a multiple regression was conducted with GPA as the outcome variable and using the four LASSI subscales strongly correlated with GPA, as predictors. The results of the regression indicated that only the LASSI scale of Motivation statistically predicted GPA. The bottom-line is that while females may record superior academic performance to males, as indicated by higher GPAs, the primary driving force behind this is motivation or how interested the students are in applying the requisite diligence, self-discipline, and effort to their academic efforts. Based on the results of this study, females display a greater degree of motivation towards academic achievement than do males.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The usual caveats concerning statistical validity and reliability certainly apply to this exploratory study. When the traditional trade-off between internal validity or measuring what you intend to measure, and external validity or the generalizability of your results, is examined, the internal validity of this study is probably the stronger of the two. The Learning and Studies Strategies Inventory (LASSI) is a widely used scale. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that in spite of strong face validity, the content validity of this study may be questioned to the extent that the LASSI scales do not represent all facets of learning and study skills. It might also be argued that GPA is not the best means by which to operationalize academic performance. The possibility of various kinds of response biases (e.g., maybe females are more inclined to give expected or more "acceptable" responses to the scales than are males) should not be dismissed. Concerning external validity, since only freshmen were used in this study, it is certainly reasonable to question whether the student sample used in this study generalizes across the true population of all students. The statistical reliability, or can the statistical results be repeated, can be established by duplicating the study with other student sample groups at the same and other universities.

The results of this study invoke several interesting issues for future research. The first possibility is to extend this cross-sectional study to be longitudinal. This would entail studying the same research questions, using the same students, but studying a time period over their entire 4-5 year college career. Also, the idea of major is very fluid in first year students. It would be interesting to see how many students switch their majors by their senior year and whether any of the attributes measured by the LASSI influence their switching decisions. The relatively low R-squared of the regression indicates that there are probably numerous other factors, beyond gender, major, and LASSI attributes that can statistically explain variability in academic performance. What are those other factors and what is their relative importance? The results of this study did not statistically confirm the strong direct connection between gender and academic performance as have some other academic studies. This begs the question of whether there truly is a generalizable gender effect on academic performance, and if so, in which situations and under what circumstances. Additional research is needed in this area. Finally, the possible interaction effect between gender and major on GPA is intriguing. Is it possible that in certain disciplines and circumstances, males outperform females in academic performance? This question also requires additional research.

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INFORMATION CONTENT OF CHANGES IN PENSION PLAN FUNDING STATUS AND LONG-TERM DEBT

Karen C. Castro-González, University of Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

This study investigates whether investors efficiently incorporate changes in defined benefit (DB) pension plan information in stock prices. The sample is comprised of public US companies with available data from 1980 to 2005. Fama and French three factor (1993) and four factor models results reveal that the market inefficiently incorporates changes in DB pension plan information. The results suggest that investors are not paying enough attention to the implications of the changes in funding status for future earnings and cash flows. Investors' reactions to changes in DB pension plan information were compared to reactions to changes in long-term debt account ratios. The results reveal that the market is also inefficient incorporating changes in long-term debt information. Hedge-portfolio tests are performed to verify if there is an opportunity to outperform the market by identifying weaknesses in the incorporation of this information. The hedge portfolio results support the notion that the market overprices firms that have the most negative changes in FR and increases in LTDR.

INTRODUCTION

Accounting information serves different and very critical roles in capital markets. It is vital in providing prospective capital contributors with the necessary means for evaluation of potential investment opportunities and in serving as a monitoring tool for the stakeholders of a company. During the past decade defined benefit pension plan (DBPP) issues have been the center of many debates and research. From markets' efficiency to earnings management, pensions have been of much interest to those who are interested in the reliability of pension disclosures and in maintaining a healthy pension system. Concerns about accounting standards for DBPP have been discussed in different forums during the last decades. Some argue that accounting for pension plans should be easy to prepare and must provide information that is easy for the users to understand. Ironically, it has been regarded as obscure and arcane; too complicated for users to comprehend because of all the estimates and valuation methods involved in the calculations. Through the years, the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) has demonstrated preoccupation with respect to pension plan information disclosures, as confirmed by the changes in disclosure requirements in the last decades. Efforts to enhance the relevance and understandability of reported pension information also include the enactment of ERISA (Employee Retirement Income System Act of 1974) and the "Pension Protection Act of 2006", the issuance of Statement of Financial Accounting Standards (SFAS) 36, SFAS 87, SFAS 132, and most recently, the SFAS 158.

Under the new statement an underfunded (overfunded) pension plan will report a net pension liability (net pension asset) on the balance sheet. A severely underfunded pension plan has future implications in cash flows and earnings. For this reason, it is important for investors to assess the PPS before making investment decisions. By moving this information from the footnotes to the balance sheet the intention of the FASB is to improve and create awareness of the importance of PPS information.

The FASB changed the disclosures related to pensions based on the belief that moving the information from the footnotes to the financial statements will gain the attention of investors and other users. Obviously, they assume that footnotes were not good enough to satisfy the objective of creating awareness of the impact of pension plans and decided to move PPS information to the balance sheet. Then, we expect that information users efficiently use the information in the balance sheet and that the

recognized amounts are reliable and useful. Studies that examine the efficiency of the markets in using information presented in the balance sheet find interesting and contrasting results (Foster, Jenkins and Vickers, 1986; Sloan, 1996). Particularly, those related to long-term commitments (Harper, Mister and Strawser, 1987; Chen, Kim and Nance, 1992; Hirshleifer, Hou, Teoh and Zhang, 2004; Ahmed, Kilic and Lobo, 2006; Bradshaw, Richardson and Sloan, 2006). Some of these studies find that the type of debt issuance and changes in debt ratings impacts investors' perceptions and decisions.

Have the standard setters considered that just moving the information from the footnotes to the financial statements might not be good enough. What we should be asking is if changes in the presentation solve the problem of information awareness and its incorporation in decision-making. Furthermore, we should consider if it is an issue of presentation of information or reliability of information. And, whatever the reasons are, determine what mechanisms can be used to address this issue. If the main reason of the FASB is to create awareness about the impact of pension status over the financial stability of a firm, then, it is important to verify if the market reacts differently to recognized long-term obligations in the financial statements.

This study examines the incorporation of DBPP disclosures before SFAS 158 and LTD information into stock prices. This assessment is done to verify if the market efficiently incorporates information of long-term commitments as represented by pension obligations presented in the footnotes and LTD as presented in the balance sheet. To measure and verify how efficiently the information is used investment strategies are design. The paper proceeds as follows. The first section discusses the relevant prior literature, followed by hypotheses development and research methodology. Then, the sample selection procedure and data analysis are presented. Finally, the empirical findings and the conclusion are discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Pensions

Previous studies find evidence that suggest that before SFAS 158 investors inefficiently used information related to PPS (Godwin and Key, 1998; Franzoni and Marín, 2006). Other studies consider managers' choice to overfund or underfund their plans (Phillips and Moody, 2003), the association of PPS and capital expenditures (Rauh, 2006), earnings management and pensions (Coronado and Sharpe, 2003; Bergstresser, Desai and Rauh, 2006; Asthana, 2008), the incorporation of pension disclosures in investment decisions (Chen, Yao, Yu and Zhang, 2010), and the association between systematic equity risk and the risk of pension plans (Jin, Merton, Bodie, 2006).

Shaw (2008) argues that SFAS 158 significantly changes the balance sheet reporting for DBPP. Coronado, Mitchell, Sharpe and Nesbitt (2008) state that the increased attention to pension disclosures misuse may have influenced the way investors evaluate pensions since the appearance of SFAS 158 and that it will influence investors' decisions. Recent studies evaluate the impact of SFAS 158. Boylan and Houmes (2010) examine the use of higher discount rates to lower the pension benefit obligations and pension liabilities with the intention of portraying a better financial position. Chen et al. (2010) examine the differences in the use of pension disclosures depending on the level of sophistication of users. And find that the level of sophistication is related to the incorporation of information. Beaudoin, Chandar and Werner (2010) study whether the recognition of pension asset and liability amounts under SFAS 158 is incrementally value relevant in its first year of adoption versus the same amounts previously disclosed to both equity investor and rating decision makers. Findings suggest that DBPP information is used in the same way before and after the issuance of SFAS 158.

The FASB changed the disclosures related to pensions based on the belief that moving the information from the footnotes to the financial statements will gain the attention of investors and other users. Obviously, they assume that footnotes were not good enough to satisfy the objective of creating awareness of the impact of pension plans and decided to move PPS information to the balance sheet. Then, we expect that information users efficiently use the information in the balance sheet and that the recognized amounts are reliable and useful. Studies that examine the efficiency of the markets in using information presented in the balance sheet find interesting and contrasting results (Foster, Jenkins and Vickers, 1986; Sloan, 1996). Particularly, those related to long-term commitments (Harper, Mister and Strawser, 1987; Chen, Kim and Nance, 1992; Hirshleifer, Hou, Teoh and Zhang, 2004; Ahmed, Kilic and Lobo, 2006; Bradshaw, Richardson and Sloan, 2006). Some of these studies find that the type of debt issuance and changes in debt ratings impacts investors' perceptions and decisions.

Long-term debt

Chen, Kim and Nance (1992) study the information content of balance sheet items as conveyed by financial leverage. The evidence suggests that data on financial leverage has some information content. The authors argue that the market reacts to changes in financial leverage. Nevertheless, they observe that the direction of this response seems to depend on the position of a corporation's financial leverage relative to its optimal level. Modigliani and Miller (1958) introduced the proposition that the expected return on equity should increase with the amount of debt in a firm's capital structure. On the other hand, empirical research on the relation between financial leverage and expected stock returns is contradictory. Fama and French (1992) find that leverage based on book values has a negative risk premium. In contrast, Bhandari (1988) identifies leverage measured in market values as a separate risk factor. He finds that firms with higher financial leverage consistently earn lower risk-adjusted returns. In addition, Kayhan, Lei and Lin (2005) find that this results hold for both market and book leverage. In contrast to Fama and French (1992), they also find that the leverage effect on the risk-adjusted returns persists after controlling for firm size and the book-to-market equity ratio (B/M). Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh, and Lakonoshok (2006) investigate various hypotheses to explain the accruals effect and conclude that the effect is largely due to earnings manipulation. Sloan (1996) finds that the accruals effect reflects that investors overestimate the future earnings of firms with high accruals in current earnings.

Millon-Cornett and Travlos (1989) study the information effect caused by a firm's change in capital structure via debt-for-equity and equity-for debt exchange offers. The evidence suggests that the former transactions lead to abnormal stock price increases, while the latter lead to abnormal stock price decreases. However, Brigham and Gapenski (1985) state that it is usually believed that the average cost of capital curve is shaped more like a shallow bowl than like a sharp V. This may be interpreted that over a wide range, the financial leverage does not have a noticeable effect on the average cost of capital and, therefore, on the value of corporations. They also say that if this pan-shaped curve is valid, stock prices of a corporation will not be affected by the change of financial leverage as long as the corporation remains in this region. This means that, if corporations that had financial leverage (and are at the low side of the optimal leverage range) dominate in portfolios, prior to a new issue of debt, a decrease in financial leverage will cause stock prices to decrease. To the contrary, an increase in financial leverage will not have significant impact on stock prices.

Best (1997) examines the stock price reaction to straight debt announcements by differentiating firms on the basis of any subsequent change in their overall default risk. He finds that firms that will within six months of straight debt announcements, undergo debt rating downgrades experience significant negative abnormal stock returns at the time of new debt announcement. On the other hand, firms with bond ratings that are later upgraded show significant positive abnormal returns. Finally, Bradley, Jarrell and Kim (1984) use a model that synthesizes the modern balancing theory of optimal capital structure. The model incorporates positive personal taxes on equity and bond income, expected costs of financial distress

(bankruptcy and agency costs), and positive non-debt tax shields. The evidence suggests that optimal firm leverage is inversely related to expected costs of financial distress and to the amount of non-debt tax shields. They use simulation analysis to demonstrate that if costs of financial distress are significant, optimal leverage is related inversely to the variability of firm earnings.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Samples 199

In order to examine the data different sets of portfolios are formed. The firm selection criteria are different for each set. The set of portfolios formed based on the change in FR is comprised by firms that sponsor DB pension plans. The sets of portfolios formed based on LTDR changes are comprised of all firms with available data for long-term debt. As a result, a separate description of both samples is presented.

The *FR* sample is comprised of all the firm years with available data on the Compustat Annual Industrial and Research files for NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ firms. The sample period is the end of fiscal year 1980 to the end of fiscal year 2005. 1980 is the starting point because the pension plan data of interest is initially available starting that year. Firms are included if they have at least two years of accounting data in order to correct for the survival bias induced by the way Compustat adds firms to its tapes (Banz and Breen 1986 and Franzoni and Marín 2006). For the formation of pension plan portfolios, only firms that sponsor DB pension plans are included. There were 52,018 observations (firm-years) before eliminating firms that do not have available information for at least two years. To correct for the effect of outliers, observations for each year in which the *FR* variable is more than five standard deviations away from the annual mean, were dropped from the sample. As a result, there are 51,515 observations (firm-years) that satisfy the criteria mentioned above. Then firms that do not have at least two years of accounting data were eliminated. As a result, 51,441 observations were included in this investigation.

The *LTDR* sample is comprised of all the firm years with available data on the Compustat Annual Industrial and Research files for NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ firms. The sample period is the end of fiscal year 1980 to the end of fiscal year 2005. Firms are included if they have at least two years of accounting data in order to correct for the survival bias. There were 187,588 observations (firm-years) before eliminating firms that do not have available information for at least two years. To correct for the effect of outliers, observations for each year in which the *LTDR* variable is more than five standard deviations away from the annual mean, were dropped from the sample. As a result, there are 186,091 observations (firm-years) that satisfy the criteria mentioned above. Then firms that do not have at least two years of accounting data were eliminated. As a result, 185,962 observations were included in this investigation. Firm returns were obtained from the Center for Research and Security Prices (CRSP), Monthly Stock database.

Variable Measurement

The ratios used by Franzoni and Marín (2006) incorporate the balance of the account as measured at the end of year t - 1. Some studies, instead of using the account balance presented in the financial statements or in the notes, use the change in the account or accounting element. Xie (2001), Chen, Kim and Nance (1992), Best (1997) use the changes in the accounts of interest for their respective studies. Stober (1986) investigates first occurrences of LIFO liquidations because they are less likely to be anticipated by the market than later occurrences. Stober argues that if these occurrences are unexpected events, and this component of earnings is not disclosed separately from earnings, they should give rise to the type of positive abnormal share price behavior at the earnings release date that is generally associated with positive unanticipated earnings. Consequently, and in order to verify if the changes in *FR* have predictive

power the risk-adjusted returns tests are performed for portfolios formed based on the change in *FR* at the end of fiscal year t - 2 to the end of fiscal year t - 1.

In order to measure the change in funding status, a similar procedure used by Franzoni and Marín (2006) is used. To solve the problem of the impact that the same dollar amount of underfunding has depending on the size of the firm, the change in funding status needs to be appropriately normalized. The change in funding status is defined as the difference between the fair value of pension assets (*FVPA*) and the pension benefit obligation (*PBO*) in year t - 1 minus the difference in fair value of pension assets (*FVPA*) and the pension benefit obligation (*PBO*) in year t - 2. The change in funding status is divided by market capitalization (*Mkt Cap*) at the end of the fiscal year t - 1. This variable is labeled change in funding ratio (ΔFR). This variable is computed as follows:

$$\Delta FR_{t-1} = \Delta FVPA_{t-1} - \Delta PBO_{t-1} / Mkt \ Cap_{t-1} \tag{1}$$

After calculating the ΔFR , firms-years are sorted into portfolios by ΔFR . Firms sponsoring DB pension plans are classified as firms with negative changes in *FR* and firms with positive changes in *FR*. Eleven portfolios are formed for these firms. The first ten portfolios include firms with negative changes in *FR* ($\Delta FR < 0$). The eleventh portfolio includes firms with no changes or positive changes in *FR* ($\Delta FR \ge 0$). As for the change in the long-term debt, ratio it is normalized using market capitalization. The change in long-term debt ratio ($\Delta LTDR_{t-1}$) is computed as:

$$\Delta LTDR_{t-1} = \Delta LTD_{t-1} / Mkt \ Cap_t \tag{2}$$

After calculating the $\Delta LTDR$, firms-years are sorted into portfolios by $\Delta LTDR$. Firms are classified as firms with negative changes in *LTDR* and firms with positive changes in *LTDR*. Eleven portfolios are formed for these firms. The first ten portfolios include firms with positive changes in *LTDR* (increase in debt). The eleventh portfolio includes firms with no changes or positive changes in *LTDR* (decrease in debt). The Fama and French (1993) three-factor model is used to calculate each portfolio's excess return. Portfolios are tested for risk-adjusted returns by running time-series regressions of portfolio could be explained by different factors, including the market. Discrepancies in returns among portfolios could be explained by different factor loadings. In formula, the time-series regression (Fama-French three-factor model) for the portfolios is expressed:

$$R_{it} = \alpha_i + b_i EXM_t + h_i HML_t + s_i SMB_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$
(3)

where R_{it} is the portfolio excess return. The EXM, HML and SMB factors are constructed as in Fama and French (1993). EXM is the factor that represents the market portfolio minus the risk free rate. The HML factor represents a portfolio long in high book to market (B/M) and short in low B/M firms. The last factor, SMB represents a portfolio long in small and short in large companies. This study, as in Franzoni and Marín (2006), tests for momentum patterns in returns. Jegadeesh and Titman (1993) find evidence that past winners tend to outperform past losers in the following year. This relationship is tested in order to uncover evidence that may suggest that the most underfunded and levered firms tend to be past losers. Chan, Jegadeesh, and Lakonishok (1996), argue that momentum is a short-lived phenomenon. In order to test for the momentum factor, the regressions is estimated as follows

$$R_{it} = \alpha_i + b_i EXM_t + h_i HML_t + s_i SMB_t + m_i UMD_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$
(4)

where UMD_t is the momentum factor. It is constructed as a long investment in past twelve month winners and short investment in past twelve month losers. Its inclusion is justified by the evidence in Jegadeesh and Titman (1993). They found that past winners continue to gain extra returns over past losers within a one-year horizon.

Finally, statistical tests are performed to verify if there are statistically significant differences between the risk-adjusted returns of the different portfolios. As in Sloan (1996) and Xie (2001), hedge-portfolio tests are performed to verify if there is an opportunity to outperform the market by creating investment strategies that focus in exploiting the market failure to incorporate the changes in pension plan information. The same tests are performed for the *LTDR* portfolios.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics of the eleven portfolios created according to ΔFR and $\Delta LTDR$. Panel A shows descriptive statistics for ΔFR portfolios. The results show that firms in portfolio one have an average change in *FR* of -210%. As for the other portfolios, the changes range between -6% and 4%. The difference in the level of average *FR* between the portfolio with the firms with the most negative changes and the other portfolios is evident. For portfolio one the average *FR* is about -13.5%. In contrast, for portfolio ten the average level of *FR* is about -0.7%. The average *FR* for portfolio eleven is about 0.5%. The firms with the most negative change (portfolio one) have higher levels of *LTDR*. The rest of the portfolios have considerably less *LTDR* than portfolio one. As for size, the smaller firms are concentrated in portfolio one.

Table 1: Descriptive	Statistics f	or FR and	LTDR Portfolios
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				Panel A:	AFR Portf	olio Charac	teristics				
	Most (-)									Least (-)	0 or +
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
ΔFR	-2.099	-0.061	-0.033	-0.021	-0.008	-0.009	-0.006	-0.004	-0.002	-0.001	0.039
FR	-0.135	-0.031	-0.018	-0.002	-0.022	-0.02	-0.010	-0.013	-0.008	-0.007	0.005
LTDR	1.168	0.761	0.361	0.434	0.374	0.385	0.398	0.224	0.1778	0.26	0.416
Size	1,406	2,129	3,014	3,070	1,536	4,102	3,633	4,249	3,206	4,431	4,018
B/M	0.268	0.529	0.504	0.453	0.438	0.271	0.462	0.418	0.408	0.404	0.344
Firm-years	1,352	1,664	1,378	1,066	1,092	884	1,118	884	1,040	1,014	8,216
				Panel B: Δ	LTDR Por	tfolio Chara	acteristics				
	Most (+)									Least (+)	0 or -
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
ΔLTDR	8.255	0.458	0.259	0.167	0.109	0.07	0.043	0.023	0.009	0.002	-1.12
LTD	2,502	1,587	1,112	1,254	927,1	863,3	759,3	709,2	515,8	238,9	395,2
Size	722.4	1,057	1,213	1,742	1,812	2,253	2,613	3,566	3,535	3,368	1,149
B/M	-1.73	0.24	0.54	0.6	0.43	0.5	0.49	0.52	0.44	0.41	-0.09
Firm-years	6,913	6,927	6,926	6,927	6,928	6,925	6,924	6,930	6,922	6,911	102,262

Two sets of portfolios are examined in this study. In the fourth month after the end of fiscal year *t*, firms with available data at the end of fiscal year *t*-1 are assigned to two set of eleven portfolios according to the deciles of the distribution of ΔFR and $\Delta LTDR$. Panel A presents descriptive statistics for ΔFR portfolios. Portfolios one through ten have most negative change in *FR*. Firms in portfolio eleven contain firms with positive or zero change in *FR*. Presented are the average annual change in *FR*, the annual averages of the *LTDR* of the companies in each portfolio; the average of the annual averages of the *LTDR* of the companies in each portfolio; the average of the annual averages of the companies in each portfolio at the end of fiscal year *t*; the average of the annual averages of the book-to-market ratio (B/M) of the companies in each portfolios. Firms in portfolios one through ten have rage in *LTDR*. Presented are the average of the annual averages of the annual averages of the book-to-market ratio (B/M) of the companies in each portfolios. Firms in portfolios one through ten have rage of the annual number of firms in each portfolio. Panel B presents descriptive statistics of $\Delta LTDR$ portfolios. Firms in portfolios one through ten have rage of the annual change in *LTDR*, the annual averages of the companies in each portfolios. Firms in portfolios one through ten have rage annual change in *LTDR*, the annual averages of the companies in each portfolio; size is measured as the average of the annual averages of the market capitalization (in millions of dollars) of the companies in each portfolio; size is measured as the average of the annual averages of the book-to-market ratio (B/M) of the companies in each portfolio; size is measured as the average of the annual averages of the book-to-market ratio (B/M) of the companies in each portfolio; size is measured as the average of the annual averages of the book-to-market ratio (B/M) of the companies in each portfolio at the end of

Panel B reports descriptive statistics of the eleven portfolios created according to $\Delta LTDR$. The results show that, on average, firms in portfolio one have a change (increase) in *LTDR* of 825%. As for portfolios two through ten the changes range between 45% and 0.2%. Portfolio eleven portrays an average reduction of 112% in *LTDR*. For portfolio one the average *LTD* is about \$2.5 billion. In contrast, for portfolio ten the average level of *LTD* is about \$239 million. The average *LTD* for portfolio eleven is about \$395 million. As for size, the smaller firms are concentrated in portfolio one. As for B/M, value firms are concentrated also in this portfolio.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Risk-Adjusted Returns

Table 2: Three-Factor and Four-Factor Model Results for Changes in Funding Ratio

	Most(-)	2	2	4	-	(-	0	0	Least (-)	Positive
	1	2	3	4 Panal A	5 A: Three-Fa	6 ntar Madal I	7 Doculto	8	9	10	11
				r aller A	Alp		Results				
Alphas	-0.013*	-0.002	0.003*	0.002	0.005*	0.006*	0.009*	0.008*	0.011*	0.013*	0.006*
Alphas	(-6.46)	(-1.48)	(2.25)	(1.89)	(3.80)	(4.22)	(6.22)	(5.90)	(7.76)	(9.65)	(6.14)
	(-0.+0)	(-1.40)	(2.23)		Three-Factor				(7.70)	().05)	(0.14)
EXM	0.009	0.009	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.009	0.008
LAM	(15.21)	(15.84)	(16.48)	(15.7)	(15.47)	(15.04)	(12.2)	(13.87)	(13.73)	(21.91)	(18.03)
HML	0.008	0.006	0.005	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.005
TINL	(10.83)	(10.56)	(6.87)	(6.29)	(7.75)	(5.62)	(4.21)	(4.95)	(2.89)	(3.06)	(9.78)
SMB	0.009	0.006	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.005
SIMD	(11.14)	(9.91)	(7.05)	(7.33)	(6.74)	(6.19)	(4.77)	(5.50)	(5.19)	(6.69)	(14.12)
\mathbb{R}^2	· · · ·	0.76	0.78	0.73	0.76	0.76	(4.77)	0.76	0.73	0.78	0.89
	0.68	0.76 967									
Firm-years	816	907	1,003	1,024	1,011	1,039	1,024	1,021	1,045	1,027	8,570
				Panel	B: Four-Fac		cesuits				
						Alphas					
Alphas	-0.014*	-0.004*	0.000	0.001	0.003*	0.005*	0.006*	0.007*	0.010*	0.012*	0.005*
	(-5.60)	(-2.33)	(-0.22)	(1.16)	(2.00)	(3.27)	(5.24)	(6.03)	(7.55)	(9.98)	(5.92)
							dings and R ²				
EXM	0.010	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.010	0.009
	(16.78)	(19.53)	(19.02)	(21.37)	(23.12)	(21.75)	(23.62)	(23.56)	(16.66)	(33.42)	(29.94)
HML	0.007	0.006	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.005
	(7.25)	(8.65)	(6.52)	(5.78)	(5.74)	(5.59)	(4.10)	(5.58)	(3.54)	(4.03)	(8.20)
SMB	0.012	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.006	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.004	0.005	0.004
	(12.81)	(14.12)	(11.45)	(13.29)	(13.04)	(9.59)	(9.33)	(8.46)	(5.00)	(9.25)	(11.47)
UMD	-0.002	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	(-2.04)	(0.54)	(0.19)	(1.05)	(1.43)	(1.28)	(1.51)	(1.65)	(2.05)	(1.98)	(1.89)
\mathbb{R}^2	0.68	0.75	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.72	0.79	0.76	0.74	0.80	0.87
Firm-years	816	967	1,003	1,024	1,011	1,039	1,024	1,021	1,045	1,027	8,570

In the fourth month after the end of fiscal year t, firms with available data at the end of fiscal year t-1 are divided in deciles according to the change in FR. The stocks in the first portfolio have the most negative changes in FR and the stocks in the tenth portfolio have the least negative changes in FR. Firms with positive or no change in FR at the end of fiscal year t are assigned to an eleventh portfolio. Panel A reports the constant (alpha) from a time-series regression of portfolio excess returns on the three Fama and French factors for the portfolios. The factors are the market excess return (EXM), the return on HML portfolio, and the return on the SMB portfolio. R^2 from these regressions are also presented. Panel B reports the constant (alpha) from a time-series regression of portfolio excess returns on the four Fama and French factors for the portfolios. The factors are the portfolios. The factors are EXM, HML, SMB and the return on a momentum portfolio (UMD). R^2 from these regressions are presented. t-statistics are presented in parentheses. * Alphas significant at the 5 percent level.

Table 2 reports the results for the time-series regressions for the returns of the portfolios formed based on the changes in *FR*. Panel A presents the three-factor model results. Portfolio one has significantly negative alpha loadings. Portfolios three and five through eleven have positive and significant alpha loadings. These results indicate that as the negative change in *FR* decreases the undervaluation increases. Portfolio eleven (positive change and improvement in *FR* status portfolio) results indicate that the investors may not be paying attention to the changes in the account and the information related to pension plans at all. Panel B reports alphas, factor loadings, and R^2 for the four-factor model of each set of portfolios. Portfolios five through eleven have positive and significant alpha loadings. The regressions results show slight improvements when the momentum factor is included.

	Most (+)									Least (+)	Zero or -
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
				Panel A	: Three-Fa	ctor Model	Results				
					Alp	has					
Alphas	-0.011*	-0.004*	-0.001	0.002*	0.005*	0.006*	0.008*	0.009*	0.010*	0.017*	0.005*
-	(-5.42)	(-3.14)	(-0.51)	(2.11)	(4.97)	(6.32)	(8.33)	(10.12)	(9.70)	(9.48)	(6.38)
				Three-	Factor Mode	el Loadings a	and R ²				
EXM	0.01	0.009	0.008	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.01	0.01	0.01
	(17.04)	(19.18)	(22.98)	(21.71)	(23.78)	(27.56)	(26.84)	(34.74)	(36.00)	(23.38)	(39.82)
HML	0.006	0.004	0.003	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.009	-0.002	0.002
	(6.28)	(6.53)	(5.63)	(7.04)	(5.13)	(7.43)	(3.89)	(3.98)	(2.09)	(-2.39)	(5.62)
SMB	0.01	0.008	0.008	0.001	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.008	0.009	0.01	0.01
	(10.22)	(14.56)	(16.02)	(13.78)	(16.51)	(16.93)	(15.08)	(15.50)	(15.70)	(14.02)	(16.70)
\mathbb{R}^2	0.61	0.80	0.80	0.83	0.83	0.87	0.85	0.85	0.88	0.84	0.89
Firm-years	2,147	2,480	2,599	2,653	2,731	2,730	2,757	2,773	2,794	311	34,495
				Panel I	B: Four-Fac	tor Model I	Results				
					Alp						
Alphas	-0.002	0.001	0.0003	0.003	0.006*	0.004*	0.008*	0.009*	0.010*	0.016*	0.007*
	(-0.79)	(0.24)	(0.17)	(1.80)	(3.33)	(2.13)	(5.02)	(6.12)	(5.17)	(5.59)	(3.70)
				Four-l	Factor Mode	l Loadings a	nd R ²				
EXM	1.06	0.992	0.9	0.978	0.964	0.992	0.921	0.958	1.021	1.051	0.986
	(16.34)	(24.32)	(27.16)	(29.24)	(32.08)	(35.54)	(35.75)	(30.48)	(33.85)	(25.07)	(31.38)
HML	0.581	0.53	0.418	0.467	0.404	0.389	0.256	0.187	-0.006	-0.222	0.174
	(4.71)	(6.67)	(5.43)	(7.55)	(5.78)	(6.93)	(4.52)	(3.07)	(-0.10)	(-2.20)	(2.78)
SMB	0.856	0.713	0.693	0.613	0.676	0.634	0.63	0.703	0.799	0.924	0.866
	(10.55)	(11.93)	(12.34)	(10.42)	(13.76)	(13.16)	(14.80)	(11.76)	(13.99)	(16.88)	(14.34)
UMD	-1.87	-1.23	-0.351	-0.473	-0.423	0.294	-0.163	0.111	0.301	0.289	-0.277
	(-3.40)	(-3.41)	(-0.85)	(-1.36)	(-1.22)	(0.83)	(-0.05)	(0.36)	(0.93)	(0.71)	(-0.77)
R ²	0.58	0.77	0.78	0.82	0.82	0.86	0.85	0.84	0.87	0.84	0.86
Firm-years	2,147	2,480	2,599	2,653	2,731	2,730	2,757	2,773	2,794	311	34,495

Table 3: Three-Factor and Four-Factor Model Results for Changes in Long-Term Debt Ratio

In the fourth month after the end of fiscal year t, firms with available data at the end of fiscal year t-1 are divided in deciles according to the change in *LTDR*. The firms in the first portfolio have higher positive changes in debt. Firms assigned to the tenth portfolio have lower positive changes in debt. Firms are assigned to portfolio eleven if there is no change or a negative change in *LTDR*. Panel A reports the constant (alpha) from a time-series regression of portfolio excess returns on the three Fama and French factors. The factors are the market excess return (EXM), the return on HML portfolio, and the return on the SMB portfolio. *R2* from these regressions are also presented. Panel B reports the constant (alpha) from a time-series regression of portfolio excess returns on the four Fama and French factors. The factors are the market excess return (EXM), the return on HML portfolio, the return on the SMB portfolio and the return on a momentum portfolio (UMD). *R2* from these regressions are presented. The sample period is from the fourth month after the end of fiscal year 1980 to 2006. T-statistics are presented in parentheses. * Alphas significant at the 5 percent level.

Table 3 reports the results for the time-series regressions for the returns of the portfolios formed based on changes in *LTDR*. Panel A reports the alphas of the three-factor model for the eleven portfolios. It can be observed that returns are significantly positive for portfolios four through nine, and portfolio eleven. This is a signal of undervaluation. A negative relation between the change in *LTDR* and the undervaluation can be observed. In other words, as the change in *LTDR* decreases the undervaluation increases. Note that for portfolio one and two the excess return is negative. This may indicate overvaluation for firms that exhibit higher positive changes (largest increments in debt) in *LTDR*. Apparently, the magnitude of changes in information related to pension plans and long-term debt conveys no additional information to investors. Panel B reports alphas, factor loadings, and R^2 for the four-factor model of *LTDR* portfolios. The results for *LTDR* portfolios five through eleven; this may be a signal of undervaluation. No significant improvements are seen when momentum is introduced. Apparently, momentum has no impact on the portfolios.

Hedge-Portfolio Tests

The risk-adjusted returns estimated using the Fama and French (1993) three-factor and four-factor models indicate that investors may be overpricing firms with negative changes in their funding status and increases in long-term debt levels. In addition, the results indicate that investors may be underpricing

stocks with relatively smaller changes in funding status and long-term debt levels. In order to verify if there are statistically significant differences between diverse sets of portfolios, hedge portfolio tests were performed. Table 4 shows time-series means of the average annual returns for each set of portfolios in three years after portfolio formation.

			Average Retur	ns Per Portfolio		
Portfolio	Pa	nel A: ΔFR Portfo	lios	Pane	l B: ALTDR Port	folios
Ranking	Year t+1	Year t+2	Year t+3	Year t+1	Year t+2	Year t+3
1	-0.003	-0.004	-0.001	-0.002	-0.002	-0.001
	(0.36)	(-0.06)	(0.39)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.46)
2	0.005	0.004	0.006	0.004	0.003	0.004
	(-0.10)	(-0.28)	(0.39)	(-0.01)	(-0.44)	(0.32)
3	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.006	0.006
	(-0.11)	(-0.22)	(-0.01)	(-0.08)	(-0.36)	(-0.00)
4	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.010	0.009	0.009
	(-0.02)	(-0.52)	(-0.02)	(-0.30)	(-0.47)	(0.02)
5	0.011	0.009	0.01	0.011	0.010	0.01
	(0.05)	(-0.36)	(0.01)	(-0.74)	(-0.50)	(-0.11)
6	0.012	0.011	0.011	0.013	0.012	0.011
	(0.01)	(-0.42)	(0.07)	(-0.36)	(-0.47)	(-0.23)
7	0.014	0.012	0.012	0.014	0.013	0.012
	(-0.02)	(-0.50)	(-0.06)	(-0.61)	(-0.47)	(-0.43)
8	0.013	0.013	0.012	0.016	0.015	0.015
	(-0.30)	(-0.30)	(0.04)	(-0.51)	(-0.47)	(0.04)
9	0.015	0.015	0.013	0.017	0.016	0.015
	(-0.13)	(-0.55)	(-0.13)	(-0.48)	(-0.62)	(-0.35)
10	0.017	0.015	0.014	0.022	0.020	0.018
	(-0.31)	(-0.59)	(-0.04)	(-0.86)	(-0.86)	(-0.52)
11	0.013	0.012	0.013	0.013	0.012	0.013
	(-1.67)	(-0.63)	(0.47)	(-1.18)	(-1.28)	(0.83)
			Panel C: Por	rtfolio Hedge		
Comparison		FR portfolios			LTDR portfolios	
1 and 10	0.020*	0.018*	0.016*	0.024*	0.022*	0.019*
	(4.39)	(3.74)	(2.99)	(8.93)	(7.74)	(6.38)
1 and 11	0.016*	0.016*	0.014*	0.015*	0.014*	0.014*
	(5.90)	(3.81)	(3.12)	(7.38)	(6.49)	(6.08)
10 and 11	-0.004	-0.003	-0.002	-0.009*	-0.005*	-0.005*
	(-1.43)	(-0.87)	(-0.56)	(-4.78)	(-2.53)	(-2.51)

Table 4: Hedge Portfolio Tests for Change in Funding and Long-Term Debt Ratios

Time-series means (t-statistics) of the average annual returns for each FR and LTDR portfolio in three years after portfolio formation are calculated. Panel A and B show the returns for portfolios formed based on the change in FR and LTDR, respectively. In Panel A, the stocks in portfolio one (ten) have the most (least) negative change in funding levels. Firms with positive changes are assigned to portfolio eleven. In Panel B, stocks in portfolio one (ten) have the most (least) positive changes in debt (increase in LTDR). Firms with zero or negative changes (decrease in LTDR) are assigned to portfolio eleven. Panel C presents the hedge between portfolios one and ten, one and eleven, and ten and eleven. * denotes significance at the 0.05 level, based on a two-tailed t-test for the time-series (19 for FR portfolios and 26 years for LTDR portfolios) of annual average returns.

First, hedge portfolio tests were performed between diverse sets of *FR* portfolios. A portfolio hedge that is long in the most negative change in *FR* portfolio (portfolio ten) and short in the least negative change in *FR* portfolio (portfolio one) was formed. The second comparison is between portfolios one and eleven. The last comparison for *FR* portfolios is between portfolios ten (smallest negative changes in *FR*) and eleven (no change or positive change in *FR*). The hedge portfolio yields negative returns for the three years after portfolio formation: -0.4 percent (t = -1.43), -0.3 percent (t = -0.87) and -0.2 percent (t = -0.56), respectively. The results suggest this strategy may not be efficient.

In addition, hedge portfolio tests were performed between diverse sets of LTDR portfolios. A portfolio hedge that is long in firms that have the least positive changes in LTDR (portfolio ten) and short in firms that have the biggest changes (portfolio one) was formed. The second comparison is between portfolios one and eleven. The last comparison for LTDR portfolios is between portfolios ten (smaller changes in LTDR) and eleven (no change or negative change). It is important to notice that the overvaluation for

firms with no change or negative change in LTDR is lower than for firms with the smaller positive changes in LTDR at portfolio formation year. Results indicate that only the first two strategies may be efficient. To summarize, the hedge portfolio results support the notion that the market overprices firms that have the most negative changes in FR and greater increases in LTDR.

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigates if the use of information conveyed by changes in funding status of pension plans results in a better assessment of firms' pension commitments as reflected in stock prices. It contributes to the recent discussion by the FASB and the release of SFAS 158 about the incorporation and importance of more DB pension plan information in the financial statements.

The results suggest that the market does not incorporate efficiently the information related to the changes in funding status as reflected in stock prices. This may signify that the investors are unable to analyze and interpret the possible implications of increases in the underfunding of pension plans. This may be due to investors having problems in understanding the complex pension accounting calculations and disclosures or the inability to incorporate timely and efficiently the information.

In contrast with previous research, investors' reactions to changes in DB pension plan information were compared to reactions to changes in long-term debt account ratios. The results reveal that the market is also inefficient incorporating long-term debt information. Further tests were performed to corroborate if investment strategies can be design based on the market inefficiencies suggested by the results of the factor models. Particular to this study is the integration of hedge portfolio tests. Results suggest that strategies to benefit from market inefficiencies may be profitable. These tests also reveal similarities between market valuations of changes in DB pension plans status and long-term debt information. The results are consistent with Franzoni and Marín (2006) and Godwin and Key (1998). The identified inefficiencies may result from market's inability to integrate information and to identify future consequences related to these long-term commitments. Alternatively, as Sloan (1996) argues, investors appear to be "fixating" just on earnings figures.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Karen C. Castro-González is an assistant professor of accounting and finance at the University of Puerto Rico-Río Piedras, College of Business Administration. She can be contacted at: University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras Campus, College of Business Administration, Accounting Department, PO Box 23326, San Juan, P.R. 00931-3326. Email: cont3005castro@yahoo.com.

Jorge Anibal Restrepo Morales, Tecnológico de Antioquia Santiago Medina Hurtado, Tecnológico de Antioquia

ABSTRACT

The assessment of contingencies and risk measurement in financial markets, and consequently in the rest of the companies in the country's economy is based mostly on the proposals of the New Capital Accord (Basel II), conducted by the Basel Committee. There, a radical importance is given to operational risk concept and besides is included as one of the categories of risks that could be covered with capital.

To determine the expected losses incurred as a result of different events likely to arise in the handling of systems, processes, products and people, requires the development of algorithms that to a desired confidence level, determine the severity of expected losses. This work formulates a model to estimate the risk for Colombian companies in the insurance sector in the field of vehicle policy, which seeks to infer from the LDA method, the probability functions of the number of wrecked vehicles for fraud and monetary loss for then use Montecarlo simulation –MS- to determine the severity of the expected losses, such information will be useful for firms in this field to establish guidelines to follow in developing a plan to improve risk management in operations related to fraud and aggravated vehicle theft.

JEL: G22; C15

KEYWORDS: Insurance, Operational Risk, Simulation, LDA

INTRODUCTION

This paper aims to provide a knowledge base to build a disciplined and systematic view of management oversight of operational risk, particularly in the quantification and measurement. The approach to this knowledge base is addressed in this paper into three parts: the first focuses attention on the generic concepts and definitions of operational risk, in light of the approaches of the Basel Committee (Risk), the second phase presents the current state of the union insurer against losses due to theft vehicles in the region, the third part follows the probability functions of the number of stolen vehicles and monetary losses - from 2004 to 2009- to then use Monte Carlo simulation to determine the severity of the expected losses for the year 2011 due to vehicle theft to the insurance industry.

Defining operational risk: For a successful approach to simulation models, it is important to identify in the first instance, the probability distributions appropriate to the situation analysis and then define the interdependencies that help describe the expected behavior of the variables by covariance analysis and definition and correlations between them.Evans (1998), defines simulation as the process of building a logical-mathematical model of a system or decision-making process, and experiment with it to understand the behavior of the system or help in making decisions. Meanwhile, Fiorito (2006) shows how the simulation is particularly useful in problems or situations involving uncertainty and a model is useless if it does not help users understand the problem. Therefore, the main point in the simulation is set to conduct experiments with the model and analyze the results.

For his part, Alcántara (2010) shows how the raise of the value established by the OpVaR Value (operational risk) depends on the number of events that are likely to occur and the severity of these in respect of losses incurred. In the literature review it is shown that the operational risk characteristics are

associated with probability distributions known as heavy-tailed or fat tai, such as gamma, exponential, Weibull and lognormal, among others (Chernobai et al., 2007; Panjer, 2006; Venegas, 2008).

To select the type of model, several authors, argue that it depends on the behavior of the risks in the institution, such as the degree of exposure and severity that they face in macroeconomic environment in which the institution operates, i.e. recessive or protectionist schemes, specific information recorded historical risk parameters and monitoring of regulatory institutions (Pathak, 2006; Moscadelli, 2004; Edmiston, 2007). It is paramount to highlight the importance of registration of each and every one of the operations and transactions to build a database with the losses, which will constitute the main raw material for the definition and selection of the best model. Our research designs, described below, show how the operational risk management in the field of vehicle theft for the insurance companies should consider external factors such as culture of the population and develop collaborative strategies with the judiciary and professional associations and institutions to which they belong, such as expounded by many authors.

Activities Associated With Insurance Management In Colombia

The insurance industry has a leading role in the economy, primarily by its presence as an institutional investor that promotes personal savings, protects the assets of natural persons and legal safeguards the level and production capacity of enterprises in high claims for random events and severe losses, and secondly, for their high participation in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for example in 2008, the insurance industry reached a share of 2.6% of GDP, showing its continued expansion and contribution to the country's economic growth.

Vehicle Theft Country: Different studies show how in Colombia the perception of the involved ones is that insurance fraud is considered a misdemeanor, and then released. At the end of 2002, four of the largest insurers in the country came together for a common goal: the investigation and prevention of the phenomenon of insurance fraud. In this collaborative effort was born INIF, an institution that brings together a group of people with the most advanced technological methods to generate concrete results for insurers in their fight against fraud.

The most stolen vehicles: The monthly statistics for January-September 2009 and 2010 of thefts by vehicle type shows that cars, vans and heavy vehicle are the most affected segments by the theft and statistics by city of vehicle thefts shows to Bogota and Medellin, most affected, with 31% and 30% respectively.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

There are a set methods to quantify the operational risk, among which we mention Montecarlo Simulation, extreme value theory, Bayesian trees, and fuzzy logic, these techniques are used depending the availability information of loss events. We used Montecarlo Simulation to process the historical data from 2004 to 2010 of vehicle theft on Colombia, to implement the simulation process; we must adjust probability distributions to the frequency and severity of loss events occurred. These adjustments allows obtain the loss distribution aggregated (LDA) in order to estimate the provision that must be undertaken for the specific period (2011). The historical information of frequency and severity of vehicle theft was taken from Fasecolda.

RESULTS

Frequency analysis (theft): We used the @Risk, to fit the best distribution to the vehicle theft data, as shown in Table 1, the best fit using the chi-square test at 95% confidence, is obtained with the binomial

negative distribution (NegBin), because it has the largest P-Value equal to 0,9199 allows us to conclude that NegBin probability function fits the sample data. The other distributions haven't significative p-value.

	Input	NegBin	IntUniform	Poisson	Geomet
Function		463	435	447	166
Minimum	365	0	365	0	0
Maximum	586	+Infinity	586	+Infinity	+Infinity
Mean	475,8395	475,8395	475,5	475,8395	475,8395
Mode	429	473	365	475	0
Median	472	475	475	476	330
Std. Desviation	41,4024	41,069	64,0852	21,8137	476,3392
Skewness	0,2901	0,1483	0	0,0458	2
Kurtosis	3,1293	303%	1,8	3,0021	9
Chi-Sq Statistic		4,5369	52,5987	63,4297	365,83
P-Value		0,9199**	0**	0**	0**

Table 1: Test results for the frequency

This Table shows the results for the frequency thefts vehicles the P-Value equal to 0, 9199 allows us to conclude that NegBin probability function fits the sample data.

The NegBin distribution has the expected value E (X) = 475.83, bringing to 476 thefts, and a standard desviation of 41,069. The parameter of binomial negative distribution are K=187 and P=0.28212

Analysis of the severity (losses): Previously to the fit of parametric distributions we must update the losses using an update factor for inflation, it process permit have the economics loss expressed to a base year 2010. Then, the interpretation is similar to that raised in the case of frequency. The Table 2- shows the fit to different function distributions to the historical data losses for each vehicle theft. The result obtained indicate that several distribution have good fit to the data. The better fit is obtained with the logistic distribution which has a higher P- Value. (0.4148). we used Chi-square test at 95% of confidence. The parameters of logistic distribution are α =31.1462 and β =2.2955.

	Input	Logistic	LogLogistic	ExtValue	InvGauss	Pearson5
Function		32,9830351	29,0999228	25,0856085	26,6559426	31,1275013
Minimum	24,7087	-Infinity	18,5907	-Infinity	20,6506	17,2044
Maximum	63,9616	+Infinity	+Infinity	+Infinity	+Infinity	+Infinity
Mean	31,4693	31,1462	31,5482	31,459	31,4693	31,4349
Mode	31,4986 [est]	31,1462	30,0686	29,5067	29,0302	29,298
Median	31,1337	31,1462	30,8583	30,7463	30,6212	30,6415
Std. Deviation	5,0074	4,1635	4,5706	4,3378	4,4891	4,43
Skewness	3,3929	0	2,085	1,1395	1,2448	1,3788
Kurtosis	24,2775	4,2	19,3261	5,4	5,5826	6,9159
Chi-Sq Statistic		9,2469	12,9506	14,9259	16,1605	17,3951
P-Value		0,4148**	0,1649**	0,093**	0,0636**	0,0429**

Table 2: Test results for the loss of each event of vehicle theft (severity).

This Table shows the results for the severity. As the P-value = 0.4148, the null hypothesis is accepted by the severity follows a logistic distribution

Estimating The Loss Distribution Aggregated (LDA)

A model to estimate the operational risk is characterized in that it is necessary to combine discrete variables (frequency) with continuous variables (severity), so the aggregate loss is an uncertain variable with a non-linear relation, this assumption complicates loss estimate by analytical methods, however the Montecarlo simulation (MS), being a simple and flexible analytical method, allows the convolution of the distributions of the thefts and losses to generate the aggregate loss distribution. The results obtained using MS with data of frequency and severity of theft simulated with the probability distribution, are shown in Figure 1. It will have, respectively, the expected values of 10,000 iterations of the convolution between the frequency and severity distributions, taking NegBin-logisitic combination for each risk event.

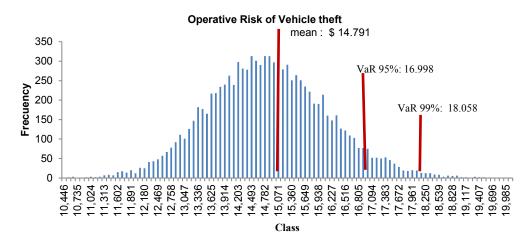


Figure 1: Operative Risk of Vehicle theft

This Figure shows the results of the 10.000 iterations of the convolution between the frequency and severity distributions, taking NegBin-logisitic combination for each risk event.

After performing the MS process, we obtain the distribution of aggregate losses associated with vehicle theft in Colombia from the aggregation of the distribution of frequency and severity. The results are shown in Figure 1, as shown in the graph, the average value of monthly losses total \$14.791 million. Moreover, the operational VaR at 95% and 99% is \$16.998 and \$18.058 million respectively. Those values should be covered by insurance companies through reinsurance of other means of coverage.

CONCLUSIONS

It is evident that the operational risk management in Colombia is in a process of gestation for the financial sector. Companies in the real economy, not yet started the process of risk management, there are isolated efforts and have a long way to go.In general, operational risk for vehicle theft is greater as the number of issued policies increases and it is more likely to occur in the cities of Bogota and Medellin. The rest of the country also shows a rising trend with the passage of the months, as December approaches theft increases. To mitigate risk, it is advisable to approach a study by city, make of vehicle and color to set parameters that allow a definition of differential rates by city, vehicle and color.After performing the MS process, we obtain the distribution of aggregate losses associated with vehicle theft in Colombia from the aggregation of the distribution of frequency and severity. The results are shown in Figure 3, as shown in the graph, the average value of monthly losses totaled \$ 14,791 million. Moreover, the operational VaR at 95% and 99% is \$ 16,998 and \$ 18,058 million respectively. Those values should be covered by insurance companies through reinsurance or other means of coverage.

The simulation gives a country-wide expected loss for the year 2011, which amounts to approximately \$ 157,219 million pesos, represented in the theft of approximately 5,494 vehicles. The model can be run by city, region or department to determine the impact on the profitability of the insurance profession and take risk mitigation with increased premiums, reinsurance, and abandonment of the line in certain cities or the issuance of policies for customers with a High operating volume. The insurance company that requires estimating the economic capital required, must stick to the following procedure: specify the input data, statistical and mathematical techniques to be used and the assumptions used to measure operational risk, and finally define the model validation.

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BIOGRAPHY

Jorge Aníbal Restrepo Morales, PhD. Is an associated professor of management at Tecnologico de Antioquia. He can be contacted by email: jrestrepo@tdea.edu.co.

Santiago Medina Hurtado, PhD. Is an associated professor on Management Engineering School of Minas Faculty. National University of Colombia. He can be contacted by email: <u>smedina@unal.edu.co</u>

MINORITY BANKS' PROFITS, REGULATORY CONSTRAINT LESSONS AND FIRREA SECTION 308

John A. Cole, North Carolina A&T State University Lucy J. Reuben, Duke University

ABSTRACT

This paper argues that regulatory neglect may be one of the impediments to the prospects and potential of minority banks. Evidence is now apparent in the very proactive regulatory measures that were required to calm markets with the onset of the great recession. In the "Panic of 2008," financial markets froze up, liquidity disappeared, and capital levels were severely eroded; and regulators undertook unconventional and costly intervention to remedy these problems. This paper advocates an analogous level of regulatory engagement, creativity and commitment needed to meet the requirements of the Financial Institutions Reform, Recovery, and Enforcement Act of 1989 ("FIRREA") Section 308. This legislation anticipates a more significant presence and enhanced viability for minority-owned banks. Key lessons and insights from observing the Fed reset economic conditions with the "Panic of 2008" may be that given established goals in FIRREA Section 308, an effective reconsideration of how properly to regulate minority banks is important – given otherwise adverse profitability outcomes in the minority banking and financial sector, and resulting economic growth constraints in minority communities.

JEL: E5, E6, G2

KEYWORDS: minority banks, bank regulations, CAMELS, capital access

INTRODUCTION

With the onset of the great recession, liquidity and capital were unusually scarce and markets were essentially "frozen." Business risk was unusually elevated, and risk levels in financial markets and institutions surpassed conventional boundaries. Traditionally, the Federal Reserve System (the Fed) was viewed as *the lender of last resort*. However, "when the eruption of the Panic of 2008 threatened the very foundations of the global economy" Fed shock therapy actions proved that this traditional role implied constraints, which significantly understated the Fed's economic power and authority (Bernanke 2010). For example, the Fed assumed a key advisory role to the Federal government's selective investments to stabilize financial markets and participants (Bernanke 2009). Fed leadership helped the Federal government assume a position as "investor of last resort," subsuming the Fed's conventional "last resort lender" role into a broader "investment banker" role for the government. This expanded Fed role showed how a financial regulator could impact the supply of liquidity and the channeling of capital as necessary to restore normal private market conditions (Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System 2010). The foregoing suggests the important power of regulator to prescribe and administer shock therapy.

The question is whether such economic shocks might change the economic and business trajectory within the minority community. The Fed seemed to engage in a four-step "economic shock" process as the economy turned down: (1) It secured a strong base of large depository institutions to assure sufficient market liquidity and financing in any risk climate; (2) It bought and/or created a range of securities in volumes sufficient for business-financing demands; (3) It communicated to market participants that its regulatory status implied its capacity and willingness to hold a range of securities to promote market confidence; and (4) It signaled the temporary nature of the production of an expanded array of securities and related market purchases.

Fed actions encouraged institutions such as Goldman Sachs, Morgan Stanley and American Express to convert from investment banks to regulated Bank Holding Companies (depositories). Underscoring the importance of depository institutions, Merrill Lynch was folded into Bank of America. With the collaboration and support of the Department of the Treasury, the Feds determined where capital was critical (e.g., Bank of America and Wells Fargo ... Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac etc.) for the revival and survival of mainstream businesses. With Fed involvement in (a) influencing financial markets' risk perceptions and (b) advising public approaches in addressing deeply troubling economic circumstances, it is appropriate to revisit the promise in minority banks, specifically FIRREA Section 308 (FDIC 2002). A new regulatory paradigm embracing the four-step economic "economic shock program" may now be an avenue to encourage minority business through a better-regulated system of minority banks. Analogous access to an "investor of last resort" may provide major benefits to realizing the full business and employment potential of the minority business sector.

More pointedly, to paraphrase the Kerner Commission, there appears to be *de facto* segregation in the nation's business systems and related banking systems (REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CIVIL DISORDERS 1968). Currently arrangements, the minority business system has access to banking and financial capital resources only enough to retain relatively small numbers of very small businesses. The results are limited wealth and employment prospects, confinement in poorer neighborhoods; and misunderstood, underappreciated business efforts therein. The second system, defined as the "mainstream" business system, provides differently for a largely non-minority community. It consists of large businesses that enjoy appropriate *public* support and resources through such things as a vast well-regulated financial system. That mainstream system, the one that collapsed with the great recession, continues to receive "economic shock therapy" as noted earlier. With its associated financial support structure, the mainstream system has normally yielded a continuous stream of scalable and replicable business opportunities. An appropriate financial infrastructure supports this business system and encourages public participation, resulting in numerous employment opportunities from wellcapitalized privately owned business enterprises. Thus, ownership and related financial claims in the mainstream system have widespread inter-generational wealth payoffs. This paper purports that such wealth and employment prospects are not realized in the minority business sector largely due to the lack of an appropriate well-regulated banking system in the minority community.

We term this two-system status quo the nation's business separateness problem, a continuing market imperfection that has not been properly defined, and which requires a solution. The business separateness problem reflects two financial systems. In the mainstream business system, supported by a well-regulated system of sophisticated financial institutions and financial markets, financial innovation for business formation and growth is encouraged and rewarded. Minority businesses lack access to a similar regulated system of financial intermediation to support business growth, formation and sustainability. No single financial regulator is accountable for addressing this separateness in financial product pricing(T B Bates 2006, 2007). As a result, minority business risk may not be well priced or presented for continuous trading in liquid markets (Small Business Administration 2009); otherwise, it would be widely possible to properly partition minority business firms' risk into well-understood frameworks like systematic and unsystematic risk, allowing for related securities and markets. This undergirds the separateness problem and the motivation to address the issues we identify in this paper.

Passage of FIRREA Section 308 comes closest to advocating the kind of regulatory oversight and possible structure currently available to the mainstream business system. FIRREA provisions include goals for depository institutions to serve the community – including minority businesses. FIRREA (FDIC 2010)authorizes bank regulators to:

- Preserve the number of minority depository institutions;
- Preserve the minority character in cases of merger or acquisition;
- Provide technical assistance to prevent insolvency of institutions not now insolvent;
- Promote and encourage creation of new minority depository institutions; and
- · Provide for training, technical assistance, and educational programs."

The FIRRREA goals provide a vision of preserving the number of institutions, and promoting and encouraging the creation of new minority depository institutions. That vision is at odds with the continuing capital access problems in the minority community and with the separateness problem. The persistence of the business separateness problem is evidence of issues perceived as being outside of conventional bounds of risk and return and/or existing regulatory conventions.

FIRREA Section 308 legislation has come closest to articulating and establishing financial infrastructure goals. However, the legislation made no specific provisions or stipulation for accountability to attain the FIRREA Section 308 goals. This paper argues for more effective regulatory capacity and accountability to attain the FIRREA Section 308 goals, a process to tackle the separateness problem. The national importance of eliminating the separateness problem, and moving the minority business system from "niche" status to mainstream status is clear. Consider President Nixon's Executive Order (EO) 11625 after passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1964 (Black Capitalism 1973).

"The opportunity for full participation in our free enterprise system by socially and economically disadvantaged persons is essential if we are to obtain social and economic justice for such persons and improve the functioning of our national economy (Nixon 1971)." Yet, the EO as articulated did not highlight the separate set of limitations afflicting financing for minority business generally. Thus, FIRREA Section 308 may be interpreted as the authorization of financial support for the EO 11625 vision of the minority business system.

The rest of the paper is divided into four sections. In section 2, provides a review of some literature related to minority banks. Section 3 presents data on the wealth status within the minority community to understand the banking capacity constraints, including some pertinent data in the non-financial area of minority owned businesses. Section 4 examines the existing minority financial institutions, providing a description of their status and capacity, including the very fragmentary regulatory structure under which minority banks function at present. We also examine regulatory application of the CAMELS criteria. Finally, Section 5 provides conclusions and recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The dilemma and prospects for minority-owned banks were issues first identified and examined in great detail in pioneering works by Brimmer and by Irons. They considered and questioned the meager financing capacity of existing black banks (Brimmer). Since that time, an ensuing literature related to minority banks has largely examined the periodic accounting performance of minority owned banks when compared with other nonminority-owned banks (Cole, Edwards, and Reuben). Additionally, issues of efficiency or other managerial concerns have also received some necessary attention. In such studies, minority banks have not fared well (Hunter and Hasan 1997). And whether or not there might be customer preferences for their services where they exist (Black et.al. 2003), or there are differences in the outcomes of varying minority groups (Echols-Edmonds and Helms Robicheaux 2007), there continue to be difficult questions surrounding how to supply the conventional financing needs that arise in minority

communities – especially as operating conditions and results compare unfavorably. For example, there is some evidence that loans at African American banks are generally characterized as being of small scale, illiquid, and containing high risk. It is worth noting, however, that in most discussions of comparative performance records in the literature on minority banks, there is little discussion on appropriate performance expectations in these comparisons. So it is unclear what operational or policy implications are targeted in reporting persistently weak comparable behavior in the minority banking system.

Consistent with the virtual absence of expectations benchmarks, no conceptual framework exists against which to assess minority banks and their capacity for growth and fostering development in their communities. That has consequences. For example, there is no context to assess current regulatory arrangements, or to propose possible refinements that enhance effectiveness. Because so much of the minority bank literature was developed outside of an established conceptual framework most minority bank assessments have become a predictable exercise with only limited policy implications to enhance capacity and capabilities at these banks.

Closely following FIRREA's passage, Brimmer was earliest to consider the regulators' role and potential in minority banking using the closure of Freedom National Bank as a case study. Brimmer noted that insensitive regulators' actions adversely affected black wealth, penalized savings habits, and no doubt future support for minority banking (Brimmer 1992). More recently, Hylton added to Brimmer's concerns about regulators support (or lack thereof) for banking in minority communities given their responsibility for associated regulation (here the CRA). He posited a rhetorical question as follows (Hylton 2000):

"Why are poor inner cities underserved by financial institutions, and why is it so difficult to find a solution to this problem? ... I claim that the existing regulatory framework makes it difficult for large scale development – oriented lending institutions to emerge."

These concerns that established regulatory constructs may be somewhat inappropriate for minoritybanking conditions would be consistent with the work of Diamond and Dybvig (1983). Subsequently, consistent with the spirit of Brimmer's and Hylton's representations, the National Bankers Association testified regarding FIRREA's potential and even broach the issue of empowerment of regulators focused on the potential for these banks (Cooper 2007).

Expectations And Performance

The literature on minority banks to date has not been organized or discussed around an expectations model for bank formation, growth and performance. Rather, one implied assumption in most comparative studies is that the performance expectations for non-minority banks apply equally to minority banks. More generally, assumptions in those studies imply that regulations and regulators for both minority and non-minority banks are properly undifferentiated. We rethink those assumptions however, arising with the special roles and prominence assigned to banks during periods of economic stress and depleted wealth levels accompanying the Panic of 2008. In the expectations formulation, there are two levels to be addressed. One is a set of expectations held by regulators and examiners with a focus on institutions and the system's safety and soundness characteristics. In this case, the CAMELS or other regulatory scores matter. A second is a set of performance issues focused on institutions in a private competitive market context. Regulators assign CAMEL scores across all depository institutions (Lopez 1999).

They are to account for a range of safety and soundness measures and regulators imbed a set of assumptions into these measures about institutions' capital access, and capital availability. Of course, both for minority banks that are almost uniformly unlisted in capital markets, capital access and availability are inputs tied directly to levels of wealth in their communities. However, recent trends in

wealth disparities are in the wrong direction, and these have implications for both for banking operations and for results that arise out of regulatory examinations.

"In 23 years, the racial wealth gap increased by \$75,000, from \$20,000 to \$95,000. ... The racial wealth gap in 1984 amounted to less than three years tuition payment for one child at a public university. By 2007, the dollar amount of the gap is enough to pay full tuition at a four-year public university for two children, plus tuition at a public medical school. The gap is opportunity denied and assures racial economic inequality for the next generation." (Shapiro, Meschede and Sullivan 2010)

The Levy Institute has noted similar findings both in the areas of incomes and wealth (Wolff 2010). It is against that wealth background that the current bank regulatory practices are considered. Regulators accomplish their supervisory mission through an examinations process wherein they assign well-understood CAMELS scores to banks, and these are used to monitor the institutions' current levels of riskiness."The acronym "CAMEL" refers to the five components of a bank's condition that are assessed: Capital adequacy, Asset quality, Management, Earnings, and Liquidity. A sixth component, a bank's Sensitivity to market risk, was added in 1997; hence the acronym was changed to CAMELS. ... Ratings are assigned for each component in addition to the overall rating of a bank's financial condition.

The ratings are assigned on a scale from 1 to 5. Banks with ratings of 1 or 2 are considered to present few, if any, supervisory concerns, while banks with ratings of 3, 4, or 5 present moderate to extreme degrees of supervisory concern." (Using CAMELS Ratings to Monitor Bank Conditions, FRBSF Economic Letter 1999).The components in this examinations system confirm and actualize what we would expect. The current regulatory definition of bank safety and soundness centers on institutions' capital and capital access – wealth driven measures. We assume that regulators set their safety and soundness measures to be attainable by the typical banking institution. For safety and soundness reasons, however, it is distributions of wealth that would affect the distribution of regulator- approved successful banks. In normal economic times and conditions (as preceded the great recession), we assume that the typical bank could meet the CAMELS scores of 1 or 2. The wealth-disparity findings cited earlier would inform that, *ex ante*, in a comparison of minority banks with non-minority banks, we would expect desired CAMELS scores for non-minority banks. If the typical non-minority banks could meet the desired scores of 1 or 2, with the wealth disparities, *ex ante*, we would expect that the typical minority bank would attain a CAMELS score of no higher than 3.

Let us consider a comparison of profits and returns expectations for example, in a competition between a representative minority bank and a comparable non-minority bank. The competition is for profitable long-term banking relationships and the associated economic activity in the respective communities. The banks are first engaging a representative rational client with an initial bank loan request to establish a permanent lending relationship. We follow with a competition to establish a permanent deposit relationship.

The loan competition: Consider first the rational risk-averse borrower. This borrower is aware that examiners assign CAMELS scores to the banks. *Ceteris paribus*, to avoid bearing undue funding risk in the institutional relationship, rationality directs this borrower to prefer the higher quality bank regarding safety and soundness (i.e. the bank that examiners are likely to assign a lower CAMELS score.) In the context of existing wealth disparities, the non-minority bank is expected to have a safety and soundness advantage reflected in lower CAMELS scores and initially that bank can expect to receive the rational loan request.Let us assume that the non-minority bank is not expected to receive a comparable CAMELS score, and therefore loses out in perceived safety. In competition with the non-minority bank for the loan, then rationality would require it to offer a lower loan rate to the borrower to compensate for the borrower's increased funding risk. Call this lower rate r_{lm} - the minority bank's competitive loan offer

$$L^{m} = (\mathbf{r}_{l} - \mathbf{r}_{lm}) > 0$$

and $\mathbf{r}_{l} = r_{lm} + \delta, \ \delta > 0$ (1)

The deposit competition: Consider also the case of a representative rational depositor. The depositor has the choice to make a deposit in either of two banks that are similar in all ways except with respect to perceived safety and soundness (i.e. CAMELS scores). Rationally, the depositor will choose the safer bank. Again, this is the non-minority bank, *ceteris paribus*. Define the established deposit rate at the safer non-minority bank as r_d . For the minority bank to be competitive for the deposit, it will have to offer a higher deposit rate. This implies that under CAMELS regulations and examinations, there is a deposit disadvantage for minority banks, D^m :

$$D^{m} = (r_{dm} - r_{d}) > 0$$

and $r_{d} = r_{dm} - \theta, \ \theta > 0$ (2)

The comparative profit (rate of return) expectation: Of course, the combination of having to offer higher deposit rates, and to receive lower loan rates then positions the minority bank to realize lower profits as measured by accounting rates of return. So, *ceteris paribus*, in a comparison of the loan portfolio profits at the non-minority bank with the similar profits at minority banks, there is a profitability and rate of return disadvantage at minority banks. This implies that under the CAMELS regulatory and examinations system, minority banks are at a profit disadvantage, P^m :

$$P^m = (\delta + \theta) > 0. \tag{3}$$

As described in (3), the representative minority bank is at a structural profit disadvantage in competition with a comparable non-minority bank under the CAMELS regulatory measures. In other words, with a separateness problem imbedded in wealth disparities, the regulatory framework has as an unintended consequence in its examinations process. There is a built-in disadvantage for minority banks, and they are not likely to be as profitable as non-minority banks.

We will attempt to extend the analysis with an effort to quantify the direct payoffs to CAMELS ratings under the competitive conditions summarized in (3).

Let $(C_{mt}) = CAMELS$ rating at time t for the representative minority bank. Let $(C_{nt}) = CAMELS$ rating at time t for a comparable non-minority bank.

The wealth disparity and capital access differentials result in representative CAMELS scores such that $(C_{mt}) > (C_{nt})$. Because of the structure of the CAMELS scoring system, and the finite range of its discrete step function (from best (1) to worst (5) as noted earlier), we posit in equation (4):

$$(C_{mt}) = (1+\alpha) (C_{nt}); \qquad \alpha \ge 1$$
(4)

We also know that in construction, accounting rates of return are an inverse function of their CAMELS scores. For the minority bank we can represent:

$$E(r_{mt}) = a^{m}(C_{mt});$$
⁽⁵⁾

Where r_{mt} is the accounting rate of return for the representative minority bank in time t, and a^{in} is the parameter describing the CAMELS rate of return payoff for the representative minority bank. For the comparable non-minority bank we can represent the accounting return on assets as:

 $(\mathbf{3})$

$$E(r_{nt}) = a^{n}(C_{nt})$$
(6)

Where r_{nt} is the accounting rate of return for the non-minority bank in time t, and $a^n < 0$ is the parameter describing the CAMELS rate of return payoff for the comparable non-minority bank. Then, subtracting (5) from (6), we obtain results in equation (7) that are compatible with those in (3), highlighting a direct tie to the CAMELS score C_{it} :

$$E(r_{nt}) - E(r_{mt}) = [a^{n} - (1+\alpha)a^{m}]C_{t} \ge 0$$
(7)

Consider the right-hand-side in (7). There the positive value $[a^n - (1+\alpha)a^m]$ is instructive and gives opportunity to assess directly the CAMELS rate of return payoff for respectively a representative minority bank and a comparable non-minority bank for CAMELS rating, C_t. Because in construction C_t must be positive (and range in discrete increments from 1 ... 5), it follows from RHS in (7) that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^n - (1+\alpha)a^m \end{bmatrix} > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a^n / a^m > (1+\alpha)$$
(8)
(9)

Recall that in this model $\alpha \ge 1$ to equate expected CAMELS ratings across representative banks using the CAMELS step function. In other words, we now have a means of measuring the differential payoffs to CAMELS ratings across banks as follows:

$$\rightarrow a^n \ge 2 a^m \tag{10}$$

In this framework, as shown in equation (10), the returns payoff to CAMELS ratings at non-minority banks is at least twice as large as the returns payoff to CAMELS ratings at minority banks. As importantly, the analysis implies that in the CAMELS system, minority banks are at a competitive disadvantage, growth rates in their communities are expected to suffer, and business conditions reflect those disadvantages. For the typical minority bank and its clients, the CAMELS system becomes a rather blunt regulatory tool, with little payoff and incentives to banking and business development in the community. The implications from this analysis are important. For example, consider the matter of business growth. Holding constant banks' dividend payout policies, the lower profit levels at minority banks really do portend very dire differences in the communities that these banks serve. For example, we know that internally financed growth in the banking business would depend on both the retention rate and the rate of return on equity. But the systematically lower rates of return at minority banks would imply systematically lower retention amounts, which, when combined with lower rates of return on equity would produce a growing gap between communities supported by minority banks, and those supported by non-minority banks. The implications for business growth and formation are dire - and the social concerns are likely to be very costly. The CAMELS regulatory measure under our current regulatory system is too costly for the minority banking system at present.

Overview Of The Minority Business Sector

In this context, it is legitimate to assess the capacity of minority businesses. Access to capital is frequently cited as one of the most significant barriers to minority business growth and development. One reasonable expectation is that, other things equal, the rates of formation and survival of minority owned businesses should be no different from the rates of formation and survival of non-minority businesses (Farlie and Robb 2010). We would expect that the breakout of employer and non-employer firms should be comparable across minority and non-minority communities. Using Census Bureau data, we examine the rates of business ownership in minority and non-minority groups. We focus on the current rates of business survival (as represented in the Census Data, 2002) per 1000 population and

compare these rates across racial and Hispanic groups for both employer and non-employer firms identified in the Census Data. Table 1 summarizes our findings.

Table 1: Business Ownership by Gende	r, Hispanic or Latino Origin	, and Race for Owners of Respondent
Firms: 2002		

		Owners of respondent firms		employer 1t firms	nonemp	Owners of nonemployer respondent firms		rms per Thousa 2002	and Population in
Business ownership by gender, Hispanic or Latino origin, and	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	2002 Population Estimates	Employer firms per thousand	Non-employer firms per thousand
race All owners	20,528,725	(X)	5,574,044	(X)	14,954,681	(X)	277,017,622	20.12	53.98
Female	7,283,412	35.5	1,503,278	27.0	5,780,134	38.7	141,816,718	10.60	40.76
Male	13,244,750	64.5	4,070,762	73.0	9,173,988	61.3	135,200,904	30.11	67.85
Hispanic owners	1,090,738	5.3	209,553	3.8	881,185	5.9	36,200,781	5.79	24.34
Non- Hispanic owners	19,437,850	94.7	5,364,479	96.2	14,073,371	94.1	240,816,841	22.28	58.44
White owners	18,820,349	91.7	5,164,102	92.6	13,656,247	91.3	217,433,741	23.75	62.81
Black or African American	716,396	3.5	85,591	1.5	630,804	4.2	35,084,415	2.44	17.98
owners American Indian and Alaska Native owners	173,667	0.8	28,574	0.5	145,093	1.0	4,072,232	7.02	35.63
Asian owners	951,942	4.6	319,202	5.7	632,741	4.2	12,039,168	26.51	52.56
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander owners	25,812	0.1	4,680	0.1	21,131	0.1	374,462	12.50	56.43

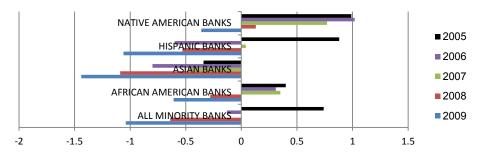
Owners of firms with paid employees and owners with no paid employees; and owners who provided their gender, Hispanic or Latino origin, or race characteristics or indicated the firm was publicly held. Detail may not add to total because a Hispanic/Latino owner may be of any race and/or multi-race declaration options. X Not applicable Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2002 Survey of Business Owners. Characteristics of Business Owners – Released September 27, 2006

As shown, whites are the highest percentage of both owners of employer-respondent firms and nonemployer-respondent firms. The percentages are respectively 92.6 and 91.3. Men form higher percentages of each set of firms when compared with women. Males are owners of 73% of employer firms, and 61.3% of non-employer firms. Among minority groups, Asians present the highest percentage of all employer-respondent firms (5.7%), Hispanic Americans are next (3.8%), Black or African Americans are next (1.5%), and American Indians or Native Americans are next (0.5%). A similar pattern holds for non-employer-respondent firms, except that Hispanic Americans have 5.9% of these non-employer-respondent firms, while Asian Americans reported 4.2% of those firms. As an extension of the Census Data, we considered a density of reported businesses per 1000 population.

This would account for differences in population across the various groups. Those data are shown in Table 1 as "density of firms per thousand population -2002". The patterns and mix of firms owned that emerge in that framework are compelling. For example, for all of the U.S. population, there were about 20.12 employer firms per 1000 population. There were about 53.98 non-employer firms per 1000 population. In other words, there were about 2.7 non-employer firms for each employer firm per 1000 population. Across gender lines, males reported 30.11 employer firms per 1000 population, and 67.85 non-employer firms. The non-employer to employer firm ratio for men was 2.25. For women, the report was 10.6 employer firms per 1000 population, and 40.76 non-employer firms per 1000 for a ratio of 3.85 non-employer firms per employer firm. In the white community, the respective numbers were 23.75 employer and 62.81 non-employer firms per 1000, or 2.64 non-employer firms per employer firm. For the four major minority groups, Asian Americans reported 26.51 employer firms per 1000 and 52.56 nonemployer firms per 1000. The non-employer/employer firm ratio was 1.98. For Hispanic Americans, the employer firms number was 5.79 per 1000 and 24.34 non-employer firms per 1000. The nonemployer/employer firm ratio was 4.2. For African Americans, the employer firms reported per 1000 was 2.44 and the non-employer firms per 1000 was 17.98. the non-employer/employer firm ratio was 7.37. For American Indians-Native Americans, the employer firms per 1000 was 7.02 and the non-employer firms per 1000 was 35.63. The non-employer/employer firms ratio was 5.07.

It is reasonable to assume that employer firms are larger than non-employer firms, other things constant. It is also reasonable that larger firms require larger volumes of capital. So the reported rates of employer firms are likely an indicator of differences in access to capital. By this measure, non-Hispanic males, whites generally and Asians generally did not have the capital access problems faced by African Americans, Hispanic Americans and Native Americans. Men did not have the capital access problems experienced by women. While the non-employer to employer ratio increased in relative terms for women and non-Asian minorities, the numbers did indicate a continuing commitment to business engagement and business formation. The matter of capital access seemed a most plausible differentiating factor in this set of Census Data. These Census Data would also be compatible with a weakened banking sector. For example, consider the earnings performance of minority owned banks (Figure 1). For the group of minority banks, only in 2005 did the entire group experience positive earnings. In fact, all other minority banks but the Asian American banks had positive earnings in 2005. African American and Native American banks also had positive earnings in the period 2006 and 2007. Only Native American banks had positive earnings in 2009.

Figure 1: Earnings Performance at Minority Banks



These data reflect information provided by the Federal Reserve Board. See (Federal Reserve Board n.d.)

Thus, even before the onset of the great recession at the end of 2007, the individual minority group banks had begun to show weaknesses in their earnings. In fact, over the entire period as reflected in these data, the trend in earnings quality at minority banks would have been a source of some concern. In fact, this pattern is consistent with perceptions that these banks are the earliest ones to experience economic

stresses, and the last to be revived¹. That anecdotal matter has significance in the capital position at these banks. We turn some attention therefore to the banks' capital positions in the period.

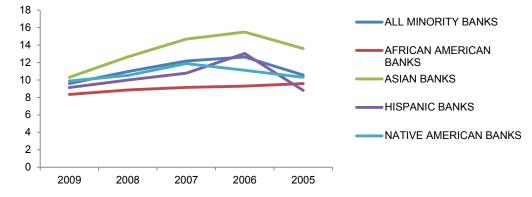


Figure 2: Tier 1 Capital Performance

As shown, in the period 2005 - 2009, the capital positions of the individual groups of minority banks were very varied. Generally in the period, the Asian American banks as a group regularly exhibited the highest levels of Tier-1 capital (Figure 2). However, consistent with the profit positions cited earlier, tier-1 capital trends in the 2005 – 2009 period at minority banks (whether by individual groups or in totality) were pronounced and negative. In fact, the capital positions at African American and Hispanic banks were uniformly less than the average of all minority banks in the period. The communities associated with these capital poor community banks in 2005 – 2009 were noted earlier in 2002 as being least in the density of employer respondent firms. It is of note also that, poor earnings performance notwithstanding, Asian American banks were best capitalized in the period 2005 – 2009. In 2002 among minority communities, Asian Americans seemed strongest in the Census Data as business owners with employer-respondent firms. If the 2005 – 2009 banking data indicate that Asian Americans have experienced best access to capital among minority groups, then the correlation is consistent with the likelihood that access to capital may be a key to unlocking new firms and employment prospects all across minority communities. The question is whether a significant element of this desired capital access emphasis can effectively be accomplished through a new and accountable regulatory framework for minority banks as envisaged through FIRREA section 308. Such access to adequate regulated capital through community institutions may hasten how they privately finance and realize their own potential. We note *en passant* that in the past, public support business programs have been fashioned to address the de facto separateness problem. For example, the Small Business Administration of the U.S. government has established and maintained the 8(A) program.

"The 8(a) program began as a public law and was named after Section 8(a) of the Small Business Act of 1953. The original program was started in 1969. Key aspects of the 8(a) program are (a) qualified businesses had a 9-year time limit; the program was strictly a program for minorities; the program was managed by the SBA"²

Such programs will be of continuing and great importance. However, in support of the development and financing of minority business, the position that we find appealing is some well-regulated and predictable competitive mechanism for fully realizing access to capital grounded in a strong depository-banking sector. Other approaches attract legal challenges that seem costly to minority business formation, and heighten risk perceptions. For example, outside of the regulated banking sector, costly adverse outcomes have been very demoralizing and costly to entrepreneurship in the minority community (e.g. *Adarand v. Pena,* and *Croson v. City of Richmond*)³. Or sometimes bureaucratic confusion may be an impediment to growth prospects ⁴. By way of contrast, robust financial regulations and regulators are integral to the

economic mainstream, they encourage local financial participation and ownership of indigenous enterprises, and they potentially can foster conventional competition as well-regulated depository and other financial institutions are encouraged and as they are better understood.

FIRREA Section 308 is unique legislation in a number of ways – not least because it uniquely focuses on financing minority businesses, and imbeds a vision of a strong system of minority banks. Our analysis has indicated that the CAMELS regulatory framework is inappropriate, and does not include an appropriate incentive structure for the development of minority banks. A reflection on the great recession indicates that appropriate economic shocks exist to revitalize a moribund or severely weakened economy in need of capital and liquidity. Against this backdrop, and our concern about the disadvantages for minority banks in a separate economic sphere, there is an overdue need for a more profound consideration of the regulatory options or apparatus that should govern for purposes of the FIRREA 308 minority banking goals.

The Current State Of Firrea Related Regulations For Minority Institutions

The current state of oversight of minority banks makes clear that a hodgepodge of oversight functions exist, but that this very hodgepodge is evidence that for these institutions, regulatory reforms and rearrangements are overdue. The GAO presented this matter rather subtly in its recent report. "Each federally insured depository institution, including each minority bank, has a primary federal regulator. As shown ... (the) FDIC serves as the primary federal regulator for more than half of minority banks – 109 of the 195 banks or 56 percent – and the Federal Reserve regulates the fewest."⁵

Table 2: Regulatory Arrangements at Present for Minority Banks

Number of Minority Banks, by Regulator, 2005							
Regulator	No. of minority banks	Percent of minority banks					
FDIC	109	56					
OCC	43	22					
OTS	22	11					
Federal Reserve	21	11					
Total	195	100					

Source: GAO-08-Minority Banks Report

In relation to the FIRREA Section 308 goals, the regulatory oversight (or marginal efforts at implementation) is at best confusing at present, and no one regulator is accountable under the law for accomplishing its purposes. In fact, both responsibility and accountability have been left rather ill-defined and diffuse, with apparent independent roles for the FDIC, for the OCC, for the OTS and for the Federal Reserve Board. Issues of capital and liquidity that so characterized the need for corrective actions with the Panic of 2008 are not addressed by any existing regulator in the case of minority banks. Consider the following provisions to make the point:

H.R. 4043--Preserving and Expanding Minority Depository Institutions Act

Existing law requires officials from two of the federal agencies that regulate banks--the Office of Thrift Supervision (OTS) and the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC)--to consult with the Department of the Treasury on methods to preserve and promote minority ownership of depository institutions. H.R. 4043 would direct the Chairman of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System and the Comptroller of the Currency to participate in those activities. In addition, the bill would require each of the participating agencies to submit an annual report to the Congress on actions taken to implement the law.

Based on information from the Federal Reserve and affected agencies, CBO estimates that

additional costs under the bill incurred by the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency, the OTS, and FDIC would affect direct spending, but such expenditures would be offset by income from annual fees or deposit insurance premiums. The budgetary effects on the Federal Reserve would be recorded as changes in revenues, and CBO estimates that such changes would reduce revenues by less than \$500,000 a year. Enacting the bill would have a negligible net effect on direct spending.⁶

These are confusing regulatory arrangements, and the growth in numbers and capacity of minority banking does not have a regulatory champion for whom this growth is its primary mission. In the meantime, there may be adverse effects taking hold and little corrective actions being proposed. For example, the FDIC has long understood, distilled and articulated the range of issues in comparative terms:

"From the beginning of 1998 through the end of the first quarter of 2000, there were 13 failures of FDIC-insured commercial banks and savings institutions. ... These failures have occurred during a period of robust economic growth, when overall conditions for financial institutions have been especially favorable. Five of these failures – nearly 40 percent – were minority-owned institutions ... This percentage exceeds the historical experience of minority bank failures, and the failure rate for minority-owned banks has been higher than the rate for other institutions for at least ten years. That's too many failures. ... When a minority bank fails, neighborhoods lose, families lose, people lose. They lose the funding – and the services – that minority bankers provide – sometimes where no one else will." ⁷

Consider a view from the FDIC's Division of Supervision and Consumer Protection regarding the operating and market conditions that prevail for minority depository institutions (MDIs):

The difference in profitability (minority vs. non-minority institutions) can result from many factors. MDIs, like most community banks, often must compete with larger financial institutions for both business and a talented work force. They also may find it difficult to diversify their geographical and credit risk exposures due to their commitment to serve local communities and ethnic populations. In addition, some minority institutions are challenged with operating in an economically depressed market area. The disparities in profitability and other key measures between MDIs and other financial institutions demonstrate the continuing importance of the FIRREA goals to encourage and preserve MDIs.⁸

The separateness problem is not addressed as such. Further, the costs of this problem are neither debated nor well-specified with a goal for its effective management or its elimination under ideal conditions. Like the mainstream financial system has experienced, there is a role for strong and visible regulatory intervention when the institutions and the systems themselves are incapable of meeting financing and liquidity demands in their markets. In the case of the FIRREA 308 minority banking goals, appropriate regulations should include a capacity to readily apply needed economic shocks, for both financial and non-financial risk attenuation. In addition, the regulatory framework would include a capacity to supply on a temporary basis other necessary capital or liquidity infusing activities as are necessary and sufficient to change risk perceptions. For example, the goals would include actions to move minority banks over time from institutions with expected CAMELS scores of 3 or lower, to banks with regular and permanent CAMELS scores of 1 or 2.

In the context of developing an appropriate financial support infrastructure, those regulatory actions would include among other things, ongoing research and information generation about risks and returns in financing the minority business system. Further, there would be wider dissemination of impartial and credible information about business risk in minority firms. We would expect the creation of new financial products in an ongoing process that is rewarding and strongly encouraged. In the absence of a

focused regulator for this *de facto* separate business segment and the minority banks, the causes of these comparative differences are unlikely to be well-understood, widely accepted, and addressed effectively.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have drawn very valuable lessons from the onset of the great recession (or Panic of 2008) about the power and expanded role of financial regulations and an actively engaged lead regulator. Our focus was on the Federal Reserve Board and its actions. Those lessons are pertinent to the realization of the FIRREA Section 308 goals related to minority banks. We have proposed that a de facto separate business system exists for the minority community and another for the non-minority community. Among the issues that perpetuate the separateness problem are wealth and business disparities that trend in the wrong direction. These trends constitute fundamental barriers to robust minority banks in sufficient numbers to support the business formation and growth potential in these communities. Our conclusion is that a more accountable and responsible regulator charged with fulfilling the FIRREA Section 308 goals could credibly tread where the Fed did as the Panic of 2008 unfolded. Such a regulatory adjustment would significantly change expectations regarding minority banks and minority business prospects.

The *sine qua non* is that the onset of the Great Recession of 2007-2008 (or the Panic of 2008) highlighted the Fed's leadership role in a range of activities – underscoring the power and possibilities of bank regulators in correcting a known market failure. That role included aggressively strengthening the financial system through actions to shore up depository institutions and to maintain their capacity to support business activity. That makes the case, *a fortiori*, for a parallel regulatory role to correct a persistent market failure arising from the peculiarities that adversely affect the capital and liquidity structures of minority banks. The legislative framework exists through FIRREA Section 308 to provide for, and authorize a credible regulator for minority banks – and to change risk perceptions and costs for businesses in those communities – even as we bring the banks over time into conformance with lower CAMELS rating.

<u>Notes</u>

1 The background to such anecdotes is that some segments of the minority labor force are likely to have experienced a "last-on first off" hiring history. The businesses are also likely to be smaller and more thinly capitalized, they have relatively weaker relationships with established banks. These are the groups that receive ongoing serious attention from minority banks. Thus they are vulnerable to liquidity pressures, and profit squeezes with the earliest signs of more general economic problems.

² "The 8(a) BD Program provides a logical, systematic approach to federal market access and enterprise growth to businesses owned and controlled by socially and economically disadvantaged individuals, promoting business development over a 9-year period, with annual reviews. (U.S. Small Business Administration 2008)

³ See (U.S. Department of Justice - Walter Dellinger 1995)

⁴ "The 8(a) program allows USDA to enter into contracts for supplies and services with SBA 8(a) firms. SBA then subcontracts the actual performance of the work to small businesses owned and controlled by socially and economically Disadvantaged individuals. ... In August 1998, through a memorandum of understanding (MOU), the Small Business Administration (SBA) granted USDA the authority to award 8(a) contracts directly to 8(a) firms. The objective of the "8(a)" Program is to help eligible small firms become independently competitive. "

⁵ See (Government Accountability Office 2007)

⁶ See (The Library of Congress THOMAS 2007)

⁷ See (Tanoue 2000). Of course in the absence of focused regulations, carefully designed financial products, and better communications of returns prospects, it will remain unclear whether some of these outcomes reflect high-risk loan portfolio problems, or merely perceptions of elevated risk that may readily rectified, or may otherwise be unwarranted.

⁸ See (Thompson 2007)

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E. M. Ekanayake, Bethune-Cookman University Aubrey E. Long, Bethune-Cookman University

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationships between tourism development and economic growth in developing countries using the newly developed heterogeneous panel cointegration technique. This study examines the causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth using Granger causality tests in a multivariate model and using the annual data for the 1995–2009 period. The study finds no evidence to support the tourism-led growth hypothesis. The results of the FMOLS show that, though the elasticity of tourism revenue with respect to real GDP is not statistically significant for all regions, its positive sign indicates that tourism revenue makes a positive contribution to economic growth in developing countries. The results of the study suggest that governments of developing countries should focus on economic policies to promote tourism as a potential source of economic growth.

JEL: F43, L83, O40

KEYWORDS: Tourism, economic growth, panel cointegration, causality

INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry has emerged as one of the leading service industries in the global economy in recent decades. Economic flows generated by international tourism have become vital factors in economic growth and international economic relations in many developing countries. For example, according to the World Tourism Organization (2010), as a result of an ever increasing number of destinations opening up and investing in tourism development, modern tourism has become a key driver for socio-economic progress through the creation of jobs and enterprises, infrastructure development, and the export revenues earned. In addition, the contribution of tourism to worldwide economic activity is estimated at some 5% while its contribution to employment is estimated in the order of 6-7% of the overall number of direct and indirect jobs worldwide. According to the World Tourism Organization, between 1970 and 2009, there was a 48-fold increase in international tourism receipts rising from US\$17.9 billion in 1970 to US\$852 billion in 2009.

The importance of the tourism sector can further be understood based on recent statistics available from the World Travel & Tourism Council. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council's latest economic impact report (The World Travel & Tourism Council *Travel & Tourism Economic Impact*, 2011), the industry's direct contribution to global GDP increased by 3.3% in 2010 to US\$1,770 billion and is expected to rise further by 4.5% to US\$1,850 billion in 2011, creating an additional 3 million direct industry jobs. In addition, taking into account its wider economic impacts, travel and tourism's total economic contribution in 2011 is expected to account for US\$5,987 billion or 9.1% of global GDP, and for 258 million jobs.

The report also predicts that the direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP is expected rise by 4.2% annually to US\$2,860.5 billion (in constant 2011 prices) in 2021. In addition, the total contribution of travel and tourism to employment, including jobs indirectly supported by the industry, is forecast to be 258.6 million jobs (8.8% of total employment), visitor exports are expected to generate US\$1,162.7

billion (5.8% of total exports), and total industry investment is estimated at US\$652.4 billion or 4.5% of total investment in 2011.

Thus the tourism sector has become increasingly important industry to many developing countries as a source of revenue as well as a source of employment. Tourism generates a vital amount of foreign exchange earnings that contributes to the sustainable economic growth and development of developing countries. Given its increasing importance in the global economy, tourism sector has gained much attention in recent academic literature. According to Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002), international tourism would contribute to an income increase at least in two different ways as the export-led growth hypothesis postulates.

First, enhancing efficiency through competition between local firms and the ones corresponding to other international tourist destinations, and second, facilitating the exploitation of economies of scale in local firms. The objective of this study is to investigate the relationships between tourism development and economic growth in developing countries. This study examines the causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth in developing countries in a multivariate model using the annual data for the 1995–2009 period.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a brief literature review. In Section 3, the empirical framework of the current study is set out by specifying model as well as the econometric methodology. Section 4 discusses the variable definitions and outlines the data sources. Empirical results of panel unit root tests, panel cointegration tests, and error-correction model estimates are presented in Section 5. The last section, Section 6 presents a summary and a brief conclusion as to the results obtained in this study.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There are a large number of studies done on tourism and economic growth. These studies can be grouped into two broad categories, namely, single-country studies and country-group studies. Due to the limitation of resources, this review is limited to some of the most recent studies. The empirical results from previous studies on the causal relationship between tourism expansion and economic growth are mostly mixed. For example, Kreishan (2010), Lee and Chang (2008), Kim, et al. (2006), Dritsakis (2004), Durbarry (2004), and Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) find evidence supporting the tourism-led economic growth hypothesis.

The economic-driven tourism growth hypothesis is supported in studies by Katircioglu (2009), Oh (2005), Narayan (2004), and Lanza et al. (2003). Although relatively few, the reciprocal hypothesis is still supported by, for example, Arslanturk, et al. (2011), Kim, et al. (2006) and Shan and Wilson (2001). The Granger causality test has been widely used in the literature in analyzing the relationship between tourism and economic growth. For a comprehensive survey of current literature on tourism demand and is impact on the economy, please see Song and Li (2008) and Li, Song, and Witt (2005).

As pointed out by Po and Huang (2008), since the relationship between tourism and economic growth is inherently a long-term one, a biased estimate may be the result of an insufficiently large sample size in the time series, the existence of structural changes, or short-term economic fluctuations. To tackle the insufficient sample size problem, researchers have started to use panel data. In this article we employ recently developed panel data techniques and closely follow empirical growth literature to test the influence of tourism development on economic growth in a broad panel data. Our panel data set includes 140 developing countries and 15 years covering the period from 1995 to 2009.

METHODOLOGY

Model Specification

This section discusses the model specifications to examine the relationship between tourism development and economic growth. The model is derived, in conventional manner, from a production function in which tourism receipts is introduced as an input in addition to labor and domestic capital.

In the usual notation the production function can be written as follows:

Y = f(L, K, TR)

(1)

where Y is the real gross domestic product (GDP) in constant 2000 dollars, L is the labor force in millions, K is the real gross fixed capital formation (K) in constant 2000 U.S. dollars, and TR is the real tourism receipts in constant 2000 dollars.

The data is compiled within a panel data framework in light of the relatively short time span of the data. Assuming (1) to be linear in logs, the estimated model can be written as:

$$\ln Y_{it} = \alpha_i + \delta_i t + \beta_{1i} \ln L_{it} + \beta_{2i} \ln K_{it} + \beta_{3i} \ln T R_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$
⁽²⁾

where i = 1, 2, 3, ..., N for each country in the panel and t = 1, 2, 3, ..., T refers to the time period. Our panel data set includes 140 countries and covers 15 years from 1995 to 2009. According to economic theory, the expected signs of the coefficients β_1 and β_2 are positive. If tourism is expected to contribute to economic growth, the expected sign of β_3 is positive. The parameters α_i and δ_i allow for countryspecific fixed effects and deterministic trends, respectively while ε_{it} denote the estimated residuals which represent deviations from the long-run relationship.

Panel unit root tests: Before proceeding to cointegration techniques, we need to verify that all of the variables are integrated to the same order. In doing so, we have used panel unit roots tests due to Im, Pesaran, and Shin (2003) (hereafter, IPS). These tests are less restrictive and more powerful than the tests developed by Levin and Lin (1993) and Levin, Lin, and Chu (2002), which do not allow for heterogeneity in the autoregressive coefficient. The tests proposed by IPS permit to solve Levin and Lin's serial correlation problem by assuming heterogeneity between units in a dynamic panel framework. The IPS test will be considered more important because it is appropriate for a heterogeneous regressive root under an alternative hypothesis. The basic equation for the panel unit root tests for IPS is as follows:

$$\Delta y_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_i y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \rho_{ij} \Delta y_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \qquad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N \qquad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, T$$
(3)

where $y_{i,t}$ stands for each variable under consideration in our model, α_i is the individual fixed effect, and p is selected to make the residuals uncorrelated over time. The null hypothesis is that $\beta_i = 0$ for all i versus the alternative hypothesis that $\beta_i < 0$ for some i. The IPS statistic is based on averaging individual Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) statistics and can be written as follows:

$$\bar{\mathbf{t}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{t}_{iT} \tag{4}$$

where t_{iT} is the ADF t-statistic for country i based on the country specific ADF regression, as in Eq. (3). IPS show that under the null hypothesis of non-stationary in panel data framework, the t statistic follows the standard normal distribution asymptotically. The standardized statistic t_{IPS} is expressed as:

$$t_{IPS} = \frac{\sqrt{n} \left(\bar{t} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0] \right)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} Var[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0]}}$$
(5)

Panel cointegration tests: We investigate the existence of cointegrating relationship using the standard panel tests for no cointegration proposed by Pedroni (1999, 2004). These tests allow for heterogeneity in the intercepts and slopes of the cointegrating equation. Pedroni's tests provide seven test statistics: Within dimension (panel tests): (1) Panel ν -statistic; (2) Panel Phillips–Perron type ρ -statistics; (3) Panel Phillips–Perron type t-statistic; and (4) Panel augmented Dickey–Fuller (ADF) type t-statistic. Between dimension (group tests): (5) Group Phillips–Perron type ρ -statistics are based on averages of the individual autoregressive coefficients associated with the unit root tests of the residuals for each country in the panel. All seven tests are distributed asymptotically as standard normal. Of the seven test statistics, except for the panel ν - statistic, the other six Pedroni test statistics are left-tailed tests. In order to find evidence for long-run relationship between the variables, the null hypothesis of no cointegration for these tests should be rejected. If the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, there is no long-run relationship between the variables.

DATA SOURCES AND VARIABLES

Annual data from 1995 to 2005 were obtained from the *World Bank Development Indicators* database for 140 developing countries. Additional information is collected from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) database at http://unctadstat.unctad.org. The list of the countries is presented in the Appendix. The data is compiled within a panel data framework in light of the relatively short time span of the data. The multivariate framework includes the real GDP in constant 2000 U.S. dollars, the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars, the labor force in millions, and the real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real gross fixed capital formation was given as a share of GDP, nominal gross fixed capital formation series was deflated by the GDP deflator (2000 = 100) to derive the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars (2000 = 100) to derive the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars (2000 = 100) to derive the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real gross fixed capital formation series was deflated by the GDP deflator (2000 = 100) to derive the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars. The real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars was derived by deflating the nominal international tourism receipts by the GDP deflator.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Panel unit root tests: The starting point of our econometric analysis is to check whether the variables included in Equation (1) contain panel unit roots. In other words, in Equation (1), we need to check

whether [Y, L, K, TR] contains a unit root. While there are several panel unit root tests are available, this study uses the IPS unit root tests. In order to compare the results for different regions, the total sample was sub-divided into six regions, namely, East Asia and the Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa. The regions were defined using the classifications used by the World Bank. Table 1 reports the results of these panel unit root tests which include individual effects. The panel unit root tests indicate all the variables are integrated of order one.

Panel cointegration tests: With the respective variables integrated of order one, the heterogeneous panel cointegration test advanced by Pedroni (1999, 2004), which allows for cross-section interdependence with different individual effects, is performed and the results are presented in Table 2. Though the panel cointegrations tests were performed for all six regions and for all countries, only the results for the full sample are presented in Table 2. The results for both within and between dimension panel cointegration at the 1% significance level, indicating that the four variable are cointegrated.

After having found consistent evidence of cointegration, the fully modified OLS (FMOLS) technique for heterogeneous cointegrated panels is estimated, following Pedroni (2000). The results of the FMOLS are presented in Table 3. All the coefficients are positive and statistically significant either at the 1% or at 5% significance level. Given that the variables are expressed in natural logarithms, the coefficients can be interpreted as elasticity estimates. The results indicate that, for the full sample, a 1% increase in real tourism revenue increases real GDP by 0.04%; a 1% increase in real gross fixed capital formation increases real GDP by 0.87%; and a 1% increase in the labor force increases real GDP by 0.09%. When we compare the six regions selected, the elasticity of tourism revenue with respect to real GDP ranges from high of 0.1383 for Latin America and the Caribbean to 0.0048 for Middle East and North Africa. Though the elasticity of tourism revenue with respect to real GDP is not statistically significant for all regions, its positive sign indicates that tourism revenue makes a positive contribution to economic growth in developing countries.

Granger causality tests: The procedures described above are only able to indicate whether or not the variables are cointegrated and a long-run relationship exists between them. To test for panel causality, a panel vector error correction model (VECM) proposed by Pesaran et al. (1999) is estimated to perform Granger-causality tests. The Engle and Granger (1987) two-step procedure is undertaken by first estimating the long-run model specified in Eq. (2) in order to obtain the estimated residuals.

The empirical results of the panel Granger causality tests are presented in Table 4. In the long run, we observe there is no Granger causality relationship between Y and L, K and TR, as the coefficient of the error correction term (ECT) in the equation with Y as dependent variable is not statistically significant. Similar to the long-run, in the short run, there is no significant causal relationship between Y and L, K, and R, based on the Chi-square statistics of the coefficients of the three variables. In regard to relationship between TR and the three variables, Y, L, and K, we find a similar absence of long run causality running from the latter three to TR. However, we note in the short run the causality runs only from Y to TR and K to TR, where there is no such short-run causality linkage running from L to TR. The results for the individual regions show no evidence of causality either in the long-run or in the short-run.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationships between tourism development and economic growth in developing countries using the newly developed heterogeneous panel cointegration technique. This study examines the causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth using Granger causality tests in a multivariate model and using the annual data for the 1995–2009 period. The

study uses a sample of 140 developing countries. The sample of countries were grouped into six major regions following the classification used by the World Bank, in order to compare any differences of findings between regions. The multivariate framework includes the real GDP in constant 2000 U.S. dollars, the real gross fixed capital formation in constant 2000 U.S. dollars, the labor force in millions, and the real international tourism receipts in constant 2000 U.S. dollars.

The panel unit root tests indicate all the variables are integrated of order one. The panel cointegrations tests show that all seven test statistics reject the null hypothesis of no cointegration at the 1% significance level, indicating that the four variable are cointegrated. The results of the FMOLS show that, though the elasticity of tourism revenue with respect to real GDP is not statistically significant for all regions, its positive sign indicates that tourism revenue makes a positive contribution to economic growth in developing countries. The results of the study suggest that governments of developing countries should focus on economic policies to promote tourism as a potential source of economic growth. The study finds no evidence to support the tourism-led growth hypothesis.

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BLACK BANKS AND THEIR REGULATION – FARM CREDIT SYSTEM LESSONS

John A. Cole, North Carolina A&T State University

ABSTRACT

We use several metrics to show that the Farm Credit System has evolved and demonstrated that it is very well suited to the development of the farming community. The metrics we rely on include relative rates of unemployment in the farm and African American communities when compared with the American mainstream. The American mainstream was joined by the farming community and the African American community as a consequence of legislation in 1862 governing these communities' future. The farming community was incentivized by the Homestead Act of 1862. The African American community could join the American economy as initially signaled in the District of Columbia Emancipation Act of 1862. The metrics we consider in this paper are community unemployment rates and capital access indicators. From those we believe that the evidence supports recommending a financial system that is modeled on the FCS for the African American community in its aspirations to become fully economically developed within the American economy.

KEYWORDS: African American banks; banking regulations, financial markets; economics of regulation, regional and urban history.

JEL CLASSIFICATION: E42, E44, G20, G18, G21, G28, L51, N91, N92

INTRODUCTION

It makes good sense to compare the African American community with the farm community in order to make a pertinent assessment of the state of business development in the African American community. These are two communities whose future entrance and presence in the American economy were proscribed by 1862 legislation taking effect in 1863. So how do they compare today, and what are the lessons we should extract for policy purposes? Are there differences along the development path in these communities to which we might ascribe differences in their current community circumstances? This paper is to assess relative progress in a comparison of outcomes in the farming community and those in the African American community. The Farm Credit System is the central reason to which we attribute advantages enjoyed by the farming community. That federally regulated and supported FCS financing system (originated after the emergence of the Federal Reserve System) enjoys the independence it needs to bring an adequate capital capacity and variety of capital sources to effectively address the capital problem originating for the farming community since 1862.

That approach to utilize a model that combine federal regulation with necessary independence and flexibility in financing contrasts sharply with a relatively "hands-off" arrangement under which the development prospects in the African American community are made to rely on a small number of weakly capitalized African American banks regulated no differently than all other community banks – institutions with which they have virtually nothing in common - except for nominal metrics like size. The fact is that history teaches that a stronger case rests in comparing outcomes from the African American community and extracting lessons for the financial systems involved. For example, in such a comparison, we may discover that in addition to any other discoveries, the FCS is a real economic success story for development that should be preserved as it has been, and indeed considered as a template for financing and transformation within the American economy.

We accept that as the literature has established that when African American banks have been compared with other similar sized banks they perform poorly. For our purposes, this is evidence of a market failure, and in light of our findings in the paper, we would be surprised if it were otherwise. One contribution in this paper is to focus on the farming community and assess that community's success given their financial system and the federal government's support. The simultaneity of the emergence of the farming community and the African American community has not been recognized in the finance literature. Without that recognition, there is no record of noting the financial arrangements and systems that emerged for supporting these communities, and the differences in results that might have a relationship to the financial alternative used.

What is noteworthy in addressing capital access and financial system differences is that two federal acts in 1862 were fraught with possibilities, business and investment opportunities for adding to the mainstream economy. These were the Homestead Act of 1862 and the District of Columbia Emancipation Act. These laws anticipated two communities emerging simultaneously that would change the national landscape - the farming community and the African American community. As twinned emerging communities there would also be a development expectation. That development expectation would be these emerging twins would participate in investment and employment opportunities in the existing economy, and also to design and develop additional businesses utilizing local business and investments to add and expand employment opportunities for their residents.

The expectation would include that they would need a financing capacity and capital access adequate to realizing these business challenges. We know now that by 1916, it was clear that the twin emerging communities had been saddled with similar capital adequacy and capacity problems. But these communities' capital access and shortage problems would be addressed very differently – and the federal government role would be the difference. For the farm community, the government made its permanent and irrevocable commitment to an evolving Farm Credit System (including the first every Government Sponsored Enterprise (GSE) and the FCS is now regulated by the Farm Credit Administration).

By way of contrast, the emerging African American community's capital capacity and capital access problem has never had a similar GSE to guarantee adequate capital for its needs. It has used the only "default" option available - relying on small African American community banks within a wider system of established institutions. This paper is to explore this issue, and to extract policy implications about any corrective actions in the area.Note the period 1842 – 1916. It was a very active time period in the nation's history, and we have selected developments for this paper's topic. By 1916, had institutions within the existing financial system been willing and able to assess and undertake the financing needs of the farm community on reasonable terms, there would be no need for a GSE alternative financial system. Indeed as of 1913, the conventional banking system and its institutions were properly aligned and regulated. But they passed on financing the farm community's needs. We interpret that fact as an indicator that by 1916, a sufficient concern had arisen that the Fed and its institutions were ill-prepared for financing businesses in an emerging community – with the farming community as the best example.

One contribution in this paper is to begin a discussion about alternative structures in financing for the African American community probably relying on the FCS model. In section II we provide a review of some relevant literature related to African American and minority banks. In section III we present an associated set of hypotheses that consider capital and financing outcomes in the FCS and the African American community. In section IV we provide some evidence related to these hypotheses before our conclusions in section V of the paper.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

The study of minority banks and other depository institutions owes its beginnings to pioneering and highly anticipatory work from Brimmer (1971) and Irons (1971). With their initial work in the area following on EO 11458, the early (and continuing) concern was about the prospects and possibilities of minority banks knowing the capital capacity within the African American community. In fact the limitations of this capital supply model became known and readily accepted. For example, Brimmer (1992) articulated a capital-driven dilemma of black banking that the literature has largely ignored since:

"Black-owned banks face a serious dilemma: founded primarily to help fill the gap between the demand for and supply of credit to the black community, the more they try to respond positively, the greater is the probability that they will fail. The paradox arises from the exceptional risks these lenders must assume when they extend credit to individuals who suffer from above-average instability of employment and income, or to black-owned businesses, which have high rates of bankruptcy."

But no sustained challenge arose to the regulatory superstructure that ignored this dilemma. For example, in a recent review of issues affecting black banking, Lash (2005) noted (i) a historical evolution of black banks; (ii) black banks' financial performance; and (iii) banks' discrimination against black loan applicants. The issue of appropriate regulations is conspicuously absent. Lawrence (1997) noted normal performance at a growing number of Asian American banks, the poor performance and prognosis for black banks – and only to a minor degree – somewhat better prospects for Hispanic banks. Lawrence (1997) also visited the matter of public involvement with minority banks through the Minority Bank Deposit Program, but only to express support for the position that "...placing more government funds into minority institutions may not enhance the supply of credit or contribute directly to economic development." Other strands regarding African American banks related to a range of legitimate issues. For example, an ensuing literature related to minority banks has largely compared the periodic accounting performance of minority owned banks when compared with nonminority-owned banks. Additionally, issues of efficiency or other managerial concerns have also received some necessary attention. In such studies, minority banks have not fared well.

Brimmer was earliest to consider the regulators' role and potential in minority banking. He noted that insensitive regulators' actions adversely affected black wealth. Hylton added to Brimmer's concerns about regulators support (or lack thereof) for banking in minority communities given their responsibility for associated regulation (here the CRA).

"Why are poor inner cities underserved by financial institutions, and why is it so difficult to find a solution to this problem? ... I claim that the existing regulatory framework makes it difficult for large scale development – oriented lending institutions to emerge."

We refer to the concern with regulations and regulatory structures on African American banks as the Brimmer-Hylton proposition (B-H), and it contrasts sharply with the vast majority of the literature affecting African American banks. The B-H proposition includes an expectation that regulatory structures and oversight matter because they could change the volumes, orderliness and costs of capital in the African American community. The B-H proposition implies that with regulatory attention to the financial infrastructure in the African American community, local business risk perceptions could be changed, and long term capital and markets might be then supportive of permanently enhanced business conditions and community development. In the rest of this paper, we offer the Farm Credit System as reflecting the B-H proposition, and use that model as an alternative to derive results which, in comparison the African American community might be enlightening.

A Second Look At African American Banking

By 1916 the new additional federal financial system for the farm community recognized that there were limitations to what an existing financial system would or could accommodate in their activities. By 1916 it was clear that such limitations could be overcome with federal actions, and a commitment to permanently provide for capital access. Here is how the Farm Credit Administration (FCA) has distilled the need for capital in an emerging community – in this case for farming:

"The Need for a Reliable Source of Agricultural Credit

The concept of a reliable source of credit for the nation's farmers dates back to 1732, when the first cooperative credit system was organized in New London, Connecticut. Government intervention to meet this need, however, particularly for long-term credit to purchase land, only started in the early 19th century. It was then that most of the free land available in the West under the Homestead Act of 1862 was claimed, and farmers needed long-term credit to purchase land. However, whereas credit from commercial banks was readily available for business and industry, it was scarce, short term, and at high interest rates for agriculture. With land values rising, the need for long-term fixed-rate credit became acute." (Farm Credit Administration 2011)

If by 1916 the established financial system did not accommodate financing the farm community's business and development investment projects, and if the farm community did not have the capacity to do so on its own, would it be reasonable to expect the emerging community of African American ex-slaves to be accommodated in the established system or to have that financing capacity? Did the design and development of a related GSE for farmers make a difference in how they would subsequently compare with the established economy?

In this paper national metrics would be benchmarks for the two emerging communities of farmers and African Americans. For example, one indicator that the emerging community was successful might be the level of unemployment. Consistent with the B-H proposition, the FCS enjoys an orderly flow of capital within a unique regulatory system that has targeted their business and the investment opportunities within their communities. The model available to the African American community is not. A comparison of the FCS model with African American banks in the existing financial system would be a means to test the B–H proposition. So we consider three hypotheses.

HYPOTHESES:

In this paper we focus on three principal hypotheses. We label these the unemployment hypothesis, the cost of capital hypothesis and the access to capital hypothesis. In all of our examinations, the FCS is that set of financing institutions which are regulated by the Farm Credit Administration institutions.

- 1. *The unemployment hypothesis*: Given the B-H proposition and the FCS, our hypothesis is that this financial infrastructure advantage has translated into reduced relative rates of unemployment for the farming community when compared with the African American community. So the farming community's unemployment rate would match or better the national unemployment rate, while that match would not occur in the African American community.
- 2. *The cost of capital hypothesis*: According to the B-H proposition, an independent regulatory structure implies that the FCS has produced lower credit and financing costs for the farm community than the alternative system has delivered for the African American community.
- 3. *The access to capital hypothesis*: The FCS system has produced a better distribution of capital to the farm community than the private banking system has produced for the African American community:

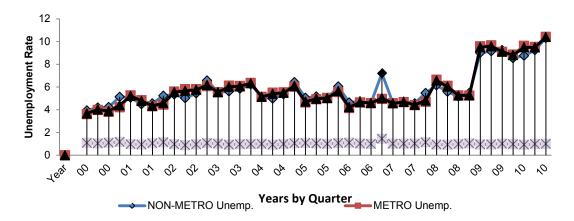
Data and Analysis

We collected unemployment data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics to examine the unemployment hypothesis. For the two hypotheses related to capital access and capital costs, we relied on data from the Farm Credit Administration and from the Federal Reserve Board data were used in the case of African American banks.

The unemployment hypothesis: Our first hypothesis is that the FCS system of financing is more compatible with lower unemployment rates than is the financing alternative available to the African American community. The purpose of a financing system and its institutions is to provide adequate financing for businesses and institutions to undertake business and investment opportunities in its community and service area. If this purpose is accomplished, then there should generally be low levels of unemployment rates in the community served by the system's institutions.

In the case of the FCS, the business and investment opportunities arose beginning with the Homestead Act of 1862. As the original GSE, the FCS arose and as an alternative to the banking system then in the established economy. If the FCS financing arrangements are appropriate, then it should support businesses with sufficient financing to provide employment opportunities to meet the community's employment demands. The unemployment rate should be no different from elsewhere. We obtained unemployment data over a long period, and subset the data as appropriate to explore this hypothesis. We arranged the data so that we could compare unemployment rates in rural areas (the service areas for the FCS system) with similar rates in metropolitan areas. Consider then Figure 1.

Figure 1: U.S; Metro & Non-Metro Unemployment 2000 - 2010



Our quarterly data represented in Figure 1 indicates that over the period 2000 - 2010, rural unemployment rates and patterns matched the metropolitan and general unemployment rates. A ratio of the non-metro to the metro unemployment rates had a mean value of 1.02 in the period 2000 - 2010. This would be consistent with any prior expectations that as measured by rates of unemployment, the employment prospects in the U.S are not dependent on being resident in a metropolitan area. Conditions in the rural community as measured by unemployment rates were as good as they were anywhere in the U.S. We now examine the unemployment rates for African Americans.

The African American community has not had an FCS style add-on system of financing for the community's investment projects. If over time the "default" private banking system evolved and developed to properly and adequately finance business and investment opportunities in the African

American community, then like the farm community, the rates of unemployment in the African American community should be no different from elsewhere. Consider then Figure 2.

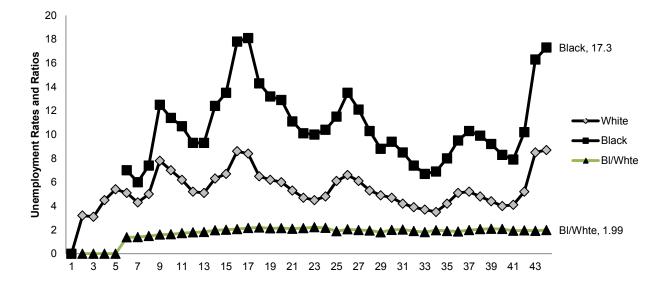


Figure 2: Black-White Unemployment Rates 1972-2010

As shown, over the period 1972 – 2010 the unemployment rate for African Americans seems permanently higher than for white Americans. In fact, on average, the African American unemployment rate is about 1.99 times the white unemployment rate. This ratio has been at that level at least since about 1980. This would be consistent with the proposition that as measured by the rate of unemployment, the African American community suffers a permanent employment disadvantage within the nation, one that the farm community has overcome. The data are also consistent with the proposition that the capital access differences between the farm community and the African American communities have supported better employment outcomes, implying that businesses enjoy better financing alternatives.

The cost of capital hypothesis: Our second hypothesis relates to the cost of capital available under the FCS or available to the African American community. For purposes of this hypothesis we may represent the current cost of capital as reflecting four selected things to be addressed in order:

- 1. Access to financial markets and a capacity to fully benefit from current conditions
- 2. Business risk perceptions reflecting local conditions over a range of indicators
- 3. Federal Government guarantees
- 4. Other government support activities e.g. institutions like the Farm Credit Corporation

Consider the Federal Farm Credit System Funding Corporation. Additionally there were three creations by the Agricultural Credit Act of 1987: the FCS Financial Assistance Corp, Farmer Mac, and the Farm Credit System Insurance Corp (FCSIC). Institutional arrangements of this kind assure full access to all market areas, a capacity to allow full participation and as a result to lower the cost of capital for the farm community.Consider the second selected matter affecting the cost of capital i.e. business risk levels and perceptions. In the case of business risk perceptions, a number of signals between 1862 and 1916 paved the way for elevating the business risk perceptions and profile of African American businesses and their community. These developments included adverse decisions like *Plessey v Ferguson* or a loss of collateral as in the failure of the Freedman's Bank. Thus by 1916, cet. par., the African American American risk

profile and perceptions were elevated, and in the absence of federal government actions at the time, their cost of capital would have been higher.

In the selected matter of federal government guarantees, we need only reference the cost reducing presence of a GSE. As the FCA notes, "*The FCS is a Government-sponsored enterprise created by Congress in 1916 to provide American agriculture with a dependable source of credit.*" Further, farmers were offered loans to purchase stock in their Loan Associations. Again the capital cost advantages attached to the financial infrastructure supporting the farm community – not to a small number of African American banks seeking to make their mark within the general financial system!

In the selected matter of expanded government actions, consider that the farm community did have "bailouts" and repayments along the way as business cycles etc. adversely affected their prospects. For example, added funding has been provided financial infrastructure for the FCS (e.g. the Emergency Farm Mortgage Act of 1933 and the Agricultural Credit Act of 1987). Thus the FCS structure is a channel for a low-cost orderly flow of capital backed by the federal government to the farming community.

The access to capital hypothesis: We have already indicated that four institutions in the FCS system have impacted the cost of capital through the expanded access and insurance they have provided. These were the Federal Farm Credit System Funding Corporation, the FCS Financial Assistance Corp, Farmer Mac, and the Farm Credit System Insurance Corp (FCSIC). Using standard financial instruments like bonds, and other securities specific to the farming community, these institutions have ensured that the farming community has had full and continuing access all of the domestic and global financial capital markets. As has become necessary through time, appropriate institutions have emerged for these purposes, and consolidations or other efficiency measures have been encouraged and supported. Consider the following array of 89 existing institutions at the national level which currently form the FCS.

District	Туре				Total
	ACA Parents	FLCAs	ACB	FCBs	
CoBank, ACB*	4	0	1	0	5
AgFirst FCB	20	0	0	1	21
AgriBank, FCB	17	0	0	1	18
U.S. AgBank, FCB	24	2	0	1	27
FCB of Texas	16	1	0	1	18
January 1, 2011	81	3	1	4	89

Number of FCS Banks and Associations by Type and District as of January 1, 2011

ACA Parent = Agricultural Credit Association with Production Credit Association and Federal Land Credit Association (FLCA) subsidiaries; FLCA = Stand-alone Federal Land Credit Association; ACB = Agricultural Credit Bank; FCB = Farm Credit Bank *CoBank, ACB, has authority to serve cooperatives nationwide, the ACAs in CoBank's northeast region, and Northwest Farm Credit Services, an ACA.Source: FCA, Office of Regulatory Policy

As is shown, the FCS is so structured and regulated as to have a strong set of distribution relationships and geographic presence across all states and even at the local levels. The difference in the capital access the institutions bring to their respective communities may be highlighted in a consideration of the southern states where African American banks are most numerous. First, consider a reflection of FCS institutions across Southern states. Then the comparison is facilitated with the distribution of African American banks in those states:

		edit Institutio	ons & Locatio	ns in the		American Bai	nks
	South <u>Retail</u> <u>Lenders</u>	Locations	<u>Wholesale</u> <u>Banks</u>	<u>Other</u> <u>Svcs.</u>	<u>tas of J</u> <u>#</u> <u>Banks</u>	une 2010) # <u>Branches</u>	<u>Comments on African</u> <u>American Banks</u>
Alabama	3	33			3	7	
Florida	3	27		1	1	14	Selected Wal-Mart Stores
Georgia	3	48	1	1	3	20	
Louisiana	3	27			1	11	Liberty, LA
North Carolina	3	68		1	1	9	
Mississippi	3	26			0	2	Liberty, LA
South Carolina	2	20	1		1	5	
Texas	13	141	1		1	3	
Virginia	3	35			1	3	

Table 2: FCS Institutions and African American Bank Locations in selected Southern States

Sourceshttp://www.farmcreditnetwork.com/about/locations#map:

http://www.fedpartnership.gov/peer-data/2010/2q/2010-2q_african-american-banks.cfm

These data would indicate that, whether nationally or across the South, African American banks cannot match the numbers of institutions and locations available within the FCS. When compared with results from African American banks, the FCS structure is better suited to facilitate an effective distribution and access to capital for the farm community. The array of relationships, and the ability to serve funds and capital across institution types, to serve individual needs – whether in mortgages or in business – and capital and profits which serve the system's ability and flexibility to adapt and change all speak to advantages which a few African American banks within the existing financial system cannot match in part because they are so starved of capital over such a long time period when the farming community has been encouraged to grow and support the FCS model.

And in addition to delivering large and growing volumes of financing and expanded ownership opportunities, the FCS has delivered strong accounting performance recently. Consider the following report of recent quarterly financials:

	30-Sep-10	30-Jun-10	31-Mar-10	31-Dec-09	30-Sep-09
Gross Loan Volume (\$000's)	168,484,000	162,186,000	162,502,000	164,830,000	162,186,000
Non-performing Loans	3,741,000	3,750,000	3,716,000	3,535,000	4,299,000
Nonaccrual Loans	3,561,000	3,523,000	3,517,000	3,369,000	4,132,000
Non-performing Loans/Gross	2.22%	2.31%	2.29%	2.14%	2.65%
Bonds and Notes	179,873,000	177,781,000	175,372,000	178,358,000	178,473,000
Capital/Assets9	14.98%	14.68%	14.46%	13.90%	13.61%
Surplus/Assets	12.18%	12.08%	11.92%	11.48%	11.40%
Net Income	949,000	882,000	802,000	832,000	721,000
Return on Assets ⁵	1.62%	1.58%	1.53%	1.32%	1.25%
Return on Equity ⁵	11.04%	10.85%	10.55%	9.86%	9.45%
Net Interest Margin	2.81%	2.78%	2.77%	2.65%	2.59%

Fcs Quarterly Financial Indicators

Sourcehttp://www.fca.gov/reports/fcsindicators.html

The FCS quarterly financial indicators indicate that it has recently been generally a well-capitalized and profitable system that is delivering large volumes of financing for businesses and individuals in the farming community. It is against that background that the B-H proposition is so relevant in gauging the African American banks knowing the FCS numbers given earlier. In nine southern states, twelve surviving African American Banks as of 2010 amassed a total of about \$2.4 billion. In the 2010, 2nd quarter 29 African American banks had tier 1 leverage capital of 8.71%, their assets grew by 1.5%, tier 1 capital grew at a negative rate (3.23%), and net loans and leases grew also at a negative rate of (2.45%).

Our hypotheses have collectively provided support for the B-H proposition that the regulatory structure imposes costs on African American banks and their communities. We found support for this position in a comparison with the FCS system which arose to serve a community that was twinned with the African American community in 1862. And so the data would again indicate that if there was a choice for access and distribution of capital, then the FCS model is more effective for the farming community than is the African American set of banks to serve that community.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we presented for the first time the argument that the progress of African American banks should be gauged against the progress of the Farm Credit System. The reasons that drove this comparison included the fact that the two related communities emerged to seek financing for the development of business projects in their community development efforts. The communities emerged simultaneously, and faced a financing and capital access problem that differed if at all in scale. But the essential nature of their issue was the same. Their new communities would be reliant on investment opportunities and projects that the existing financial system and its institutions would not or could not adequately finance. Our analysis has produced a number of important observations. Among these are the following:

- 1. Financial systems and the institutions therein can be designed to be well-equipped for major community transformations. For example, the FCS emerged with a unique mission because the established institutions would not finance the farm community's investment opportunities. Similarly FCS institutions have been serving the farm community very well. Neither is likely to properly meet the capital needs in the African American community.
- 2. The FCS financing model has shown that it is compatible with transforming a community from "emerging" in 1862 to now "established". The proof is the farm community's ability to consistently match the unemployment rate indicator in the mainstream community. The FCS model has been shown to accomplish this consistent match while in the exact same period, the current system with several small African American banks have not been able to match the mainstream unemployment indicator. Therefore, it may be worth considering the FCS model to realize the employment and other development potential in the African American community.
- 3. This comparison allows us to gauge the African American banks capacity and the community development potential an FCS financial infrastructure model were in force to address the capital problem. For example, it may be the means to equilibrate employment rates.

In light of the results in this paper, we believe that it is important to define the current status of the African American banks as representing a failure of the financial markets when compared with other community banks. They also have a huge potential were they to be endowed with, and be a part of the financial infrastructure modeled on the FCS. With the benefits of federal government guarantees, access to capital markets, the ability of individuals to borrow convertible debt and own their institutions etc. the possibility is great that this financing alternative may make a significant difference in employment and other income in the African American community.

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BUSINESS AND LIBRARY FACULTY TEAM TO REPURPOSE LIBRARY E-BOOK DATABASE LICENSE AS FREE TEXTBOOK ALTERNATIVE FOR UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

Andy Lynch, Southern New Hampshire University Brooke Ratto, Southern New Hampshire University

ABSTRACT

Course content for business students should be relevant, accessible and affordable. Business and library faculty collaborated to provide undergraduate students enrolled in three sections of Introduction to Marketing with a free online content option. This option included embedded links for all course key terms and concepts that were strategically placed in a Blackboard course site. The 87 enrolled students earned extra credit by participating in 10 surveys throughout the semester. Using content format (traditional textbook, e-book only or combination of both) as an independent variable, student perception of content quality and convenience were measured. Findings indicate that students who used the embedded e-book links prefer this option to traditional textbooks for relevancy, accessibility and affordability. Findings are discussed and a model is proposed that promotes business and library faculty collaboration, the harnessing of existing electronic library resources and distribution of those resources to students in face-to-face, hybrid and online course environments. Recommendations for application of this model to other courses and disciplines are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Given the digital age, information technology is a critical element of higher education. No longer are traditional textbooks the sole source of reliable, foundational course content. Electronic library resources and the internet often provide content that can support learning outcomes and serve as viable alternatives to traditional textbooks. While developing a syllabus over the summer months for an Introduction to Marketing course, a Business faculty member identified an e-book database accessible via the university library that contained updated and relevant content in support of all course key terms and concepts.

Upon discovery, a few research questions were developed. Is it possible for course content housed in an e-book database to be embedded in the Blackboard Learning Management System as an alternative to an assigned course textbook? How will students respond to the option of choosing a traditional textbook or relying on embedded links? These questions provided the inspiration for the development of this pilot course that resulted in this study.

Business and library faculty collaborated at the course level to provide undergraduate marketing students with three content options (traditional textbook, embedded e-book database links, or a combination of the two), as the foundational content for the course. Online surveys were posted in the Blackboard course site at intervals throughout the term enabling faculty to monitor student feedback on their experience using both the traditional textbook and embedded e-book link options. Results indicate high acceptance rates of an embedded e-book link option by students resulting in increased demand for and awareness of library resources. In addition, when comparing student perceptions of content quality and convenience, there was no statistical significant difference between groups that used the traditional textbook, embedded e-book links or a combination of the two.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a recognized need for a change in pedagogical practices based on the assumption that, "within five years today's K-12 students will be showing up at colleges and universities with substantively different cultural attitudes towards e-books than today's students" (Nelson, 2008 p.52). Nelson argues, "higher education must position itself to be ready to incorporate e-books effectively on campus" (p.52). Using e-books in the university classroom promotes a shift in teaching pedagogy that caters to the diverse learning styles of students in the digital age (Grensing-Pophal, 2010).

This shift is not only potentially beneficial for student learning but for competition in the higher education market. In Grensing-Pophal's *EContent* article (2008), Trevor James of North Park University (Chicago) suggests that colleges and universities that adapt earlier to the e-book in the classroom model will "have an edge in the marketplace" (p. 20).Currently, there is much speculation in the media regarding the demise of the print textbook (Grensing-Pophal, 2010; Nelson, 2008; Birnbaum, 2004). The cost associated with textbooks is perhaps the most obvious factor in students' dissatisfaction. The cost of the "average" college textbook (Kingsbury, 2006) increased 186% between 1986 and 2004 helping annual textbook costs reach \$900 per student (Waldman, 2010). Such dramatic increases are largely due to the practice of "textbook bundling", or packaging the print material with multimedia supplements that may be superfluous. Yet, high cost is not the only negative aspect of the traditional textbook model. Textbook publishers release new editions of titles every few years, making up-to-date materials impossible to keep up with for the students, faculty, and university library (Buczynki, 2007). Print textbooks are also notably bulky and environmentally unfriendly (Shepperd, Grace, & Koch, 2008).

Price increases, bundling, and rapid release of new editions have forced university students to seek alternatives to traditional textbook acquisition. Common practices in the past, as well as the present, include purchasing used copies from the university bookstore or on the internet via Amazon and similar web vendors. A recent development in the textbook industry is students' ability to rent their books through the university bookstore or other rental providers (Christensen, E., 2010). The rise of publisher-marketed electronic textbooks (e-textbooks) has also recently made its mark on higher education (Lardinois, 2010; Shepperd et al., 2008; Kingsbury, 2006).

Although such e-textbooks are generally priced lower than their print counterparts, this model is still purchase-driven and places the financial burden on the student. One method of addressing the perceived unfair costs associated with print textbooks and the evolving learning styles of today's digital natives is by adopting for use library subscription electronic resources, and electronic books (e-books) specifically, as the course "textbook". While e-books may not be appropriate for all disciplines and university courses, studies have shown that the e-book model works especially well in the business disciplines (Buczynski, 2007; Jamali, Nicholas, & Rowlands, 2009; Nicholas, Rowlands, & Jamali, 2010; Dillon, 2001). Moreover, several studies indicate that students access and read e-books in the same manner as traditional textbooks; readers tend to "dip" in and out of sections of the text and digest information in chunked out text (Nicholas et al., 2010; Christianson, M., 2005; Appleton, 2004). It is an easier transition for students to use an e-book like a textbook than for leisure reading. The challenge is not having the content available but linking faculty to these resources and encouraging them to share with students to help achieve learning goals. This is critical to note as a 2006 study conducted at the University of Denver by Michael Levine-Clark found that students were more aware of e-book resources when directed to e-books by a librarian or professor. However, Levine-Clark (2006) found that "awareness of electronic book availability does not necessarily translate into use" (p. 291).

Given the recession and student concerns about the costs of textbooks, leaders in higher education must be willing to adapt practices to better serve the needs of students. One way to better serve students is to inventory all resources available to the institution and exhausting methods for delivering those resources at a minimal cost to students. In this process, electronic library resources should be a priority. Just as individual schools monitor academic program enrollment for budget decisions, libraries monitor usage statistics to make informed decisions about acquiring resources that best serve student learning. Because of this heightened scrutiny, it's important to effectively evaluate these resources in terms of value for students. Higher education should strive to deliver contemporary learning experiences in the digital age. Buczynski (2006) states, "there is a gap between how higher education faculty plan to teach a course and the actual learning environment that exists in practice" (p. 169). This study explores how to address some of those gaps. By repurposing existing electronic library resources, students receive relevant and reliable course content in a digital environment while saving money.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The experiment was conducted in three sections of Introduction to Marketing at a small private New England University during the Fall 2010 semester. Students (N=87) were given the option to use the recommended traditional textbook, embedded links to the content located in the e-book database or a combination of both content sources. A pre-course survey was developed to assess previous e-book and e-book-related technology experiences. Eight (8) end-of-module surveys measured student format selection, preference and satisfaction of course content sources. An end-of-course survey captured quantitative and qualitative feedback regarding the course. Participation was voluntary and students who elected to participate were incentivized with extra credit points for the course. Each survey was developed based on the review of literature to meet the objectives of this exploratory research project. Qualtrics survey software was used to develop and distribute the surveys electronically via the course Blackboard site. Links to each survey were made available to students via a course announcement at the end of each course module. Researchers collected and analyzed the data to report initial findings an recommendations for future research.

Findings:Survey participants (N=87) were female (46%) and male (54%) undergraduate Introduction to Marketing students. The majority (86%) had never used an e-book prior to the course, however all ten respondents who had used e-books previously indicated having a favorable experience. Regarding familiarity with the Blackboard Learning Management system, 58% indicated previous experience. The majority of students selected the e-book embedded links only option (Table 1). Throughout the course, response rates varied but an average over the term indicates that 50% of students selected the e-book embedded links only option, 28% traditional and e-book content combination, while 22% used only the traditional textbook.

Module	Traditional Textbo Only	ook e-book Links Only	Traditional and e-book Content	Total
1	13 (23.6%)	22 (40%)	20 (36.4%)	55 (100%)
2	15 (26.3%)	20 (35.1%)	22 (38.6%)	57 (100%)
3	13 (22.8%)	32 (22.8%)	12 (21.1%)	57 (100%)
ļ	13 (18.3%)	37 (18.3%)	21 (29.6%)	71 (100%)
	11 (18.6%)	37 (18.6%)	11 (18.6%)	59 (100%)
	14 (23.7%)	32 (23.7%)	13 (22.0%)	59 (100%)
1	10 (27.8%)	16 (27.8%)	10 (27.8%)	36 (100%)
	8 (17%)	26 (55.3%)	13 (27.7%)	47 (100%)

T 11 1	a a		1 0	36 1 1
Table I:	Content Se	ource Usage	e bv Course	e Module

This table shows student course content selection by course module. The course includes eight modules

A mean comparison indicated no significant difference between groups for perceived content quality by respondents (Table 2).

Table 2: Mean Co	mparison for	 Student Perce 	ptions of (Content (Juality by	Content Source

Content Source	Mean	
E-book/Traditional Book Combination	5.66 (n=122)	
E-book Embedded Links Only	5.62 (n=222)	
Traditional Textbook Only	5.46 (n=97)	

NOTE df = 2; F = 1.230; N = 440; p. = .293 | Significance at p < 0.05. 7-point scale. Strongly Disagree = 1; Strongly Agree = 7

A mean comparison indicated no significant difference between groups by respondents who used the ebook embedded links only option (m=5.47) and traditional textbook-only option (m=5.16) (Table 2). Students using a combination of content sources indicated lower levels of perceived convenience.

Table 3: Mean Comparison for Student Perceptions of Content Convenience by Content Source

5 47 (222)
5.47 (n=222)
5.16 (n=97)
3.76 (n=122)

NOTE df = 2; F = 2.339; N=440; p. = .098 | Significance at p < 0.05. 7-point scale. Strongly Disagree = 1; Strongly Agree = 7

A comparison was made (Fall 2009 vs. Fall 2010) from vendor supplied usage statistics (Table 4) and significant increases were documented in each key usage category between the two periods.

Usage	August 15, 2009 to December , 31 2009	August 15, 2010 to December , 31 2010
Active Session Minutes	17,548	33,471 (+239%)
Individual Users	66	191 (+102.7%)
New Users	57	161 (+90.7%)
Number of Pages Accessed	5,956	12,070 (+182%)
Total Sessions	879	2,980 (+189%)

Table 4: Comparing Books 24x7 Library Usage Statistics; Fall 2009 vs. Fall 2010

This table outlines increases in all major Books 24x7 usage statistics for the same period of time in 2009, prior to the experimenand in 2010, the semester in which the experiment began.

CONCLUSION

Numerous reasons for leveraging and repurposing library resources (i.e. Books 24x7) are supported as a result of this study. Clearly, this option provides students the opportunity to utilize vetted textbook resources at no additional cost to them personally. Initial concerns about students rejecting online e-book content delivery were dispelled by high adoption rates. Students who chose the e-book option found the content to be of equal or better quality and as or more convenient as the traditional textbook alternative.

When starting the project it was critical to ensure continual vendor support to address technical challenges that may impact reliable and efficient content delivery to students. This relationship helped maintain confidence in the product and resulted in increased use of the resource and overall awareness of library ebook resources. The university library has experienced dramatic growth in Books24x7 e-book usage since the inception of the pilot course in September 2010. Tracking usage statistics is critical for effective management of library funds allocated to purchase subscriptions to databases such as Books 24x7. While libraries are not strangers to budget constraints, the present economic crisis has greatly impacted the need for libraries to evaluate their materials budgets and slash subscriptions and resource lines when necessary (Hunter, 2010; Weir, 2010). The university library looks to in-house and vendor supplied database and title usage statistics before each budget cycle in order to determine renewal priorities.

Yet, there are challenges to implementing the model introduced by this pilot course. Currently, collections included in the Books 24x7 database primarily support the business disciplines. Though there is great potential for numerous business programs to benefit from this library resource, colleagues in the areas of education and liberal arts do not yet have similar one-stop-shop resources. While the researchers are encouraged by student responses to the pilot course model, gathering data from additional sections of the course over additional terms is needed. Future research should explore utilizing other textbook alternatives such as open educational resources. From an administrative perspective, because many institutions profit from on-campus book sales, conversations will have to continue on the balance between this revenue stream and providing relevant free content students that do not include traditional textbooks.

Designing and testing the embedded e-book links in the Blackboard Learning Management System took approximately two weeks. In addition to this preparation period, both faculty members actively gathered and analyzed data throughout the term and integrated student initiated suggestions to improve the course in each of the eight modules. This is in contrast to a traditional course that may offer students one opportunity for assessment at the end of the term. Considerable time and effort was put forth by both researchers throughout term. It is worth noting that the current iteration of this pilot course requires considerably less time and supervision by both the teaching and library faculty participants.

So what is the potential for e-book databases and other open sources of content to replace traditional textbooks? Based on the quantitative and qualitative findings the researchers feel that there is a great potential for additional research in this area. Given the nature of the digital age, undergraduate students are becoming more comfortable accessing electronic content sources (i.e. e-books). Tools such as electronic library resources, Google Reader, Google News, RSS, learning management systems, and others enable faculty in all disciplines to locate relevant content to support their courses, and to embed that content into meaningful learning modules for students. The researchers believe textbook publishers still currently have a market to operate. Yet, this market is quickly changing due to economic, technological and competitive factors out of their direct control. As conclusions are drawn on this experiment, additional questions present themselves specific to the learning environment that currently includes faculty, students, library resources and multiple open channels of relevant content:

- Can this model be applied to additional business courses and in other disciplines?
- Can an entire program (i.e. major, minor, certificate) be supported by alternative textbook resources?
- Can this model serve as a marketing competitive advantage for individual programs, schools, or entire universities
- Will individual faculty take advantage of the influx of reliable open educational resources as an alternative to print textbooks?
- What role do libraries and librarians have in accessing and promoting content to faculty that can potentially serve as viable textbook alternatives?

LESSONS LEARNED

• Technology unleashes the potential for sharing quality relevant content outside the confines of a traditional textbook model. Alternative resources are available through current library subscriptions and freely on the web with the growth of the open educational resources movement.

- Students embrace electronically delivered content when "dipping" in and out of embedded e-book links as previously found by the Nicholas et al. (2010) and Appleton (2005). This pilot course has found that students actually prefer the convenience of reading embedded e-book content to that of reading traditional textbooks linearly. This is in contrast to various reports indicating that electronic content and readers for such content still trail in adoption by students to traditional print formats (Young, 2009; NACS, 2010; BISG, 2011)
- Students noted the value of multiple textbooks being used to support a single course as well as the differences in author writing styles and examples used. This observation provided an unexpected and unique teaching opportunity to discuss the importance of consulting various voices during the research process and the importance of evaluating one's sources.
- Technology tools enable and encourage constant communication throughout a given term between students, teaching faculty and library faculty to improve course delivery and overall user experience. Having a library liaison embedded into each section of the Blackboard course site allows for constant monitoring of student questions or problems using the e-book links or e-book database. In addition, online surveys embedded in the Blackboard site captured student feedback regarding their satisfaction with e-book content, convenience, and course layouts. This empowers the faculty to make real-time changes to the course and provide timely support to students.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Andy Lynch is an Associate Professor of Marketing at Southern New Hampshire University. He can be contacted at: School of Business, Southern New Hampshire University, 2500 North River Road, Manchester, New Hampshire, USA. Email: a.lynch@snhu.edu

Brooke Ratto is the Information Literacy Librarian at Southern New Hampshire University. She can be contacted at: Shapiro Library, Southern New Hampshire University, 2500 North River Road, Manchester, New Hampshire, USA. Email: b.ratto@snhu.edu

Carlos Omar Trejo-Pech, Universidad Panamericana at Guadalajara, México Magdy Noguera, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA Ángel Samaniego-Alcántar, ITESO, Jesuist University, at Guadalajara, México Richard N. Weldon, University of Florida, USA

ABSTRACT

The relationships among earnings, accruals, and cash flows for selected Latin American countries (Mexico, Chile, and Argentina) are investigated in this study from 1990 to 2009. We find a negative relationship between accruals and cash flow across decile portfolios. More importantly, firms in decile portfolio 10 reporting relative high level of earnings relative to assets, 6.5%, have the worst level of cash flows (negative 9.7%). Results are compared to previous results for U.S. firms. Given the level of sophistication of these capital markets, results for Latin American firms are less stable than for the U.S.Results disaggregated by years show that high-accruals portfolios consistently report relative high levels of earnings but low levels of cash flow. Further, the gap between earnings and cash flow is higher after 2000. This relationship is of economic importance given that investors are very oriented towards firms yielding high earnings and might fail to realize that earnings are not always accompanied by strong levels of cash flows.

INTRODUCTION

The relationships among earnings, accruals, and cash flows have proved to be of economic importance. Earnings are comprised of two components: accruals and cash flow. For the most part, the quality of earnings on the income statement is more a function of the accruals and less so cash flows. Consequently the literature continues to see more discussion of cash flows versus accruals. Trejo-Pech, Weldon, House and Gunderson (2009), pp.521, state:

"A recent Wall Street Journal (2008) article discusses the relationship between earnings quality, cash flow, and accruals. Matthew Rothman of Lehman Brothers talks about the company's investment strategy of screening stocks based on changes in accruals. In the same article Richard Sloan, of Barclays Global Investors, notes that investors should "expect to see more strains on companies with rising accrual." Mr. Sloan's comment is not particularly surprising given that Sloan (1996), over a decade ago, wrote what many consider a seminal article on the impact of accruals on stock returns."

Sloan (1996) analyzes the U.S. market from 1962 to 1991, and documents a systematic relationship between current period's accruals and future period's stock returns. He further argues that few investors pay attention to this relationship, opening the possibility for arbitrage. This possibility of arbitrage is termed the accrual anomaly in the financial and accounting economics literature.

Several studies have replicated, extended, and challenged the accrual anomaly. However, a complete explanation for this problem has yet to be provided. Khan (2008), (pp72), illustrates the importance of this research problem:

"[The accrual anomaly] is especially troubling because it implies that the market misunderstands a reported financial accounting number... It is hard to imagine how a number that is misunderstood could be very useful"

We are interested in the stream of research that examines the accrual anomaly in countries other than in the U.S. LaFond (2005); Pincus, Rajgopal and Venkatachalam (2007); and Kaserer and Klingler (2008)

have investigated the accrual anomaly in an international context but none of these studies have investigated the accrual anomaly in Latin American countries.

LaFond (2005) was the first to provide evidence that the accrual anomaly is present in non-U.S. markets. He also finds that the accrual anomaly is not related to differences in legal systems nor it is associated with the level of investor protection and it is present in countries with both high and low accrual intensive accounting systems. In contrast, Pincus, Rajgopal and Venkatachalam (2007) find that stock prices overweight more accruals in countries with a common law tradition relative to a code law tradition, where extensive use of accrual accounting is allowed, in the presence of weaker outside shareholder rights, and in countries where there is a low ownership concentration. Kaserer and Klinger (2008) focus their study on accounting standards and find that the overreaction to accrual based information is most likely related to firms complying with international accounting standards (that tend to be US-GAAP based) than for firms that follow a more conservative system like German-GAAP. Overall, the international evidence gives us with the opportunity to shed light on results by accruals for Latin American firms. Although the study does not attempt to test the accrual anomaly, it starts by investigating the relationships among accruals, cash flows, and earnings for Latin America firms. These relationships form the basis of the accrual anomaly problem.

<u>Data</u>

Data from Economatica, the largest subscription-based financial database for Latin American publicly traded firms, are used in this study. Economatica also includes information from a few firms that are private but that report their financial statements to a local regulatory agency. Private firms were excluded from the sample. Financial firms were also excluded since their financial statements differ from those of the rest of industries.

Economatica includes firms from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela in a standardized format, which allows comparison across firms, countries, and industries. Trailing twelve months (ttm) financial statements data in US dollars as of the end of each quarter were used. All empirical variables as defined in equations (1) and (2) in the following section were calculated in the study. All variables were considered critical in the sense that firm-trailing twelve month (firm-ttm) observations with missing values on any of the variables defined in this study were eliminated from the sample. In addition, as the estimation of most variables required the estimation of changes from period t-1 to period t, when data on the appropriate sequence was not available to estimate such change, the firm-ttm observation was eliminated from the sample.

After filtering the data following the criteria outlined above, firms from Venezuela, Peru, and Colombia were eliminated. The firm-ttm observations for those countries were far lower than the number of observations for the rest of the countries. Thus, the final sample includes firms from Mexico, Argentina, and Chile from 1990 to the third quarter of 2009. The final sample includes 14,039 firm-ttm observations as shown in Table 2.

Empirical Measures Of Accruals And Earnings

Earnings (*Ear*) represent the sum of a cash flow (*CF*) and an accrual (*Acc*) component. Cash flow is measured as,

$$CF = Ear - Acc, \qquad (1)$$

where the variable earnings, *Ear*, is operating income. Some studies measure earnings differently. To mention a few of them: Freeman, Ohlson and Penman (1982), use net income; Dechow (1994); and Moehrle, Reynolds- Moehrle and Wallace (2003) use net income excluding

extraordinary items and discontinued operations. We follow the literature related to accruals and use operating income. Operating income excludes non-recurring items such as extraordinary items, discontinued operations, special items and non operating income, taxes, and interest expenses.

Accruals, *Acc*, is measured following Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh and Lakonishok (2006) as, $Acc = \Delta AR + \Delta INV + \Delta OCA - \Delta AP - \Delta OCL - DA$ (2) where *AR* is accounts receivable, *INV* is inventories, *OCA* is other current assets, *AP* is accounts payable, *OCL* is other current liabilities; and DA is depreciation and amortization.

All variables are divided by total assets to control for scale differences. Alternative investment bases have been used in the literature including sales, beginning of period assets, ending of period assets, book value of net assets generating the accruals, and market capitalization. Accruals results have been reported to be insensitive to the choice of investment base.

Two issues related to the measurement of accruals must be mentioned. As defined in this study, variable accruals relates to *operating* cash flow as opposed to free cash flow to equity. This follows the implementation of accruals introduced by Healy (1985) and Sloan (1996) and used in most recent studies. Richardson, Sloan, Soliman and Tuna (2005) measure total accruals (related to free cash flow to equity), but their suggestion has not been repeated in the literature. Secondly, accruals are measured indirectly from the balance sheet instead of taking it directly from the statement of cash flow. This is common in research on the accrual anomaly with the notable exception of Kraft, Leone and Wasley (2006).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics- Table 1 presents the means of selected financial characteristics by country and for Latin America as a group.

	ARG	CHI	MEX	LAT
Assets	365,892.3	334,798.2	1,901,297.4	1,208,624.0
AR	26,937.7	35,434.8	159,139.5	103,329.7
INV	21,416.9	30,706.1	146,324.9	94,026.5
AP	24,658.1	24,774.4	109,933.7	72,094.9
Leverage	34%	23%	31%	30%
EBIT	26,745.2	22,457.3	318,463.6	187,414.8

 Table 1 : Descriptive statistics for Latin American selected countries, 1990-2009

Notes: **Table 1** provides means of selected financial items. *Assets* is total assets, *AR* is account receivables, *INV* is inventories, *AP* is accounts payable, Leverage is total debt with cost divided by the sum of total debt with cost and the book value of equity, and *EBIT* is earnings before interest and taxes. With the exception of leverage all values are expressed in thousands of US dollars (exchange rates as given by Economatica as of the end of each month). *ARG* stands for Argentina, *CHI* for Chile, *MEX* for Mexico, and *LAT* for Latin America as a group.

Earnings, Accruals, and Cash Flow- Table 2 provides information on the components of earnings and accruals for Latin America by countries, for Latin America as a group, and for the U.S. from a previous study by Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh and Lakonishok (2006).

Panel A of Table 2 shows statistics on earnings, accruals and cash flow. On average, Latin American firms yield very low earnings compared to the U.S. (0.060 compared to 0.121). The difference on reported earnings is consistent on both the accrual and cash flow component of earnings (i.e., accruals for Latin America are lower than the U.S., and cash flow for Latin America are lower than the U.S. as

well). Thus, for a given level of reported earnings U.S. firms generate more cash flows and accruals than the average Latin American firm.

For Latin American countries, Mexico reports the highest and most stable level of earnings, but not the highest cash flow. As expected given the level of sophistication of these capital markets, results for Latin America as a group, presented in panel A of Table 2, are less stable (as measured by the coefficient of variation) than the U.S. market.

Table 2: Earnings, cash flow, and accruals for Latin America by selected countries for the 1990-2009 period, and for the USA

Item	ARG	CHIL	MEX	LAT	USA
Observations	1,423	4,813	7,803	14,039	NA
	Pan	el A - Earnings and	components		
		Acc	cruals		
Mean	(0.049)	(0.033)	(0.025)	(0.030)	(0.012)
σ	0.065	0.213	1.150	0.866	0.102
		Casl	h Flow		
Mean	0.106	0.077	0.096	0.090	0.133
σ	0.105	0.258	1.191	0.901	0.141
		Ear	nings		
Mean	0.057	0.044	0.070	0.060	0.121
σ	0.088	0.147	0.106	0.121	0.126
	Pa	anel B - Accruals co	mponents		
			AR		
Mean σ	(0.002) 0.052	(0.002) 0.162	$0.001 \\ 0.042$	(0.000) 0.101	$0.030 \\ 0.073$
0	0.052		OCA	0.101	0.075
Mean	(0.001)	(0.001)	0.001	(0.000)	0.026
σ	0.040	0.101	0.042	0.068	0.020
		Δ	AP		
Mean	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.000)	0.004
σ	0.017	0.033	0.041	0.037	0.004
		Δ	OCL		
Mean	(0.002)	(0.001)	0.001	0.000	0.014
σ	0.041	0.112	0.038	0.073	0.045
-			DA		
Mean	(0.000)	(0.002)	(0.011)	(0.006)	0.013
σ	0.029	0.104	1.147	0.857	0.038
	0.047	0.032	0.036	0.036	0.045
	0.030	0.099	0.046	0.068	0.028

Notes: The Latin America sample covers the 1990-2009 period. USA results from a previous study Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh and Lakonishok (2006) for 1971 to 1995. ARG is Argentina, CHI is Chile, MEX is Mexico, and LAT stands for all Latin America. Earnings is estimated as operating income, Accruals as defined in equation (2), and Cash Flow is a proxy for cash flow from operations as defined in equation (1). ΔAR is change in account receivables, ΔINV is change in inventories, ΔOCA is change in other current assets, ΔAP is change in accounts payable, ΔOCL is change in other current liabilities, and DA is depreciation and amortization. All variables are divided by total assets to control for scale differences.

Presented in Panel B of Table 2 are the accruals decomposed according to equation (2). As expected, depreciation and amortization (DA) is the largest component of accruals across all countries, but it is the most stable component of accruals as well. This is explained by the nature of this item related to permanent assets. Excluding depreciation and amortization, net operating working capital relative to total

assets, defined as $\Delta AR + \Delta INV - \Delta AP$, is the main component of accruals. Net operating working capital for Latin America as a group is 0% relative to total assets, compared to 4.3% for the U.S. This difference could be of economic importance since it represents, for Latin American firms, cash that does not need to be tied to operations compared to the average U.S. firm. This amount for the U.S. represents almost one third of average reported earnings. Results for Latin America are consistent across countries.

Accruals Portfolios: To better understand the relationships among accruals, cash flow, and earnings across firms and countries, results are analyzed by portfolios of accruals. Every year, all firms in the sample are ranked according to the magnitude of accruals and assigned to one of ten decile portfolios.

Provided in Table 3 are the means of earnings, accruals, and cash flow along with a proxy for size by accrual portfolio for Latin America. Decile portfolio one (Decile Port1) contains firms with the lowest level of accruals, portfolio two contains firms with the second lowest level of accruals, up to portfolio ten, which contains firms with the highest level of accruals. There is a negative relationship between accruals and cash flow across decile portfolios. As one moves from decile portfolio one with a mean of -0.19 for accruals to portfolio ten with a mean of 0.159, cash flow *monotonically* decreases from 0.215 to -0.097. With regards to earnings and accruals, although the relationship tends to be positive (i.e., forcing the negative relationship between accruals and cash flow), this is not always the case. However, firms with very low accruals (decile port1) report low levels of earnings, 0.25, compared to very high accruals firms (decile port10), 0.062.

Of economic importance is the fact that Latin American firms reporting the lowest level of earnings (0.025) report the highest level of cash flow. More importantly, firms reporting a relative high level of earnings (0.062 in decile portfolio 10) have the worst cash flow (negative 0.097). Thus, disaggregating the sample by level of accruals provides new insights not shown otherwise. Figure 1 illustrates this result.

Portfolio	Accruals	Earnings	Cash Flow	Sales
Decile Port1	(0.190)	0.025	0.215	8.013
Decile Port2	(0.081)	0.064	0.146	8.098
Decile Port3	(0.060)	0.070	0.130	8.065
Decile Port4	(0.048)	0.070	0.118	8.079
Decile Port5	(0.038)	0.071	0.109	8.064
Decile Port6	(0.029)	0.065	0.094	8.056
Decile Port7	(0.020)	0.064	0.085	8.055
Decile Port8	(0.009)	0.056	0.065	8.044
Decile Port9	0.007	0.052	0.045	7.870
Decile Port10	0.159	0.062	(0.097)	7.990

Table 3: Mean of accruals, earnings, cash flow, and sales for Latin American firms, 1990-2009

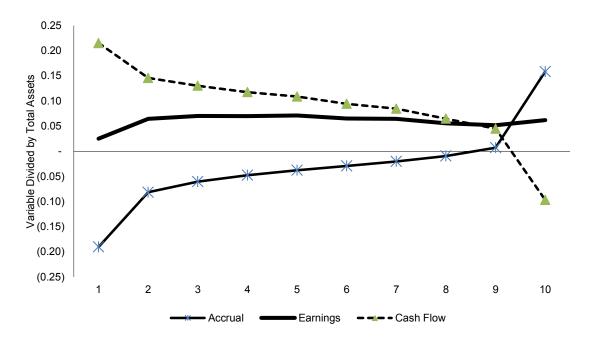
Notes: Decile Port1 is decile portfolio one, which contains firms with the lowest magnitude of accruals. Decile Port2, portfolio two contains firms with the second lowest level of accruals, up to Decile port10 ten, which contains firms with the highest level of accruals. Sales is the natural logarithm of total revenues. Countries included in the Latin America sample are Mexico, Chile, and Argentina.

The properties of earnings and its components was first shown in decile portfolios by Dechow (1994) and Sloan (1996) for the U.S. market. This has been replicated in the same format by Chan, Chan, Jegadeesh and Lakonishok (2006); Kothari, Loutskina and Nikolaev (2006); and Trejo-Pech, Weldon and House (2008) among others. There is a difference of the results for Latin American compared to those results for the U.S. The relationship between accruals and earnings for U.S. firms is consistently positive across decile portfolios.

Table 3 provides *sales*, defined as the natural logarithm of sales, as a control variable to proxy size. Consistent with previous studies cited before, sales across portfolios follow an inverted U shape. Portfolios in the extremes (decile portfolio 1, decile portfolio 9, and decile portfolio 10) contain the smallest firms across portfolios. Size has been shown to have predictive value (i.e., the Fama and French 3-Factors Asset Pricing Model (Fama and French (1993)) includes size –proxy by market capitalization, as one the factors to predict returns).

Table 4 shows that these results are consistent when the data is disaggregated by country. Again, except for minor differences, results for Latin American firms are similar to those reported by previous studies for the U.S. market. These simple properties of earnings and its components form the basis for the hypothesis formulated by Sloan (1996) that earnings attributable to the accrual component of earnings are less persistent into the future than earnings attributable to the cash flow performance of earnings. With further development, this generates the so called fixation hypothesis by Sloan (1996), which states that investors are earnings-oriented and do not recognize the information on accruals when implementing their trading strategies. The fixation hypothesis that realized returns are systematically different from expected returns (i.e. expectations fixated on earnings), and that opens the possibility for arbitrage.

Figure 1: Earnings, accruals, and cash flows for Latin American countries by accruals portfolios: 1990-2009. Variable Accruals was forced to change monotonically across portfolios.



Notes: 1 to 10 represent accruals decile portfolio 1 (lowest magnitude of accruals) to portfolio 10 (highest magnitude of accruals)

Firms With Extreme Magnitude Of Accruals

The accrual anomaly problem referred to above has centered its attention on firms with extreme levels of accruals (i.e., decile portfolios 1 and 10 or quintile portfolios 1 and 5). While the behavior of firms with extreme high accruals for U.S. firms has been consistently explained, the behavior of extreme low accrual firms is an empirical problem not solved yet (for recent empirical results refer to Kothari, Loutskina and Nikolaev (2006), Kraft, Leone and Wasley (2006), and Trejo-Pech, Weldon, House and Gunderson (2009)). In accordance to this, the study groups results by quintiles portfolios. Table 5 provides results

Results presented in Table 5 show that consistently high-accruals portfolios report relative high levels of earnings but low levels of cash flow. Further, the gap between earnings and cash flow is higher after 2000. This simple relationship is of economic importance given that investors are very oriented towards firms yielding high earnings and might fail to realize that earnings are not always accompanied by a strong level of cash.

Item/Dec Portfolio	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Mexico									
Accruals	(0.19)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	0.01	0.22
Earnings	0.03	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.08
Cash Flows	0.22	0.16	0.14	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.08	0.06	(0.14)
Sales	12.08	12.73	12.91	12.96	12.99	12.60 C hile	12.57	12.23	11.95	12.02
Accruals	(0.19)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	0.01	0.10
Earnings	0.01	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.04
Cash Flows	0.21	0.13	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.03	0.02	(0.06)
Sales	10.09	11.04	11.03	10.92	11.04 Ar	10.46 gentina	10.00	9.68	10.09	10.48
Accruals	(0.16)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	0.04
Earnings	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.05	0.07
Cash Flows	0.22	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.06	0.02
Sales	11.15	11.43	11.31	11.52	11.65	11.52	11.57	11.40	11.07	10.66

Table 4 : Mean of accruals, earnings, cash flow, and sales for Latin American firms by Country, 1990-2009

Notes: 1 (10) represents decile portfolio with the lowest (highest) magnitude of accruals. Sales are defined as the natural logarithm of total revenues.

Results in Table 5 also show that in 16 out of the 19 years analyzed, low-accruals or high-accruals portfolios contain the smallest firms. This is consistent with results not tabulated of volatility for the variables analyzed in this study by portfolios (i.e., extreme accruals portfolios present the highest volatility measured by the coefficient of variation).

Panel A Low Accruals					
Year	Accruals	Earnings	Cash Flow	Sales	
1990	(0.090)	0.104	0.194	12.880	
1991	(0.107)	0.090	0.198	12.260	
1992	(0.090)	0.090	0.179	12.673	
1993	(0.093)	0.067	0.160	12.408	
1994	(0.142)	0.054	0.196	11.846	
1995	(0.183)	(0.013)	0.170	12.059	
1996	(0.101)	0.070	0.171	11.755	
1997	(0.109)	0.048	0.157	11.689	
1998	(0.116)	0.062	0.178	11.494	
1999	(0.124)	0.043	0.167	11.365	
2000	(0.135)	0.038	0.173	11.322	
2001	(0.135)	0.010	0.144	11.016	
2002	(0.146)	0.014	0.159	11.195	
2003	(0.132)	0.024	0.156	11.367	
2004	(0.138)	0.024	0.163	11.572	
2005	(0.207)	0.049	0.256	11.900	
2006	(0.107)	0.068	0.175	12.027	
2007	(0.162)	0.067	0.229	12.147	
2008	(0.130)	0.081	0.211	12.226	
2009	(0.137)	0.032	0.169	11.266	
1990-2009	(0.136)	0.045	0.180	11.667	
		Panel B Mid Aco			
Year	Accruals	Earnings	Cash Flow	Sales	
1996	(0.032)	0.082	0.114	12.700	
1997	(0.030)	0.073	0.103	12.490	
1992	(0.027)	0.064	0.091	12.460	
1993	(0.026)	0.067	0.093	12.268	
1994	(0.026)	0.067	0.093	12.424	
1995	(0.040)	0.072	0.111	12.135	
1996	(0.029)	0.077	0.106	11.818	
1997	(0.027)	0.073	0.100	11.791	
1998	(0.034)	0.073	0.107	11.593	
1999	(0.033)	0.066	0.100	11.555	
2000	(0.036)	0.067	0.102	11.702	
2001	(0.039)	0.056	0.095	11.763	
2002	(0.041)	0.053	0.094	11.508	
2003	(0.035)	0.058	0.093	11.610	
2004	(0.033)	0.070	0.103	11.795	
2005	(0.034)	0.070	0.105	11.958	
2006	(0.034)	0.073	0.107	12.059	
2007	(0.030)	0.061	0.091	12.159	
2008	(0.036)	0.065	0.101	12.274	
2009	(0.038)	0.067	0.105	11.337	
1990-2009	(0.034)	0.066	0.100	11.857	

Table 5: Mean of accruals, earnings, cash flow, and sales for Latin American firms by year for low-accrual, high-accrual, and mid-accrual portfolio

Notes: Low Accruals contains firms categorized in the quintile 1, High Accruals contains firms categorized in quintile 5, and Mid Accruals contains the average of quintiles 2, 3, and 4. All variables are in Table 5 are defined previously.

Table 5 :	Continued
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Panel C High Accruals					
Year	Accruals	Earnings	Cash Flow	Sales	
2002	0.039	0.129	0.090	12.304	
2003	0.052	0.082	0.030	12.178	
1992	0.035	0.085	0.050	12.348	
1993	0.066	0.092	0.026	12.238	
1994	0.069	0.069	0.000	12.035	
1995	0.055	0.065	0.010	11.283	
1996	0.042	0.121	0.078	11.369	
1997	0.056	0.079	0.023	11.217	
1998	0.078	0.062	(0.016)	10.951	
1999	0.031	0.057	0.026	11.123	
2000	0.538	0.032	(0.506)	10.794	
2001	0.039	0.035	(0.004)	10.806	
2002	0.048	0.032	(0.016)	10.852	
2003	0.046	0.029	(0.017)	10.750	
2004	0.040	0.061	0.021	11.330	
2005	0.041	0.067	0.026	11.511	
2006	0.043	0.047	0.004	11.762	
2007	0.044	0.077	0.033	11.834	
2008	0.043	0.049	0.007	12.025	
2009	0.025	0.059	0.034	11.134	
1990-2009	0.083	0.057	(0.026)	11.318	

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigates the nature of the relationships among earnings, accruals, and cash flows for Latin American firms. In particular, publicly traded firms from Mexico, Chile, and Argentina are examined. Results are compared to previous results for U.S. firms. From the selected Latin American countries, Mexico reports the highest and most stable level of earnings, but not the highest cash flow. When results for Latin America as a group are compared to results for U.S. firms, as expected given the level of sophistication of these capital markets, results for Latin America are less stable than the U.S. firms.

We decompose accruals and find that depreciation and amortization (*DA*) is the largest component of accruals across all Latin American countries, but it is the most stable component of accruals as well. This is explained by the nature of this item related to permanent assets. Excluding depreciation and amortization from accruals, net operating working capital relative to total assets, defined as $\Delta AR + \Delta INV - \Delta AP$, is the main component of accruals. Net operating working capital for Latin America as a group is 0% relative to total assets, compared to 4.3% for the U.S. This difference could be of economic importance since it represents, for Latin American firms, cash that does not need to be tied to operations compared to the average U.S. firm. This amount for the U.S. represents almost one third of average reported earnings. Results for Latin America are consistent across countries.

We categorize firms in decile portfolios formed by sorting firms each year by the magnitude of accruals. We find a negative relationship between accruals and cash flow across decile portfolios. Of economic importance is the fact that Latin American firms reporting the lowest level of earnings (0.025) report the highest level of cash flow. More importantly, firms reporting a relative high level of earnings (0.062 in decile portfolio 10) have the worst cash flow (negative 0.094). Thus, disaggregating the sample by level of accruals provides new insights not shown otherwise. There is a difference between the results for Latin American firms is consistently positive across decile portfolios, while this relationship is not clear for Latin American firms. The negative relationship between accruals and cash flow and the tendency for a positive relationship between accruals and earnings form the basis for the hypothesis formulated by Sloan (1996)

that investors are earnings-oriented and do not recognize the information on accruals when implementing their trading strategies. Future research for Latin America firms would incorporate stock prices returns to test the accrual anomaly problem, initiated by Sloan, and recently investigated in the international context. The results, disaggregated by years, show that high-accruals portfolios consistently report relative high levels of earnings but low levels of cash flow. Further, the gap between earnings and cash flow is higher after the year 2000. This simple relationship is of economic importance given that investors are very oriented towards firms yielding high earnings and might fail to realize that earnings are not always accompanied by a strong level of cash.

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FACTORS AFFECTING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF STAFF DISCIPLINE SYSTEM IN TURKEY: COMPARISON OF TWO COMPANIES APPLICATION

Didem Pasaoglu Hamsioglu, Anadolu University

ABSTRACT

Increase of population in the world exposes meeting requirements of people's needs, getting together to people for common goals and necessity of being organized. Some behaviors like living together, respecting rights of the other people and fulfilling requirements of responsibilities brings out necessity of determining upper and lower boundaries of these behaviors. For determining the upper and lower boundaries of these behaviors, concept of discipline is used. Nowadays, concept of discipline is essential concept for people's interactions and living their lives with fewer problems as possible. This concept has become so important which shows that how vital of implementation process of disciplinary system. This importance of concept draws particular attention to importance of implementation process of discipline system. The study aims to find out reducing factors of effective disciplinary system is applied by two companies in Turkey which are one has Turkish capital and the other has foreign-owned capital. Studies which have done before and this study are indicated that the concept of discipline has always been important for people to live together and will be important.

JEL: M1

KEYWORDS: Discipline, preventive discipline, corrective discipline, constructive discipline and progressive discipline

INTRODUCTION

In the recent world characterized with increasing population, the need of people satisfying needs also revealed out the necessity of league together and organization towards the common purposes of human. The requirement of people to live together, respect rights of others and fulfill responsibilities on their part led to the necessity to determine lower and upper limits of such behaviors. This study should address the concept of discipline. In the widest sense, "discipline implies order and regularity. Discipline refers to regular behavior and working effort of a subject". Recently, the concept of discipline is an inevitable one for interaction of human and for enabling people sustains their lives with as less troubles as possible. The increased importance of this concept indicates the vitality in implementation process of a discipline system. The vital importance takes attention to the importance of implementation process of the discipline system. In the study, efforts were made in order to better understand factors reducing efficiency of a discipline system via technique of interview with businesses with local and foreign capital. As a consequence of the study, factors reducing the efficiency are revealed out by comparing the implementation in two businesses. The most material indicator demonstrated in the study is that the discipline has been always important when people had started to live together and it will maintain the importance as long as people continue to live together.

Discipline

Atiomo (2000) defines discipline "as the training of the mind and character to produce self control and habit of obedience". In its general sense, discipline refers to punishment of some sort for wrong doing and can be a useful tool for behavior modification, for reorientation and for educational purposes (Udom, 1998). Staff discipline has many definitions. Some focus on fostering productivity, others on ensuring

compliance with policies or controlling behavior. Belohlav (1985) emphasized that making and keeping people productive is the function of the disciplinary process. Werther and Davis (1993) defined discipline as "management action to encourage compliance with organizational standards". Robbins (1994) argued that the term refers to "actions taken by a manager to enforce the organization's standards and regulations". Greer and Labig (1987) suggested that "discipline is an important, albeit distasteful function in almost every manager's job as he or she attempts to control undesired behavior in the work place". Discipline is a measure aimed at producing self control and habit of obedience. Robins (1996) notes that at some time, every manager has to deal with an staff who drinks on the job, is insubordinate, steals company property, arrives consistently late for work, or engages in similar problem behaviors; that managers will normally respond with disciplinary action such as oral reprimands, written warnings, and temporary suspensions. Every other organization manager has to take some disciplinary measures against some staff who exhibit undesirable behavior. In literature, there are four types of discipline models which are preventive discipline, corrective discipline, constructive discipline and progressive discipline (Beyer and Trice, 1984).

Preventive Discipline: Preventive discipline means that in order not to violate the rules and direct regulations of staff (Bellizzi, 2000). Purpose of this discipline is to prevent self discipline people who work at the businesses. Generally, employers want to have this type of discipline because if this discipline occurs in businesses, staff will have self discipline.

Corrective Discipline: The main intention of the corrective discipline is to foster self-discipline; action on the employer's part is designed to correct the individual rather than punish or instill fear. Rules need to be "well known and accepted by staffs" (Anderman, 1972). Penalties are designed to be applied fairly and consistently, and are predictable. Except in cases of gross misconduct, dismissal will not take place unless there has been an opportunity to modify behavior. There will be adequate warnings, the opportunity to improve before a dismissal takes place, and lesser penalties for initial infractions. The corrective discipline is based on the assumption that staffs are willing to abide by well-established and equitable standards of behavior. A number of criticisms have been leveled against the corrective approach. First, that it is construed on an illogical premise, i.e. that if an organization treats its staffs progressively worse, they get progressively better (Redeker, 1983). Furthermore, it can be argued that corrective discipline is a sophisticated form of punishment i.e. ``a negative incentive causing the suppression of actions that might bring about unwanted consequences" (Wheeler, 1976). Emphasis is on the procedural rather than the substantive aspects of discipline, and that it over stresses the benefits of formalization. The corrective approach has been labeled managerialist in nature because it tries to separate discipline from the wider issue of control (Mellish and Collis Squires, 1976). The corrective approach can be costly in terms of the time of management and personnel involved and may be potentially disruptive to work.

*Constructive Discipline:*Constructive discipline was born as an alternative to corrective discipline and progressive discipline (Bellizzi, 2000). Constructive discipline is against of punishment. According to this discipline, violation of rule is function of staff (Bellizzi, 2000). It emphasizes that managers should investigate cause of rule violations, why staffs behaves in wrong ways and try to guide staffs for good acts instead of punish them. Constructive discipline aims to not to punish staff because of unwanted behaviors. Therefore, it uses counseling approach for guide good acting. Managers get education about how to be counselor for this discipline.

Progressive Discipline: The traditional approach to discipline is based upon the theory that various standards of conduct and productivity can be achieved and maintained through a system of everincreasing degrees of punishment. Arbitrator Harry J. Dworkin in *Babcock&Wilcox Co.* described this approach to discipline in a case involving a discharge for excessive absenteeism (Gilliom, 1992). Another arbitrator, Professor Lawrence Stessen, subscribes to the principle of progressive discipline as imposing more severe penalties on each given staff each time any given offence is repeated. As for any discipline system to have credibility, the standards of conduct or performance must beclearly established so that all staffs are, at least theoretically, aware of the employer's expectations. In a progressive discipline system, discipline is used to achieve employer expectations by compelling compliance with company rules through punishment or the threat of punishment. This traditional approach has developed into a fairly set formula (Shaw and Bransford, 1995). This formula frequently consists of the following four steps:

1. A staff who has committed an infraction is verbally warned and told that if the same infraction occurs again within some specified period the degree of disciplinary action will be increased.

2. If the staff again commits the same or a similar violation within the specified period, the staff will be given a written warning which will be placed in his or her personnel file. The staff will be told that if his or her conduct is repeated within a specified period the staff will be disciplined again but more severely.

3. If the staff again transgresses in the same manner and within the specified period, he or she will be suspended from employment for a period of time without pay and will be given a final warning. This warning will clearly specify discharge as the result of another such infraction within a stated time.

4. If the staff again violates the same rule within the specified time, the staff will be discharged. However, to really work this traditional approach must contain two additional and essential elements. Without them an arbitrator may still find the discipline to have been unfair. Those elements are the following:

a. The system must provide due process to the staff;

b. All staffs must be treated the same or advanced through the steps of the system in the same fashion without discrimination.

Implementation: Research on factors influencing implementation of personnel discipline system in an business with local capital (X) and foreign capital (Y).

Overview On Personnel Discipline System Of The Business The Concept Of Discipline For The Business

Discipline is a style of living which ensures harmony in work places. Perceptions of people are different and therefore, it is necessary to create coordination between people. In order to ensure order in the business, rules required for proper operation of the system (order) should not be left to the discretion of individuals. "Lifestyle in X" is a slogan which may be used by the business in relation with discipline. Ability to maintain the lifestyle based on very reasonable rules will facilitate long-term implementation of the lifestyle.

Personnel Discipline Guideline Of The Business

• Date of issue; the first Personnel Discipline Guideline was issued in writing at the beginning of Year 2004 in the business and it was immediately put into force. The reason in the part of the business with a commercial history of 36 years for such late implementation of the guideline is that staffs are thought to internalized business culture since they have been working for long time and accordingly, written rules are not required.

• Structural growth of the business and recruitment of new staffs made it difficult to ensure order in the business. For enabling new staffs better adapt business environment, written discipline rules are required.

• Constituting the discipline system; first, infrastructure of the discipline system in the business is formed, and while the infrastructure is constituted, support from law consultants is obtained, and in addition to this support, a general scope is determined by considering provisions in legal sources such as business law and constitutional law.

The model implemented by the business is the graduated discipline model. In general, there are various sanctions against breaches.

Discipline committee; this committee approves the final decision originating from investigations for infringements of provisions in the discipline guideline of the business. Discipline committee is consisted of four members; two of them are employers and one vote of the staff has the power of two votes! Other two members are selected among staffs. Here, an important point emphasized by the business is that nobody is voluntary to participate to the committee. In this case, the business chooses two staffs in order to participate to the committee.

Advice; It is to inform the personnel in writing that he should be more careful in his job and in overall behaviors.

Infringements resulted with sanction of advice are generally about lack of attention and care, failure to fulfill written instructions, tardiness and appearance (dressing).

Reprobation; the relevant staff is informed in writing that he is found faulty in his work and in his behaviors. Infringements resulting with sanction of reprobation are related with intentional loss of information about the business, failing to inform in an intentional manner and causing difficulties in part of clients.

Discharge; It is the dismissal of the relevant staff such that he will never be assigned to any position in the company. Infringements resulting with dismissal generally include disclosure of company secrets, misconduct, sexual abuse, material theft, destruction of official documents and performing additional works without permission.

1. Operation of discipline committee process

- a. Referral to the discipline committee
- b. Decision meeting of the discipline committee and notification of the decision

c. Avoidance from notification; The notification is sent to the address stated in the file via notary office and thus, it is deemed that relevant staff is legally notified.

• The discipline system of the business is a graduated discipline model.

• Importance of sanction in the discipline system of the business; The importance of sanction in the learning process is undoubted, and punishment retains a position in the human brain just as the position of rewarding. It is very important that severity of the punishment should be humanistic and it should assist learning, it should make a social contribution characterized with sanction and it should be corrective against faulty behavior.

The punishment for the staff should be humanistic; it should correct faulty behavior. Conveying the discipline system to staffs of the business and other departments; as the history of the discipline guideline is very long in this business, staffs of human resources department and other departments hold a meeting after the guideline is finalized and they discuss the discipline system in the format resembling a workshop and they analyzed the system in details.

The discipline guideline was provided to present staffs of the business by managers of departments in writing, new staffs are provided personnel discipline guideline during orientation period and they are asked to read the whole guideline and understand it and to sign a document indicating they are aware about the guideline.

• Other Notes on Discipline System and the Guideline of the Business;

Personnel discipline system covers same rules for all staffs in all departments. However, the business made following statement on equal treatment and acting fairly,

Equal treatment to everybody does not imply acting fairly and treating everybody as they deserve does not imply acting fairly. The discipline guideline sanction most commonly imposed is the advice.

• The department with most common infringements in the business is about highways; more commonly, drivers of articulated lorries work. The most common infringements included failure to follow delivery times, misinforming about subjects such as buying fuel and failure to follow general rules.

• Failure or success to follow rules in the discipline guideline is checked by managers of departments.

• The important point in the discipline minute is the necessity of a witness, and no minute can be issued on a staff without a witness.

• Business infringements commonly observed in the business are about extending smoking breaks. For such infringements, the business imposes a general advice instead of personal one.

• Differences may occur in discipline controls performed by different superiors.

• Some supervisors may be extremely sensitive on discipline sanctions and they may be very careful. Some other decide that staff is always faulty and it is speculated that managers particularly in technical departments always convict staffs.

• Authorized people controlling the implementation of discipline system in the business are allowed full authorization on implementation of the system and it is also mentioned that business may seek external consultant on some technical business faults. For example, when a problem occurs on consumption of fuel by the vehicle at the distance traveled by the lorry driver, it is stated by the business that external technical support can be provided on this issue.

• When it is considered the fact that discipline sanction may influence career of the staff, such provisions are not included in the discipline guideline of the business. However, when it is examined the actual implementation, managers state "Staffs adapted to the lifestyle of the business and with knowledge on his job will rapidly progress in the career and on the contrary, staffs causing problems on the part of the business should not be very hopeful about their career".

• It is noteworthy that the business has no special study on subjects with recently increased importance such as abuse, racial and sexual discrimination. The statement on abuse is particularly as follows; there is a specific statement on sexual abuse in the business law, but it is difficult to evidence infringements about abuse in Turkey and there is still a need to advance on this issue in Turkey.

• Another issue related with the discipline system is the way staffs raise objection to the sanction finally imposed. In the light of information obtained from the business, similar to the discipline sanction, objection process also has a graduated structure.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF DISCIPLINARY SYSTEM IN X INTERNATIONAL TRANSPORTATION INC. CO.

The impression during the meetings with the X Inc. Co. that the company is the one which makes efforts to gain a good place in the fast-changing logistics industry and which is open to any kind of professional methods, the management of which has not avoided any expenses for the innovation of the company within the last two years. The following factors which affect the implementation of the disciplinary system having been implemented in the company for over a year in writing are decided.

• X is a service business where 250 people work. It operates in a wide area including very different fields and its activity area is not geographically located in one area. One of the factors which hinder the disciplinary effectiveness of the company is that the company consists of 250 people working at different professional fields (such as financial analyzer, logistics expert, truck driver, etc.). In brief, personnel profile of the company has no similarities to each other.

• That the disciplinary system in the company has a short background shows that the personnel and the disciplinary system performers have limited knowledge about the system.

• Another factor which hinders the effectiveness of the disciplinary system is the faults in understanding the disciplinary concept and system. Those working at the company consider the disciplinary system as a basis always for dismissal.

• Confusion about the perception phenomenon is the misunderstanding of disciplinary committee. As it is stated before, although the staffs have the right to take part in the disciplinary committee, they avoid from participating in it. Disciplinary committee is regarded as an execution court.

• In especially technical departments where the disciplinary violations occur more often, the perception that all the technical faults arising during the performance of the work are disciplinary actions is also another factor which spoils the effectiveness of the system.

• In some departments, managers see staffs always wrong, which is also another factor that prevents the system implementation.

• Although the dominance of employers over staffs is not clear on paper, the idea that employers are always right, and even a richer and more powerful employer is always right is told to be another important factor which hinders the effectiveness of the disciplinary system in the company.

• Another important factor which hinders the effectiveness of the disciplinary system is that staffs do not know about their rights duly. This is especially the main problem of those living in Turkey; that they do not know how to defend themselves and they are not aware of the rights vested in them is another important factor which spoils the progress of the process.

An Overview On The Personnel Disciplinary System Of The Company Disciplinary Concept For Company

Meeting with the managers at the company expressed the disciplinary concept for company as "commitment to corporate common values and professional ethics". Given to the answers in the first application, the disciplinary concept is a lifestyle for Y is deduced.

Disciplinary Regulation Of Company: First of all, the disciplinary regulation of the company is set within a global framework, which has the same rules for almost all of the staffs but diversifies to a degree with the laws of the countries they are in, such as the Constitution and Labor Act. When the question is asked about the company what determines the limits their disciplinary regulation, they talked about the following concepts. Mutual Respect; "Our business relationships are based on trust and respect. We conduct in transnational, international cooperation in order to be successful and we value individual differences. We communicate openly and sincerely with each other and we reflect our team soul on our business partners, customers and societies we live in."

Commitment to Customer;"We dedicate ourselves to our customers, to understanding their needs and providing service as a leader in our sector. Providing quality, innovation and values consistently meeting the expectations or going beyond them, we establish long-term customer relationships."Highest Standards in Honesty; "We are honest and respect ethics in all our relations. We keep our promises and acknowledge our faults. We know that the product of our company depends on our behaviors. Y name deserves being trustworthy."Perfection Pursuit; we commit ourselves to perfection. We always work together in order to improve our quality standards and to develop them continuously. We embrace creativity, support a growth-based culture and we apply innovations in order to provide first class performance in our procedures, thoughts, products and services.

Undertaking the Responsibility of Success; "We embrace the success of our company individually. We take the responsibility of the sources consigned to us. "Applying all of our Shared Values, we regard "profit" as an instrument to be used in creating new solutions to our customers, creating opportunities for each other and awarding the financial trust of our shareholders."In fact, company managers, who say that their corporate values help the disciplinary system of the company be shaped, see the disciplinary regulation concept from a different point of view and they do not think that disciplinary system should be a basis before laws when necessary. Preparation of the Disciplinary Regulation and Announcement to Staffs; "the disciplinary regulation set within a global framework informs the staffs who just start to work at the company of their rights and responsibilities under "ethics and comply" which facilitates the adaptation of the staffs with the company; and they are expected to read carefully and to accept them. However, there is also a written personnel regulation in the company. However, interestingly in this disciplinary regulation, it does not clearly say that if a person violates a certain provision, he/she will receive a "warning" or similar explanations, that the regulations about staffs are subjected to the provisions of the labor act 4587 and there are rather explicit expressions.

Although the disciplinary violations are not stated in the Disciplinary Regulation, it talks about the presence of a disciplinary committee, which needs to consist of two employers and two staffs; however, some managers are in the position of employers here. Moreover, there are some expressions such as the objective, scope and etc. of the disciplinary regulation. What takes attention in Y is that staffs are also able to contribute to the disciplinary regulation. Staffs can provide suggestions to the articles under "ethics and comply" online and these suggestions can be evaluated. The control mechanism of disciplinary system in Y is controlled by the department managers. However, it is said that a continuous "error hunting" is not in question in this control.

Stating before that it is not clearly mentioned sanctions, namely punishments for staffs in case of violations in the disciplinary regulation of the company. Those working at the company explain its reason as in the following: "Errors can be corrected. They are not seen as problems as long as they are not repeated and make contribution in training/development.

In case of repetition of errors, corrective decisions should be taken and implemented. Those who take part in the implementation can be changed, if necessary. The aim is to correct the mistakes and to enable all parties in the trivet reach the success and happiness and to increase efficiency. The operation of the personnel disciplinary process of the company is a positive disciplinary model. According to positive disciplinary process, the staff discusses his/her mistake with the authorities in the company, they create solutions together and finally it is decided whether to go on working with the related person or not. They state that a renewal and a change in the disciplinary regulation of the company can arise out of the

reasons such as global-based contributions of the staffs, law amendments, etc.

Staffs are able to learn the disciplinary regulation and their rights and responsibilities online before they start to work and also they are able to receive information online when necessary. Another interesting point in the company about the disciplinary system is that the control process of this system has not been assigned to certain people. The company clarifies this point "since everything goes smoothly and systematically in the work process, it is very easy to catch the points where they hinder their work. Therefore, our staffs do not have to take extra tasks in the control process being distracted from their original tasks." The disciplinary system does not focus on the disciplinary system on the company. Considering how the disciplinary system in the company affects the career of a person, it is not mentioned in writing that a person who performs a disciplinary violation cannot be promoted; however, managers say that those who conspicuously disturb the order in the company cannot take part in the company already and therefore, their promotion is out of the question.

They have studies especially on race and gender discrimination on global scale since the company is a global one. It is said that they have special case studies and they analyze them together with their staffs. Due to the global structure of the company, since they have also some studies on sexual harassment, etc. along with discrimination, they can freely mention this kind of subjects at the company. When the question is asked the department where failures happen at most in the company, they say that problems occur in the sales department more often as they directly contact with customers.

Factors Hindering The Efficiency Of Personnel Disciplinary System In Y

• The global determination of the company rules does not discuss the cultural differences in countries. Disciplinary rules are for keeping the order; however, you are able to see the differences first in order to keep the order.

• The lack of sanctions such as warnings, condemnation, etc. in the company provides a single option to people in case of the breach of the order. This is dismissal; however, this ignores the developmental role of the discipline.

• Another factor which hinders the efficiency of the discipline system in the company is that people do not have the right to object as a full disciplinary process is not mentioned in the company.

• The existence of the disciplinary system in the company is definitely accepted; however, most importantly, it is not possible to give the regulation as a reference in the subjects which affect the deterioration of the system. This is because the rules and the sanctions are not clearly mentioned.

• There is a contradiction in the company regarding the disciplinary system. Although there are no written sanctions for the behaviors not complying with the disciplinary system, the expression "the provisions of the labor act shall apply in kind" has been added in the disciplinary regulation. The punishment which may be given to the people is clearly stated in the Labor Act 4587.

• Even if the company is a global one, it is felt that foreign managers have dominance over Turkish managers in the company. Since it leads to inequality between people, it means deterioration in the disciplinary system.

• Discipline, commitment, customer satisfaction and briefly all kinds of subjects which may keep the order in the company are mentioned; however, for the avoidance of ambiguous points, the lack of concrete sanctions and violation expressions may cause confusion.

Comparison between Two Companies in terms of Efficiency of their Disciplinary Systems

• First of all, written sanctions and violations are mentioned in X for the disciplinary system. However, the written expressions which the company mention other than the Labor Act do not exist in Y.

• X staffs have different educational levels; therefore, the disciplinary system is not perceived the same by everybody due to the low homogeneity of the company. As it is stated before, perception is of great importance for the efficiency of the disciplinary system. When it is considered Y, it is seen that the staffs are homogeneous even partially.

• The manager in some departments pay much attention to disciplinary violations due to the difference between the departments in X and they almost think that their mistakes are more important their performance. In Y, the violation of the disciplinary system is not only under the responsibility of 7the department managers since the violations performed by staffs are easy to notice due to the systematic order in the company. This is to say, laying the burden on only certain people is not in question.

• X is applying a gradual disciplinary model, while Y is applying a positive disciplinary model.

• Even though X's applying a gradual disciplinary model seems to be more defective model compared to Y model, the closed mechanism of Y may lead the staffs not to know what they would encounter.

• In fact, as a few disciplinary sanctions are mentioned in X, it gives more chances to the staffs. However, the person working at Y disturbs the order in the company, it may be necessary for him/her to change his/her work.

• X has taken the local factors while preparing the disciplinary regulation. However, since Y has prepared a global-scaled disciplinary regulation, the rights and responsibilities may not fit into Turkey in practice.

• The concepts such as punishment and sanctions are freely mentioned in X. However, Y seems to be closed to this kind of concepts. Nevertheless, it is indisputable that punishment is of great importance in learning as well as rewarding.

• There are no contradictions in the disciplinary regulation of X, while Y creates some contradictions by not mentioning punishment explicitly and by stating the provision that the Labor Act shall apply in kind.

CONCLUSION: WHAT SHOULD BE DONE FOR AN EFFECTIVE DISCIPLINARY SYSTEM?

The results of the studies are carried out in two companies and the findings of the theoretical research are always the same. Disciplinary concept now is a basis which has been able to ensure an order and harmony in the past, in present and in the future for the growing hierarchies of companies, decreasing geographical areas and the staffs working in a gradually competitive atmosphere and the organization personnel disciplinary system of the company can be realized.

Personnel disciplinary system has inputs and outputs like all other systems. An input which ensures the operation of the disciplinary system can be explained as the right and responsibilities vested by the company in the staffs and the responsibilities performed by the staffs in the company. An output of the company is the maintenance of an order in the company and the creation of cooperation among all the possessions of the company. In order to keep such an order, the necessary factors are envisaged as a result of our study can be listed as follows:

• First of all, the system should be perceived correctly by staffs and managers for its efficiency. Staffs should not see the disciplinary system as a sanction and dismissal instrument; they should be able to perceive that a set of rules are necessary for their long-term stay in the company.

• What managers should do in order for the disciplinary system to be perceived duly is not to see the disciplinary system as an absolute dominance instrument on staffs and not to look for faults in staffs necessarily.

• The results of an effective disciplinary system are as important as the process itself. The disciplinary system should be set in a professional way receiving help from experts, existing laws and consultants so that the results of an effective discipline system are not discussed.

• It is pointed out the importance of perception for an effective disciplinary system. The elements in the disciplinary regulation should be clearly expressed so that staffs and managers can understand the disciplinary system better.

• The aim of the disciplinary system, why it is necessary, the rules and sanctions it has should be explained to staffs very well for an effective disciplinary system and cases and previous experiences, etc. should be benefitted from so that they could understand better.

• For an effective disciplinary system, receiving assistance also from a consultant out of the company for the situations happening in the company when necessary will help the results be healthier.

• For an effective discipline system, the rules and sanctions in the discipline system should be changed and renewed with the environment, laws, operational aims, contributions of the staffs changing in time.

• The control mechanism should be left to the initiative of a few people in an effective discipline system.

• Initiatives are of great importance for an effective disciplinary system. Inapplicable rules should not be set and the prestige of the company should not be tarnished.

In fact, for an effective disciplinary system, it should be planned and controlled at every of the process and attention should be paid that the previous rules can be implemented in the future, as well. Besides the abovementioned factors, for an effective disciplinary system, it should be noted that discipline should be a lifestyle for people. Written and concrete documents are of great importance for the proper operation of the process. What should not be forgotten in a disciplinary system is how people perceive the disciplinary system. Staffs should not consider a disciplinary system as a set of sanctions; they should understand very well that a written manifestation which keeps the order is both for the benefit of them and the

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organization in the organizations where many people gather for a common purpose. The level of this perception depends on the communication channels and the organizational culture.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Didem Pasaoglu Hamsioglu is a Research Assistant at Anadolu University, she can be contacted at: Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Anadolu University, Yunusemre Kampusu, 26470 Eskisehir– TURKEY, Email: dpasaoglu@anadolu.edu.tr

PUBLIC-SECTOR ETHICS AND GOOD GOVERNANCE THE STRATEGIC ROLE OF CONTROL FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF ACCOUNTABILITY CONSIDERATIONS AND PROPOSALS

Ubaldo Comite, University of Calabria and University e-Campus, Italy

ABSTRACT

The subject of this paper is the relationship that exists between public-sector ethics and good governance: the strategic role of control from the perspective of accountability. The aim of this paper is to investigate the relationships that exist between the system of control in public administration management and the tools used, highlighting the need that even under a profile of functionality of control, a cohesion is attained between the tools and the objectives of the control, and between management philosophy and monitoring methods of the results. If one examines the varied range of control foreseen by the Italian Court System, it can be held that the relationship with ethics in general cannot exclude several categories of control, but rather gather fundamental logic and value, and perhaps group them based on the objectives pursued. In reality, all the attempts to define the concept of public-sector ethics continually bring out two profiles and two types of values: the ethics of legality and impartiality on the one hand, and the ethics of the results and economy, on the other. Ethics in the public sector does not allow that the choices and the behaviour of public administrations be inappropriately influenced by special interests; at the same time, though, public-sector ethics cannot not be opposed to waste, inactivity and to that sum of phenomena that are labelled as maladministration. At the same time, particularity from the objective point of view undertaken in relation to the control, public-sector ethics cannot disregard an evaluation of efficiency and effectiveness, so that the necessary respect of the rules cannot turn into an opportunity and pretext for unjustifiable delays and defaults. Strategic logic helps to define the objectives and priorities in the framework of the changes requested by the external socio-economic environment in order to verify the feasibility based on the resources available and those acquirable, accompanied in a coherent manner by the choice of actions and activities necessary to reach the goals proposed.

INTRODUCTION

Starting in the mid-80s, a model of management was developed in public administration systems, whose main tendencies can be traced to different approaches from the branch of New Public Management. The necessity of pursuing "good administration", intended as efficient and effective managerial administration, based on the assessment of results, has led to the development of New Public Management at an international level (Adinolfi P., 2005). New Public Management has characterized itself due to a decisive push towards organizational decentralization and due to the introduction of competitive logics. All this has favoured a true restructuring of Public Administrations, achieved through the implementation of a process of reengineering that has led to the adoption of managerial techniques and administrative systems typical in the private sector.

The process of renewal in the public sector has also interested the Italian Public system, assisting in the process of corporatization that has involved local authorities, the healthcare sector, universities, schools, and progressively even involving central administrations (Anselmi L., 2003).

The application of managerial logics in the process of reform in the Italian Public sector presents two categories of problems:

- 1) corporatization has almost always been introduced by law;
- 2) in the majority of the cases, there has been the attempt to adapt managerial practices from the private sector into the public context, neglecting the inevitable specificity of the latter.

Without abandoning the reforms that push towards the acquisition of new techniques and managerial practices resumed for the most part from managerial logics experimented in private enterprises, the process of public sector reform is currently undertaking two fundamental directions that are in part linked (Borgonovi E., 2006):

- 1) focusing on ethics as an organizational lever fundamental to maximize the creation of socioeconomic value;
- 2) the affirmation of the role of control from the viewpoint of accountability;
- 3) the recovery of effectiveness from the administrative machine.

The recovery of effectiveness from the administrative machine is among the objectives, implicit or explicit, that are often associated with initiatives of Public Administration reforms; nevertheless, it is rare to go beyond the generic appeal to an administration that is more firmly anchored to these principles, and among the measures proposed, it is often difficult to revive those explicitly directed to place the administration in a position of satisfying them. Effectiveness is referred to the effects that public policies produce in the fabric of society, thus the effects produced in society by the instruments (services) that are used to implement those policies in practical terms, and its assessment cannot be but based on an explicit and measureable correlation between the objectives of the public action and the results obtained through it. It is assessable in terms of satisfaction of preferences – the objectives of individuals, incorporated in the political program and in public policies, and also depends on political-institutional and administrative mechanisms that define the relationship between public interest and public services.

The determinants of effectiveness reside in the political-institutional-administrative mechanisms, through which, beginning with the individual preferences of the citizens, public policies and their objectives are defined and their implementation in practical terms is given. To highlight the determinants of effectiveness there is the need, therefore, to reconstruct the phases of the political-administrative cycle, through which the objectives of the administration are defined, in order to compare the actual results with those predicted, and in this way evaluate the effectiveness of the public action (Del Bene L., 2008).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, ETHICS AND CREATION OF VALUE

Every public organization, in order to create value, must integrate itself harmoniously with the surrounding environment and thus establish a network of rapport, relationships, to know and interpret the expectations of the community; this reveals itself as necessary to define shared, attainable and useful objectives for the community. Transparency, communication, partnership, participation, and accountability are qualifying conditions for the creation of value and of good governance (Farneti G, Pozzoli S., 2006). The problem of Public Ethics can be found in this context, as a critical element for the establishment of new logics of public governance (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Public Ethics

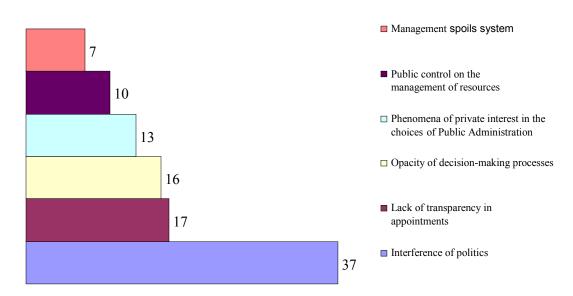


Figure 1: Public Ethics. The factors that impact more significantly on the effective capacity of Public Administrations to manage public goods and community interests with impartiality and fairness (value in %). Source: Ragioneria Generale dello Stato (State General Accounting Department) Rome, 2011.

In the process of Italian Public Administration reform, ethics takes on a collective value, starting from moral obligations that must be respected individually (subjective sphere) by all public employees and translates into the issuance of rules of conduct through, for example, the ethics code (objective sphere). Respect for the law becomes respect for the principles and values that, beyond specific normative impositions (prohibitions or obligations), aims at generating a behavioural approach (Vandelli L., 2009). The theme of ethics as behaviour guided by the search for the maximization of value and well-being of the community emerges in the public sector government.

In the public sector, the emergence of the theme of ethics is traceable to the emergence of a calculative/prescriptive approach. While in the initial set-up, the theme of ethics was posed as a question of morals in general, the calculative/prescriptive approach subsequently has underlined the economic advantages that the obedience of laws and values, along with good conduct, can present. Ethics rules and the base principles of behaviour permitted as legal vastly reduce the informative complexity and the ambiguity in choices and decision-making processes. The emergence of the theme of ethics in the public sector favours pursuing the general interests of the community, and in a calculative/prescriptive logic favours the emergence of a system of participatory governing in respects to the principles of impartiality and transparency.

THE REFERENCE FRAMEWORK: BUREAUCRATISM AND MANAGERIALISM

The season of reform that the Public Administration has been going through, in Italy, since the beginning of the nineties, has sanctioned the assertion of the paradigm of managerialism in organizational structures and of the management of Public Administrations, following the above mentioned conditions of the inadequacies of bureaucratism (D'Amico E., 2009). Managerialism consists of, in its instrumentality in respects to the "governing" actions of public institutions, one of the principal aspects of institutional and organizational reform introduced in Public Administrations, having as its primary goal the construction of a new model that revolves around assessment, autonomy and responsibility.

Furnishing principles, criteria and operational logics acquired in the field of private "for profit" organizations, managerialism is composed of a diverse set of constituted elements, carrying importance in respect to all the operational business mechanisms, among which, a system of controls. In the paradigm of managerialism, control take on significances and contents (objectives and aims) that differentiate it in a substantial manner to that which it takes on in an environment of bureaucratism, and maintains, in opposite logic, an exclusive and misleading homonym, sharing nothing, but under a substantial profile. To sum up, from the bureaucratic point of view, the aim of control is to orient administrative action towards predefined operational structures, strictly codified in deeds, sequences of deeds and procedures, constrained by binding rules, whose respect is considered as, per se, a guarantee to obtain results.

From this perspective, the basic assumptions are evident: the search for the "best" way of organizing administrative activity – Borgonovi states, in this regard, in terms of a "myth of enlightenment and rationalization" of Public Administration – and its consequential "neutrality" in respects to the aims; the presumed ability of interpreting the needs of the community and ambitious codification of the responses necessary for their satisfaction; the presumed concurrence between the respect for the laws and regulations with the obtainment of optimal results, under a profile of technical-economic rationality, social opportunities and the defence of the citizens in relation to the exercise of public powers (Borgonovi E., 2007). Diametrically opposed to the base assumptions in the managerial approach: the negation of absolute validity of any operational structure and of the operation of administrative activity, therefore of its "intrinsic rationality"; the impossibility of codification of the responses necessary to satisfy the needs of the community; the validation of administrative action exclusively in the results- objectives, results-resources relationship, and ultimately, in the ability, to be verified in concrete cases, of satisfying needs and influencing with effectiveness on decisive problematic situations.

From these base characteristics emerge the profound differences of the two perspectives in order of the activity of control: in the bureaucratic approach, the verification of the compliance of the operational structure codified in regulations and laws; in the managerial approach, the verification of the degree of attainment of the institutional aims, in conditions of effectiveness and global economy of the management. And again, in regard to the nature of control, in the bureaucratic approach, it is "inspective" and "punitive"; in the managerial approach, it is of a "guide" or "government", in order to steer administrative actions towards the attainment of results and objectives.

Therefore objectives, aims, instruments and effects of control vary significantly based on the perspective, through which it is conceived and structured, and the organizational implications, derived from the architecture of the system of control (structure, processes, instruments), result as equally differentiated. It is precisely from the point of view of the organizational implications that managerial control qualifies itself in a precise manner, finding, in economic-business literature, a diffuse and shared conception of the whole of the procedure, of the criteria and the methodologies that support management in guiding the organization towards the attainment of pre-established aims.

In this way, control presents itself as a combination of techniques, procedures and operational mechanisms in support of management (or executive order), producing, firstly, information useful in decision-making processes and, secondly, generating organizational dynamics that tend to better the attainment of the aims. From a financial viewpoint, managerial control is based on the logic of assessment of what is done, the manner in which it is done, the effects produced on the state of needs of the community or on decisive problematic situations in economic or social issues.

From this point of view, managerial control inserts itself in the triad of elements that characterize the new model of Public Administration, that is, assessment, autonomy and responsibility and, consequently, in the conception that identifies a public organism as aimed to the production and distribution of services, rather than as a centre for the carrying out of decisive – and predefined – administrative activities.

This vision of Public Administration as a producer of services generates an unavoidable need to assess the services, considered in and of themselves and in the final effects produced, as well as in the relationship between resources used to achieve them and quali-quantative levels of output.

It should also be highlighted that the assessment in question, observed, that is, in its instrumentality in respects to strategic and operational decision-making processes, invests profiles of not only ex-post assessment but also in ex-ante orientation of the subjective behaviour, administrative procedures and, in a more general manner, organizational dynamics, to ensure achievement of the objectives and strategies, namely the results and effects desired.

Therefore, the "assessment" on which the activity of control from the managerial point of view is based, asks for the introduction of organizational models (particularity with regards to decision making) that are quite new in respects to the grids of bureaucracy and to its presumed ability to incorporated the most rational and effective modes of development of administrative actions into procedures and predefined rules. This is to introduce, in the scope of an integrated vision, the complementary logics of assessment, autonomy and responsibility that characterize the introduction of managerialism in the operation of a Public Administration.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF CONTROL IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Control in Public Administration can be distinguished according to some characterizing elements (Ruffini R., 2010):

-the object; -the subject; -time; -the aims; -the law.

In respects to the object, the major distinction that can be proposed is tied to individual deeds and to management. Control that has deeds as its object has historically been a control of legality, which ends up being a control of the conformity to the regulations, which does not guarantee a result.Control that has management as its object, instead, has results as its focus, and therefore must pursue the control of processes in view of economy, efficiency and effectiveness. This deals with the control of the three Es (efficiency, economy, effectiveness) that represent the normal model of industrialized countries.

Effectiveness solicits the ability to fully pursue the results in relation to single events in which administrative action is carried out; it is given from the relationship between results and objectives. Economy regards the prudent and diligent use of the resources that the Public Administration is provided with, in order to make an economic saving through simplified methodical procedures, being careful to obtain the best results at a minimum price; the principle of economy opposes itself to all of the delaying tactics used by Public Administrations (for example: a request for opinion without motivation due to the clarity and simplicity of the case; the convocation of a conference of services where there are not any public interests to compare).

Efficiency is related to the overall activity of the Public Administration with relation to article 97 of the Italian Constitution. In order for article 97 of the Constitution to be respected, it is sufficient that an overall exam allows for the assessment of the results achieved as being suitable to express a substantial operative ability in Public Administration; this is taken from the relationship between the means used and the results achieved, between input and output.

In this sense, the term used by the expression "management control" expresses the idea of control, whose aim is not that of impeding, through approval, access in the regulation of illegitimate acts (a guarantee that not even preventative control is capable of giving with absolute certainty), but of detecting anomalies in management (errors, irregularities, violations of laws, fraud, failure to achieve objectives, diseconomy, waste and so on), analysing their causes and signalling, through relevant reports directed to the administrative and/or political management bodies, corrective measures in order to avoid the repetition of the anomalies (Busco C., Giovannoni E., Riccaboni A., 2009).

Even if there are precise laws in place, this control cannot follow general communal structures, but must, in detail, take into consideration the operability of the organizational structure, the missions and this moment in history that Public Administrations are undergoing; these controls cannot be but entrusted to the whims and different needs of the managers delegated to them. The controls cannot be the same for different administrations. As noted, in fact, in business administration, the systems of internal control, which are prevalently introduced due to need, follow settings that are very different from business to business and actually end up forming a critical factor of success that as such cannot be but original and different that those from comparable businesses on the market. Managerial control aspects can furthermore be declined in several elements (Bianchi M, 2007):

-financial management;
-good administrative performance;
-management of balance and assets;
-quality of services;
-security;
-assessment of the personnel and in particular, the management;
-coordination among various control services.

In respects to the subject, instead, the distinction is between internal controls and external controls. Internal controls are the ensemble of structure, procedure, methods, personnel policies and all the other measures suitable in guaranteeing, with reasonable certainty, the carrying out of functions in a regular, economic, efficient and effective manner. They are carried out by internal structures in the administration that depend on the management body, to which they refer periodically.Internal controls represent a dual perspective: they are functionalized to the activities of government bodies for the verification that samples the observance of planning and directive deeds, and they are functionalized to the activities of the management bodies, so that the verification of the planning and directive results also become verifications that have as an object concrete management activities, highlighting their possible defects or deficiencies. External control is exercised by higher institutions of control, which has two models: the *Corte dei Conti* (State Audit Court) and the Audit Office of the Anglo-Saxon legal system.

In this regard, it should be noted that if it is true that external institutions of control configured as "audit" do not carry out judicial functions, it is also true that external institutions of control called Courts, Tribunals or Audit Chambers do not always exercise de facto judicial functions. The laws in force in the Italian legal system operate a link among all the bodies of internal control and the State Audit Court, a body of external control, in reference to the operations assigned to it, to verify the legality and regularity of the management, to check the compliance with the administrative activity results to the objectives establish by law, even based on the results of other controls, which are also delegated to verifying the operations. The exercise of the verification activity of all the other bodies of control, which can also be external, that is the Control Board and the Regional Committee (one thinks of the importance of the latter in relation to the control of local management), but they are undoubtedly all bodies and structures of internal control, instituted in the various apparatus of Public Administrations.

In respects to time, however, estimated, ex ante controls are possible, like the estimated controls of legality were before the reform (operated by the State Audit Court), and the accounting controls of legality, to verify the capacity of the balance (operated by the *Ragioneria Generale dello Stato* (State General Accounting Department)). It is also possible to have "ongoing" controls, that is, before the process takes place, which is normally defined as monitoring, and finally, the subsequent control, ex post, when the process has concluded. In respects to the aims, ex ante controls tend to be authorized controls, "ongoing" controls tend to follow the process and to guarantee the results of the same, ex post controls tend to express a judgement on the activity carried out.

The final classification of controls proposed regards the law; that is, if they are controls that are activated spontaneously by the Public Administration following the drive of managerial needs, or if they are obligatory, that is, foreseen by a specific law. The last aspect to propose regards the demand of control, that is the individualization of who activates the processes of control and why. In the private sector, demand of control is tied to a series of factors such as: organizational size, intended also as operational complexity; diversification and multi-functionality, intended as possibility and necessity to operate contemporaneously in more than one very different division; internationalization; the level of competition, intended as a necessity to contain production costs. It could, therefore, be stated that the demand of control in private companies is the combination of two elements:

- 1) on the one hand is the demand of control that is internal to the structure itself, expressed by the management itself, directed and finalized towards the survival and development of the company;
- 2) on the other hand, instead, is the indirect external request demand, that of public opinion, which is very weak and tied to the behaviour of competition; in other words, a level of low controls finds public opinion distracted, but it is probable that in the mid-long term this lack will manifest itself on the quality of the product or service, on the efficiency, on costs, and the public opinion will turn to some other company that offers a better rapport between quality and price.

In the public sector, instead, the demand of control takes on different and inverse features: internal demand is very weak (not operating for the market, the fate of management is only marginally tied to the development of the Public Administration and the risk that the latter fails is practically impossible), while external demand, that of public opinion, is very strong. Even in the public sector, in fact, the elements abovementioned, that is, the size, the multi-functionality and the diversification, the organizational complexity, etc. are all elements that should bring about the expression of a very strong internal demand, but with a lack of comparison with the free market, therefore with competition, this demand is extinguished and comes to a standstill against the dominate mind-set of public management tied to the knowledge of what came before and with little faith in the possibility of change in the short and mid-term. Moreover, in the public sector, any possibility of change is almost always tied to the issuance of laws and regulations whose procedure is very long and conditioned by many factors.

All of this has meant that the internal demand of control is predominantly limited to the formal and administrative aspects of the phenomena, assuring a simple "coverage of responsibility", a "guaranteed of respect of the procedure", disregarding all the aspects connected to efficiency, economy and productivity. The external demand of control in the public sector, instead, is very strong. Public opinion, in fact, on all levels continues to ask for more efficiency and more productivity which are attainable only with suitable instruments of control. It should be thus noted that the process of cultural and technical corporatization is predominantly requested externally, from public opinion, from citizens, and is perceived badly by the operational mind-set and dominant culture within Public Administrations. It deals with, therefore, managing to introduce concrete stimuli in the system that induce the administrators to pursue, even on a political level and thus primarily in the search for consensus, a philosophy of a rational and efficient

government. To do this, the only path to follow with determination is that of managing to achieve a real accountability of the resources and results (Pozzoli S., 2007).

It is clear that it deals with constructing a "framework", that of monitoring and of controls, in which each individual portion must function and respond to the overall needs that correspond to the good performance of the Public Administration and to the betterment of the quality of life of the citizens. This is why there is the need for accounting regularity and administrative control, exercised by internal and external bodies, even if they have different modalities: the head of financial services, the board of auditors and the State Audit Court. But even more necessary is the family of "results control" and therefore management control, exercised within the institution, and of control of the management, the prerogative of the *Sezioni Regionale di Controllo* (Regional Control Section) of the State Audit Court. Above all, the type of control necessary is that of daily verification, and listening to the citizens, in whatever manner they express it. In order to be effective and therefore efficient, though, it is necessary that the citizens be thoroughly informed, and for this reason it is indispensible to arrive at a thorough accountability. Accountability, therefore, is not merely a technical fact, typical of those responsible for the accounts, but is the motor of democracy, and thus the raison d'être of a system of local autonomies that are founded on electoral mechanisms.

It is clear that today's citizens are not adequately informed on what should guide their choices on direction and control, and therefore, for example, on the costs of services and on the potential areas of insufficiency that, if administered better, could allow for a wider satisfaction of community needs. There is the need to change and to reach deeply into a system that is unknowingly obscure and inefficient.

CONCLUSION

There is the general idea that the transformations that have occurred recently in the system of management control of Public Administrations have contributed to making the question of public ethics a true issue. The issue of Public Ethics places itself, as an issue of legislative policies, in the face of the phenomena of a bad and distorted service rendered by the administration to the public. Wishing to observe, in summary, the tendencies that emerge in the public sector government, the emergence of the importance of ethics on two levels that are, between them, organically integrated is outlined.

On the one hand, beginning from the assumption that human resources are the true strength of public organizations, there is the attempt give leverage to ethics by focusing on awareness in civil servants. Together with structured processes of management control, founded on the assignment of precisely defined objectives and on the verification of results, the aim is to involve and motivate the employees, for example, by favouring the diffusion between the code of conduct personnel or by rendering the insertion of ethics into entry-level training obligatory. Ethics is taken on as an operational lever fundamental to the process of reform. On the other hand, Public Administrations are increasing carrying out the role of activity coordination. The tasks assigned to the entities delegated to internal control in Public Administration are becoming more and more extensive, operating on different levels in outlining areas of intervention and in monitoring the distribution process of the services and the results obtained.

The only formal respect of the law, therefore, cannot be the only means through which to promote the diffusion of ethics in Public Administrations, indeed the success of a change based on the introductions of ethical principles cannot but be derived from the shared values, which are then translated into rules. The inclusive logics of participatory democracy become driving factors of ethical behaviour from this point of view, and it is with the involvement of the citizens that processes of change in this direction can be initiated.

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BIOGRAPHY

Prof. Ubaldo Comite earned his Ph.D. in Public Administration at the University of Calabria, Rende (Cs) Italy, in 2005. Currently he is a professor of budget and business organization at the Faculty of Economics, Department of Business Sciences, University of Calabria and University e-Campus. E-mail ubaldo.comite@unical.it

FAMILIARITY AND SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MEMBERS OF VIRTUAL TEAMS

Harri Virolainen, Turku University-Pori Unit

ABSTRACT

The number of virtual teams has been increasing as work is no longer as dependent on physical location as it used to be. In virtual teams people communicate mostly by use of electronic communication tools. This sets challenges for building social relationships between co-workers. The goal of this article is to analyze social relationships between the members of virtual teams. The study data was collected from 10 different virtual teams and the main data gathering method was the thematic interview. A questionnaire collected secondary data. The results show that a virtual working environment decreases informal personal communication and communication between team members as discussion is mainly work related, which affects social relationships between co-workers. Social relationships between virtual coworkers are mainly work-related relationships but it was found possible to build close relationships and even friendships.

JEL: D23

KEYWORDS: social relationships, virtual team, electronic communication

INTRODUCTION

Scholars have been interested in social relationships in the workplace since Elton Mayo (see Mayo 1945). Social relationships in a workplace affect employees' communication, collaboration, work climate and work satisfaction. Prior studies concerning social relationships in the team context have mainly been done on co-located teams. In the extant review studies on virtual teams (for example, Hertel, Geister & Konradt 2005; Martins, Gilrold & Maynard 2004; Powell, Piccoli & Ives 2004) the social relationships of employees have not been mentioned. The co-located office offers good opportunities to build close relationships between co-workers because face-to-face communication occurs almost every day - as do spontaneous and informal discussions. However, the development of ICT has changed communication between co-workers. Virtual team literature suggests that, because team members seldom see each other face-to-face and they mainly use electronic communication tools, the social relationships between employees in virtual teams are often work-related and personally becoming acquainted is difficult (see e.g. McDonough, Kahn & Barczak 2001).

This article deals with social relationships between members of virtual teams. The goal of this study is to analyze the social relationships of team members in virtual teams by answering the following questions: (i) What kind of social relationships do virtual team members have with each other? (ii) What factors affect social relationships in virtual teams?

Detailed information and studies on the social relationships between members of virtual teams is rare (see e.g. Hertel, Geister & Konradt 2005; Martins, Gilrold & Maynard 2004;). Based on the findings of this study, social relationships between co-workers in virtual teams were mostly work-related but close social relationships and even friendships were quite common. These results show that building close social relationships between co-workers in the virtual work context is possible.

The article begins with the research method and the sample chapter. After that the results and conclusions are presented.

METHOD AND SAMPLE

The data was gathered from five different Finnish organizations and ten different virtual teams. In this study the criteria for a virtual team was that at least one of the team members had to work in another city. The team members also had to have common goals and had to co-operate with each other (see for example Grosse 2002). The teams represent expert teams and were so called long-term teams, which meant that they had already existed for a long period and the turnover of workers within them was quite small. The teams represented different fields of business. While most of the teams (8) represented the IT-sector, one team was a sales team and one was a sales support team. All of the teams mainly used the phone and emails to communicate with each other. The teams' sizes varied from 5 to 28 people.

The data was gathered by using both qualitative and quantitative method. The main data gathering method was a themed interview. In total, 45 virtual team members were interviewed by the same researcher. The interviews lasted from 39 to 132 minutes with the average length being about 90 minutes. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed. The secondary data gathering method was a quantitative questionnaire (QPS-Nordic 2000), which was sent to all of the teams' members (n=190) and 118 replies were received; a 62% response rate. Quantitative data was analyzed with the SPSS for Windows program. The qualitative method was the main method of analysis and the quantitative information and analysis provided by the questionnaire further supported the qualitative analysis. Results

Many previous studies (e.g. Kraut et. al. 1998; Nunamaker, Reinig & Briggs 2009, 115–116) emphasized virtual team members' impersonality and anonymity. This study's results were quite the opposite. In this study almost every team member (89 %) knew each other's face and name and most of the members (74%) knew each other's work tasks. The communication style was not anonymous, in fact, they preferred this personal communication style for getting to know each other. In many cases, even work related emails included a "personal touch".

In this study 44% of the respondents knew all or most of the team members personally. They knew each other's hobbies, family life and personal interests. Despite that, the virtual working context and the task oriented communication meant that it was challenging to get to know other team members personally. Furthermore, teams did not take full advantage of all the computer mediated communication possibilities to get to know each other. For example, there were no personal introductions of the team members on the intranet. In addition, team members did not have unofficial events, such as shared chat meetings or chess matches during coffee breaks, thus communication was very work-related. Nevertheless, they did create unofficial and personal meetings possibilities using computer mediated communication. This often felt unnatural at first, but once team members became used to it, it became natural and enjoyable. However, one team member describes his feelings about shared virtual coffee breaks as follows:

There haven't been any arranged or shared online coffee break discussions where team members would come and chat with each other. In fact, during such coffee breaks I'd prefer to be somewhere else than at a computer or desk, somewhere more stimulating.

Despite modern electronic communication possibilities the best way to get to know other team members was considered to be face-to-face meetings; both official and especially unofficial. Typically, team members personally knew a few colleagues better than others and talked with those colleagues also about non-work issues. Knowing each other's family background, hobbies and other interests had a positive impact on a team's fellowship and atmosphere.

A work place's unofficial social communication has an important role in developing human relationships (Kosonen 2008, 112; Kraus & Fussell 1990). In this study personal issues were discussed on the phone and in emails while discussing work related issues, although the main reason for contacting a team

member was work-related issues. Team members did not phone or call each other for personal reasons. The use of email also meant it was very challenging to get to know other team members on a deeper personal level, although the phone allowed more interaction and the possibility to communicate in real-time.

The usual way to get to know other team members was work-related communication. In many cases, when team members discussed work-related topics they also revealed details of their personal life. However, if team members did not regularly co-operate with each other it was very rare that people got to know those team members who worked in different locations. People felt that getting to know team members personally was time consuming. In co-located teams the situation is different as people can interact with each other, even if they do not collaborate, by meeting at lunch, coffee breaks, etc.

One of a virtual team's challenges is creating close social relationships (Nunamaker, Reinig & Briggs 2009). A virtual team's relationships are typically less tight than those of a co-located team (McDonough et. al. 2001; Warkentin et. al. 1997). Although computer mediated communication decreases intimacy (Chidambaram 1996) and weakens the possibility to build social relationships (Hinds & Bailey 2003, 619), it is possible to develop close social relationships between virtual team members by developing social-emotional communication over a longer period of time (Ishaya & Macaulay 1999). However, as Burke et. al. (1995) and Chidambaram (1996) point out social relations will most likely diminish, unless relationships are consciously built by using formal and informal meetings and negotiations.

Nevertheless, despite the challenging virtual context, most of the teams' members had close social and even friendship relationships with two or three co-workers. Close social relationships most often developed between co-located team members, but in some cases close relationships also developed between team members who worked in different locations and did not see each other regularly. The team members who were the only representatives of the team at a particular location, or who had only one team member working in the same building had approximately as many close relationships as the employees who worked with several team members in the same location. The physical distance between workers did not significantly affect the building of close relationships. Instead "personal chemistry" was felt to be one of the key factors in forming close friendship relationships between co-workers, though it was felt that "personal chemistry" either existed or did not and affecting it was not possible, except by meeting more frequently.

Discussions between co-workers who had close social ties with each other were deeper than with other work colleagues. In close relationships the physical distance between colleagues had only a marginal affect on their communication. Some team members called each other from their car as they were driving and discussed work issues as well as other issues. This kind of communication was spontaneous and not systematically managed or promoted. However, many team members felt that such spontaneous and unofficial communication was lacking. This can be seen as negative factor as they perceive such unofficial communication as rewarding on a professional level and as positively affecting their personal well-being.

CONCLUSIONS

The virtual team context eliminated many possibilities to get to know each other and build close relationships. As the teams' members did not meet each other very often, the communication was mostly work-related and the computer mediated communication eliminated many non-verbal cues. In spite of this, the virtual team members knew each other and often had close and even friendship relationships with each other. Knowing team members positively affected the functioning of the teams and increased trust between colleagues and had a positive impact on its fellowship and co-operation

The team members themselves had responsibility for building relationships with their colleagues. The forming of virtual teams was not managed systematically. The computer programs and facilities used were designed for the purpose of working only and, for example, shared virtual coffee breaks were not organized. However, as in leisure time virtual communities people do share very intimate personal experiences with each other, thus computer mediated communication itself cannot be the barrier which prevents the building of close relationships. However, it seems that despite the improved high technology and our increased familiarity with electronic communication modes, people still miss face-to-face communication. In virtual work teams the promoting of social activities could significantly help to build relationships. Therefore, unofficial meetings after official team meetings and, once or twice a year, larger unofficial meetings could also be beneficial in building social relationships between virtual team members. Additionally, allowing chatting via the computer, virtual coffee break discussions, et cetera could help to build closer social relationships.

Personal chemistry was found to influence relationship building, although the personnel felt that it was hard to affect personal chemistry. However, in many cases it was felt that getting to know each other personally could also improve personal chemistry. In virtual teams people are expected to cooperate with each other. The workers do not necessarily have to have a close relationship or be friends with each other in order to cooperate, even though that certainly helps cooperation. When people do have close relationships they are usually more communicative with each other and there is more trust. References

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Harri Virolainen is currently working as a researcher at Turku University, Turku school of Economics, Pori unit, Finland. His research area includes virtual teams, work well-being and teams. Harri's doctoral dissertation discussed the organizational climate of virtual teams.

IMPLEMENTING SOLARIS CONTAINERS TO INCREASE PERFORMANCE AND SCALABILITY OF IMS FINANCIAL AND ERP

Genti Daci, Polytechnic University of Tirana

ABSTRACT

This Paper focuses on latest Virtualization Technologies which are en Vogue on Today's modern IMS Systems. Since a very long time, many researchers and IMS Financial system administrators have been concerned about the Techniques on how to better utilize their computing resources. Today, there are developed many technologies for this purpose, which consists of running multiple applications, and multiple operating systems on the same hardware, like VMWARE, Linux-VServer, VirtualBox, Xen etc. These systems try to solve the problem of resource allocation from two main aspects: running multiple Operating System instances on the same Hardware or virtualizing the operating system environment. Our study presents an evaluation of scalability and performance of an operating system virtualization technology known as Solaris Containers, with the main objective on measuring the influence of a security technology known as Solaris Trusted Extensions on securing IMS Systems used today by many Financial and ERP Software.

UDC: 004.63

KEYWORDS: IMS, Virtualization, Trusted Extensions, ERP Systems, Kernel-Based Virtualization

INTRODUCTION

During the latest years, a lot of projects have been looking on Virtualization of Information Management System environments, using different technologies and Operating systems such as FreeBSD Jail, Linux-VServer, Virtuozzo etc. The Kernel Based Virtualization is a virtualization technique based on using only one underlying operating system kernel. Using this paradigm the user has the possibility to run multiple IMS applications in isolation from each other. The basic idea can be normally described as running groups of processes that cannot be interrupted by others in different virtual environments.

Solaris Containers are built on the same paradigm, offering virtualization on the operating system-level. Solaris approach on Virtualization, extends its virtual operating system environment to include many more features of a separate machine, such as a per-Container console, dedicated system log, packaging database, run level, identity (YP, NIS), and IPC facilities. They make it possible to run more than one instance of the operating system into the same kernel. Many of the resources of DataCenter's Server architectures are usually not properly and efficiently used, like CPU cycles, RAM, storage etc. With this technology we can better utilize these resources and make them useful for the entire.

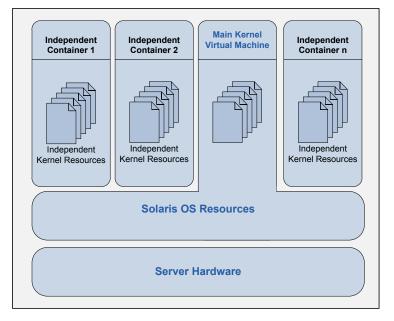
These Containers act as completely isolated virtual machines within a computer, aiming to reduce costs in both, hardware and system administration. Furthermore, the Solaris Containers mechanism can provide protection through compartmentalization for separate virtual machines on a single physical machine. This technology It's cheaper to install and to configure, because only a single copy of OS is involved, compared to several OS instances in the case of Xen. Furthermore, it is not limited for high-end systems compared to logical partitioning. Moreover, the granularity of resource allocation is fine-grained than the logical partitioning. In comparison to virtual machine monitors, Solaris Zones reduces performance overheads and reduces the cost of administration because there are no multiple operating system instances in a system.

Operating Systems

Solaris/OpenSolaris are Operating Systems which make them the main building blocks of computer systems, and provide the interface between user applications and computer hardware. An operating system is a program that acts as an intermediary between the user of a computer and the hardware. The purpose of it is to provide an environment in which a user can execute programs in a convenient and efficient manner. As stated by Silberschatz (2002), Solaris is a multiuser, multitasking, multithreading operating environment, developed by Sun Microsystems.

Solaris is a Unix-based operating system introduced by Sun Microsystems in 1992 as the successor to SunOS. Solaris is known for its scalability, especially on SPARC systems, and for its features such as Zones, DTrace and ZFS. The majority of it's codebase is now open source software via the OpenSolaris project. Watters (2005) explained that OpenSolaris is an open source operating system based on Sun Microsystems' Solaris. It is derived from the Unix System V Release 4 codebase, with significant modifications made by Sun since it bought the rights to that code in 1994. It is the only open source System V derivative available.

Figure 1: Kernel Virtualization Technology



Testing Containment Strategies with Aim

A Solaris Container is a runtime environment for applications. Parts of the container are Solaris 10 Resource Manager and Solaris Zones. Zones isolate IMS application components like OpenERP and SugarCRM from one another even though they share the same instance of the Solaris OS. The container establishes limits for resource consumption, such as CPU, memory, Disc Allocation, etc. Also it's worth mentioning the Sun's BrandZ technology, which is used to run Linux applications on the Solaris Operating System. Linux IMS applications like OpenERP and SugarCRM run unmodified in the secure non-global zone environment. Related Containment Technologies on other operating systems are: chroot (Unix OS), FreeBSD jails, Systrace, AppArmor, Xen and VMWare.

To run our tests, we will use the AIM Benchmark Suite, which is a job throughput benchmark widely used by UNIX computer system vendors. AIM is a program that forks many processes called tasks,

concurrently running random set of subtests called jobs. There are 53 kinds of jobs, with different aspect of the operating system, such as disk-file operations, process creation, user virtual memory operations, pipe I/O, and compute-bound arithmetic loops.

Each sub-run, reports a metric of Jobs completed per minute, with the final report for the overall benchmark being a table of that throughput metric versus number of tasks. A given system will have a peak number of tasks N at which the jobs per minute is maximized. Either N or the value of the jobs per minute at N is the metric of interest. The peak performance is the highest jobs/minute the system achieved. The sustained performance is the square root of the total area under your performance curve up to the point of crossover. The point of crossover is that point at which the Jobs per Minute/User Load = 1.0. The JTI (job timing index) rating is the worst case JTI.

*Solaris Zones:*Solaris Zones are a component of the Solaris Container environment. A zone is a virtualized operating system environment created within a single instance of the Solaris Operating System. When creating a zone, we produce an execution environment where processes are isolated from the rest of the system. This isolation prevents processes that are running in one zone from monitoring or affecting processes that are running in other zones.

Even with super-user permissions a process cannot view or affect activity in other zones. A zone also provides an abstract layer that separates applications from the physical attributes of the machine, like physical device paths. We can create a maximum number of 8192 zones on a system. There are two types of non-global zone root file system models: sparse and whole root. The sparse root zone model optimizes the sharing of objects. The whole root zone model provides the maximum configurability.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Zones

Zones are used for systems that integrate a number of applications on a single server. It's advantages are the lower cost and complexity of managing numerous machines. They enable more efficient resource utilization of the system. Other advantages are the isolation that this technology introduces to the services and also the security. We have a higher level of security using Zones because in case of an attacker breaking into the zone, he cannot break into the other non-global zones or into the global zone. So a zone is completely isolated and it is transparent from the rest of the system. It communicates with the rest of the system through networking API. A zone does not need a dedicated CPU, a physical device, or a piece of physical memory. These resources can be multiplexed across some zones, or allocated using the resource management feature. Some disadvantages are that the zones need some extra resources, like file system usage, processor cycles and memory usage.

Isolation And Security: Solaris Zones partitioning technology provides a means of virtualized operating system services to create an isolated environment for running applications. This isolation prevents processes that are running in one zone from monitoring or affecting processes running in other zones. Basic communication between zones is accomplished by giving IP network connectivity to each zone. An application running in one zone cannot observe the network traffic of another zone.

This isolation is maintained even though the respective streams of packets travel through the same physical interface. The applications are also prevented from monitoring or intercepting each other's network traffic, file system data, or process activity. Actions taken by a zone administrator in a non-global zone do not affect the rest of the system.

Testing Design and Implementation

The test and experiments are based on the below hardware system:

HP Proliant ML Series, Genuine Intel ® CPU T2250 @ 1.73 GHz, Physical Memory 2048 MB (DDR2 PC2-5300), Intel EPRO-100 Fast Ethernet NIC. And the operating system and software characteristics are like below: SunOS 5.11 i86pc Solaris, which is OpenSolaris 2008.11 but this are also applicable to Solaris 10, AIM (advanced integration matrix) benchmark v7, OpenERP and SugarCRM using MySQL DB. We will make our experiments based on the creation, installing and booting of zones each with identical configuration with preinstalled OpenERP and SugarCRM. The goal of the experiments is to measure the overhead introduced by the zones regarding to memory, storage and processing power on OpenERP and SugarCRM acting as Information Management Systems.

The first part consists in the configuration and the installation of a zone. We estimate the zone creation with the time and du utility to measure the disk usage. Next we install the zone and estimate it with: time zoneadm –z zone install and then we gain the results of the package information and the disk usage with pkginfo and du -hs. When installing a zone by default the whole directory tree is copied to the non-global zone thus increasing the installation time and also the disk usage. In order to decrease this we use specified directories by the global zone directory tree by inheriting them.

Again with the same method we will show that in this way the overhead introduced by the creation and installation of zones is lower than the first one. The next experiments that we will make are based on AIM benchmark and show the performance of the system as a whole and the overhead introduced by zones. The benchmarks will evaluate the performance of a multiuser system (aim7) for example a server, and of a single user system (aim9) based on a number of tests, like arithmetic tests, disk/fs I/O tests, IPC, function calls, algorithmic tests etc. Firstly we will execute the benchmark only on the global zone without any non-global zone installed. And then the benchmark will be executed on the global zone with the running non-global zones.

RESULTS

Below are presented the results of the AIM benchmark in the two cases without and with Trusted Extensions running, from left to right.

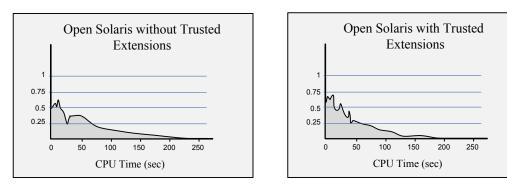
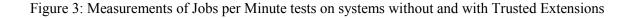
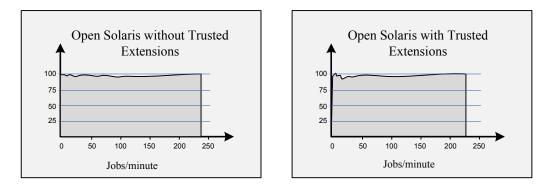
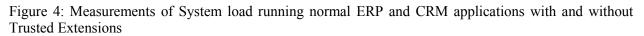
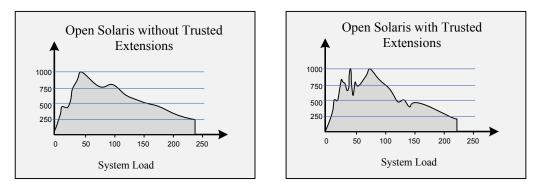


Figure 2: CPU Time of the Systems without and with Trusted Extensions









CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the tests and experiments we can say that the Trusted Extensions installation gives a fairly higher overhead to the system in terms of disk usage, memory and processing power. The number of packages that the zone requires to be installed, the time needed for the zone to be installed also the storage that the zone consumes are somehow lower. Approximately the rates of time, package and disk usage between Trusted Extensions zone and whole root zone are 18/23, 1/9 and 1/3. These rates vary on the configuration of the Trusted Extensions zone. The performance and the overhead that a zone introduce to the system based on the benchmark is at this rates: Peak = 976.5/993.5, Sustained = 344.4/365.6, Minimum JTI = 91/92. Also from the single-user benchmark (aim9) results we can say that the values of the tests differ very little from each other and we can conclude that in this way we have achieved a better utilization of hardware and operating system without affecting the overall performance of our IMS system. We have shown that with this virtualization technology we can make use of all of our resources and thus achieving a higher processing power for Financial systems running ERP and CRM Software.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Genti Daci is a lecturer at Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies. He can be contacted at: Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies, Department of Informatics Engineering, Email: gdaci@icc-al.org

IMPLICATIONS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION FOR ECONOMIC COMPETITIVENESS IN AN URBAN ENVIRONMENT

Joseph O'Brien, Wagner College

ABSTRACT

With the United States' troubled economy sinking to new depths and the rise of unemployment nationwide, it has become increasingly more important to reevaluate the troubled Career and Technical Education system (CTE) and discuss pathways and implications of technical education for economic competitiveness in an urban environment.

KEYWORDS: CTE, Career and Technical Education, Teacher Collaboration, Integration, High School Integration, Vocational Education, Economic Competitiveness, Urban Environment

INTRODUCTION

With the United States' troubled economy sinking to new depths and the rise of unemployment nationwide, it has become increasingly more important to reevaluate Career and Technical Education at the high school level. Career and Technical Education (CTE) has played a role in the development of the American workforce since the days of the United States' founding fathers. The National CTE website's expansive history references apprenticeships in Colonial America as "one of the fundamental educational institutions of the time. It represented a pathway to literacy for the boy or girl who could not pay for an education" (NCTE, 1976). These apprenticeships and other career and technical courses blossomed under federal policies such as the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology act of 1990 (Schmidt, 2003). This legislature cemented CTE's place in the American educational landscape by first dividing CTE and academic courses then ensuring that these programs would have the financial resources to thrive.

Unfortunately today, "CTE is widely viewed as a dumping ground for academically struggling students and therefore a way for our education system to hide its failures...[It] has been traditionally been regarded as a place for students who couldn't cut it academically and most existing CTE courses are designed to work around [academic courses] rather than reinforce them" (Hull, 2003). This negative perception coupled with high numbers of low performing and/or special education students being placed in urban CTE high schools pose some unique problems for urban school leaders on a national level (NYC Mayoral Task Force, 2008). "These realities raise two concerns: First, "too many students...across the country are not yet meeting the first milestone of success- high school graduation" and "large numbers of high school graduates who enter community colleges must take remedial courses in mathematics and English" (NYC Mayoral Task Force, 2008). This influx of unprepared students into the workforce threatens to grow more dire with every day. Norman Halls argues "this country has lost thousands of jobs offshore to countries that have taken advantage of the United States lack of support of CTE" (Halls, 2009). The message seems loud and clear: If these students do not go on to post secondary education or become skilled leaders of the United States workforce, they and our country will be left behind.

Nowhere are these problems more transparent than in the urban school setting. In New York City alone, there are

"twenty-one designated CTE schools which enroll approximately 30,000 students...Analysis indicates that CTE schools overall are underperforming key achievement measures in many important areas. Nearly half (47 percent) earned progress

report grades of C or below, and three schools earned F's. Only about 60 percent of students in New York City CTE schools earned 10 or more credits in the first year and less than 6 in 10 students graduated high school within four years" (NYC Mayoral Task Force, 2008).

The New York City's Department of Education's progress report evaluates and judges a school based upon school environment, student performance and student progress. On the NYC DOE website, it reads

"The Progress Report measures each school's contribution to students' academic performance and progress. Every fall, each school receives a Progress Report that includes a letter grade of A, B, C, D, or F based on the school's success in helping students learn during the previous school year. Families can use Progress Reports to choose among schools and to identify areas in which their schools are performing well and areas in which their schools can improve" (NYC DOE, 2009).

These performance indicators raise many red flags as to the level of CTE instruction currently occurring in urban schools in global cities. Researchers such as NYC's Mayoral Task Force note that strong leadership is an essential part of the solution, but we must ask ourselves with 47 percent of CTE schools in New York City with low performance or failing progress reports, how many urban CTE high schools are truly committed to evoking dramatic change?

An additional need to revisit vocational education in is the essential need for a skilled and competitive workforce in North America if the United States are to truly compete on a global level as a nation (Hull, 2003). "In his January 2008 state of the city address, NYC Mayor Mr. Michael Bloomberg made career and technical education a citywide priority announcing his commitment to improve student achievement" (Mayoral Task Force, 2008). Although CTE may be a hot topic in New York City, in order to truly gain an understanding of how school leaders can reform CTE, we must first identify how students and teachers create, design and execute instruction in the vocational and academic classrooms. The importance of this integration of instruction is an essential element of this pedagogy and problematic for many school leaders in the urban setting.

Currently, all Career and Technical Education high schools who receive federal funding must integrate their vocational and academic coursework to improve student performance (Schmidt, 1992). School leaders today are forced to make this mandate a reality. Beyond the typical problems of personality conflicts, financial strain on budget and curricula choice, for the urban school it is more complicated. The urban school leader's problems are compacted by a negative perception present within the city and the daunting challenge of meeting NCLB performance benchmarks.

In Thomas Friedman's text <u>The World is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty First Century</u>, one quickly comes to the conclusion that the global marketplace is quickly becoming an area where only the strong survive. Friedman refers this notion as "Globalization 3.0".

"In Globalization 2.0, companies had to think globally to thrive, or at least survive. In Globalization 3.0, individuals have to think globally to thrive, or at least survive. This requires not only a new level of technical skills but also a sense of mental flexibility, self motivation, and psychological mobility" (Friedman, 2007, p. 278).

Competition and ever increasing technological advancements have "leveled the playing field" and forced many to reexamine the roles school leaders of global cities currently play. Friedman explains, "Every young American today would be wise to think of himself or herself as competing against every young

Chinese, Indian and Brazilian" (Friedman, 2007, p. 278). This leveling of opportunity coupled with our current students' inexperience is a sobering wake up call.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

What is the history of CTE in the USA? How effective is CTE in urban cities such as New York? How can we increase CTE graduation rates? How can CTE benefit the USA? How are academic and vocational teachers currently developed professionally? What evidence is there of academic and vocational collaboration and integration? How can we better prepare students for the rigors of the 21st Century Marketplace?

METHODOLOGY

This study was based upon a series of qualitative research studies and interviews with vocational and academic teachers currently working in the urban CTE High School environment. Questionnaires, three 15 minute interviews and several literary resources were used to identify the ways in which vocational and academic teachers collaborate and integrate their subject areas to raise student performance. Past collaborative projects between Graphic Design, Architectural Engineering and English language arts were discussed at length as were teacher attitudes regarding future collaboration.

Key Findings From the data, we learned that the urban CTE administration and faculty are currently facing several problems with reaching their academic and vocational benchmarks. Defeating the stigma of the urban CTE wasteland coupled with rising accountability measures in NCLB converge to create an environment where time and funding for teacher collaboration may become insurmountably problematic for urban school leaders. School leaders must promote harmonic integration between vocational and academic teachers to fuel the design and implementation of collaborative, integrated projects embedded with State Exam based tasks.Recommendations for Practice William Butler Yeats once wrote that "Education is not the filling of an empty pail, but the lighting of a fire." By inspiring our teachers to utilize and take advantage of innovative technological resources in their schools and on the internet, we may ignite Yeats' spark of inspiration. Next, through teaching the skill sets necessary for students to successfully compete and succeed, teachers can smolder the blaze into a roaring fire and watch it glow.

Finally, it is most important to instill in our students a competitive work ethic for without the desire the race is already run. To better prepare our students for the challenges of the 21st century marketplace, we must first provide meaningful professional development in the use of technology in the classroom and online digital collaboration for our teachers. Next, we have to assist our classroom instructors instill a sense of urgency in students and showcase the importance of being competitive, active participants in their education. We must convey to the students of the United States that many of the job opportunities of tomorrow may be gone. Only through this investment in our most valuable and integral resource, the classroom teacher, can we make the necessary strides to catch up with the rest of this "flat world.

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CORPORATE CODES OF CONDUCT AND BUSINESS PRINCIPLES IN LIGHT OF THE GOLDMAN SACHS LAWSUIT SETTLEMENT

Marion S. Mogielnicki, Montclair State University

ABSTRACT

The Securities and Exchange Commission recently settled a monumental lawsuit against the investment firm of Goldman Sachs, Inc. The settlement mandated that the Wall Street titan agree to strengthen its ethical policies and procedures. This paper will discuss Goldman Sachs as a complicated corporate entity and examine its relationship to its own Code of Conduct and Ethics in light of the lawsuit. An historical perspective and a summary of the research and efficacy of codes will be discussed. The paper demonstrates why codes and ethical programs must be implemented through analysis of new investment products such as mortgage-backed securities. It explains how Goldman should have utilized ethical mechanisms to examine these products. The paper condenses the more relevant recommendations of the Report of the Business Standards Committee of Goldman Sachs. Finally, this review evaluates the definition of waivers contained in Codes and concludes that they should be discarded.

JEL: K19; K22; K42

KEYWORDS: Ethics, Implementation, Code of Conduct or Ethics, Business Principles, Business Standards Committee, Waiver, Conflict of Interest, SEC, Abacus, Mortgage Backed Securities

INTRODUCTION

Goldman Sachs, Inc., arguably the most successful firm in the history of Wall Street suffered a serious setback this year when it settled an ignominious lawsuit brought by the SEC for fraud and misrepresentation in the structuring and selling of mortgage backed securities to its own clients. The gravamen of the legal complaint was that Goldman did so with full knowledge that the investments presented a serious negative credit risk. (Securities and Exchange Commission v. Goldman, Sachs & Co. and Fabrice Tourre, 2010). Despite settlement of the suit for \$550 million dollars, the largest in the history of Wall Street (Goldman Sachs & Co. Settlement with SEC, 2010), the financial services titan has tarnished its own reputation for unfailing client loyalty and brilliant business decision making. Goldman, in its dealings with respect to this lawsuit, breached conflicts of interest, placed its own profits well above those of its clients in a contumacious manner, and may have added to a breakdown of fairness and efficacy in the financial market. (Jeffers and Mogielnicki, 2010). Goldman's activities of misrepresentation and infractions of the anti-fraud statutes governing the finance sector leading to this lawsuit is troubling in light of its adoption of a Code of Conduct and a set of Business Principles. (Jeffers and Mogielnicki, 2010). These documents contain a policy that seeks to provide an ethical path for its employee's behavior, encourage elevated moral principles, and establish a standard of fairness and equity in its dealings with and treatment of its clients.

This inquiry examines the nature of Codes of Conduct or Codes of Ethics, as they are sometimes called, and postulates that codes must undergo meaningful and constant review and revision, provide guidance in the investment field for novel products, and be properly and thoroughly implemented with a view towards conflict of interest principles. This paper takes the view that investment vehicles such as mortgage backed securities need to be tested within the confines of the ethical rubric before being utilized by a company. Goldman failed to thoroughly implement the values and priorities established in their Code and in their Business Principles and ran afoul of basic ethical behavior. Included in this analysis is a

discussion of Waivers of Codes of Conduct, which is included in the Goldman document and concludes that the term itself is inappropriate to and axiomatic of the symbol and purpose for which Codes of Ethics are intended. Thus, they should be unilaterally excised from the language of Codes.

The paper reviews codes in their historical context and provides a brief summation of the current status of empirical research. It further discusses optimal standards for ongoing code re-evaluation, implementation of codes and guiding principles, and corporate governance with respect to conflicts of interest issues. In relation thereto, Goldman's response to the lawsuit and ensuing public relations morass is also discussed.

Finally, this review evaluates some of the recommendations contained in the Goldman Sachs Report of the Business Standards Committee of January, 2011 and touches upon the philosophical intent and pragmatic steps that Goldman intends to take to restore client confidence.

The Lawsuit: Securities And Exchange Commission V Goldman Sachs & Co. And Fabrice Tourre

On April 16, 2010 the Securities and Exchange Commission, in a scathing civil lawsuit, alleged that Goldman, Sachs & Co as well as its employee, Fabrice Tourre made materially misleading statements and omissions in connection with a synthetic collateralized debt obligation (CDO), called Abacus 2007-AC1 that it sold to its investor clients in early 2007. Because the transaction occurred at a time when the U.S. housing market was beginning to show signs of weakness, the SEC believed that certain activities and misrepresentations of Goldman and Tourre constituted misconduct in violation of Section 17(a) of the Securities Act of 1933, Section 10(b) of the SEC Act of 1934, and Exchange Act Rule 10b-5. (Securities and Exchange Commission v. Goldman, Sachs & Co., 2010). Collectively, these federal anti-fraud statutes make transactions that constitute "a scheme or artifice to defraud", and other untrue statements or omissions a clear violation for which liability would attach. (U.S.C. Sec. 77q(a)("The Securities Act"); 15 U.S.C. Sec. 77j (b) (Authority: Sec. 10; 48 Stat. 891); 15 U.S.C. 78 (j)).

Goldman had structured Abacus 2007-ACI with Paulson & Co. Inc, a hedge fund notable for winning huge profits by taking short positions. (Zuckerman, 2010; Teather, 2010). The marketing materials that Goldman provided to its foreign institutional investors stated that the underlying mortgages contained in the Abacus investment were selected by ACA management, an independent third-party whose role it was to analyze credit risk in mortgage backed securities. Goldman represented that these were sound investments but at the same time the marketing materials presented did not disclose that Paulson & Co. Inc. with economic interests directly opposite to Goldman's clients played a significant role in the selection of the underlying portfolio mortgages. Paulson was bearish on the housing market and helped to choose mortgage backed securities that were expected to experience a negative credit Default Swaps (CDS) and shorted these securities, essentially betting that the mortgages contained in the Abacus deal would fail. It was alleged that Goldman may not have disclosed any of these facts in the marketing materials provided to its clients, and that this omission was a statutory violation. (Securities and Exchange Commission v Goldman Sachs & Co. and Fabrice Tourre, 2010).

Furthermore, the SEC claimed that Fabrice Tourre, who was the Goldman representative on the deal worked directly with Paulson, personally devised, and marketed the transaction, and misled ACA into believing that Paulson's interest in Abacus was long and that his interests in the collateral selection were aligned with ACA's. In point of fact, nothing could have been further from the truth. (Goldman Sachs & Co.Settlement with the SEC, 2010; SEC. gov 2010, New York Times DealBook, 2010).

By January 29, 2008, just 9 months after inception, 99 percent of the portfolio had been downgraded. According to the litigation, Paulson profited in the amount of 1 billion dollars while deal investors lost a commensurate amount.

Goldman's response in opposition to the suit was that they were merely mitigating business risk and operating within a legal zone of business 'as usual' and filed an Answer denying such accusations. (Jeffers and Mogielnicki, 2010). Nevertheless, in April, 2010 a settlement was announced, and Goldman agreed to pay a total of 550 million dollars to defrauded clients and the SEC as well as to review and revise its ethical policies and procedures. Goldman, in its settlement only admitted to making a "mistake" in not disclosing the role of Paulson in the marketing materials. (Goldman Sachs & Co. Settlement with the SEC, 2010).

Goldman's Response to the Lawsuit Settlement

Indeed, Goldman has been well known for its client centered emphasis and at the same time for its aggressive stance on Wall Street. It includes a conglomerate with some of the largest hedge and equity funds in history resulting in monumental profits. It is a global investment bank, and an investment management company that operates in trading and securities services. (New York Times Goldman Sachs Group Inc. News 2010). Goldman has prided itself on the well healed image of a firm that elevates its clients. This has now been shattered, though, because of duplicitous conflict of interest dealings in the sub-prime mess. Rolling Stones Magazine, in a scathing turn of phrase has characterized the Wall Street firm as " a great vampire squid wrapped around the face of humanity relentlessly jamming its blood funnel into anything that smells like money." (Taibbi, 2010).

Because it has operated a private equity business, and allowed proprietary traders to flourish, the opportunity for self-dealing flowing from an unbridled path of information from one entity to another has helped to contribute to improper ethical behavior at the expense of valuable clients. Goldman traders can access information that affords them great advantage over competitors, and the business, through its powerful and omnipresent corporate persona can move the market in its favor as a result. (New York Times Goldman-Sachs Group Inc. Online 2010). To its credit Goldman apparently recognizes that changes must be made from the inside out. In May, 2010, it convened a Business Standards Committee ("BSC") to strengthen its client centered focus and review and improve upon its transparency as a business entity. In January, 2011 Goldman Sachs, after a six month review, issued a 39 page Report of the Business Standards Committee. Those recommendations will be discussed below. (Goldman Sachs Report of Business Standards Committee, 2011).

Goldman Sachs Code of Conduct and Business Principals

Goldman has created an ethical policy for its workers that include a Code of Business Conduct and Ethics, ("the Code"), and a statement of Business Principles that represent the company's view of expected ethical standards on the job. (Goldman Sachs Code of Business Conduct and Ethics, 2009). According to the Code, the institution "embodies the commitment …to conduct our business in accordance with all applicable laws, rules and regulations and the highest ethical standards."

Section B of the Code mandates that "Any employee or director who is aware of a material transaction or relationship that could reasonably be expected to give rise to a conflict of interest or perceived conflict of interest should discuss the matter promptly with an Appropriate Ethics Contact." Furthermore, a Compendium of laws, rules and regulations that are pertinent to firm business is made a part of the Code as guidance for its employees.

In Section 2C of the Code the Company asserts that it only succeeds through "honest business competition" and will not engage in "illegal or unethical business practices". Its ethical posture also includes fair dealing with clients, and other contractors. Finally, unfair advantage in the manner of "manipulation, concealment, abuse of privileged information, misrepresentation of material facts, or unfair dealing practice" is disallowed under the policy.

The Goldman Sachs official website makes the Code available to its employees and the company further urges that the Code should be read in conjunction with the statement of Business Principles, which is published as well on the site. At the top of this document is the tenet: "Our clients' interests always come first." In addition, the last statement reads "Integrity and honesty are at the heart of our business". (Goldman Sachs Code of Business Conduct and Ethics, 2009). Clearly, Goldman has set forth a policy embedded in their Code which alleges that high ethical standards are paramount in its business operation and that it values a client focused approach based on integrity and disclosure.

Waiver of the Code: The Goldman code does include a waiver and devotes two paragraphs to describing how employees and board members can obtain a waiver. It states, "From time to time, the firm may waive certain provisions of this code. Any employee or director who believes that a waiver may be called for should discuss the matter with the Appropriate Ethics contact. Waivers for executive officers (including Senior Financial Officers) or directors of the firm may be made only by the Board of Directors or a committee of the Board. An employee or director who is aware of a material transaction or relationship that could reasonably be expected to give rise to a conflict of interest should discuss the matter promptly with the Appropriate Ethics Contact."

Waiver of Codes: Misleading Misnomer: The classic legal definition of a "waiver" is "an intentional relinquishment or abandonment of a known right or privilege." (Ballentine's Law Dictionary, Third Edition, 1969 ; Regional Properties, Inc. v. Financial & Real Estate Consulting Co.,1985; Hart Engineering Co. v. FMC Corp., 1984). Many codes do contains waivers which have been variously characterized as gross loopholes, (Housel, 2010), "safety valves", (Unruh, 2010) and "flexible ethics"(Saxon, 2010). The first problem with the use of the term is that only the person receiving the benefit may grant the waiver and then only after full disclosure. It is therefore not correct to say that the firm under the auspices of the Board of Directors can waive a right that would typically belong to a client, customer, provider or contractor, etc. Are we to think that before a Goldman employee seeks to commit, let's say a conflict of interest, that he or she would give advance notice to their client?

Apart from the inappropriate use of the word, the entire idea of granting a "waiver" smacks of hypocrisy and self-dealing whenever the ethics embodied in the code is inconvenient for the company. It does not suggest to the corporate body that ethics values are meaningful to any serious degree. It also can have dire consequences, as it did for Enron, the giant energy corporation that committed gross infractions by allowing individuals to create off the book entities that were presumably doing business with the company. Enron upper management was able to waive the requirements under the wording of the waiver if the CEO believed it would not affect the company. (Elson and Gyves, 2003). Enron ultimately failed as a result of mismanagement and corrupt dealings. Finally, in light of the BSC report Waivers no longer seem to fit in with its recommendations, and may even be inconsistent with the report's intent and proposed new procedures.

An Historical Perspective of Ethical Codes of Conduct in Business

Commercial crime and business misconduct is certainly not a phenomenon of recent history. Businesses, in an effort to stem improper behavior and provide ethical guidelines for employee behavior began to set forth statements that reflected ethical "codes" or "creeds" as early as the middle of the last century. In the 1970's and 1980's the use of codes became more fashionable, especially in the wake of the domestic and foreign bribery scandals of the time, resulting in the Foreign Corrupt Practices Control Act of 1977. (Benson, 1989). In the 80's quality of life issues involving pollution, smoking, lead poisoning, acid rain and radiation, amongst others, led corporate officers to seize upon Corporate Codes as a way to stress better corporate values. (Brooks, 1989). Corporate giants such as Tyco, WorldCom, Enron, AIG and Adelphia outraged the public by engaging in corruption, excessive risk taking, self-dealing, conflict of

interest, and criminal activity. (Sims and Brinkman, 2003). The Sarbanes-Oxley Act, a federal law passed in 2002, required that financial officers of certain large corporations publish their Codes of Ethics and any subsequent changes thereto. (Sarbanes-Oxley, 5 U.S.C. §§ 7201 et.seq.). In 2004 the United States Sentencing Commission amended its guidelines and set forth criteria for effective corporate ethics programs which would ameliorate punishment for white collar crimes if implemented. (US Sentencing Commission, 2005). This further spurred absorption with Codes as a means to diminish corporate criminal liability.

In the past twenty years there has been a trend towards an increased use of Codes in large part due to globalization, increased internet and media attention on a Company's corporate ethical culture, and a business' willingness to use Codes as "marketing instruments of legitimization" (Stohl, Stohl and Popova, 2009). In 2004 Kaptein conducted a landmark empirical phone survey of 200 of the largest multi-national corporations in the world and found that 52% of them had a Code referred to either as the Stakeholder Statute (75%), the Values statement (49%), or the Code of Conduct (46%), thus establishing the high prevalence of a Company Code of some sort. (Kapstein, 2004). Recent studies have focused on whether multinationals have taken a global perspective towards the contents of Codes of Ethics, and indeed one recent study conducted by Stohl, et. al, looked at Codes established by global companies across sectors.

The researchers asked whether the contents of Codes of multinational organizations are converging; in effect, do the Codes reflect standards of the global community that identify more desired ethical, and humane practices throughout the world? This "third generation of ethics" is marked by heightened awareness of the "larger connected environment". The results of the study of 157 Corporations on the Global 500 found that while convergence is seen in communication features that only the companies based in the European Union demonstrated real reflexivity and universal consciousness in the language of their Codes to any significant degree. However, it was noted that there is progress amongst other companies as more than three quarters of businesses did associate with third generation thinking in some manner. (Stohl, Stohl, and Popova, 2009).

Studying Codes of Ethics: There is a sharp difference of opinion amongst scholars as to whether Codes of Conduct are good, bad or neutral for the company itself or simply not effective to stem the tide of unethical behavior. (Kapstein and Schwartz, 2008). Some view codes as contributing to the company's overall reputation, morality and business success. (Bowie and Duska, 1992). Other researchers believe codes to be beneficial to employee's attitudes and behaviors when the corporate culture takes ethical programs seriously. (Trevino and Weaver, 1991). They also may help to avoid legal liability or ameliorate criminal sanctions. (Pitt and Groskaufmanis, 1990). On the other hand, some scholars believe that they are mere "window dressing" (White and Montgomery, 1980), are costly when compared to what they presumably add to the organization (Hess, McWhorter and Fort, 2006), and possibly counter-productive. (Grundstein-Amado, 2001).

Nevertheless, because ethics is widely viewed as an essential component of business success by shareholders and corporate governance, and especially in light of the recent scandals in the financial industry, ethical codes are believed to be highly necessary. (Svensson, Wood, et. al., 2009). The scientific research on the effectiveness of codes is clearly a mixed bag. While admittedly difficult to assess, no fewer than 79 studies have attempted to examine the empirical efficacy of codes. (Kaptein and Schwartz, 2008). The development of a generally accepted terminology for doing so is still in its infancy. (Gaumnitz and Lere, 2004). However in 2008 Kaptein and Schwartz formulated an integrated research model for the effectiveness of business codes and they submit that future research should rely upon the following control variables for analysis; expectations of stakeholders, environmental and organizational characteristics, objectives of the organization, development process, content, sub-codes, implementation, personal characteristics, internal context, and conduct and consequences. Kaptein, in subsequent research, has further defined eight organizational virtues when, if improved by an ethics

program, could result in multi dimensional relationships that have practical relevance that adds to an understanding of how codes work. While analyzing components of ethics programs, and the dimensions of ethical culture, Kaptein found that 'clarity' was most highly related to codes of ethics, ethics officers, ethics communication and training but that other dimensions had negative relationships with components of ethics programs. (Kaptein, 2008). As a practical matter, organizations might be able to improve programs based on this information.

Codes Must Be Effectively Implemented through Product Analysis

Following the disclosure that Goldman had helped to foist upon its clients investments that it had reason to believe would fail, and the ensuing admission that it had made a "mistake", presumably on both a legal and ethical level, the obvious question that remained was how could these investments pass ethical muster in the first place? Should they have been subjected to analysis of what is considered to be unethical conduct pursuant to and embodied in the Code of Ethics and the ethical culture of the company? Was there a mechanism for such a review? Were there internal controls for such activities that are comprehended within the ethical rubric of the firm? Should, in fact, there be an ethical audit of new products with company committee's that have strict oversight?

Corporate management should be results oriented in the use of codes. CEO's should demonstrate a high commitment to the values they espouse, and should in effect be their "champion". They must not only organize and develop codes, but implement programs developed around them. (Murphy, 1998). The codes need to have a prophylactic function. (Brenner, 1969). A question that large multi-dimensional firms such as Goldman need to ask is how can the ethics program be utilized to forestall and prevent problems of conflict of interest due to what may be at first a novel situation employing new and untried investment products? Before the company allows widespread use they should subject products to a rigorous ethical audit. Codes can be effectively implemented as long as the strong message they send cascades down within the organization through tangible programs, training and overview. While real life situations will erupt that may not be foreseeable that compel businesses to call upon the ethics of their culture, these messages should more importantly prevent ethical conduct from happening in the first place. According to Svensson, there must be tangible implementation, communication and benefits that enable the ethos of the code to come to life in all that the organization does" (Svensson, Wood, et.al, 2009).

Goldman Did Not Implement Values Contained in its Codes: Product development should be intertwined with ethics. Companies would do well to avoid turning a blind eye to potential troubling practices because they were technically legal. The 1999 repeal of the Glass-Steagall Act took down the barriers between investment banking and retail banking and increased fluidity in the information flow between consumer and investment departments. (Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act, 1999). Re-packaging of loans was not closely scrutinized in the light of the ethical "ethos" of the company in the Goldman scenario and probably for many other banks. Questionable practices and products may have been utilized in an effort to remain competitive and retain market share. If these products had been subjected to ethical review by committees within Goldman Sachs and if upper echelon had the courage to check those issues that could potentially create serious ethical breaches under the codes, rather than rushing headlong towards the nirvana of short term profits, repercussions in the larger economic climate may have been somewhat mitigated. Suffice it to say that Goldman may have fared much better with proper implementation of its code through well regulated corporate analytical structures of new products.

Report of the Goldman Sachs Business Standards Committee: It is interesting that Goldman initially states in the January, 2011 Report of the Goldman Sachs Business Standards Committee that the Business Principles were codified 30 years ago, that the world is more complicated now and that the Codes need to be re-visited. (Report of the Goldman Sachs Business Standards Committee, 2011). Many of the

acknowledgements and resolutions in the report are promising. Clearly, it is appropriate that Goldman's purpose for taking a long look at itself centers on re-establishing the client focus for which they are so famously known and which has now been so infamously tarnished. Towards that end, they have put forth in this report some encouraging philosophical goals that have been missing as well as defined some new structures and organizations for preventing ethical problems.

They are dedicating their future approach, according to the report, to a decision of "should we" undertake a certain activity, rather than "can we". This future oriented thinking is a step in the right direction toward identification of ethical problems and possibly better ethics program implementation under the business principles of the firm. Other philosophical underpinnings of the document include a "recommitment to transparency", and to the strong resolution of conflict of interest issues.

The firm, perhaps more importantly, is proposing to develop and implement processes and structures that resolve some of these important concerns. First, the firm is re-committed to "strong accountability processes", "risk management practices", and methods for strengthening conflict of interest procedures. The subject of structured products is given focus and the need to undertake heightened review including evaluation, and suitability of the products is emphasized. Goldman proposes to reinvigorate identification, review, approval and documentation of structured products within this framework. Accordingly, a Firmwide New Activity Committee and a Firmwide Suitability Committee, under the auspices of the Board of Directors will be established to approve new products, and oversee standard setting for products. Finally, Goldman apparently recognizes that the free flow of information between businesses has presented serious conflict of interest matters. Thus, they are targeting wall crossing and informational barriers throughout the corporate system. It is recommended that some asset backed and mortgage-backed securitization activities should be removed to the Financing Group rather than remain with the Securities Division as a result.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this moment there is a chance for Goldman to expose its ethical culture and ethos in a way that is positive. Hopefully, it is not just putting down words on paper, but rather evincing a true commitment to implementation of its ideals in a way that restores client confidence and the reputation of the company. It can only be a good thing that Goldman ostensibly recognizes that real structures need to be employed as an outgrowth and re-analysis of their codes and business principles. The proposals, especially those pertaining to new and ethically untested products, seem to have backbone with the establishment of real standards and committees of persons who will conform to them. Activities that could invite conflict are looked at and seemingly real changes will be made. It is apparently intended that the Board of Directors shall lead the way, and so they should with sincere commitment to the values enunciated and the programs postulated. It remains to be seen if the new policies and programs will provide a forum and structure to test what novel investment vehicles are yet to be unpacked.

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BIOGRAPHY

Marion S. Mogielnicki, J.D., earned her law degree at Seton Hall University in 1982 while serving as Assistant Editor of the Seton Hall Law Review. She was admitted to the New Jersey Bar in 1983 and practiced as a general litigator for various firms before opening her own practice in Westfield, N.J. In 1997 she was appointed to the Bench and served as Municipal Judge of the Town of Westfield. She is currently an Adjunct Professor of Business Law at Montclair State University, Montclair, N.J. US. Email: mogielnickim@mail.montclair.edu

IMPROVEMENTS OF CRYPTOGRAPHIC STRUCTURED LOG FILE SYSTEMS TO PROVIDE HIGHER DATA INTEGRITY ON IMS SYSTEMS

Genti Daci, Polytechnic University of Tirana Megi Shyle, Polytechnic University of Tirana

ABSTRACT

Modern IMS systems always try to use File systems like CLFS (Cryptographic Log Structured File System), their main goal is to provide security and confidentiality for IMS Data Warehouses. Although many implementations of Cryptographic File Systems in use today by many IMS Systems focus on protecting Data Confidentiality, they still do not ensure the data integrity of the encrypted File System. Encrypted data of IMS Systems on the disc can be damaged also there is always the possibility that intruders can modify the encrypted data compromising their integrity. Our study aims toward ensuring data integrity on CLFS without compromising the overall performance of IMS Systems. This paper considers the standard methods using file metadata check-summing in CLFS with the main goal to overcome one of its major limitations, low performance of File-System check-summing. To improve the performance of the check-summing process we try to study and examine various design choices and propose an in-kernel database for storage and reduction of check-sum verification once in N read requests.

JEL:

UDC: 004.63

KEYWORDS: IMS, Cryptography, Data Security, Log Structured File System, Metadata Checksumming, Data Warehouses.

INTRODUCTION

Data Warehouses store great amounts of data, including financial and business critical ones. These data, being highly sensitive need to be protected. Modern File Systems, such as CLFS (7) ensure confidentiality of data, encrypting them. Usually File Systems that comprise data encryption result to perform considerably slower than non-cryptographic File Systems. New techniques implemented in CLFS manage to reach its performance goals, as they go close to fast local file systems. Encryption is a native characteristic of this file system and it ensures that information is accessible only to those authorized to have access, while not being affected by the overhead of encryption with more than an order of magnitude (7).

Confidentiality is an important part of the overall system storage security, but it is not everything. Considering that hard disks malfunctioning, data on it can be damaged even though it is encrypted. It can also be affected by attackers, both physically or while communicating over an insecure network. Physical access on disk allows the attacker to change the unencrypted part, which in our case comprises the ifile, without the system knowing it. Thus, suggesting a way to make the file system immune from such data corruption, either as a result of a malicious attack or hardware failure, is our scope. We aim to protect our sensitive data, checking for inconsistencies, to obtain data integrity.

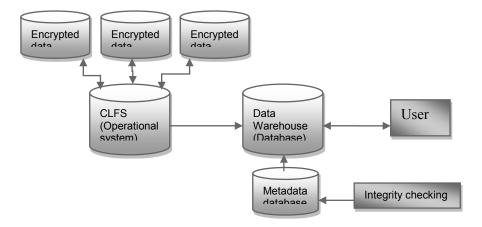
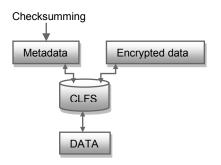


Figure 1: CLFS implementation in Data Warehouse disks

This figure shows the implementation of the Cryptographic Log-Structure File System on Data Warehose disks and precedes the concept we will further apply to ensure integrity checking.

In this paper we will describe the context of our working environment, Cryptographic Log Structured File System, which is in turn based on LFS (9). This work comes to life to improve this file system, to be even more appropriate for IMS Systems, thus a detailed explanation of the techniques it uses to avoid the latency encryption carries, is needed. Further, we will list the techniques used to achieve the integrity of data requirement. They will be examined in a selective prospective, to pick out the most congruent solution to our specific case.

Figure 2: Overview of our scope is adding integrity checking to CLFS



Assuring integrity will be reached through the checksum method, implemented on the metadata.

The Background, (C)Lfs: In this section, we consider important to unfold the features of the Cryptographic Log-Structured File System, to justify our choice. To make a long story short, the crucial argument that supports CLFS is performance. Previous cryptographic file systems come in different implementation, the encryption can be block based, as well as disk based, on network file systems or stackable ones. Their common characteristic is bumping into the knot of being too CPU sensitive. But, as businesses are increasingly relying on Data Warehouses to store companies vital information, poor performance can lead to a heavy impact on the decision making area of a company. To provide performance solutions CLFS concentrates on previous cryptographic File Systems weaknesses, being the speed of the encryption algorithm used and the writing latency.

The Encryption Algorithm

CLFS (7) considered that improving the speed of the algorithm used to encrypt would be useful both ways of read and write operations. Let's take a look at a couple of the most known cryptographic file systems, to check out for their deficiencies.

Blaze (1993) (8) implemented CFS as a network file system and its main drawback resulted the continuous context switching overhead. The encryption algorithms it can make use of are DES (3), SAFER(6), etc. A completely different approach was treated by Zadok (1998) in CryptFS (4), as it is a stackable file system. This provides it with portability allowing execution above any kind of native file system. It also comes out to be faster than CFS by a factor that fluctuates from 2 to 37 times. The bottleneck of this file system is precisely the encryption algorithm it uses, blowfish (2).

To overcome this drawback CLFS uses SEAL 3.0 (12), a software optimized encryption algorithm. Its main advantages that meet our requirements are its speed and the fact that it allows the data to be precomputed. P. Rogaway and D. Coppersmith (1997) demonstrated that SEAL uses approximately 4 cycles to process a byte and results up to 10 times faster than DES. SEAL works as a stream cipher, where the encryption depends not only from the plain text and the encryption key, but also from the position of the data. The key is 160bit long and SEAL uses it to map a 32bit string to an L bit one, where L in our case is less than 64 kB. The trick that makes the work with SEAL that fast is pre-computing. Being LFS the ground upon which CLFS was built, allows us to know precisely the position of the next write and that's the reason why we can pre-compute the whole key stream, so that the encryption process is reduced to a simple XOR operation between the key and the plain text.

The Underlying File System, LFS

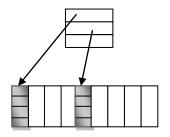
The speed of I/O bound applications is limited by the write performance of the file system. A logstructured file system is designed for high write throughput, . Rosenblum and J. Ousterhout (1991) showed how all updates to data and metadata are written sequentially to a continuous stream, called a log (9). Conventional file systems put a great emphasis on spatial locality and make in-place changes to their data, which leads to slow seeks. LFS assumes that taking care of locality will no longer be effective, as memory size is increasing to the extends of satisfying all read operations using the cache. Storing data in a log avoids seeks, therefore minimizes the movement of disk's head and maximizes write throughput.

The benefits of using it as a base for CLFS is that we know where the position of the next write is located. Besides, file system writes are only performed at the end of the log which means that inconsistencies can only be located in the last segment of the log, which greatly speeds up crash recovery.

(C)LFS organization: The Cryptographic Log-Structured File System (7) is very similar to LFS, as much as concerns its overall format. It is organized into segments, only one of which is active at one time. Each segment has a header called a summary block. Summary blocks keep pointers to the next summary block, linking segments into one long chain that LFS treats as a linear log.

Upon creation of the file system a random key is automatically generated for the first segment. Afterwards the segment key and the key stream offset are stored encrypted in the corresponding segment summaries. The key stream is calculated increasing it with the segment size. To increase performance CLFS uses a cache to store the expanded keys and their positions. These keys are encrypted using AES (1) and a system key provided by the user.

Figure 3: LFS segment organization



This figure demonstrates the log of LFS, where we find its data and metadata, comprising the inodes and the ifile

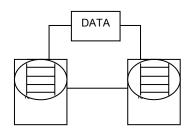
In a read operation CLFS would act initially the same as LFS, by searching for the desired block to read. The search would start by the index file's inode stored in the superblock, where we would find the inode map, followed from the inode. These operations are the majority of times bypassed, since this data is stored in the cache. Obviously, CLFS to ensure effective encryption cannot stop at the point of LFS. It has to read the exact position of the segment summary from the ifile. After reading it, decrypt the segment key and the key offset, to generate the key stream. Finally the read data has to be XOR-ed with the key stream to decrypt them. The write operation differs from LFS only in a couple of steps. The first chunk of data is removed from the list and its key is already known, so we can perform the XOR operation. This is done with all the chunks of data and afterwards the segment summary is changed.

Data Verification Techniques

Ensuring data integrity is fundamental to computer systems. Several factors may induce to data errors, to mention media failures, kernel bugs and racing conditions. Even an attacker who has reached to gain administrator privileges can modify the data. Threats are multidirectional and our system cannot be left unprotected, so our approach is based on the existing cryptographic file system to which the integrity checking capability is added.

Mirroring: Making exact copies of our data, i.e. mirroring, can be a way of managing it reliably. The process would comprise the comparison of our data with the mirrored one, before operating with it. This method would easily detect changes in one of the replicas, providing integrity in case the changes occur because of hardware malfunctioning.

Figure 4 : The mirroring techniques



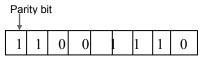
This figure shows an implementation of the mirroring technique using two different disks.

However, it doesn't tell which of the copies is the genuine one. It is not able to perform correctly in the case of an intruder, either. This is due to the fact that both of the replicas can be changed, so that the system lacks the tools to detect intrusion and integrity is not obtained. The inefficiency of this method

also arises when we consider the storage space it requires and the time we need to spend checking both replicas.

Parity:Parity is a simple yet effective method to assure integrity protection. It adds one bit to the pattern and then requires that the modulo-2 sum of all the bits of the pattern and the parity bit have a defined answer. Parity bits are sufficient to catch all single errors in the pattern. However the system will not detect any double errors and these will be flagged as valid.

Figure 5: The parity techniques



This figure shows the parity bit added to a bit pattern.

Check-summing: Check-sums are exactly the same as parity with two changes: To create the check-sum of a pattern of entities of length n bits, an n-bit entity (the check-sum) is added and the modulo 2 sum of the entities and the check-sum is constrained to be zero. CRC is more secure than check-summing, but it needs more calculation, as it adopts a more complex technique. Check-sums can be implemented in various ways, we can compute a per block check-sum, or a per file check-sum. The latter proposes two alternatives, storing check-sums apart from the data, otherwise interleaving data files and check-sums with the purpose of making more efficient use of data locality.

Figure 6: The check-summing method

48 65 6C 6F 20 77 6F 72 6C

4865 + 6C6C + 6F20 + 776F + 726C + 642E + carry = 71FC

This figure shows the addition of the calculated check-sum at the end of the bit pattern

CRC

CRC is a method which seeks to improve on check-sums by increasing the complexity of the arithmetic. They use polynomial division to determine the value of the CRC. The basic idea of CRC algorithms is simply to treat the message as an enormous binary number, to divide it by another fixed binary number and to make the remainder from this division the check-sum.

Our Approach: To constitute our design model we have developed our idea in several layers, each of which is built on answering one single question per layer. As we previously explained ensuring data verification in a file system is essential to the integrity of IMS Systems. On the other hand we need to preserve as much as possible the major advantage of our native file system CLFS, which despite being cryptographic fully meets performance requirements. So, naturally the decisions we need to make involve which method of verification is more appropriate, what part of the data will be verified unless all of it, where will this extra information be stored and finally how frequently the verification will occur. Let's analyze them further.

The Method Used To Provide Data Integrity

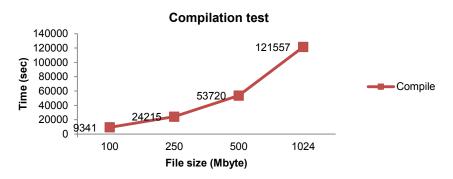
Check-summing is the most common method to ensure data integrity (). If we want our data to be protected from intruders as well as from transient errors, the check-sum need to be protected with a secure hashing scheme such as MD5 (10) or SHA1 (11). Since the latter has proven to be more secure, it was

the one we chose. We considered efficient, as our environment is a Data Warehouse, to compute checksums for metadata. It comprises all the inodes and the ifile. Checking different fields of the metadata will allow us to find out if any malicious modification has been made to the data, because any modification to our data will be reflected to the metadata (13). Furthermore, this decision is more advantageous as the amount of metadata is considerably less than data, and results to be efficient on timing, hence a better performance.

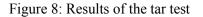
Benchmarks Of Improved LFS Under Stress Test Using Tar And Compilations.

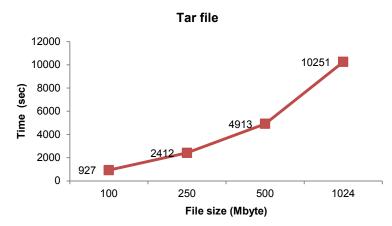
Knuttson (2002) (7), after implementing his cryptographic File System, made several tests to check it's performance affected by the overhead encryption introduced. It resulted to perform close to noncryptographic File-Systems, being an ideal solution for system which store large amounts of sensitive data, like Data Warehouses. Now, apart from encryption we have added a new feature, file integrity checking, through metadata check-summing. We need to test our system to evaluate the latency, this further overhead cause. The tests made are on a .tar file and a also tying a kernel compilation. We have submitted four different file sizes, respectively 100Mb, 250Mb, 500Mb and 1Gb.

Figure 7: Results of the compilation test



This figure shows the time of compilation of four different sized files, after adding integrity checking to metadata. After calculation the overhead results a mere 4%.





The figure shows the results of four different sized tar files. They are all composed of a great number of small files and this test was chosen considering it is a very frequent operation in a file system. Its overhead reached a 6%.

Knuttson tar tests completed in approximately 562sec for a 64Mbyte file. Our 100Mbyte file completed in 927sec. After a comparative analysis of the tests, we notice that the overhead reaches the margins of 4% on compilation tests and 6% on tar tests. The first is due to the fact that compilation is a CPU bound application and is not particularly affected by the File System, whereas the latter is slightly affected.

CONCLUSIONS

Trying to add integrity to a cryptographic File System, like CLFS, initially sounds risky from the performance point of view. But choosing the most appropriate method and a reduced amount of data to check is the clue to success. Our benchmark showed an overhead that varies from 4-6%. This is an appealing result, considering the systems where CLFS is intended to work. Security in Data Warehouses is very important. We provide highly secure metadata integrity checking, i.e. the data stored in an IMS System is correct, or at least cannot be modified undetectably. We assumed that checking the integrity of both data and metadata would considerably affect performance, while not evidently improving integrity. Metadata check-summing was considered sufficient to meet our requirements. But, in spite of this, further work can be done on testing what this overhead would exactly be.As a conclusion, we successfully managed to improve a cryptographic file system, enabling it with integrity without sacrificing performance.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Genti Daci is a lecturer at Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies. He can be contacted at: Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies, Department of Informatics Engineering, Email: gdaci@icc-al.org

Megi Shyle is a Msc student at Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies. She can be contacted at: Polytechnic University of Tirana, Faculty of Information Technologies, Department of Informatics Engineering, Email: megishyle@yahoo.com

THE DETERMINANTS OF CASH FOR LATIN AMERICAN FIRMS

Carlos Omar Trejo-Pech, Universidad Panamericana at Guadalajara, México Magdy Noguera, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

ABSTRACT

We examine the levels and determinants of cash for Latin American firms. Latin American firms, as opposed to U.S. firms, did not hoard cash during the 1995-2006 period. However, we find remarkable similarities with respect to the determinants of cash between U.S. firms and Latin American firms. Net working capital, capital expenditures and net leverage all decrease the levels of Latin American firms' cash balances while growth opportunities and cash flow volatility increase them. But, contrary to theoretical expectations, firm size and dividend payments seem to increase Latin American firms' need for cash.

JEL CLASSIFICATION: G3, G32.

KEYWORDS: Finance, Cash Management, Working Capital, Latin American Firms.

INTRODUCTION

Until recent, the corporate finance literature had mainly focused on the study of long term financial decisions. However, with the latest market crashes triggered by lack of financing and liquidity, cash management has gained attention among practitioners and researchers, both in the U.S. and worldwide.

While cash studies in the U.S. concentrate on the value of cash or the levels and determinants of cash, most of the studies for foreign cash holdings focus on the differences in cash holdings across countries. Firms operating in countries with more developed banking systems tend to hold more cash, as they have more difficulty raising external financing and rely more on bank financing for their short term needs. Likewise, firms in market-based economies obtain financing mainly from capital markets (Pampillón (2000)). Nonetheless, these predictions are not conclusive as empirical results are not consistent across countries. For example, Pinkowitz and Williamson (2001) find that German and Japanese industrial firms, both countries characterized as having bank centered systems, differ importantly on their levels of cash holdings. While German firms' cash holdings are similar to American industrial firms', Japanese firms' cash holdings are significantly higher than American firms'. Thus, whether firms are immerse on a bank centered or market centered system is not enough to infer the level of cash holdings in their balances.

A second important determinant of cash holdings (and research venue) is related to the corporate governance system into place in each country. In the U.S., firms with poor corporate governance mismanage cash by quickly increasing capital expenditures and acquisitions (Dittmar and Mahrt-Smith (2007); Harford, Mansi and Maxwell (2008)). In the international setting, the value of corporate cash holdings is lower in countries with poor investor protection (Pinkowitz, Stulz and Williamson (2006)) and abundant cash bundled with asymmetric information has been found to lead firms to take excessive risks and, in consequence, lower the marginal value of their cash holdings (Gruninger and Hirschvogt (2007)). Regardless, as financial markets are segmented and financing realities among countries differ, the needs for firms to hold cash may vary casting interest on exploring the cash management practices around the world. Our article examines the levels and determinants of corporate demand for cash for Latin American firms. Specifically, we center the study on firms from Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. To our knowledge, the use of cash by Latin American firms has not been

studied before. We describe the levels of cash holdings for the 1995-2007 period and compare them to the dramatic increasing cash holdings of U.S. firms documented by Bates, Kahle and Stulz (2009). Levels of cash and net leverage differ considerably between these two groups. When the results across countries are disaggregated, we find consistent cash holdings patterns across most Latin American countries.

As for the determinants of cash, we based our empirical model on Opler, Pinkowitz, Stulz and Williamson (1999) and Bates, Kahle and Stulz (2009). We had expected interesting results since Latin American firms operate in a mixed financing environment (Argentina, Chile, and México have more developed capital markets than Colombia, Peru, and Venezuela) but under a common legal origin, the French Civil Law. French Civil Law countries have both weak investor protections and less developed capital markets compared to Common Law countries. Such environment is expected to impact Latin American firms' capital structure and thus their financing (La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, Shleifer and Vishny (1997)). However, contrary to our expectations, the results show that the determinants of cash for Latin American firms share a remarkable similarity to the determinants of cash for U.S. firms. Net working capital, capital expenditures and net leverage all decrease levels of Latin American firms' companies, firm size and dividend payments increase Latin American firms' need for cash.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Firms with better investment opportunities and higher expected agency costs of debt are expected to hold more cash (Myers and Majluf (1984) and Myers (1997)). Small firms are subject to more information asymmetry than large firms; hence, small firms face more borrowing constraints and higher costs of external financing. In addition, firms with more volatile cash flows require larger investments in cash (Kim, Mauer and Sherman (1998)). The level of cash is expected to decrease as leverage increases, since the riskier the firm becomes, the costlier is to borrow liquid funds. Therefore, the level of cash borrowed should decrease (Baskin (1987)). We also expect net working capital to be a substitute for cash, and find firms with higher capital expenditures and dividend payout to have lower level of cash.

DATA AND METHODS

Data

We use financial accounting and market data from *Economatica*, the largest subscription-based database for Latin American publicly traded firms, for the period 1995 to 2007. We include in the sample firms listed in their respective stock exchanges from six Latin American Countries: Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. Firms from Brazil, also available in *Economatica*, are excluded as they outnumber the firms listed in any of the other countries and thus would potentially bias the results.

The Determinants Of Cash

The models employ the dependent variable *CASH*, measured as the ratio of cash to assets net of cash. Cash is defined as the sum of cash and short term investments. The following empirical method is estimated on a panel data using both pooled OLS and fixed effects,

$CASH = \alpha + \beta_1 MB + \beta_2 SIZE + \beta_3 CAPEX to Assets + \beta_4 LEV + \beta_5 CFVOLATILITY + \beta_6 NWC + \beta_7 DIV + \beta_8 INDUSTRY + \beta_9 COUNTRY + \varepsilon_i.$

MB is the proxy for growth opportunities, measured as book value of assets minus book value of equity plus market value of equity all divided by book value of assets. Firm size, *SIZE*, is the natural logarithm of the book value of assets. *CAPEXtoAssets* is the ratio of capital expenditures to book value of assets.

LEV is leverage, the ratio of net debt (i.e., net of cash) to assets. CF*VOLATILITY* is the standard deviation of industry cash flow measured as each firm's cash flow standard deviation for the previous 5 years, and then averaged by industry. Cash flow is earnings after interest, dividends, and taxes. *NWC*, net working capital, is current assets, net of cash, minus current liabilities net of current debt. *DIV* is the ratio of dividend payments to assets net of cash. *INDUSTRY* and *COUNTRY* are dummy variables to control for industry and country effects respectively.

RESULTS

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics comparing cash ratio, leverage, and net leverage for US firms and Latin American companies. Figure 1 illustrates the trends and differences between US and aggregated Latin American firms. While Bates et al (2009) document a secular increase in cash holdings for US firms, and a negative net leverage (a measure more commonly by practitioners than by scholars), we find that cash holdings for Latin American firms as a group have not changed in the 13-year period (i.e., in a regression of the cash ratio on a constant and time it was found that the cash ratio for Latin American firms has not increased over time (positive slope significant at the 20% level only but of no economic importance)). Similarly, leverage has remained unchanged in that period of study (In Figure 2 we present descriptive statistics disaggregated by Latin American countries. With the exception of Colombia and Venezuela the cash holding levels in each country have remained without significant changes). In the current financial environment, this trend difference between US and Latin American firms could be of economic importance, in favor of Latin American economies, as increase in cash could hurt a country's economy. A recent article in The Economist states: "For the recovery to proceed smoothly (U.S.) firms must stop hoarding cash...If cautious firms pile up more savings, the prospects for recovery are poor. With interest rates so low, this cash might be put to work more profitably" (The Economist, 2010). Figure 2 disaggregates the Latin American data and indicates the major Latin America economies having low and steady levels of cash while Colombia and Venezuela experienced a more volatile cash management in the same period.

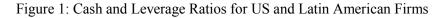
	Ν	Cash	ratio	Lever	rage	Net lev	erage
		Average	Median	Average	Median	Average	Median
1995	5165	0.171	0.072	0.23	0.187	0.059	0.105
1996	5568	0.193	0.088	0.222	0.17	0.029	0.077
1997	5605	0.191	0.089	0.236	0.18	0.046	0.085
1998	5263	0.178	0.075	0.289	0.205	0.11	0.119
1999	4971	0.194	0.077	0.247	0.198	0.053	0.104
2000	4947	0.208	0.088	0.242	0.173	0.034	0.075
2001	4540	0.214	0.107	0.268	0.173	0.054	0.062
2002	4233	0.214	0.114	0.258	0.172	0.045	0.054
2003	3992	0.227	0.133	0.235	0.16	0.008	0.016
2004	3693	0.24	0.147	0.225	0.145	-0.015	-0.003
2005	3549	0.237	0.148	0.219	0.136	-0.02	-0.005
2006	3297	0.232	0.133	0.221	0.146	-0.01	0.015

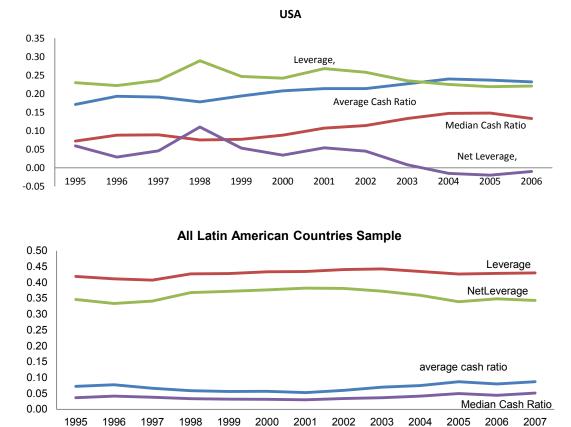
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Cash and Leverage Ratios for US and Latin American Firms Panel A- American Firms

	Ν	Cash ratio		Leverage		Net leverage	
		Average	Median	Average	Median	Average	Median
1995	319	0.0725	0.0366	0.4194	0.4143	0.3469	0.368
1996	342	0.0776	0.0417	0.4116	0.3897	0.334	0.353
1997	347	0.0664	0.0382	0.408	0.3912	0.3416	0.3406
1998	355	0.0591	0.0338	0.4273	0.4164	0.3682	0.383
1999	359	0.0561	0.0322	0.4285	0.4145	0.3724	0.3771
2000	388	0.0569	0.0315	0.4339	0.4213	0.3769	0.377
2001	403	0.0527	0.0301	0.435	0.4196	0.3823	0.3759
2002	404	0.0597	0.0341	0.441	0.4251	0.3813	0.373
2003	398	0.0701	0.0368	0.4432	0.4186	0.373	0.373
2004	396	0.0752	0.0415	0.435	0.4073	0.3598	0.3532
2005	388	0.0873	0.0499	0.4268	0.3948	0.3396	0.3500
2006	374	0.0799	0.0442	0.4288	0.4051	0.3489	0.340
2007	371	0.087	0.0514	0.4307	0.4156	0.3437	0.354

Panel B Latin American Firms

Panel A shows part of results by Bates, Kahle and Stulz (2009), and Panel B show estimations by authors. **Cash ratio** is defined as cash plus short term investments divided by total assets. **Leverage** is long term debt plus debt in current liabilities divided by total assets, and Net leverage is estimated as leverage less cash.





1995 1996 1997 1998 1999 plotted with data from table I

Pair-wise Pearson correlation coefficients for the determinants of cash are shown in Table 2. With the exception of market capitalization, the signs of correlation coefficients of all cash holdings determinants are consistent with theory. Leverage and cash are negatively correlated. Given that the cash problem *could* actually be a capital structure problem (i.e., the determinants of cash holdings are usually the same as the determinants of the optimal level of debt but with the opposite sign. The cash problem and the optimal capital structure problem, however, are two different problems. Otherwise the correlation between both cash and leverage would not be statistically different to 1.0), the negative relationship between cash and leverage was expected.

The correlation between cash and both CAPEX and net working capital is negative. As firms increase their investments for both the short and long-term, the level of cash decreases. The relationship between net working capital and cash is not statistically significant, though. This is consistent with the idea that cash and liquid working capital items (i.e., inventories and account receivables) could be use as substitutes. With regards to CAPEX, firms that acquire fixed assets can use them as collaterals for loans, and by the precautionary motive of cash holdings, cash should decrease.

In relation to firms' size, by the transaction cost motive (i.e., economies of scale) of cash holdings, a negative relationship is expected. While cash and total assets (size) have a negative correlation coefficient, rho is very low and not significant. Further, the correlation coefficient for market capitalization (MkCap) and cash is positive (very low as well). Finally, the sign of rho for cash flow volatility (CFlow) is positive, and statistically significant. By the precautionary motive, firms with riskier cash flows are expected to hold more cash. Campbell et al (2001) have shown that idiosyncratic risk has increased in the US recently. Furthermore, an increase in risk mirrors and increase in cash flow volatility (Irvine and Pontiff, 2008).

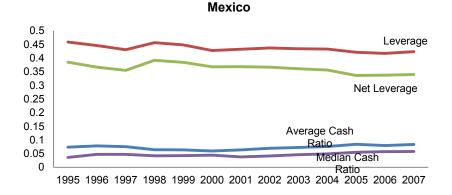
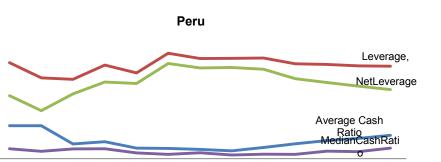
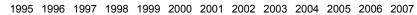
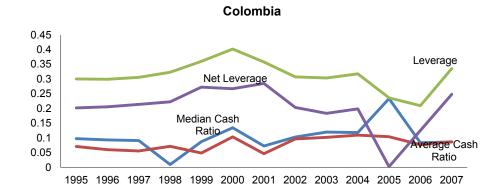


Figure 2: Cash and Leverage Ratios for US and Latin American Firms by Countries







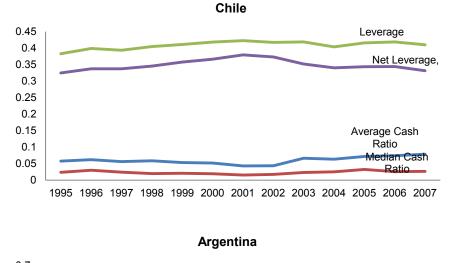


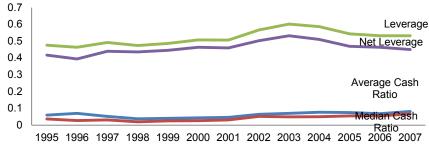
0.5

0.4

0.3 0.2

0.1 0





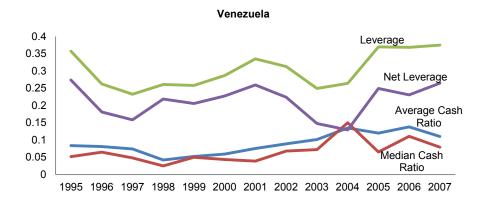


Table 2 also shows that it seems to be a tradeoff between type of investments (NWC and CAPEX). The correlation is weak though. Also, larger firms and firms with stronger cash flow tend to have higher CAPEX. In other words, those firms are more working capital efficient firms.

	Cash	Lev	NetLev	NWC	CAPEX	SIZE	MkCap	CFlow
Cash	1	-0.179	-0.496	-0.003	-0.022	-0.010	0.052	0.020
		***	***		*		***	*
Lev		1	0.943	-0.154	-0.052	0.106	-0.012	-0.179
			***	***	***	***		***
NetLev			1	-0.135	-0.040	0.097	-0.030	-0.168
				***	***	***	**	***
NWC				1	-0.019	-0.146	-0.383	0.004
					*	***	***	
CAPEX					1	0.104	0.051	0.353
						***	***	***
SIZE						1	0.434	0.141
							***	***
MkCap							1	0.139

CFlow								1

Table 2: Pair-wise Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Latin American Firms

Cash is cash plus short term investments divided by total assets. Lev is long term debt plus debt in current liabilities divided by total assets and Net lev is leverage less cash. NWC is net working capital net of cash, CAPEX is capital expenditures divided by book value of assets, SIZE is the log of book value of assets, MKCap is the firm market capitalization, and CFlow is the earnings after interest, dividends, and taxes but before depreciation divided by book value of assets. ***, **, and *, 1%, 5%, and 10% statistical significance

In Table 3 we show our main regression model (without the fixed effect dummies) results. All estimated parameters are statistically significant, and with the exception of size (Vogel and Maddala (1967) and Beltz and Frank (1996) documented that economies of scale for large firms reduce their need for cash), the signs of coefficients are as predicted by theory. As shown in Table 3, net leverage has the highest estimated coefficient. This result is consistent with the view that variables that affect cash holdings are also variables that affect leverage (with the opposite sign).

However, this does not imply that firms are indifferent between having one more \$ of cash or one more less \$ of debt (i.e., leverage coefficient is statistically different from negative 1.0). Finally, the precautionary motive for firms to hold cash dominates the transactions costs motive: Dividends, CF volatility, and CAPEX have the highest coefficients after net leverage. These are encouraging results because of the signs of estimated coefficients, the level of statistical significance, and the adjusted R-squares (27% compared to 22% in the model by Opler et al, and 45% by Bates et al for US firms).

	Parameter	
Variable	Estimate	p value
Intercept	0.04275	0.0002
DIV	0.07613	0.0002
NWC	-1.51E-08	<.0001
MB	0.00709	<.0001
SIZE	0.00584	<.0001
CFvolatility	0.05939	0.0936
netLeverage	-0.16778	<.0001
CAPEXtoAssets	-0.02137	0.0122

 Table 3: Pooled Regression for Latin American Sample

The dependent variable is cash defined as the sum of cash and short term investments. **DIV** is the ratio of dividend payments to assets net of cash. **NWC**, net working capital, is current assets, net of cash, minus current liabilities net of current debt. **MB** is the market to book ratio measured as the book value of assets minus book value of equity plus market value of equity all divided by book value of assets. **SIZE**, is the natural logarithm of the book value of assets. **CFVOLATILITY** is the standard deviation of industry cash flow measured as each firm's cash flow standard deviation for the previous 5 years, and then averaged by industry. **netLeverage** is leverage (net of cash) to assets. **CAPEXtoAssets** is the ratio of capital expenditures to book value of assets. Adj R-Square, 0.27

We next run the fixed effects regression model, including industry and country as dummy variables, having Mexico and trade industry as benchmarks. We present our results in Table 4. With the exception of cash flow volatility, all the estimated signs are consistent with our main model results. To further investigate the relationship between cash holding and cash flow volatility, we ranked industries by cash flow volatility and compared volatilities and cash holdings by industries (bottom of Table 4). Notice that, in general, industries with negative statistically significant parameters (i.e., cash ratio below Trade industry) have the lowest level of risk, measured by cash flow volatility. The exceptions are transportation and mining industries. The adjusted R-squared of this model increased to 31%.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Given the economic importance of the increase in cash hoardings by US corporations (and from firms in other developed economies) in their balance sheets, we investigate the study the levels of cash holdings in Latin America firms (Mexico, Argentina, Peru, Chile, Colombia, and Venezuela). In a regression of the cash ratio on a constant and time it was found that, contrary to results for US firms, the cash ratio for Latin American firms has not increased over time. Using the models by Opler et al (1999) and Bates et al (2009) we modeled the determinants of cash holding for Latin American. With the exception of size and dividends, our results are consistent with previous results in the finance literature. Net working capital, capital expenditures and net leverage all decrease levels of Latin American firms' corporate cash while growth opportunities and risk increase it.

This analysis provides several avenues for future research. For example, a natural extension of this work would be to analyze the effects of macroeconomic and capital market factors (interest rate levels, capital market activities such as IPOs, mergers and acquisitions, etc.) on Latin American cash balances.

Variable	Estimate	P Value		
Intercept	0.05423	<.0001		
DIV	0.08886	<.0001		
NWC	0.00000	<.0001		
MB	0.00717	<.0001		
Size	0.00522	<.0001		
CFvolatility	-0.01645	0.6946		
netLeverage	-0.16751	<.0001		
CAPEXtoAssets	-0.02136	0.0099		
Industry	Coefficient	P Value	CFVOLATILITY	Ν
ELECT	-0.018750	0.009800	0.0307	322
FOOD	-0.019560	<.0001	0.0459	767
TRANSP	0.053500	<.0001	0.0513	145
BASIC	0.006160	0.314900	0.0515	374
MINING	0.039810	<.0001	0.0542	275
OIL	-0.015510	0.063400	0.0547	172
OTHER	-0.003960	0.370900	0.0603	1337
ELECTRO	-0.033030	0.020400	0.0678	39
CHEM	0.003470	0.646100	0.0704	295
TELECOM	-0.006170	0.419000	0.0728	209
AGR	-0.009840	0.157000	0.0730	434
IND	0.018470	0.153900	0.0834	50
CONST	0.047340	<.0001	0.0840	258
VEHICLE	0.025270	0.034200	0.0901	78
PAPER	-0.010100	0.374600	0.1106	108
TEXTILE	0.000079	0.993100	0.1490	299

Table 4 : Fixed Effects Model for All Latin American Sample, Industry Estimates and Cash flow volatility

The dependent variable is cash defined as the sum of cash and short term investments. **DIV** is the ratio of dividend payments to assets net of cash. **NWC**, net working capital, is current assets, net of cash, minus current liabilities net of current debt. **MB** is the market to book ratio measured as the book value of assets minus book value of equity plus market value of equity all divided by book value of assets. **SIZE**, is the natural logarithm of the book value of assets. **CFVOLATILITY** is the standard deviation of industry cash flow measured as each firm's cash flow standard deviation for the previous 5 years, and then averaged by industry. **netLeverage** is leverage (net of cash) to assets. **CAPEXtoAssets** is the ratio of capital expenditures to book value of assets. Adj R-square 0.31

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E. M. Ekanayake, Bethune-Cookman University Ranjini L Thaver, Stetson University Daniel R. Plante, Stetson University

ABSTRACT

In this paper we analyze the effects of the real exchange rate volatility on South Africa's trade flows with the European Union over the period 1980 to 2009. Our study uses quarterly trade flows on South Africa's exports and imports and utilizes the bounds testing approach to cointegration, and error-correction model. Our results reveal that imports depend positively on the levels of domestic economic activity and foreign exchange reserves but negatively on relative prices and exchange rate volatility. In addition, exports depend positively on the levels of foreign economic activity but negatively on relative prices and exchange rate volatility. Furthermore, the exchange volatility exerts mixed effects in the short-run and in the long-run.

JEL Classifications: F14, F31

KEYWORDS: South Africa, imports, exports, exchange rate volatility, panel cointegration

INTRODUCTION

Despite the sizeable number of studies conducted, no real consensus about the impact of exchange rate volatility on exports has emerged. While a large number of studies find that exchange rate volatility tends to reduce the level of trade, others find either weak or insignificant or positive relationships. For example, Onafowara and Owoye (2008), Byrne, Darby, and MacDonald (2008), Choudhry (2005), Bahmanee-Oskooee (2002), Arize, *et al.* (2000), Arize (1995), Chowdhury (1993), Pozo (1992), and Bahmani-Oskooee and Ltaifa (1992), find evidence for negative effects. According to these scholars, exchange rate volatility may affect exports directly through uncertainty and adjustment costs for risk-averse exporting investors. Further, it may have an indirect effect through its impact on the structure of output, investment and government policy. On the other hand, Doyle (2001), Chou (2000), McKenzie and Brooks (1997), Qian and Varangis (1994), Kroner and Lastrapes (1993), and Asseery and Peel (1991) find evidence for a positive effect for volatility on export volumes of some developed countries because exchange rate volatility makes exporting more attractive to risk-tolerant exporting firms.

However, other scholars such as Aristotelous (2001), Bahmani-Oskooee and Payestch (1993), Bahmani-Oskooee (1991), and Hooper and Kohlhagen (1978) have reported no significant relationship between exchange rate volatility and exports. Reasons for contradictory results by different studies may be due to a variety of factors, among them: different methods used to measure exchange rate volatility; the use of different price deflators; the differential use of sample data, for example, the use of aggregate export data versus sectoral export data; different time-frame periods; ignoring import dependency on intermediate and capital goods of the receiving country, as is the case with many developing countries; and the absence of complex econometric methods for studying these variations. As a result scholars stopped investigating the exchange rate volatility-export nexus by the late 1990's. However, with better access to sectoral data and the development of more sophisticated econometric models, recent studies have begun evaluating the exchange rate volatility-export connection from a sectoral perspective. The rationale behind this is that

different trade sectors would be impacted differentially by exchange rate volatility, and therefore may be more revealing than aggregate studies.

This study focuses on aggregate trade flows between South Africa, a developing country, and the member countries of the European Union (EU) to uncover the nature and sensitivity of the relationship between exchange rate volatility and trade flows. We use the recently developed panel unit root and panel cointegration techniques for this purpose. Using this approach we investigate the effects of exchange rate volatility on South Africa's exports to and imports from the EU countries over a period of 30 years using quarterly data from 1980:Q1 to 2009:Q4.

To this end we lay the empirical framework of our study by specifying our model. In the section following that we discuss variable definitions and outline our data sources. Empirical results from the bounds testing approach to panel cointegration, and error-correction model estimates are presented in the penultimate section. The final section presents a summary and conclusion of the results.

METHODOLOGY

Model Specification: The objective of this study is to assess the effects of exchange rate volatility on the aggregated exports and imports flows between South Africa and the member countries of the European Union. Drawing on the existing empirical literature in this area, we specify that a standard long-run export demand function that may take the following form (see, for example, Ozturk and Kalyonku, 2009; Choudhry, 2005; Arize, 1998, 1996, 1995; and Asseery and Peel, 1991):

$$\ln X_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln Y_t + \beta_2 \ln RP_t + \beta_3 \ln RER_t + \beta_4 \ln VOL_t + \beta_5 D_t + \varepsilon_t$$
(1)

where X_t is real export volume of South Africa in period t, Y_t is the real income of foreign country in period t, RP_t is the relative price of exports in period t, RER_t is the real exchange rate between the South African rand and the local currency of a partner country in period t, VOL_t is a measure of exchange rate volatility between the South African rand and the local currency of a partner country in period t, D_t is a dummy variable representing the apartheid era (1980-1994) in South Africa, and ε_t is the error term bounded with classical statistical properties.

Economic theory posits that the real income level of the domestic country's trading partners would have a positive effect on the demand for its exports. Therefore, *a priori*, we would expect that $\beta_1 > 0$. On the other hand, if the relative price of exports rise (fall), domestic goods become less (more) competitive than foreign goods, causing the demand for exports to fall (rise). Therefore, *a priori*, one would expect that β_2 , which measures the competitiveness of South African exports relative to the given country's domestic production, is negative. Similarly, if a real depreciation of the South African rand, reflected by a decrease in the RER, is to increase export earnings of industry i, we would expect an estimate of β_3 to be negative.

The last explanatory variable is a measure of exchange rate volatility. Various measures of real exchange rate volatility have been proposed in the literature. Some of these measures include (1) the averages of absolute changes, (2) the standard deviations of the series, (3) the deviations from the trend, (4) the squared residuals from the ARIMA or ARCH or GARCH processes, and (5) the moving sample standard deviation of the growth rate of the real exchange rate. Since the effects of exchange rate volatility on exports have been found to be empirically and theoretically ambiguous (Bredin, *et al.* 2003), β_4 could be either positive or negative. South Africa is assumed to be a small developing open-economy, rendering it a price-taker with respect to imports, and therefore supports the use of single-equation techniques for

estimating the aggregate import demand function. We further assume that only normal goods are imported, and that as a developing country, real foreign exchange reserves comprises an important variable in the function. Further, the apartheid structure and international sanctions have both had a significant impact on aggregate import demand and are therefore included in the model.

The long-run aggregate import demand function for South Africa (in natural logs) is thus specified as:

$$\ln M_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Y_t + \alpha_2 \ln RP_t + \alpha_3 \ln FR_t + \alpha_4 \ln VOL_t + \alpha_5 D_t + \varepsilon_t$$
(2)

where M_t is real import volume of South Africa in period t, Y_i is the real income of South Africa in period t, RP_t is the relative price of imports in period t, FR_t is the real foreign exchange reserves of South Africa in period t, VOL_t is a measure of exchange rate volatility between the South African rand and the local currency of a partner country in period t, D_t is a dummy variable representing the apartheid era (1980-1994) in South Africa, and ε_t is a white-noise disturbance term bounded with classical statistical properties.

The first explanatory variable, Y_t , in the specified model measures real domestic economic activity, or the real GDP of South Africa. Economic theory suggests that income in the importing country is a major determinant of a country's imports and has a positive impact. Thus, *a priori*, it is expected that $\alpha_1 > 0$. The second explanatory variable, the relative price of imports, is calculated as the ratio of import price to domestic price. Economic theory posits that an increase in the relative price of imports discourages imports and therefore α_2 is expected to be negative. The third explanatory variable is a measure of availability of foreign exchange, which can be used to represent the ability to import. Following Hoque and Yusop (2010), we have included the real foreign exchange reserve variable to capture the impact of export earnings on import demand, as export earning is one of the major sources of foreign reserves.

This variable does not appear in the traditional import demand function. However, it is an important determinant of imports for developing countries. Since higher real foreign reserves tend to encourage imports, we would expect that $\alpha_3 > 0$. The expected signs of α_1 , α_2 , and α_3 are borne out in empirical results by Hoque and Yusup (2010), Akinlo (2008), Agbola and Damoense (2005), Narayan and Narayan (2005), Razafimahefa and Hamori (2005), Dutta and Ahmed (2004), Tsionas and Christopoulos (2004), Tang (2004, 2002a), Matsubayashi and Hamori (2003), Gumede (2000), Senhadji (1998), and Mwega (1993), among others. Since the effects of exchange rate volatility on imports have been found to be empirically and theoretically ambiguous, α_4 could be either positive or negative. Equations (1) and (2) shows the long-run relationships among the dependent and independent variables in our models. They can be represented within a panel setting by incorporating a subscript "i" depicting each of the European Union countries in the sample. This can be represented as follows:

$$\ln X_{i,t} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i} \ln Y_{i,t} + \beta_{2i} \ln RP_{i,t} + \beta_{3i} \ln RER_{i,t} + \beta_{4i} \ln VOL_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$
(3)

$$\ln M_{i,t} = \alpha_{0i} + \alpha_{1i} \ln Y_{i,t} + \alpha_{2i} \ln RP_{i,t} + \alpha_{3i} \ln FR_{i,t} + \alpha_{4i} \ln VOL_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$
(4)

Panel unit root tests: Before proceeding to cointegration techniques, we need to verify that all of the variables are integrated to the same order. In doing so, we have used the panel unit roots test proposed by Breitung (2005) and Breitung and Pesaran (2008).

Panel cointegration tests: We investigate the existence of cointegrating relationship using the standard panel tests for no cointegration proposed by Pedroni (1999, 2004). These tests allow for heterogeneity in

the intercepts and slopes of the cointegrating equation. Pedroni's tests provide seven test statistics: Within dimension (panel tests): (1) Panel ν -statistic; (2) Panel Phillips–Perron type ρ -statistics; (3) Panel Phillips–Perron type t-statistic; and (4) Panel augmented Dickey–Fuller (ADF) type t-statistic. Between dimension (group tests): (5) Group Phillips–Perron type ρ -statistics; (6) Group Phillips–Perron type t-statistic; and (7) Group ADF type t-statistic. These statistics are based on averages of the individual autoregressive coefficients associated with the unit root tests of the residuals for each country in the panel. All seven tests are distributed asymptotically as standard normal.

Of the seven test statistics, except for the panel ν - statistic, the other six Pedroni test statistics are lefttailed tests. In order to find evidence for long-run relationship between the variables, the null hypothesis of no cointegration for these tests should be rejected. If the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, there is no long-run relationship between the variables.

Data Sources And Variables

Our export and import data time series span a 30-year period from 1980:Q1 through 2009:Q4, leading to 120 quarterly observations. Of the 27 member countries of the European Union, only 20 countries were used in the study due to the unavailability of all relevant data. Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, and Slovenia were dropped from the sample, and the rest of the following countries were used in the study: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. In addition, while the majority of the countries had data for the entire study period, the following five countries had data only for the period specified: Czech Republic, 1993:Q1-2009:Q4; Hungary, 1995:Q1-2009:Q4; Ireland, 1997:Q1-2009:Q4; Poland, 1991:Q1-2009:Q4; and Slovakia, 1993:Q1-2009:Q4. Quarterly data on exports and imports are taken from the International Monetary Fund, *Direction of Trade Statistics Database*. Quarterly nominal data on exports were converted into real export series by deflating them using the export price index with 2005 serving as the base (=100). The export price index series are taken from the International Monetary Fund, *International Financial Statistics Database*.

The real foreign income variable for EU countries is the real quarterly GDP. The underlying series is obtained from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's online database. The real income variable for South Africa is the real quarterly GDP of South Africa. The underlying series is obtained from the International Monetary Fund's *International Financial Statistics database*.

The data on nominal imports, the import price index, foreign exchange reserves series, and domestic price index are taken from the International Monetary Fund's *International Financial Statistics database*. Nominal quarterly imports in local currency are deflated by the import price index (2005 = 100) to obtain the real import variable for South Africa. The real GDP variable is computed in millions of 2005 constant *Rand*. The relative price of imports series is constructed as the ratio of the import price index (2005=100) to domestic price index, as measured by the consumer price index (CPI) (2005=100). To obtain the real foreign reserves series, we deflated the nominal foreign exchange reserves series by the CPI (2005=100).

Following Bahmani-Oskooee and Wang (2008, 2009), and Sekkat and Varoudakis (2000), the real exchange rate, RER_t , is constructed as:

$$RER_{t} = \left(\frac{ER_{t} \times P_{t}^{f}}{P_{t}^{SA}}\right)$$
(6)

where RER_t is the real exchange rate, ER_t is the bilateral nominal exchange rate between South Africa and a given OECD country at time t, P_t^f is the consumer price index (2005=100) of a given OECD country at time t, and P_t^{SA} is the consumer price index (2005=100) of South Africa at time t. The quarterly data on nominal exchange rates are taken from the IMF, *International Financial Statistics database*.

Finally, we use a commonly used measure of exchange rate volatility in this study, though there are several alternative measures are available. It should be noted at this juncture that there is no unique way to measure real exchange rate volatility. Our measure of volatility is constructed following Bredin, Fountas, and Murphy (2003), Weliwita, Ekanayake, and Tsujii (1999), Chowdhury (1993), Lastrapes and Koray (1990), and Koray and Lastrapes (1989). Following these authors the real exchange rate volatility measure is constructed as:

$$VOL_{t} = \left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\ln RER_{t+i-1} - \ln RER_{t+i-2}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(7)

where VOL_t is the volatility of real exchange rate, RER_t is the real exchange rate and m = 4 is the order of the moving average. According to Koray and Lastrapes (1989), this measure can capture general movements in real exchange rate volatility and exchange rate risk over time.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Panel Unit Root Tests: The starting point of our econometric analysis is to check whether the variables included in Equations (3) and (4) contain panel unit roots. In other words, in Equation (3), we need to check whether [X, Y, RP, RER, VOL] contains a unit root and also whether [M, Y, RP, FR, VOL] contains a unit root in Equation (4). While there are several panel unit root tests are available, this study uses the unit root test developed by Breitung (2000, 2005). These results of the exports model are shown in Table 1 while the results of the imports model are presented in Table 2. The panel unit root tests indicate all the variables in both the exports model and the imports model are integrated of order one.

Panel cointegration tests: With the respective variables integrated of order one, the heterogeneous panel cointegration test advanced by Pedroni (1999, 2004), which allows for cross-section interdependence with different individual effects, is performed and the results are presented in Tables 3. The results for both within and between dimension panel cointegration test statistics are given in the table. All seven test statistics reject the null hypothesis of no cointegration at the 1% significance level for both exports model and imports model, indicating that the five variable are cointegrated in each model.

After having found consistent evidence of cointegration, the Dynamic Least Squares (DOLS) technique for heterogeneous cointegrated panels is estimated. The results of the DOLS are presented in Table 4 for exports model and in Table 5 for imports model. As the results for the exports model show, all the coefficients have the expected signs and all the coefficients are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance. Exchange rate volatility variables has a positive sign indicating that exchange rate volatility does not have any adverse impact on South Africa's exports to the European Union. Given that the variables are expressed in natural logarithms, the coefficients can be interpreted as elasticity estimates.

The results indicate that, in the exports model, a 1% increase in real foreign income increases real exports by 4.62%; a 1% increase in real exchange rate decreases real exports by 0.19%; and a 1% increase in the relative price decreases real exports by 2.28%. Similarly, as the results for the imports model show, all the

coefficients have the expected signs and all the coefficients are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance. Exchange rate volatility variables has a positive sign indicating that exchange rate volatility does not have any adverse impact on South Africa's imports from the European Union. However, in both models, the dummy variable representing the apartheid era has a negative sign indicating that trade flows between South Africa and the European Union declined during the apartheid period.Finally, in order to evaluate the impact of exchange rate volatility on trade flows during the short-run, a panel vector error correction model (VECM) proposed by Pesaran et al. (1999) is estimated. The results of these models are presented in Tables 6 and 7. These results show evidence that exchange rate volatility has an adverse impact on exports in the short-run.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have examined the dynamic relationship between trade flows and exchange rate volatility in South Africa's trade with the European Union in the context of a multivariate errorcorrection model. Estimates of the long-run export and import demand functions were obtained by employing the panel cointegration using quarterly data for the period 1980:Q1 - 2009:Q4.

The panel unit root tests indicate all the variables in both the exports model and the imports model are integrated of order one. The heterogeneous panel cointegration test advanced by Pedroni (1999, 2004) was used to test for panel cointegration for both exports and imports models. The results for both within and between dimension panel cointegration test statistics reject the null hypothesis of no cointegration at the 1% significance level for both exports model and imports model, indicating that the five variable are cointegrated in each model.

After having found consistent evidence of cointegration, the Dynamic Least Squares (DOLS) technique for heterogeneous cointegrated panels is estimated. As the results for the exports model show, all the coefficients have the expected signs and all the coefficients are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance. Exchange rate volatility variables has a positive sign indicating that exchange rate volatility does not have any adverse impact on South Africa's exports to the European Union. However, the results show evidence that exchange rate volatility has an adverse impact on exports in the short-run. Similarly, as the results for the imports model show, all the coefficients have the expected signs and all the coefficients are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance. Exchange rate volatility variables has a positive sign indicating that exchange rate volatility does not have any adverse impact on South Africa's imports from the European Union. However, in both models, the dummy variable representing the apartheid era has a negative sign indicating that trade flows between South Africa and the European Union declined during the apartheid period.

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AUDITING DUE DILIGENCE IN LAW AND ETHICS: THE PONZI "FEEDER FUND" CASES

Albert D. Spalding, Jr., Wayne State University

ABSTRACT

Financial accounting is an information conveyance process. When financial auditors issue an opinion in regard to financial statements, the auditors are providing assurance that those financial statements fairly represent the entity, and are prepared in accordance with the relevant standards. If there is a problem with the financial statements for which an unqualified audit opinion has been issued, the auditors may be questioned in regard to their compliance with professional technical and ethical standards that require competency, honesty, and full disclosure. These questions may be asked by the auditors' professional organizations, such as the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), by government regulators who authorize the performance of auditing services, and by the judges and juries of the judicial system. This paper considers how the judiciary, in particular, takes into account auditors' technical and ethical standards when auditors are sued for professional negligence and negligent misrepresentation. This investigation is done within the context of the recent lawsuits against auditors of "feeder funds" that invested with Ponzi scam artists such as Bernard Madoff. This paper concludes that the auditing profession has a "teachable moment" in the wake of the feeder fund failures, and should not overlook this opportunity to upgrade its ethical standards.

JEL: K23; M42; M48

KEYWORDS: Auditing, financial disclosure, due diligence, negligent misrepresentation, accountants' liability, professional ethics, Ponzi, feeder funds.

IN SEARCH OF PROFITS: THE CASE OF PHILIPPINE PASSENGER AIRLINES

Wilfred S. Manuela Jr., Ateneo de Manila University

ABSTRACT

This article examines the factors that affect airline profits in the Philippine domestic industry. The balanced panel data include 56 observations for the period 1996–2009. The econometric model consists of two equations, profit and passenger, due to the endogeneity of the passenger variable in the profit equation, and is estimated simultaneously using the generalized method of moments based on the Newey-West covariance estimator for a fixed effects model. The results indicate that, on average, an additional domestic passenger contributes PHP 1,989 to profits while an additional passenger seat reduces profits by PHP 1,312. This indicates that airlines have an incentive to fill a seat before departure, justifying the practice of heavy discounting to stimulate demand during low season. The development of a new domestic route reduces profits by PHP 107.736 million, on average, indicating that new routes may have lower-than-expected passenger traffic. This suggests that domestic airlines have already exhausted all profitable routes and entry into existing routes may not be profitable. The Asian financial crisis, the terror attacks on the US, and the most recent financial crisis result in PHP 1.391 billion reduction in profits, indicating the vulnerability of Philippine carriers to economic and other shocks.

JEL: C33, C51, L21, L93

KEY WORDS: Airline profits, Philippine airline industry

INTRODUCTION

The Philippines liberalized its domestic airline industry in 1995 under Executive Order 219, liberalizing, among other things, "entry and exit from the [airline] industry and tariffs and fares." Economic theory predicts that a more competitive environment tends to reduce industry profits, especially when the industry evolves from a single firm (monopoly) into a few firms with different levels of market power (oligopoly). The entry of Grand Air in 1995 and the intense competition that followed as Air Philippines, Asian Spirit, and Cebu Pacific Air entered the following year may help us understand how competition affects the incumbent, the Philippine Airlines (PAL), and the new entrants with regard to their ability to generate profits in order to survive in an industry noted for its vulnerability to economic fluctuations and erratic earnings (Thompson and Gamble, 2001). The competition is made more intense by the relatively small size of the scheduled domestic passenger sector in the Philippines. Grand Air exited the industry in late 1998 while South East Asian Airlines (SEAir) entered the scheduled domestic passenger industry in 2003, bringing the number of active airlines to five. This article examines the factors that affect airline profits in the Philippines. Only four airlines-Air Philippines, Asian Spirit, Cebu Pacific Air, and PALare included in the study because SEAir is relatively small and does not compete directly with the four airlines by focusing its operations in short haul but profitable routes. Air Philippines, Cebu Pacific Air, and PAL mostly compete in major and high-density markets while Asian Spirit, which changed its name to Zest Airways in 2008, has recently entered a number of routes dominated by PAL and Cebu Pacific Air. Air Philippines, which is affiliated and have a code-share agreement with PAL, changed its name to AirPhil Express in 2009.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The deregulation of the domestic airline industry in the United States (US) in 1978 (Olson and Trapani III, 1981) was the antecedent of similar policy shifts across the Atlantic and in other developed economies (Gillen and Morrison, 2005). Deregulation, in combination with competition, spur growth in the airline industry (Gowrisankaran, 2002) and has resulted in lower fares (Graham et al., 1983; Moore, 1986; Borenstein, 1992; Kahn, 1993), more efficient use of capital (Moore), higher productivity (Kahn), more passengers (Graham et al., Moore), and more departures (Bailey, 1992). One of the downsides of deregulation, however, is more crowded planes (Graham et al.) and congested airports (Kahn) because of the 225% growth in passenger traffic in the US between 1979 and 2002 (Gowrisankaran), which tends to reduce the airlines' quality of service (Jorge-Calderon, 1997), especially in high density markets (Kahn). While deregulation benefited most passengers, a number of airlines in the US domestic industry decreased by more 50% (Bailey) exacerbating cabin congestion due to a decline in departure frequency and thus capacity.

Liberalizing international and regional routes has also resulted in substantial reductions in airfare (Maillebiau and Hansen, 1995; Jorge-Caldron, 1997) especially in tourist markets (Dresner and Tretheway, 1992) and led to more frequent departures (Maillebiau and Hansen; Rietveld et al., 2002). The higher demand that resulted from lower fares and more frequent departures increased passenger traffic, which outpaced the growth in capacity as new entrants and weaker airlines filed for bankruptcy or were acquired by their larger rivals (Kahn, 1988; Borenstein; 1992), resulting in higher load factors (Maillebiau and Hansen), which is similar to the experience of the US domestic industry.

Fares fell as the number of competitors increased (Borenstein, 1992; Maillebiau and Hansen, 1995; Besanko et al., 2007) resulting in lower profits for most airlines. Price discrimination, however, has the potential to increase the airlines' profits as a result of selling tickets at different prices and restrictions (Schwieterman, 1991) to customers with different price elasticities of demand (Pindyck and Rubinfeld, 2009). Low-cost airlines are the major beneficiaries of deregulation and liberalization and by offering lower fares and keeping their costs at a minimum due to fewer frills (Bailey, 1992) low-cost airlines have flourished at a time when larger rivals have been in and out of bankruptcy courts.

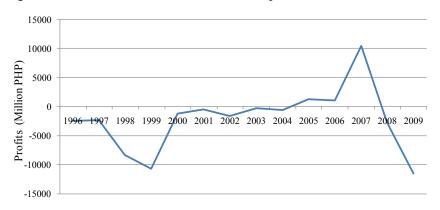


Figure 1: Total Profits of Airlines in the Sample in Million PHP, 1996–2009.

This graph shows the total profits of the four airlines the sample from 1996 to 2009 in million PHP. Source of basic data: Civil Aeronautics Board.

In the Philippines, the so-called low-cost airlines like Cebu Pacific Air and Air Philippines, which entered the industry in 1996, are exacerbating PAL's already dire financial situation. In 1999, PAL abandoned its

service in low-density markets and focused on its most profitable routes to stay in competition. The competition between PAL and the other airlines in the sample resulted in substantial losses for the industry, totaling over PHP 28 billion from 1996–2009 (see Figure 1), although PAL has reported losses prior to the liberalization of the industry.

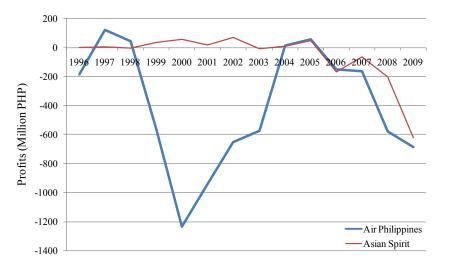
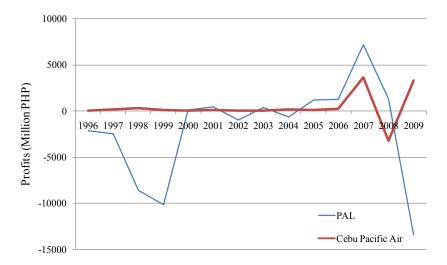


Figure 2: Profits of Air Philippines and Asian Spirit in million PHP, 1996–2009.

This graph shows the profits of Air Philippine and Asian Spirit in million PHP from 1996–2009. Source of basic data: Civil Aeronautics Board. Figure 3: Profits of Philippine Airlines and Cebu Pacific Air in Million PHP, 1996–2009.



This graph shows the profits of PAL and Cebu Pacific Air in million PHP from 1996 to 2009. Source of basic data: Civil Aeronautics Board.

By 2009 the four airlines in the sample compete for almost 14.6 million domestic passengers, up 184% from its 1996 level, outpacing the growth in capacity, which increased 141 % in the same period. The load factor then is higher in 2009 than in 1996, which is a positive development in an industry characterized by losses. Air Philippines and Asian Spirit reported 10 and four years of losses, respectively, since entering the industry (see Figure 2); PAL continued to report losses until 2004, reported profits from 2005–2008, and again reported a loss in 2009 while Cebu Pacific Air reported a loss only in 2008 (see Figure 3). The loss reported by Cebu Pacific Air in 2008 is due mainly to its losses in fuel hedging (PHP 2.5 billion) and foreign exchange (PHP 1.5 billion).

Empirical Framework

The econometric model consists of a system of two equations, profit and passenger, due to the endogeneity of the passenger variable in the profit equation. Previous studies on the airline industry consider the passenger variable to be endogenous (Dresner and Tretheway, 1992; Marin, 1995; Rietveld et al., 2002; Manuela Jr., 2007). Moreover, Judge et al. (1988) argue that a system of equations depicts the underlying theory of demand more realistically while Greene (1997) asserts that system methods are more efficient than single-equation methods because all available information are taken into account in parameter estimation.

The dependent variable profit in the profit equation, measured as net income, is a function of the endogenous variable passenger and exogenous variables seat, route, and a dummy variable representing the shocks to the airline industry such as the Asian financial crisis in 1997–98, the terror attacks on the US in 2001, which affected the airline industry for years, and the most recent financial crisis stemming from the subprime crisis in the US and the failure of banks in a number of countries. The passenger variable represents the revenue portion of the profit equation while the number of available passenger seats represents the cost portion. The number of routes may represent either additional cost or additional revenue depending on the profitability of adding another route to an airline's network. The dummy variable representing the shocks to the industry measures the impact of unanticipated events, economic or otherwise, on airline profits. The profit equation is expressed as:

PROFIT (ij) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ PASS (ij) + β_2 SEAT (ij) + β_3 ROUTE (ij) + β_4 SHOCK (ij) + ϵ (1, ij),

where for each airline i and year j,

PROFIT	represents the annual net income in million PHP
PASS	represents the annual total enplaned passengers in thousands
SEAT	represents the annual available passenger seats in thousands
ROUTE	represents the number of routes with at least 1,000 passengers a year
SHOCK	represents unanticipated events that affect airline profits; assumes a value of
	"1" from 1998-99, representing the lagged effect of the Asian financial crisis; from
	2001–2002, representing the impact of the 2001 terror attacks on the US; from 2008–09,
	representing the impact of the most recent financial crisis; and "0" otherwise
3	represents the error term

Profit should respond positively to the number of passengers since more paying passengers tend to contribute to higher profits. On the other hand, profit is expected to respond negatively to the number of passenger seats supplied by airlines since additional capacity tends to increase costs, which results in lower profit. The number of routes in an airline's network may enhance profit if all routes have adequate load factors to generate more revenues than cost. The reverse is true for routes that have lower than expected load factors. The dummy variable representing the shocks to the industry should have a negative impact on airline profits. The dependent variable passenger, in the passenger equation, represents the demand for scheduled airline service and is a function of the number of the Philippines' gross domestic product (GDP), the number of domestic routes of each airline, and the number of international passengers of each airline. All explanatory variables are considered exogenous in the passenger equation. The passenger equation is specified as:

PASS (ij) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ GDP } (ij) + \beta_2 \text{ ROUTE } + \beta_3 \text{ INTL } (ij) + \varepsilon (1, ij),$

where for each airline i and year j,

GDP represents the real GDP of the Philippines in 1985 prices in million PHP

- ROUTE represents the number of domestic routes
- INTL represents the inbound and outbound international passengers in thousands

The number of passengers should respond positively to GDP, the number of domestic routes, and the number of international passengers carried by domestic airlines because a growing economy means more business and leisure trips, more domestic routes increase the probability of capturing the potential demand for air travel in communities that are either unserved or underserved by existing airlines, and more inbound and outbound international passengers increase the pool of potential passengers in the domestic sector.

METHOD AND DATA

Previous work on the estimation of airline-related variables used different estimation techniques such as ordinary least squares (Maillebiau and Hansen, 1995) and two-stage least squares and its weighted and indirect versions (Dresner and Tretheway, 1995; Marin, 1995; Jorge-Calderon, 1997; Rietveld et al., 2002). This paper uses the generalized method of moments (GMM) estimator based on the Newey-West covariance estimator using GMM standard errors due to the observed heteroscedasticity and serial correlation using ordinary least squares (Johnston and DiNardo, 1997; Gujarati, 1999) for the profit and passenger equations. The GMM estimator based on the Newey-West covariance estimator has been shown to result in unbiased estimates in the presence of both heteroscedasticity and serial correlation (Greene, 1997; Johnston and DiNardo; Verbeek, 2000). The system of equations was estimated simultaneously because doing otherwise may result in biased and inconsistent estimators (Intriligator, 1978). The fixed effects model was used in estimating the system of equations, profit and passenger, to control for the unobserved heterogeneity between years and airlines (Johnston and DiNardo, 1997; Manuela Jr., 2007; Rietveld et al., 2002).

The data for analysis in the balanced panel data (Baltagi, 2001) come from 56 observations representing four airlines from 1996–2009. Airline-related data such as number of passengers, load factor, and the number of passenger seats per route per airline; net income, revenue, and cost data; and departure frequency, among others come from the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB) based on the documents submitted by airlines. The data on the gross domestic product (GDP) come from the National Statistical Coordination Board's various editions of the Philippine Statistical Yearbook.

ESTIMATION RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The results of the balanced panel data estimation for the system of equations, consisting of the profit and passenger equations, are presented in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

The estimation results of the profit in Table 1 indicate that the passenger variable (PASS) is significant at the 5% level and has the expected sign, that is, more passengers result in higher profits. The marginal contribution of a passenger to profit is approximately PHP 1.919 million for every one thousand enplaned passengers. The capacity variable (SEAT) is also significant at the 5% level and has the expected sign—more capacity means higher costs, which may result in lower profits especially when capacity increases faster than demand causing the load factor to decline. An additional capacity of one thousand passenger variable and the negative impact of the capacity variable on profits translate into a net contribution of approximately PHP 677,000 for every one thousand passengers or PHP 677 per passenger, on average.

	Coefficient	Standard error	t-Statistic	Probability	
Constant	2246.686	479.814	4.682	0.000	***
PASS	1.989	0.916	2.170	0.032	**
SEAT	-1.312	0.653	-2.008	0.047	**
ROUTE	-107.736	23.761	-4.534	0.000	***
SHOCK	-1391.103	495.022	-2.810	0.006	***
			R^2	0.223	
			Adjusted R ²	0.162	

Table 1: Estimation results of the profit equation

This table shows the estimation results of the profit equation using cost, revenue, domestic passenger traffic, domestic capacity, number of domestic routes, international passenger traffic, and the dummy variable representing the shocks to the industry as instruments. *** and ** indicate significance at the 1% level (highly significant) and 5% level, respectively. There are 56 observations in the profit equation and 112 observations in the system of equations.

The size of the airlines' network is highly significant and its negative sign indicates that, on average, an additional route will not result in enough revenues to cover for its costs. This may be due to the high cost of developing and serving new routes with lower-than-expected passenger traffic. Moreover, the marginal impact of new routes on profits may be negative because most of the profitable routes have already been served and airlines that enter routes that are already served by other airlines have difficulty breaking even. The dummy variable has the expected sign and its magnitude indicates that its impact on the profits of domestic passenger airlines is substantial, underscoring the vulnerability of the industry to economic and other shocks.

Table 2: Estimation results of the demand equation

	Coefficient	Standard error	t-Statistic	Probability	
Constant	-4085.348	956.529	-4.271	0.000	***
GDP	3.930	0.849	4.628	0.000	***
ROUTE	45.489	17.141	2.654	0.009	***
INTL	0.805	0.182	4.431	0.000	***
			\mathbb{R}^2	0.738	
			Adjusted R ²	0.723	

This table shows the estimation results of the demand or passenger equation using cost, revenue, domestic passenger traffic, domestic capacity, number of domestic routes, international passenger traffic, and the dummy variable representing the shocks to the industry as instruments. *** indicates significance at the 1% level (highly significant). There are 56 observations in the profit equation and 112 observations in the system of equations.

The estimation results of the demand equation in Table 2 indicate that the three explanatory variables impact passenger traffic positively. An increase of a billion PHP in real GDP results in 3,930 more passengers, on average. This indicates that the four sample airlines benefit from a growing economy as business and leisure trips increase as a result of increasing economic activity and individual incomes, respectively. The route variable indicates that, on average, a new domestic route results in 45,489 additional passengers annually. Taking the 45,489 passengers as the minimum annual traffic for a route to breakeven, we find that in 2009, all four airlines in the sample served routes with fewer passengers. If airlines persist in serving routes with passenger traffic levels below the breakeven point, then airlines may be engaging in cross-subsidization in order provide air transport in low-density markets, a practice that has more in common in a regulated industry than in a liberalized one (Manuela Jr., 2007). Although only PAL and Cebu Pacific Air have significant international markets, the number of inbound and outbound passengers in international routes has a positive impact on the number of domestic passengers, that is, a thousand international passengers result in 805 domestic passengers. The magnitude of the INTL variable indicates that, on average, four out of five international passengers take domestic flights. This may be one of the reasons domestic passenger airlines, especially PAL, are reluctant to open the domestic market to foreign airlines and pressure the government to limit flights of foreign airlines to and from gateway airports in the Philippines.

CONCLUSION

This paper has examined the factors that affect airline profits in the Philippine domestic industry. The results indicate that the impact of a marginal passenger on airline profits is PHP 677. This suggests that airlines have an incentive to fill a seat before departure, justifying the practice of heavy discounting during periods of low demand (Besanko et al., 2007; Manuela Jr., 2007). The PHP 107.736 million reduction in profits by developing and serving a new route indicates a disincentive for airlines to serve thinly-traveled routes, which PAL abandoned in 1999 as it restructured its operations to stay in competition. This result may also indicate the difficulty of breaking even when an airline enters a route that is already served by another airline. The sign and magnitude of the dummy variable representing shocks to the industry underscores the vulnerability of the domestic airline industry to unanticipated events such as the Asian financial crisis and the terror attacks on the US.

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Wilfred S. Manuela Jr. is an associate professor at the John Gokongwei School of Management, Ateneo de Manila University. He can be contacted at the Department of Leadership and Strategy, John Gokongwei School of Management, Ateneo de Manila University, Loyola Heights, 1108 Quezon City, Philippines. Email: wmanuela@ateneo.edu or wilfredm@yahoo.com.

A STUDY OF ECONOMIC INDICATORS WHICH AFFECT THE RETURNS OF REAL ESTATE INVESTMENT TRUSTS IN TAIWAN

Tzu-Yi Yang, Hwa Hsia Institute of Technology Yu-Tai Yang, Chung Yuan Christian University Chi-Hsiang Wan, Hwa Hsia Institute of Technology Barry Bishop, Golden Gate University

ABSTRACT

The U.S. Congress passed the legislation "Real Estate Investment Trusts (REITs)" in 1960, which offered the individual a long-term but correspondingly liquid investment means. Taiwan studied REITs legislation from the U.S. and also Japan, and our regulation of "the management of common trust funds" and "the securitization regulations of financial assets", and implemented "the securitization regulations of real estate" on July 23, 2003. It converted real estate into securities, and enabled the real estate business to finance capital from the public, in addition to the traditional way, which hypothecated property as security when borrowing money from financial institutions. The implementation of this regulation provided the real estate business with another fund-raising channel while at the same time enhancing the liquidity of real estate.

Up to the end of December 2010, there were eight listed REITs in the public market. This paper regards them as the main research object. In order to analyze the performance of Taiwan's domestic REITs (T-REITS) as excellent, poor, or fair, domestic and international stock market quotes are referenced. Are the domestic REITs correspondingly conservative and stable in returns? Moreover, observing both the domestic and foreign investment trust funds will produce its own phenomenon instead of a stock market deep bid. Since the first domestic real estate investment trust fund, the Fubon No. One, was sold in May 2004, Taiwan's REITs have survived two extensive real estate circles and one global financial storm. As for quality and quantity of the data, there is enough data to analyze the investment trust fund characteristics of the domestic real estate trust fund.

This paper will study the relationship between several economical indices and the rate of return of T-REITs. The data was collected from June 2007 to September 2010. Stata SE11 is the tool and stepwise regression used to make the analysis of coefficient correlation. The results of this study finds that "the index of the construction", "consumer price index", "rental index", "ten -year central government bonds interest rate" and " construction stock price index" show a positive correlation with the rate of returns of T-REITs.

KEYWORDS: REITs, returns of REITs in Taiwan, and economic indicators.

BIOGRAPHY

Yang, Tzu-Yi (Corresponding Author), Assistant Professor, Department of Assets and Property Management, Hwa Hsia Institute of Technology, 111 Gong Jhuan Rd., Chung Ho, Taipei, Taiwan. Email: Lori405@gmail.com

Yang, Yu-Tai, Chung Yuan Christian University. Ph. D. Program in Management,12F., No.203, Sanguang Rd., Zhongli City, Taoyuan County 320, Taiwan (R.O.C.) Email: yaung5629@yahoo.com.tw

Wan, Chi-Hsiang, Hwa Hsia Institute of Technology, Master Program in Assets and Property Management, 1F., No.12, Ln. 145, Dunhua N. Rd., Songshan Dist., Taipei Email: johnwan@hotmail.com.tw

Barry Bishop, Golden Gate University, Master of Public Administration, 787 Monterey Blvd. #B, San Francisco, CA 94127, USA, bbishop@npu.edu

FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT FLOWS: AN EXAMINATION OF ITS DISTRIBUTION AMONG MIDDLE- AND LOW- INCOME COUNTRIES

Gabriel Manrique, Fastenal Company and Winona State University Val Vlad, Pennsylvania State University-Erie

ABSTRACT

The potential effects that foreign direct investment (FDI) has on growth and employment have led many developing countries to compete for FDI. In a period of rapid globalization (with countries increasingly aware of the importance of FDI) the competition for FDI inflows has become intense. In this exploratory paper, we examine factors that affect the distribution of relative shares of FDI flows among developing countries. Macroeconomic characteristics, resource endowments, and policy variables can influence FDI flows to a country. In addition, there are firm-specific factors that impact the decisions of multinational corporations on where to locate or expand their international operations. After a review of the literature on the positive effects of FDI, we look at the distribution of FDI inflows among low- to middle income countries. We then explore testable hypotheses that can help to explain the uneven distribution of FDI among countries. In a later paper, we test the importance of various factors in explaining the differences among developing countries in attracting FDI flows.

JEL: F21; F23; O10

KEYWORDS: Foreign direct investment, emerging market economies

INTRODUCTION

In the last 20 years the world economy has witnessed a tremendous increase in the importance of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) as a source of economic development. FDI has become particularly important in financing investment and growth for developing countries. The status and importance of FDI as a vehicle of economic development has become even more obvious in recent years. Many scholars have concluded that FDI has positive effects on the balance of payments, promotes exports, creates employment and radiates an array of externalities – financial, technological, institutional, and managerial, into the host countries.

The recipient or host countries have preferred FDI to other forms of capital inflows because, in addition to being a major source of financing (critical for countries suffering from chronic financial market failures), it stimulates the formation of human capital, promotes successful corporate governance practices, and it is often accompanied by technological and institutional transfers. FDI is also more stable than other forms of investment; once made, FDI tends to be harder to move out of a country, compared to other forms of foreign investment such as portfolio investments. Some studies go even further and point at FDI as a source of economic and political stability for the regions that receive it and for host countries.

Giving its growing importance, a large pool of countries has entered a keen competition to attract FDI. Nevertheless, the data on FDI location describes a very uneven distribution of FDI. The lion's share (75%) goes to the developed world - the group of countries where people make on the average more than \$20,000 a year. Out of the remaining 25%, 66% (or another 16.5% of the total) is absorbed by the group of the twelve largest developing economies (with China and India leading the "emerging" group of countries).

In spite of being one of the most researched topics in international economics, FDI continues to receive a large amount of research attention. First of all, there are still contradicting opinions on what are the ingredients for a successful recipe to attract FDI. A large segment of theoretical literature on FDI location is based on the conventional model of comparative advantage derived from cross-country differences in factor endowments. According to this framework, we should see (FDI) flowing mainly to capital-scarce, poor countries. In reality, the least developed countries received a negligible share of the total world FDI during the 1990s. For example, in 1994, the least developed countries that accounted for more than 4% of world production and 11% of world population received less than 1% of total world FDI (Zhang and Markusen, 1999). We show later on that a similar pattern of FDI distribution prevailed during the 2000s with countries at the bottom of the wealth hierarchy receiving a very small fraction of the total world's FDI.

Logically, some questions arise for both the multinational enterprises (MNEs) seeking to place their investment in the most advantageous locations and for those countries entering the competition to attract more FDI. For MNEs the relevant questions pertain to what makes a successful location choice for their investment. For potential recipient countries the questions pertain to how MNEs decide to locate their investments. In short, what are the most important determinants of FDI location?

LITERATURE REVIEW

On the question of the location determinants of FDI, Chakrabarti (2001) found that market size (as a proxy for market potential) and market openness are positively associated with the volume of FDI inflows. Asiedu (2002) showed that among the more important factors in attracting large amounts of FDI are the country's openness to trade, its infrastructure availability, and the potential return to capital. She did not find conclusive evidence, in the case of the African economies in her study, that economic and political variables such as growth rates, government consumption, inflation rate, money growth, and political risk are significant factors. In particular, she investigated Africa's poor performance in attracting FDI in the late 1990s. For example, sub-Saharan Africa's share of the world's FDI had fallen steadily to just below 3% in 1995-99. When using a dummy variable for "Africa" in a cross-country model that included several locational choice variables, the "dummy" coefficient turned out to be significantly negative. She concluded that the African continent has a negative image in the investors' view. This is different from two decades ago. For example, Agodo (1978) found that US FDI in Africa was determined by market size (market-seeking behavior), the presence of raw materials (resource-seeking behavior), and a sufficiently developed infrastructure along with political stability. In that earlier study, tax concessions and tariff protection did not have a significant influence on foreign investment decisions.

Firms also tend to be sensitive to the existing infrastructure of potential FDI locations. The relevant measures of infrastructure sophistication may vary by firm and its needs. The transportation network has been a key measure of infrastructure sophistication particularly where global supply management plays a key role in the ability of firms to compete. Communication infrastructure, measured in the past as telephone lines, has also been used in studies of FDI. More recently, relevant proxies for infrastructure have included network readiness, which has attracted more attention from MNEs as they rely more and more on the internet for vital communications and other functions.

In other studies of FDI, Gastanaga et al. (1998) found that the expected rate of growth was a highly significant determinant of FDI while exchange rate volatility did not play an important role. As may be expected, high levels of corruption in the host country can repel FDI while high corporate tax rates can play a negative role in attracting FDI, especially corporate tax rates of 25% or higher. On the same line of research, attracting FDI has been found to be more likely with the combined presence of an open of the economy, smaller government, political stability, market competition, and a higher rate of saving and investment in the host economy.

From a different perspective, one can analyze the FDI location factors from the perspective of how a country is affected by FDI. One may argue that the extent and direction in which FDI benefits the host country influences - endogenously – most of the variables that, in turn, would attract FDI into that country. This argument is one of the bases for our hypothesis that there has been growing competition among developing countries for attracting FDI.

The literature on how FDI can benefit the recipient economies is varied in its conclusions. De Mello (1999) argued that the benefits of FDI depend on spillovers, profitability, value-added content of FDI related production, capital formation, employment, exports, and technology in the recipient economy. Further, he showed that the rate of FDI growth alone would not be sufficient to account for a country's economic growth. Grossman and Helpman (1991) pointed out that FDI in developing countries may specialize in producing less technology-intensive goods or simply engage in exploiting their natural resource. In both cases spillover effects and learning by doing opportunities are very limited. A slightly different opinion is provided by Borensztein et al. (1998). They argued that FDI is an important determinant for technology transfer and contributes more to growth than domestic investment. They analyzed a group of 69 developing countries over a period of 20 years and concluded that FDI has strong positive impacts on economic growth. However, they argue that the strength of this impact depends on human capital - countries with low levels of human capital hardly benefit from FDI. It may be concluded that human capital is the major ingredient that enables recipient countries to benefit from FDI and from the externalities created by FDI. In addition, Alfaro (2010) found that capturing FDI's beneficial effects depends on the financial sophistication of a country. In other words, countries lacking modern financial infrastructures are unlikely to reap the benefits of FDI because it is access to finance that allows domestic entrepreneurs to take advantage of backward and forward linkages created by FDI.

In looking at locational factors determining FDI flows, we can begin by looking at what distinguishes MNEs from domestic firms. Markusen (1995) enumerated four factors that tend to distinguish between MNEs and local firms: MNEs tend to have higher levels of R&D, have greater need for human capital, are more likely to introduce new and complex products, and are more likely to engage in advertising and product differentiation. Thus, when MNEs are searching for the best destinations for their capital the availability of human capital is among the highest ranked location variables. A more recent trend in FDI location shows that MNEs invest in skilled-labor countries to outsource white-collar workers. Non-tradable sectors such as bank, insurance, credit-card, accounting, investment banking, and high-tech, engineering, and design companies extend their activity in skilled-labor-abundant developing countries. MNEs have direct requirements such as engineers, technicians, and accountants and indirect requirements such as engineers, transport links, and legal institutions. The availability of these elements helps determine FDI location. They indicate the presence of the intangible and firm-specific assets which form the foundation of knowledge capital that is associated with much of modern FDI.

Deichmann et al. (2003) considered the role of social and human capital in determining the flow of FDI into Eurasian countries. They found that the volume of FDI that flows into a country, relative to the country's population, depends heavily on social capital - measured by the infrastructure level; and human capital - measured by the level of professional skills. They also found the depth of financial markets - another dimension of social capital - to be an important determinant of FDI.

In further examining the FDI decisions by individual firms, we should differentiate among different reasons for FDI location. Much of early FDI was in extractive industries and such FDI continues to be significant particularly in emerging economies. Efficiency-seeking is another strong motivation for FDI and explains a significant portion of FDI that took place in many emerging economies such as China and Mexico. Market expansion (market-seeking behavior), is a third explanation for FDI. MNEs seeking growth opportunities look to countries with large market potential for their products and services. As

average incomes rise in emerging markets - a tendency that seems irreversible - they become increasingly attractive for market seeking MNEs. In addition, a MNE's ability and willingness to differentiate its products explain their continuous international expansion, an interpretation of MNE behavior consistent with Stephen Hymer's early explanation of MNE behavior (Hymer, 1976).

Firms can also base their FDI decisions on the presence of other MNEs in a particular market. This is known as the agglomeration effect. Such agglomeration effects can explain why FDI tends to cluster in certain countries. Firms may be motivated by the already existing market provided by other upstream MNEs with whom they have had relationships in the past particularly in their home country. The presence of other MNEs can also provide signals to potential entrants regarding the desirability of FDI in a particular location. According to the Capital Markets Consultative Group's survey of large corporate investors (IMF, 2003) because of significant vertical linkages in production networks, some types of FDI flowing into emerging market economies (EMCs) are motivated by following existing clients into a new market. This generates agglomeration effects and creates FDI clusters. A large majority of the survey's respondents emphasized also that they invest in EMCs primarily to meet domestic demand rather than to reduce global manufacturing costs.

Evidence of the agglomeration effect is provided in a study by Barrell and Pain (1999). They focus on the flow of US FDI into the European Union and discovered that, even with few barriers to trade, FDI still tend to agglomerate for a number of reasons. By locating FDI near other foreign firms, investors can realize beneficial spillover effects including R&D related advantages and linkages to intermediate goods. Shaver (1997) found that there are country-specific and industry-specific information spillover effects for corporations when they consider FDI. Furthermore, FDI tends to be a sequential process whereby a firm's prior country-specific knowledge positively influences the FDI decision and that furthermore, industry-specific knowledge gleaned from the experiences of other MNEs also influences the decision to invest positively. Lall and Streeten (1977) suggest that this "herd mentality" is even more relevant in relation to host countries where investor risk is high and information is deficient. Similarly, Kindleberger's (1969) oligopolistic reaction theory suggests that following the leader strategies prevail in making FDI decisions.

More evidence on agglomeration as a factor in FDI location decisions is provided by Chang and Park (2005). In their study of Korean firms locating in China, network externalities were deemed important and that such network externalities were sensitive to the sameness of nationality of the origin of FDI and the similarity of industries. This gives us further reason to account for the amount of previous FDI in a country as a factor explaining current and future FDI.

According to early work on MNEs by Hymer (1976) and Kindleberger (1969), the advantages of setting up FDI must exceed the disadvantages of operating outside the home environment in order for the FDI to take place. The MNE must have location-specific advantages based on markets, resource availability, labor and infrastructure. Furthermore Dunning (1993) pointed out that the importance of each location-specific factor varies according to a firm's own inclination toward natural resources, markets, efficiency, strategic assets and other considerations.

We also cannot discount the importance of cultural connections and political factors in the FDI decision. Bandelj (2002) reported that country dyads, political, migration and cultural relations had a strong positive effect on FDI flows. In an earlier study of US FDI in Latin America, Nigh (1986) found that the political environment also influences firm decisions on FDI – a country's hostility to US foreign policy is interpreted at the firm level as hostility to US firms thereby affecting the FDI decision. Henisz and Macher (2004) studied the FDI location decisions of semi-conductor firms between 1994 and 2002. Not surprisingly, they found that such companies looked for countries that had high levels of sophistication – indicating the need to complement the production and design needs of the firm. They also found that

companies tended to stay away from politically unstable or hazardous countries where the prospects of expropriation were greater. In addition, they found that companies with less advanced technologies were less sensitive to political hazard when making FDI decisions. However, we note that it has not always been assumed that political instability was very important in determining FDI decisions by firms. For example, in a 1972 study of FDI decisions in Latin America made by multinational corporations, Bennett and Green (1972) found that political instability was not very important in determing FDI.

Cultural and historical factors may be an even more important location factor for developing countries. In their study of the FDI location decisions of MNEs from Spain, Galan et al. (2007) found that when investing in less developed countries in Latin America, historical and cultural factors played a more important role than in the developed countries of the European Union. However, Mitra and Golder (2002) found that the cultural gap between the domestic and foreign markets is not significant in explaining foreign market entry. We may then posit that where markets and institutions are already developed, home and host country historical ties become less important in the FDI decision. As such the firm can focus more on strategic asset-seeking behavior. This may also imply that historical and cultural ties compensate for weaker institutional development.

The level of corruption is another factor that may influence FDI decisions of MNEs. Habib and Zurawicki (2002) found evidence that MNEs prefer not to tolerate corruption and provided examples of firms that have successfully instituted zero tolerance for corruption in their FDI. Just as importantly, they found that cultural differences (with respect to the level of corruption tolerated within a country) also influence firm decisions about FDI. Firms from cultures where corruption is less pervasive are less likely to invest in countries where corruption is more pervasive, a finding reinforced by Cuervo-Cazzura (2006).

THE INCREASING COMPETITION FOR FDI

In a world where the developed countries remain the major attraction for FDI, globalization has given developing countries (DCs) more access to the international capital markets. According to the World Bank's 2009 World Development Indicators, private capital flows into developing countries increased from \$208 billion, in 2003, to \$961 billion, in 2007. The main source of these flows has been FDI. Approximately 55% of the total private capital flows into developing countries in 2007, was FDI. This has been especially helpful for low income countries for which the net inflows of FDI as a percentage of GDP increased from 1.7% in 2000 to 4.2% (2009 World Development Indicators, WB). For some small countries, FDI inflows can be equivalent to as much as 20% of their GDP.

It is not surprising then that countries would establish more Investment Promotion Agencies (IPAs). Harding and Javorcik (2007) reported that by 2005, 68 out of 81 developing countries had investment promotion agencies. Overall more than 160 countries already had IPAs at the national level and that there were 250 sub-national IPAs. The survey of works done by Lim (2008) on the effectiveness of such investment promotion activities reveals that such activities are not misplaced; investment promotion activities are positively linked to increases in FDI.

The widespread belief among DCs that FDI is an important way of accelerating economic growth has led to increasing competition to attract FDI. On the grounds that becoming "business friendly" leads to greater FDI, many DCs have tried to change their business climate. In one measure from the Doing Business studies of the World Bank, we found that in a sample of 111 DCs, the cost of starting a business (measured as a percent of per capita income) declined by an average of 53% between 2004 and 2010. In fact, in only four countries did the relative cost of starting a business increase.

THE UNEVEN DISTRIBUTION OF FDI

In this project, we first seek to demonstrate the highly uneven distribution of FDI inflows among low- and middle-income countries during the 2000s. We view these countries as competing against each other for FDI, with some more successful than others. We also want to examine the factors associated with success in attracting more FDI inflows. We included in our sample the countries designated by the World Bank as low- or middle-income countries as of 2000. It was also necessary to exclude countries for whom there were serious data shortcomings.

To demonstrate the uneven distribution of FDI, we first took the total FDI inflows into our set of low- and middle-income countries. We then calculated the percentage share of each country in this total or global FDI inflow. We calculated the similar percentage share of each country in the global GDP of this set of countries. This was done for each year from 2000 to 2008. As merely a starting point for comparisons, we posit that absent any differentiation among countries with regard to each one's attractiveness for FDI, each country's share of FDI would be proportional to its size relative to others. Hence a country's share of "global" FDI would reflect its share of the "global" GDP. We in fact know that FDI is not distributed proportionately to GDP and it is the deviations from the proportional distribution of FDI that we seek to examine.

For each country, by taking the ratio of its percentage share of "global" FDI to its percentage share of "global" GDP, we can illustrate the proportionality of FDI inflows. A ratio of 1 would indicate that a country's FDI inflow for the year is proportional to the size of its economy, relative to this set of countries. A ratio greater than 1 would indicate FDI inflow is relatively greater than would be suggested by the size of its economy. As expected, Table 1 shows that FDI inflows are far from proportional to an economy's size. Some countries received negligible FDI inflows, as shown by the minimum values for the different years while others received FDI as much as 14 times of the proportionate size of their economy. Because FDI inflows tend to fluctuate greatly from year to year, we summed up the values from 2000 to 2008 to mitigate some of the effects of annual fluctuations. However, it is clear that with regard to attracting FDI inflows, the countries differ significantly.

	2000	2004	2008	2000-08
Minimum	0.00001	0.00226	0.00809	0.11330
Maximum	4.52704	14.1082	10.6569	10.73372
Average	1.25362	1.62899	1.80431	1.66047

1.84212

Table 1: Country share of total FDI to share of GDP

0.95888

Std Dev

For each country, its share of total FDI inflows into low- and middle-income countries was divided by its share of total GDP for these countries. The table shows the distribution of these ratios for different years.

FACTORS THAT EXPLAIN DIFFERENCES IN FDI INFLOWS

1.76578

In our continuing study of FDI among low- and middle-income countries, we will test for the significance of several factors in explaining for the differences in FDI inflows. Among the factors we will be looking at are: agglomeration, market size, infrastructure, business environment, corruption, human capital, and trade orientation.

1.54393

If agglomeration among MNEs is indeed important, then we would expect that future FDI inflows would be positively related to existing FDI stock. The likelihood that a company would invest in a foreign country would be greater if it were inclined to follow other companies already in that country. Existing FDI stock per capita is one such measure of the presence of foreign companies in a country If market seeking and market expansion are powerful motivators for MNE behavior, then market size would be one consideration for FDI decisions. Markets have different dimensions but the measurement should include sheer size (population) and effective purchasing power (income per capita). We would expect market size to be positively correlated with FDI inflows.

We expect that FDI flows to be affected by the level of infrastructure in a country. Infrastructure can impact production cost. But just as importantly in today's competitive environment, the quality of infrastructure affects firms' global supply chain management. To be able to move products, parts, and services efficiently and promptly, a high level of infrastructure is necessary. The different types of infrastructure need to be considered including road and rail quality, port capacity, reliability of electricity, and in today's world, network readiness.

Institutional factors can impact the attractiveness of the business environment. The popularity of the Doing Business series of the World Bank and the proliferation of other indices that attempt to capture the business environment in different countries should not be surprising. Companies considering going global are sensitive to conditions in countries with which they lack familiarity. But rather than arguing that a company decisions are driven by these indices and measures, we expect instead that what are contained in these measures are factors such as investment protection and bureaucratic intervention that are important in the FDI decision of firms. Hence, while we expect these indices to be correlated with FDI flows, the indices are not the causes of FDI flows.

The level of corruption in a country can serve as a deterrent to FDI. In addition to directly increasing the cost of doing business should one choose to take part in this behavior, corruption may be indicative of other inefficiencies in an economy that will indirectly affect the cost of doing business. It may also be indicative of the business uncertainties one may face including such crucial elements as timely deliveries, capricious inspections, and dispute resolution. While directly measuring corruption is almost impossible for obvious reasons, organizations like Transparency International have developed indirect measures of corruption that may be used to study its impact on FDI.

The availability of labor and the quality of human capital are elements that many consider to be critical for FDI. While for simple production processes the availability of cheap, unskilled labor may be the most important determinant of FDI, for more sophisticated FDI, the quality of human capital is what matters most. We expect that FDI flows will be partially explained by both labor size and the level of education of the labor force.

A country's trade orientation and its global readiness are also factors that can be expected to explain FDI flows. As MNEs seek to expand markets and to develop a truly global supply chain, it cannot be assumed that MNEs will engage in FDI only to serve the host market or to export back to the home country. It is increasingly more likely that MNEs engage in FDI to establish a global supply chain that connects production and sales in a number of countries. If that is so, then countries with broad trade orientation, open trade policies and with supporting trade infrastructure are more likely to attract FDI today.

There are several other factors that may merit investigation as test for variables to explain the differences among countries in attracting FDI. These include the tax structure of a country, labor laws and labor relations, and a country's economic and political stability. As globalization proceeds and as countries strive to increase their participation in the global economy, we believe that attracting FDI will continue to be increasingly important.

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BIOGRAPHY

Gabriel Manrique is the Globalization Specialist for Fastenal Company, and a Professor of Economics at Winona State University, Minnesota, USA. He can be contacted at <u>gmanriqu@fastenal.com</u> or gmanrique@winona.edu.

Val Vlad is an Assistant Professor of Economics at Pennsylvania State University at Erie. He can be contacted at 0281 Jack Burke Res Center, Penn State University-Erie, Behrend College, Erie, PA 16563 and at <u>valvlad@gmail.com</u>.

HARMONIZATION OF NATIONAL FISCAL POLICIES OF THE EU MEMBER STATES

Paul Lucian, University of Sibiu, Romania Danciu Lucian Alexandru, University of Sibiu, Romania

KEYWORDS: tax evasion ,direct taxes, indirect taxes, tax competition, the optimal tax

In European Union countries, fiscal policy is far from winning everybody's consensus, because no country is willing to give up national sovereignty, the right to collect taxes from its citizens and to plan budget spending. In tax policy, community action is only subsidiary, the EU having only a complementary role as taxation and social security is concerned. The fiscal policy goal is to standardize the national system of taxes and compulsory contributions, but to ensure that the systems are compatible not only between the Member States but also with the objectives of the European Community Treaty. The fiscal policy includes all the methods, means, forms, instruments and institutions used to purchase state tax financial resources and their use in funding public actions, including economic and social influence. It naturally deals with , both tax issues and the public expenditure, which often play a decisive role in the financial policy of the state.

The EU policy on tax has two components: direct taxation - which is the responsibility of the Member States and indirect taxation, which affects the free movement of goods and services on the Single Internal Market. For the EU the problem is finding a tax to disturb as little as possible, the free market mechanisms. Until now there has been no harmonization or coordination of direct taxation within the Community. The results obtained are only partial answers to specific situations of double taxation and cross-border economic activity. Also, the European Union aims to ensure compatibility and harmony between the national fiscal policies of the Member States so that there are no differences in relation to its objectives. In an attempt to harmonize national tax systems, the EU emphasized certain important taxes in terms of influencing the degree of mutual relations between the Member States and their coverage, such as, the VAT or the excises , for example.

Theoretically, the fiscal policy remains a national prerogative, and then the deep economic integration between the EU Member States will report a certain degree of coordination. The Euro area emphasizes the role of the fiscal policy as a promoter of economic integration. The Fiscal policy coordination demands firm agreements between the Member States. Detailed arrangements will also limit each country's sovereignty, just as the instrument of fiscal policy assumes greater importance. The economic theory and the political practice have imposed, in time, two major tax approaches, closely linked to the perceptions about the role in the economy. Those economic theories and political doctrines which focus on fostering entrepreneurship, will maintain a reduced role in the economy and are, clearly, for a reduced income tax. Any additional tax, in fact, reduces the capacity for private decision in investment and consumption in a market economy.

Obtaining an optimal tax has led the neo-classics to a development theory of " the superiority of direct tax over the indirect tax". A direct tax on income is preferable to an indirect tax on spending. In addition, the direct tax should be progressive as to be fair from a social perspective. On the other hand, if the state uses primarily tax expenditures, it must be borne in mind that it is generating "Tax distortions" due to the phenomenon of disturbance of market equilibrium.In this context the European Commission has formulated several objectives.The primary long-term purpose is intended to prevent distortion of competition within the single market because of the existence of differences between the rates of indirect taxes and the tax systems themselves.In direct taxation, where the legal framework is generally presented in the form of agreements between the Member States, the main objective of the Community is to eliminate legal uncertainties that allow tax evasion. The second short-term objective is double taxation The objective of the recent fiscal policy guidelines towards a pre-arrival of the negative effects of tax

competition, is particularly moving about the domestic tax base as companies leave their original offices of the Member States in seeking a more favourable tax treatment in other countries of the Community. The EU subsequently decided that transactions subject to VAT and the VAT tax base is the same for all Member States. In joining the European Union, the VAT regulations followed the following: a simplified methodology VAT, a de-segmentation market and a fair treatment of transactions conducted within the European Union. Since 1977, by the Sixth Directive, the bases for the harmonization of VAT were established in the Member States; the legislation has been amended since then. Member States may apply the following types of VAT rates: a normal duty and one or two reduced charges. Normal VAT tax must not be less than 15% and reduced taxes not less than 5%. The principle of taxation of VAT is the consumption tax to be levied on supplies of goods and services consumed in the State.

In European law, there are provided a number of special arrangements in respect of VAT for companies, small farmers, second-hand goods, works of art, antiques, gold, travel agencies. The excise duty are applicable on the tax base, which is composed of producer prices, the customs value plus customs duties and special taxes. For products derived from a transaction conducted between the EU member states, the excise tax base does not include customs duties because these transactions are no longer considered of import - export. According to the fiscal policy supported by EU, the following broad categories of products demand excise : tobacco, alcohol and mineral oils. The harmonized excise regime came into force after January 1, 1993 and it is part of the overall strategy of the indirect tax harmonization. The excise duty is under suspension by means of tax warehouses and must be accompanied by a tax documents. The excise law provides the existence of minimum excise duty on each product category. Each EU member state will set the legislative framework relating to production, processing or possession of harmonized excise products, but in compliance with the Community provisions.

In France, a founding member state of the EU, the fiscal rules on direct taxes are the prerogative of national institutions, even taking into account the Community policies. Thus, the "exemption of a third " implies that from the total profits of a priority economic sector only two-thirds are taken into account for tax. Non-deductibility of certain expenses such as the depreciation surplus, the spending on luxuries, certain fines and penalties in excess interest paid to shareholders, etc.. are elements that are found in other national tax laws. The tax regime for groups has several components. Certain exemptions for dividends paid by a parent branch are granted. Since the economic crisis, more countries have included facilities to charge groups, including dividends to the parent company. French companies holding directly or indirectly, at least 25% of the shares of foreign companies benefiting from a privileged tax regime, could be subject to income tax provisions for the profit which came from the foreign companies.

AS far as the direct tax is concerned, Germany has become one of European Union countries where the tax rate is very low (25% compared with the previous figure of 42.2%, which included a duty of solidarity for the reconstruction of GDR 5.5%). However, some very favourable tax conditions could not be sustained for very long. In Romania, too, it would be appropriate an income tax sharing between the state budget and local budgets. We believe that when increasing the powers of the regions (of development under the current name) in Romania, there would be a useful division of corporation tax rate for the region budget similar to the scheme in Germany. Sustainable development policies through the tax system (green fees) include all mandatory contributions paid in taxable consideration of a matter likely to affect the environment, whether they are collected at the state budget, the local budgets or in a special fund for the protection of the environment. In Germany, environmental taxes are used most directly for environmental protection. Sometimes they are designed to reduce the tax burden carried by other taxes (usually income tax).

With the current European financial crisis, maximizing the income tax should be considered in two ways, first, in terms of tax rates until there is a degree of supportability of the population and, furthermore, in

terms of the degree to which the appropriate taxes are charged by the state budget. The excise taxes are the biggest generators of revenue expenditure and, in particular in the discovery of tax evasion. If the temptation of evading those taxes from tax obligations, through various forms, is very high due to the huge revenues that can be achieved by circumventing the law, revenue generated by the high tax rates and the calculation methods, in cascade which generate, under stress conditions, a large tax evasion. We believe that in order to avoid tax evasion the State shall take the following measures:

The introduction of a special surveillance of alcohol production by designating permanent tax supervisors from departments of the public finance and state financial control county for each trader;
Establishment of a special permit for operators who receive income from the sale of alcohol, alcoholic beverages, tobacco and coffee;

- Mandating the use of special tax bills by traders, manufacturers, importers and traders in the wholesale system, of alcohol andkalcoholic beverages, tobacco and coffee. Also, under the current financial crisis the state must take fiscal measures to mitigate the effects of financial crisis:

- Establishing a minimum taxable income in the nature that falls within the tax and the establishment of exemptions and tax reductions to allow decent life satisfaction;

- General application of taxes so that they affect all social categories of income from the same source or have the same kind of wealth;

- Determining the tax burden according to the input power, assuming the differentiation of tax burden from one taxable issue to another, both in relation to the taxable amount and the nature of the matter and of their personal circumstances;

- The same power input tax burden is the same for all individuals, regardless of social class to which they belong, respectivelyall legal persons, whatever legal form they are organized and operate in .According to the principle of efficiency of tax collection, taxes must be collected with minimal expenses by obtaining a large amount of revenue as the exchequer.

SUMMARY

The EU aims to ensure compatibility and harmony between national fiscal policies of the Member States so that there are no differences in relation to its objectives. Obtaining optimal tax has led to the neoclassical development theory "direct tax superiority on the indirect tax". A direct tax on income is preferable to an indirect tax on costs. In addition, the direct tax should be progressive as to be fair from a social perspective. If the state uses tax primarily on costs, then bear in mind that this is generating "tax distortions, because of the phenomenon of disturbance of the market equilibrium. The EU subsequently decided that transactions subject to VAT and the VAT tax base is the same for all the Member States. The excise law provides the existence of a minimum excise duty on each product even if the excise generates the largest national and community tax evasion.

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BIOGRAPHY

Conf.Univ.Phd. Paul Lucian – "Lucian Blaga" University of Sibiu, Romania Conf.Univ.Phd. paul.lucian@ulbsibiu.ro

Lucian Alexandru – "Lucian Blaga" University of Sibiu, Romania Asist.Univ.Phd.Student Danciu danciualexandru84@yahoo.com

A.S. Norman, Tumaini University and Kampala International University

ABSTRACT

The use of financial information in deciding to invest wisely is crucial in all undertakings of investment ventures. This article presents the research findings on the use of financial information in Tanzania a case of Iringa region. The intent of the study was to find out whether investors of stock exchange do consider financial information when deciding to invest. The study used mixed methodology of data collections strategies. However, questionnaire was the prominent collection strategy. The analysis of the findings used Correlation and Descriptive methods. The study applied purposeful sampling methodology and the stratification of sample was in three categories: Small Investors (SI), Medium Investors (MI), and Large Investors (LI). The findings revealed three propositions: 1) That the use of financial information assimilated a direct relationship with the level of investors. 3) That large investors indicated that they were more sensitive to the use financial information when deciding to investors. 3) That large investors indicated that they investors. Generally, the findings reveal that only 12 percent of all investors use/consider financial information when deciding to invest.

JEL: G11, G12, G13, G14, G15

KEYWORDS: Stock exchange, investors, financial information

INTRODUCTION

Tanzania government established a committee, under the leadership of Dr. Mboya for responding to the economic challenges, which faced Tanzania, including the absence of private ownership of firms, unproductive government firms, and need for direct local and foreign investment. The prime role of the committee was to lay the ground for the creation of stock exchange. Hence, in 1994 the Parliament endorsed the establishment of the Capital Markets and Securities Authority (CMSA). The legal framework for the regulation of the securities industry is the Capital Markets and Securities Act, 1994 [Act No. 5 of 1994 as amended by Act No. 4 of 1997].

The CMSA established the Dar es Salaam Stock Exchange (DSE) to facilitate the securities (shares and bonds) investment (DSE, 2008). The enactment of DSE came because of government's policy of transforming its economy from public government dominated economy to private sector driven economy. The exchange became operational in April 1998 with TOL Gas Limited listing as the first company followed by the Tanzania Breweries Limited (TBL) during the same year. The delay was due to the necessary background operational preparations that were inevitable such as training of brokers and formulation of issuance and trading rules (CMSA, 2007). Hence, a stock exchange is a secondary capital market where large and small investors can buy and sell securities (shares, bonds etc.). It is an organized market where buyers and sellers of securities meet as they are represented by dealers/brokers and acquire or dispose securities (DSE, 2007; Norman, 2006). It is a market which securities are traded by members of the exchange who may act as both agents (brokers) and as principal (dealers) (Benning, 2007).

The establishment of the DSE marked the beginning of the people in Tanzania indulging in purchase of shares as a strategy for investing consequently a need for proper decision-making on where to invest and why. It can be added that the establishment of the Capital Markets followed suit of many other changes which gave a signal for the need to transform the economy from government driven to private driven

economy. For example the Tanzania ruling party Chama cha Mapinduzi devolved the popularly known Arusha Declaration at the expense of adopting a Zanzibar Revolution. The former had stipulated the need for leaders not to participate in businesses or investment from what was perceived as avoidance of conflict of interest.

The Arusha Declaration set it clear that one should choose to be a leader or to become a business person. It further made it clear that a leader should not be subjected into two pay jobs. The essence was to protect conflicting interest that may arise from different dealings of business ventures. For example, it is hard for a business man who is also the minister for trade and industry or finance to fairly play the role of paying taxes and or being royal to other government procedures that will be required on importing, exporting and in general transactions. Since the creation of the Zanzibar Revolution leaders have been massively participating in business including investing in capital markets.

Therefore, investing needs a keen responsibility of why, where and when to invest, and at what amount. The where and why questions are vital, in particular, when observing the performance of the companies that were the first to list shares with the DSE market and reasons backed people to invest in such companies. The first company to list its shares with the DSE was the Tanzania Oxygen Company Gas Limited (TOL). The observation, however, reveal that those who purchased shares encountered what could be termed as loss, since the TOL Gas Limited share value dropped from TZS 500 in 1998 to TZS 290 in 2009. On the other hand there are companies that have flourished. Such companies include the Tanzania Tea Packers Limited (TATEPA), which experienced the rise of share value from TShs. 330 as an Initial Price Offer in the year 2000 to TZS 510 in 2009. Further, Breweries Tanzania Limited has her shares increased value from IPO of TZS 550 in 1998 to TZS 1850 in 2009 (DSE, 2009). Other company such as NICO has IPO of TZS 300 in 2005 as on 4th March, 2009 the price has decreased to TZS 285. The research problem attracted the researcher in several ways; including the new-fangled venture of investment, which has attracted many Tanzanians. Secondly is the potentials vested in the entire shares business, which seem to supersede the banking interest rate by far. For example, while those invested in the Tanzania Cigarette Company (TCC) have enjoyed the share value increase of about 400% from TZS 410 in 2000 as Initial Price Offer (IPO) to TZS 1740 as Closing Price Offer (CPO) in 2009 (DSE, 2009; DSE, 2005).

Such money increase, if were deposited at Commercial Banks would not reach an interest of 5%. The normal rate of most banks in Tanzania for saving accounts is between 2% to 4%. Those who invested in the Tanzania Breweries Company Limited earned about 254% in the period of about five years. Therefore, the main purpose is to set out paradox of whether those investing in shares do consider financial analysis/information when investing.

Background to the Problem

Informed investment is important for minimizing the risks associated with loosing value for the money invested. It is the spirit of the government and thus the policy to ensure that people participate in programs that reduce poverty. The essence of capital markets is imperative in the efforts of the government to improve the economy and reduce poverty. Capital markets enables individuals to own firms and multiply their incomes through investment that is managed by other people but with profits shared with many individuals – the poor and the rich. Capital markets are basically divided into two categories namely bonds and shares both are generically known as securities.

Most people with normal economic status have been able to boost their economic strength and improve livelihood through purchase of shares. For example about 153,630 people participated in purchasing shares at Initial Price Offer (IPO) in Tanzania in 14 listed companies (DSE, 2009). The descriptions of the firms and the number of people subscribed are TOL 10500; TBL 23000; TATEPA 2000; TCC 7508

Tanga Cement 14228; DAHACO 41025; Twiga Cement 18300; NICO 2986; TCB 5447; and NMB 28636. The number of subscribed in shares suggest that the multiplier effects is huge. Since stocks are purchased at lower price and sold at higher price. Hence the total number benefiting from the entire exercise of purchasing and selling of shares is bigger than 153,630. It is estimated that a third of those purchase shares at IPO do sell during first appearance at secondary market.

There are number of factors that enable people purchase shares of the listed firms. The factors include the perceived management – to what extent the management of the firm suggests future prospects. Another factor considered are owners of the firms listing shares – who own the firms listing shares. For example firms that solely belong to the government seem to automate reliability of the people to purchase shares. The figures of people subscribed shares in Tanzania supports the argument. The first five firms with big numbers of investors are those owned by the government. The logic behind this is the risk associated with any business. Buyers would confide the government than individuals (Norman, 2005).

Further, another factor considered pertinent is the performance of the firm realized through financial information regarding profits, dividends, ratios regarding assets versus liabilities, acidic ratios and so forth. Normally people are not much concerned with trends of the business and other technical financial interpretation. Most individuals rank the firms by mere understanding the profits and hence dividends anticipated, which suggest the need for acquisition of financial information. Financial information is important to the management of firms in Tanzania. It is from financial information the management can decide to list shares. The financial information tells managers on what measures should be taken for the survival of the firms. It is financial information that gives among other information whether the firms can pay dividends, cover debts, purchase new machines, establish branches, go abroad, and increase capital, among others.

The studies on the performance of the organizations in Tanzania and the world over reveal that most firms face two huge problems: working capital and competent personnel (Mautz, 1968; Norman, 1996; 2005). Hence capital markets are the key to raising financial capital of the firms as opposed to loans from financial institutions such as banks (DSE, 2008; 2007). The importance of capital markets particularly on raising firms' capital is on the base that no interest is charged on the capital acquired. Most first listed shared in Tanzania have encountered more money raised compared to what was needed.

Therefore it can generally be argued that capital markets translate the policies of Tanzania government of alleviating poverty and finally improving the people's livelihood. It is the capital market, which adds values on number of employments which results from rejuvenation that emanate from increased working capital of the firms. The firms listed with the DSE pay taxes to the government hence improving the accumulated fund, which ultimately does the roads improvements, health services, schools and so forth. The rest of the paper covers the following categories: 2) the literature review. 3) the data and methodology, which covers the sample, data collection methods/strategy and the design. 4) Empirical result is the fourth part. Finally is the conclusion and policy cum research implication.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Most studies indicate the general importance of financial information/financial statements analysis as opposed to the use of the same in capital markets and in particular stock exchange. To bridge the gape, this study has found out the use of financial information by investors of stock exchange. The study has also covered the evolution and the development of capital markets in Tanzania and has set the comparative analysis of the capital markets in East Africa. Hence while many studies have revealed the role played by the understanding of financial information/financial analysis the link has been on indicating the general use in investment and in decisions of various portfolios but not specifically on whether people investing in stock exchange consider the financial information when investing or purchasing shares. Financial statements analyses emphasize on developing financial information within the context of formal decisions models. For instance the study of Nasser and Nuseibeh (2003) on the usefulness of annual reports reveal that the user groups surveyed in the study rely mainly on information made directly available by the company and do not consult intermediary sources of corporate information in order to make informed decisions.

This may suggest that there could be same correlations if same study was to be carried in Tanzania, since, just like Saudi Arabia, Tanzania is perceived to have a limited number of listed companies and businesses and financial communities have many social and business links, resulting in relatively easy interaction between the user groups and related companies.

The expediency of information released by companies should be in a simple form and expressive language for consumption by any client. In this dimension, Norman (2006) suggests that to make annual reports adequate and readable, the information contained in these annual reports should be presented in an understandable manner and grouped and organized appropriately. Moreover, Epstein and Pava (1994) asserted that the language style might have a material effect on the readership, and influence the understandability of information that appears in annual reports. Wolk et al. (1992 in Nasser et al., 2003), however, suggested that even if users of annual reports are assumed to be knowledgeable, the information itself could have different degrees of comprehensibility.

In all sense, the importance of Financial Statements Analysis, which is literary known as financial information, is inevitable to investors and most findings have indicated the imperativeness of these reports. Nasser and Nuseibeh (2003) provide a number of studies, which have investigated the usefulness of corporate information to the users and found the annual report to be important and primary source of information. These include, (Mautz, 1968; Briggs, 1975; Lee and Tweedie, 1975a,b, 1976, 1981; Epstein, 1975; Chang and Most, 1977; Anderson, 1981; Arnold and Moizer, 1984; Moizer and Arnold, 1984; Chang and Most, 1985; Epstein and Pava, 1993; Bence et al., 1995; Anderson and Epstein, 1995; Abu-Nassar and Rutherford, 1996; Bartlett and Chandler, 1997).

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study used combined/mixed strategy. This included case study strategy. However, mini survey analysis was employed to capture responses that would allow generalization, hence a combined research strategy. According to Robson (1993), there are three traditional research strategies for real world research; experiment, survey and case studies. However, Yin (1994), points out that research is made up of five primary strategies. These are experiments, surveys, archival analysis, histories and case studies. Additional strategies imposed by Yin suggest that knowledge is not static, it is dynamic and grows. Barnes (2001) argues that it seems unlikely that experiments are appropriate for investigating such a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon as the operation of a strategic process. Even if it were possible to manipulate variable to observe their impact on one another, it would prove impossible to control for all other possible variables.

Although the use of mini survey may suggest quantitative approach yet the combined research strategy allows both non-researchers to capture information presented and also enables the academicians to interpret through the use of figures and other cognitive values that will be depicted. Mini survey calls for the use of a consistent and logical approach towards what is being investigated and uses statistical inferences and mathematical techniques for processing the data with emphasis on the measurements and analysis of causal relationships between variables (Thurston, 1956; Kothari, 2004). Quantitative methods are necessary to test the validity and general applicability of the research findings; the potential of in-dept quantitative studies diminishes rapidly as the underlying conditions change in a dynamic environment (Barnes, 2001).

The sample for the study was 50 investors drawn from the population of about 600 being total number of stock investors in Iringa region. The sample was thus 8.3% of the entire population. Population was drawn using purposeful sampling method, which focused on investors that would represent the three strata that were identified. Hence, 24 investors represented small investors; 20 represented medium investors and the big investors were represented by 6 investors (See table 1).

As narrated above categorization of responses was small investors, which include all investors who invested any amount below 10 million. The second category was investors who did so between 10 million but below 50 million. The third category involved investors who invested from 50 million and above. The reason for categorization was to ensure that all categories of investors were represented. The theory of Capital Assets Price Model asserts that risk is determined according to the amount of money invested. Hence different capital invested may lead to different responses in terms of sensitivity to risk. The concern is that the more the risk felt by an investor, the more the sensitivity to Information Asymmetry-that is an art of realizing that investors differ in knowledge accrued on investment. The theory of information asymmetry emphasizes the fact that investors knowledge differ. Some know more than others. Responding to risk may not be in conformity to CAPM rather can be pushed by other factors such as information asymmetry. Expectation theory asserts the fact that interest is what pushes the investors to invest more. The expectation theory emphasize that, interest rates can be used as a barometer for future interest rates. Investors expecting higher short term interest rates are more likely to buy bonds maturing in the short term. Fifty investors were involved in the study. Table 4 reveals the responses and the number of investors that participated in the study.

Table 1: The profile on consideration of financial information when investing

S/NO	Type of investor	Respondents	Yes	No	Percentage for yes
	Small investors	24	0	24	0.00
	Medium	20	2	18	10.00
	Large Investors	6	4	2	66.66
	Total	50	6	44	

This table presents the findings of the study, which was conducted in 2009 through 2010 in Iringa. The findings include 50 respondents and reveal that large investors are sensitive to the use of financial information than medium and small investors.

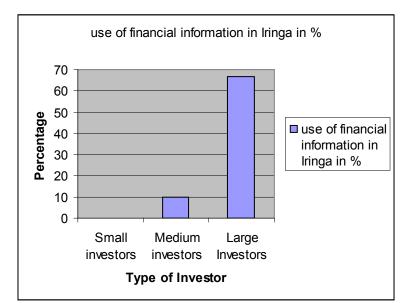
It was evident that small investors did not consider financial information when investing. Financial information was not considered by investors with capital bellow 10 million shillings. The analysis indicated that 0% considered financial information in deciding to invest. Further, the findings in Iringa revealed that only 10% of medium investors- those who invest between 10 million Tanzania shillings but bellow 50 million shillings considered financial information when investing. Further more, it was observed also that 66.6% of large investors considered financial information when investing in securities. The trend suggests that risk averse (sensitivity to risk) is proportional to amount of money invested. The more the money invested the more the sensitivity to risk, hence need to ensure investment is well taken. One large investor had this to say in Iringa:

To me securities are the business of a day. I have prospered because of securities. I like purchasing shares, and the most important credential towards investing in stocks is financial information of the firms. We must study financial performance of the firms and decide intelligently.

It was further observed that the category/strata that used financial information were the large investors. In this regard about 66.66% large investors interviewed used financial information when deciding to invest. The second group was the medium investors which attained a score of 10% of those investigated under that stratum. The last group was the small investors which attains a zero percentage (figure 4.1).

On aggregate in Iringa it was noted that only 12% of all investors under the study did consider financial information when investing. The percentage reflects the total of 8 respondents being in favor of using financial information out 50. The observation revealed that 88% did not consider financial information when deciding to invest in securities. It can be concluded that in Iringa financial information is not considered when deciding to invest in securities. Figure 4.1 depicts the use of financial information in Iringa.

Figure 2: Investors use of financial information



This figure shows the use of financial information by three categories of investors. It further shows that large investors are sensitive to the use of financial information than small and medium investors.

CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND POLICY CUM RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

To conclude therefore financial information is imperative in decision-making. This part has provided conclusions on the specific tendencies that were observed on whether investors in securities do consider financial information when deciding to invest.

From the findings, the following facts were revealed:

a. The total use of financial information in Iringa for all investors stands at 12%. However, the use of financial information by strata of Small Investors (SI), Medium Investors (MI), and Large Investors (LI) stands at 0%, 10% and 66.7% respectively.

The value of financial information remains to be crucial, since it gives the investors to understand the anticipated profits and gains of the firms. Financial information also provides understanding on the prospective growth of the firm, hence investors of stocks could predict future investments plan for those who need growth of the value of shares at market. Financial information gives information regarding the ability of the firm to cover its liabilities, and thus enables investors to realize the true trend of the firms. Financial information further provides information on earning per share, hence enabling investors to understand the amount of growth their shares are likely to earn. Hence financial information is critical to any investor.

Recommendations

The study involved two key components which are stock exchange investment, and secondly the consideration of financial information. Hence the recommendations are divided into two those related to the use of financial information and those related to the need for investing in stocks/securities. Therefore the following is recommended:

Realizing the fact that the stock exchange business is benefiting many people, therefore Governments and all concerned stakeholders such as the DSE, CMSA and brokers should promote more firms to list shares with the DSE to enable more people enjoy the benefits for investing in stocks at the same time providing unbiased, fair and coordinated financial information education in the area of stock exchange.

Recognizing that financial information education is needed in every dot of life, and to all people, therefore financial information education should start at primary school, since it is the fact that if people cannot be financial information literate, the impact will affect the government and other institutions. And such provision of financial information education can be attained through specific Web sites, free information services and newspaper, brochures, and Television for the purpose of enabling the majority people get advantage of investing in the Stock Exchange.

Policy cum Research Implications

- (i) The findings of this study have demonstrated that only 12% of the stock investors do use financial information. The policy implication on this situation calls for the ministry of education to ensure that financial education is taught at elementary stage of primary and secondary school, since financial education is imperative in all endeavors of finance.
- (ii) The findings of this study have revealed that barriers towards the use of financial information are lack of brokers in places other than Dar es Salaam. The policy implication in this situation is for the Capital Markets and Securities Authority (CMSA) and the Dar es Salaam Stock Exchange (DSE) to create rules and regulations that makes it mandatory for registered brokers to have branches in areas other than Dar es Salaam. Or the CMSA and /or DSE should create a structure in six zones of Tanzania for educating and providing advisory role on securities investment.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Norman is a senior lecturer at Tumaini University, and Kampala International University both in Tanzania. He can be contacted at: Faculty of Business and Economics, Tumaini University P.O. BOX 200 Iringa, Tanzania; and Department of Business and Management, Kampala International University, Dar es salaam centre, P.O. BOX 9790, Dar es salaam, Tanzania. Email: <a href="mailto:adamsonnorman@adamsonnormadamsonnormadamsonnorman@adamsonnorman@adamsonnorman@adams

DID CONFIDENCE KILL THE TRIFFIN PLAN?

Carol M. Connell, City University of New York – Brooklyn College

ABSTRACT

I examine two competing proposals for reforming and reviving confidence in the international monetary regime. Robert Triffin introduced and championed the proposal for centralized reserves. Fritz Machlup championed the proposal for flexible rates originally introduced by Milton Friedman. Triffin claimed that Fritz Machlup did more than anyone to ensure that floating exchange rates won the policy debate because of his influence on academic economists and policy makers. I examine Machlup's influence on these opinion molders through his leadership of the Bellagio Group conferences.

JEL: B22, B23, B31, E42

KEYWORDS: Triffin Plan; world monetary regime reform; confidence, liquidity and adjustment

INTRODUCTION

Long before the financial crisis of 2008, reforming the world monetary regime was on everyone's lips. In this paper, I examine two competing proposals for reform. Robert Triffin introduced and championed centralized reserves. Fritz Machlup championed and popularized flexible exchange rates, first introduced by Friedman (1953). We know in the end that flexible exchange rates prevailed and there was no overall reform. Triffin credited adoption of flexible exchange rates to Fritz Machlup influence on policy markers and academics through his leadership of the Bellagio Group conferences (Triffin 1960, p. 8). If Triffin is right, how did Fritz Machlup come to exert so much influence on the move from the gold-exchange standard to flexible exchange rates?

The paper takes an historico-biographical approach, drawing on the personal and published papers of Robert Triffin and Fritz Machlup.

A CRISIS IN CONFIDENCE

From 1946 to 1973, the Bretton Woods Agreement of 1944 was in force. Bretton Woods established gold as the universally accepted reserve asset for international payments and effectively fixed exchange rates. From 1958 to 1968, the Bretton Woods financial system needed a whole series of agreements, regimes rules, and institutions to ensure it worked (Gavin, 2004). Nevertheless, the imbalance in international payments and flows of short-term capital that emerged in the mid to late 1960s became increasingly hard to resolve (De Vries 1976, p. 3). US and European policy-makers feared that loss of confidence in the dollar might trigger a run on the US Treasury gold window. Both saw loss of confidence as a threat to national and economic security.

ROBERT TRIFFIN – LIQUIDITY AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS TRIGGER LOSS OF CONFIDENCE

Robert Triffin was born in Belgium and educated at the Catholic University of Louvain and later Harvard University. He was a Yale economist (1951-1977) and a former member of the Federal Reserve Board, serving as chief of the Latin American section from 1942 to 1946. From 1946 to 1949, Triffin played various roles at the International Monetary Fund. Triffin committed his efforts to the reform of the Bretton Woods system. At the same time, he was also a member of Jean Monnet's Action Committee for the United States of Europe.

Like the architects of Bretton Woods, Triffin shared distrust for free capital markets and flexible exchange rates. Nevertheless, his experience of the pre-1914 gold standard led him to decide that, in practice, gold was neither self-managing with central bankers as passive facilitators nor self-correcting. Triffin believed a single key currency to be fundamentally unstable. Key currency countries will therefore fall from grace and will not provide the basis for a sound international financial order. In Europe and the Money Muddle, Robert Triffin argued the growth of foreign countries' reserves had depended on a vast redistribution of net reserves from the United States to the rest of the world. He said further that such a movement could not continue without eventually undermining confidence in the dollar itself. (Triffin 1957, p. 296-297). Triffin expanded on this argument in his statement to the Joint Economic Committee of Congress in October 1959. If the United States ever stopped running balance of payments shortfalls and supplying reserves, the resulting shortage of liquidity would cause the global economy to contract. Nevertheless, if the deficits continued, inflation and loss of confidence would result (Triffin 1959, 1960). This diagnosis is known as "Triffin's Dilemma" or "Triffin's Paradox."

FRITZ MACHLUP – A FAILURE OF CONFIDENCE TRIGGERS ADJUSTMENT AND LIQUIDITY PROBLEMS

Fritz Machlup (1966a) was the first economist to credit adjustment and liquidity to a failure of confidence. He was also the first to argue that a restoration of confidence would make adjustment and liquidity moot. For Machlup, the French (and German) focus on payments adjustment had a simple explanation. For many years, the United States had spent, lent and invested money abroad. The US had paid largely in dollars which the monetary authorities of many nations now held in their monetary reserves. The French government disapproved of some of this spending and investing, for example the war in Vietnam and foreign direct investment in French firms. The French regarded adjustment as the most urgent need (Machlup 1966a, p. 2). The growing wealth of the Bank of France made it hard for the French to understand a present or imminent shortage of reserves in the world (Machlup 1966a, p. 2). To the American argument for a new reserve asset, the French reply was the deficit must end first. While Machlup argued that the French position was understandable, he saw the problem differently. The American difficulties in achieving balance had nothing to do with an absence of safeguards. "[Future] contingencies, as I see them (or fear them) are less likely to arise from inadequate liquidity than from inadequate confidence." (Machlup 1966a, p. 2)

Machlup argued, "I submit that a system of securing confidence would all of itself restore balance in the payments position of the United States (Machlup 1966a, p. 6). To what extent did the world surplus of reserves add to confidence? Machlup argued it was not a final amount but annual additions to reserves that had a positive impact on confidence. In countries suffering losses in foreign reserves, the authorities would eventually restrict international trade and capital movements. Annual additions to reserves were essential to reduce or avoid deficits (Machlup 1966b, p. 30).

THE CONFIDENCE ISSUE AT THE BELLAGIO GROUP CONFERENCES

On October 2, 1963, US Secretary of the Treasury and Governor of the International Monetary Fund Douglas Dillon announced he was launching two studies of the international monetary regime. Three academic economists (Fritz Machlup, William Fellner and Robert Triffin) heard Dillon's announcement and decided to embark on an independent study. They prepared to invite economists with widely divergent views with no problem or proposal considered "out of bounds" (Machlup 1964, p. 8).

Member	Institution (University)	Former Public Policy Role	Country of Citizenship (birth)
Prof. Arthur L. Bloomfield.	Pennsylvania	Federal Reserve	US (Canada)
Prof. Lester Chandler	Princeton	Federal Reserve	US
Prof. Alan C. L. Day	London	Radcliffe Committee	UK
Prof. Pierre Dieterlen	National Center of Scientific Research	European Monetary Union	France
Prof. Leon Dupriez	Louvain	National Bank of Belgium	Belgium
Prof. William J. Fellner	Yale	Council of Economic Advisors	US (Hungary)
Prof. Alberto Ferrari	Rome	Bureau of International Settlements	Italy
Prof. Gottfried Haberler	Harvard	Federal Reserve, National Bureau of Economic Research	US (Austria)
Prof. Albert Hahn	Frankfurt	Banker, Bankhaus L. Albert Hahn	Switzerland (Germany)
Prof. George Halm	Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy		US (Germany)
Sir Roy Harrod	Oxford	Advisor to Harold Macmillan; International Monetary Fund	UK
Prof. Michael Heilperin	Institut Universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales		US (Poland)
Mr. Fred Hirsch	The Economist	International Monetary Fund	UK (Austria)
Prof. Harry G. Johnson	Chicago	,	Canada
Prof. Fritz de Jong	Groningen	Labor Party of Groningen	Netherlands
Prof. Peter B. Kenen	Columbia	Federal Reserve	US
Prof. Charles Kindleberger	MIT	Federal Reserve, Bureau of International Settlements	US
Prof. Kioshi Kojima	Hitotsubashi	Pacific Free Trade Agreement	Japan
Dr. Alexandre Lamfalussy	Banque de Bruxelles	Banker, Banque de Bruxelles; Bureau of International Settlements	Belgium (Hungary)
Prof. Friedrich Lutz	Zurich	International Monetary Fund	Germany
Prof. Fritz Machlup	Princeton	Consultant, US Treasury	US (Austria)
Prof. Burton Malkiel	Princeton	Council of Economic Advisors	US
Prof. Hans Moller	Munich	Banker, Bank Deuscher lander;	Germany
Prof. Robert Mundell	McGill	United Nations, International Monetary Fund, World Bank, Federal Reserve US Treasury,	Canada
		Government of Canada	
Prof. Jurg Niehans	Zurich	Swiss Diplomatic Corps	Switzerland
Prof. Bertil Ohlin	Handelshogskolan	Swedish Minister of commerce (1944-45); member, Riksdag from 1938 to 1970	Sweden
Prof Jacques Rueff	Consul for Economic and Social Affairs	Advisor to French President Charles de Gaulle	France
Dr. Walter Salant	Brookings	Treasury Department, Securities and Exchange Commission, Commerce Department, NATO	US
Prof. Tibor Scitovsky	California	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development	US (Hungary)
Prof. Egon Sohmen	Saar	European Monetary Union	Austria
Prof. Robert Triffin	Yale	Federal Reserve, International Monetary Fund European Monetary Union	US (Belgium) France
Dr. Pierre Uri	Atlantic Institution		

Table 1: Attending Bellagio Group Members, Their Institutional Affiliations and Public Policy Experience

This table identifies the members of the Bellagio Group, their university or organizational affiliation, former public policy role, and country of citizenship and birth. Note that country of birth is in parentheses. Source: Machlup, F. International Monetary Arrangements: The Problem of Choice (1964a) and author's research into former public policy roles.

Most economists invited to join the Bellagio Group conferences had played an active public policy role before moving into academe. See Table 1 Attending Bellagio Group Members, Their Institutional Affiliations and Public Policy Experience. The selection was deliberate, since political judgments would play an important role in discussions of policy alternatives. Some members continued to be active in efforts toward European integration.

Machlup's invitation suggested the conferences were an experiment to understand sources of disagreement by examining the assumptions underlying major policy approaches. Fritz Machlup set the preconditions for discussion. Assumptions betraying political attitudes were especially important to Machlup. He saw that judgments about what is politically "unacceptable" or "impossible" might be responsible for wide disagreement among economists. Machlup warned against confusing political assumptions with value judgments (Fritz Machlup Papers, box 282, folder 6).

Machlup framed the evaluation of reform policies in terms of three outcomes: improved payments adjustment, liquidity and confidence. At Machlup's urging, conference participants agreed to a definition of these terms before beginning their work (Machlup 1964, p. 43-45). For example, conferees sorted payments imbalances into three types depending on frequency and cause. They agreed that each reform policy should include a solution to the provision of currency reserves (Machlup 1964, p. 53-58). Conferees agreed that problems of confidence in reserve currencies arise for two reasons. First, monetary authorities may want to change the composition of their reserves by substituting one reserve asset for another. Second, they may not wish to accept more of a particular asset they already hold and to convert additional amounts acquired into gold. In either case, the presentation of a large dollar or sterling claim for conversion into gold might lead other holders to run down their dollar or sterling balances as well. This could trigger drastic action by the US or UK in defense of its gold reserves (Machlup 1964, p. 58-65).

Policy	Fundamental Assumptions	Desired Impact	Bellagio Group Advocates
Semi-automatic gold standard	Raise the price of gold to allow the removal (redemption) of all reserve-currencies from the system. Leave gold as sole reserve asset. Fix exchange rates.	Eliminate payments imbalances. Removal of reserve currencies and increase in gold price raise liquidity and confidence.	Pierre Dieterlen, Albert Hahn, Sir Roy Harrod, Michael Heilperin, Jacques Rueff
Centralized Reserves	Major reserve holders agree to keep fixed proportion of gross reserves as gold -guaranteed deposits, with IMF authorized to adjust quantity of reserves through open market operations, overdrafts, or bonds.	Addresses liquidity. Confidence in system depends on confidence in IMF.	Robert Triffin, ACL Day, Sir Roy Harrod (alternative plan), Alexandre Lamfalussy, Pierre Uri
Multiple Currencies	Monetary authorities of reserve currency countries agree to diversify foreign exchange holdings to include mixed currencies (not only US and UK) and gold as reserves, ensure no abrupt and destabilizing changes.	Permits growth of reserves for payments adjustment under conditions of full employment, stable prices, and fixed exchange rates.	Friedrich Lutz, Burton Malkiel, Sir Roy Harrod (alternative plan)
Flexible Exchange Rates	Market forces increase export revenues for deficit countries decrease import expenses for surplus countries. International agreements restrict monetary authorities from intervening in market.	Payments balance achieved through adjustment of the exchange rate to market supply and demand.	Milton Friedman, Fritz Machlup, Gottfried Haeberler, Albert Hahn , George Halm, Harry G. Johnson, Friedrich Lutz (alternative plan), Egon Sohmen

 Table 2: Exchange Rate Policies and Their Advocates

Table 2 summarizes the fundamental assumptions and desired outcomes of the four major policy approaches explored by the Bellagio Group. Many members had preferred policy approaches; see "Advocates" column. Some members, like Harrod and Lutz, had several preferred approaches. Source: Report on International Monetary Arrangements: The Problem of Choice (1964) and author's own research.

Table 2 summarizes the differences in fundamental assumptions underlying four major policy approaches. Many members of the Bellagio Group had preferred policy approaches. Some, like Harrod and Lutz, had several preferred approaches. As well as differences, the Bellagio Group discussions threw some likenesses into relief. For example, supporters of centralized reserves and multiple currency reserves policies faulted the current gold-exchange standard and proposed semi-automatic gold standard for the same haphazard approach to gold production and failure to ensure against liquidity problems. They also shared the assumption that payments adjustment would fail to work fast enough to enable countries to finance their shortfalls with available reserves and borrowing. Therefore, gold-based policies could meet neither liquidity nor adjustment tests. Supporters of flexible rates agreed, adding that delayed payments adjustment would lead to tariffs to limit imports or foreign aid tied to military purchases.

The published papers and reports of the Bellagio Group, as well as the media attention created by the conferences, gave the Bellagio Group a high profile. We learn from Triffin's notes that Group of Ten members saw the usefulness of the Bellagio Group as a non-governmental, independent think tank. Otmar Emminger, in his role as chair of the deputies of the Group of Ten, found the Bellagio Group conferences invaluable to policy deliberations. Members of the Group of Ten would become close working partners with the Bellagio Group, joining them for seminars some 15 times through 1974. (Robert Triffin Papers, MS 874, box 12, folder 2).

In November 1965, Otmar Emminger asked the Bellagio Group to devise adjustment policies for countries in payments imbalance and to investigate the use of special reserve assets. They were to assume no change to fixed exchange rates. Fritz Machlup asked the Bellagio conferees to consider and rank order their preferred exchange rate solutions to liquidity, adjustment and confidence problems.

Table 3: Adjustment, Liquidity and Confidence Preferences

Goal	Mechanism	Member Votes
Adjustment	Adjustable pegs/wider margins (Managed flexibility) outvote unlimited flexibility	14/17
Liquidity Confidence	Credit Reserves Consolidate into IMF deposits	14/17 14/17

This table shows the Bellagio Group members' preferred solutions to the liquidity, adjustment and confidence problems. The results are based on a survey made by Fritz Machlup at the end of the fourth Bellagio Group conference. Robert Triffin calculated the survey results, based on 17 attendees. The data are available in Triffin'a hand-written notes in Robert Triffin Papers, MS 874, Box 12 folder 2.

Table 3 reflects the Bellagio Group members' preferred solutions to the liquidity, adjustment and confidence problems, based on Robert Triffin's calculations at the fourth conference. Ignoring the request to consider fixed exchange rate solutions only, the Bellagio Group voted the Triffin plan with flexible exchange rates their number 1 choice. The Bellagio Group recommended to the Group of Ten the hybrid solution of flexible rates and Triffin's plan for increased credit reserves under the control of the IMF. This is the hybrid solution that prevails today.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this paper was to examine Triffin's claim that Fritz Machlup turned the tide of opinion toward exchange rates as an instrument to correct balance of payments adjustment problems and restore confidence in the international monetary regime. Of particular importance to this interpretation are the archival records of Fritz Machlup at the Hoover Institution and Robert Triffin's papers at Yale University. The findings support Triffin's claim. The current paper attributes Machlup's influence to his selection of

economists to join the Bellagio Group; his close working relationship with the deputies of the Group of Ten; his creation of a broad platform of joint conferences, papers and books to promote their work, and his framing of the problem of world monetary system reform in terms of payments adjustment, liquidity and the impact of confidence on the system overall.

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BIOGRAPHY

Carol M Connell is associate professor, finance and business management, City University of New York – Brooklyn College, Whitehead Hall, 2900 Bedford Avenue, Brooklyn, NY 11210. CConnell@brooklyn.cuny.edu BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Somkiat Mansumitrchai, ALHOSN University Candy Chiu, ALHOSN University

ABSTRACT

Technological development has provided tremendous benefits for many industries, including banking business. The diffusion of internet banking has been witnessed in many countries worldwide. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) recently is one of the most significant economies in its region and global arenas. Internet banking has been adopted for many years in UAE, and the number of adopters for internet banking in UAE has been increased steadily. The main focus for this paper was to identify the characteristics of UAE consumers about their attitudes toward the internet banking. Factor analysis suggested seven characteristics of the adoption, namely compatibility, difficulty, security, trust, third party concern, status, and human contact. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that adopters and non-adopters differed on their attitudes toward three factors of the issues of security, third party concern and status, the study found no significant differences. An interesting finding was that human or physical contact and trust considered the most important factors for non-adopters, indicating the weakness of internet banking. Discussion of the results and implications for bank managers were included in the study.

JEL: M 31, N 25

KEYWORDS: Internet banking, adopters and non-adopters of Internet banking, United Arab Emirates

INTRODUCTION

Digital technology has become an important factor for both industrial and service sectors, and it is considered as an external force that can affect a firm's success. In the service sector, many commercial banks have adopted Internet banking. Recently, banks' customers can perform many transactions on the banks' websites such as checking the balance, transferring money to a third party, payroll payments, ordering checks, and paying bills. These transactions were listed in online banking literatures (Chou & Chou, 2000; Karjaluoto, Mattila, & Pento, 2002).

There have been a growing number of studies of the diffusion of internet banking recently. Studies of the adoption of Internet banking are of interest to both academics and practitioners. For academics, whether the adoption characteristics of consumers in developing countries are systematically identified is of interest to researchers. For senior bank management, knowing customers' perceptions toward Internet banking helps management understand their customers better, which will help increase customers' satisfaction.

The studies of diffusion innovation of internet banking have been explored by many scholars using the scholarly work of Rogers (1962) on diffusion innovation. Previous studies (Gerrard & Cunningham, 2003) have identified major factors of diffusion process of online consumers found in the study of Rogers. The studies of the adoption of Internet banking have been studied widely for developed countries (Sathye, 1999; Karjaluoto, Mattila, & Pento, 2002; Mattila, Karjaluoto, & Pento 2003; Pikkarainen, Pikkarainen, Karjaluoto & Pahnila, 2004; Waite & Harrison, 2004; White & Nteli, 2004; Lassar, Manolis

& Lassar, 2005), advanced developing countries (Gerrard & Cunningham, 2003; Wang, Wang, Lin & Tang, 2003; Akinci, Aksoy & Atiligan, 2004;) and in developing countries (Gurau, 2002; Rotchanakitumnuai & Speece, 2003; Eriksson, Kerem & Nilsson, 2005; Wallsten, 2005).

L|ITERATURE REVIEW

Rogers (1995) identified four elements, innovation, communication channels, time, and the social system, of the diffusion process. According to his study, these four elements were identifiable in every diffusion research study. Rogers explained innovation as an idea, practice or object that was perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. The perceived newness of the idea for the individual determined his or her reaction to it. In addition, the newness aspect of an innovation may be expressed in terms of knowledge, persuasion, or a decision to adopt. Further study by Black, Lockett, Winklhofer, and Ennew (2001) also noted that the perceived attribute of an innovation could affect the rate of adoption.

Rogers also explained further in his study that it should not be assumed that the diffusion and adoption of all innovation were necessarily desirable. Some innovation may be desirable for one adopter in one situation but undesirable for another potential adopter or non-adopter in a different situation. This observation was been hypothesized by many previous diffusion research studies. Studying characteristics of online banking adoption in Singapore, Gerrard and Cunningham (2003) found that online banking adopters had different perceptions of such adoption characteristics such as social desirability.

One of the important research questions addressed by traditional diffusion studies was how perceived attributes of an innovation, such as its relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability affected the rate of adoption (Rogers 1983). Previous studies show that these attributes were important for online banking adoption. The study of Gerrard and Cunningham (2003) shows that online banking adopters perceived the online service form the banks to be more convenient, less complex and more compatible. Waite and Harrison (2004) shows that expectations and perceptions of online retail banking information from consumers were high on the relative advantage and complexity attributes such as convenience and ease of use. Another study by Waite and Harrison (2002) about the expectations of online information provided by bank websites shows that consumers ranked the relative advantage attributes.

Previous studies show that perceived risk and security was an important attribute affecting the rate of adoption. Sathye (1999) studied the adoption of internet banking in Australia and found that security concerns about internet banking also affected the online banking adoption. Using the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to examine consumer acceptance of online banking in Finland, Pikkkarainen, Pikkarainen, Karjaluoto and Pahnila (2004) indicated that the security impacted online banking adoption. Cooper (1997) also found that the risk played an important role from a consumer's perception in the adoption of innovation. White and Nteli (2004) studied internet banking in the UK and the result shows that security was still the number one issue in consumer's minds when considering internet banking. Many studies identified risk and security as important attributes for technological innovations adoption (Rothwell & Gardiner, 1984; O'Connell, 1996; Daniel, 1999).

Reference groups or social influence often affect on consumer behavior found in consumer behavior literature (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Bogozzi, 2000). Social influence also is an important attribute that affects the adoption of innovations. Rogers (1983) stated that all innovations carry some degree of uncertainty for the individual, who is typically unsure of new a idea's result and thus feels a need for social reinforcement of his or her attitudes toward the new idea. The individual wants to know that his or

her thinking is on the right track in the opinion of his or her peers. Karjaluoto, Mattila and Pento (2002) indicate that reference groups strongly affected attitude and behavior towards online banking.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research method:

First phase, the qualitative method was used to gain insight into how consumers value the online banking. This technique allowed us to understand the perception of consumers toward the internet banking, and also it helped to identify some latent variables that might affect the adoption of internet banking. This method also helps identify possible factors not captured by previous studies. The same method was used for non-adopters.

A. Opinion from adopters

Because the research interest focused on the working people who were more likely to adopt online banking, all the adopters whom were interviewed by this study were only working people. Three different groups from the interview provided the similar responses on the perceptions about the online banking. The most common comment made by adopters was on the basis of compatibility as seen by the following comments; "Internet banking is compatible with my lifestyle"; "Using Internet banking fits into my working style"; "I liked innovation and I was satisfied with the Internet banking"; and "Internet banking enables transactions to be conducted at home".

Other comments made by adopters about using online banking involved were practicality and ease of use. Some online banking adopters said "Internet banking was an easy way to conduct banking transactions"; "Using internet banking was practical and was not complicated at all"; "I could perform my bank transactions on the web easily"; and "The web page was easy for me to do the transactions".

Additional comments from adopters were about convenience and benefits from using online banking; "It was fast and comfortable to do transactions online"; "It saved my time because I did not need to go to bank"; "It was convenient and cheap for me to do transactions at home"; "I could check my bank account any time I wanted online"; and "Online banking was open 24 hours a day and it was convenient for me".

Interviews showed that online banking still had many weaknesses from the online users' point of views. Most adopters interviewed were still concerned with online banking they were using. They were concerned about the ability of third parties to gain access. The following were the comments; "A third party may be able to access my financial details on the internet"; "My financial data might be passed on to other companies in the bank group"; and "I was afraid that hackers may be able to gain access to my accounts".

The security issue was a comment made by most of adopters. The following were examples of comments; "I am worried about the security of an internet bank"; "PINs obtained by fraud might allow access to my internet account"; "I believed that Internet banking was still not quite secure but I used it anyway"; and "I was worried about the security of an internet bank".

B. Opinion from non-adopters

The greatest concern expressed by most non-adopters was the security issue. Many non-adopters made comments about this; "Online banking was not secure"; "Because of the security issue, I would not use online banking"; "Matters of security had an influence on my decision to use internet bank"; "I was

worried about the security of an internet bank"; "Doing transactions at the bank was more secure"; and "I preferred to do transactions at the bank because it was more safe than to do transactions online".

Most of the non-adopters interviewed mentioned about the trust. Most of non-adopters decided not to use online services because of the trust issue. The following were comments made by non-adopters; "I did not trust the ability of the bank to protect my privacy"; "I did not trust the technology used at the bank for its online service"; "My friend who used the online banking still did not trust the technology of the bank"; and "I did not trust online banking and it was no need to use it".

Another concerned issue for non-adopters was difficulty. Although most non-adopters already had experiences of using computers and the internet, they felt that using online banking was difficult. The following were comments about this issue; "Internet banking web pages were confusing"; "Using Internet banking was difficult to understand"; Internet banking transactions involved complex procedures"; I found that internet banking was a difficult way to conduct banking transactions"; "For me, it was complicated to use online banking"; "I felt that using online banking was difficult because I had to key in excessive information such as a password anytime when I wanted to use it"; and "Using online banking requires a lot of efforts".

Most of the non-adopters mentioned about the security issue. They were also concerned about third party intrusions. Like adopters, non-adopters made similar comments related to the issues of security and third party concerns. The following were the comments; "I felt that using online banking was not safe"; "I was afraid that someone might access my bank accounts"; "Because of the security issue, I did not use online banking"; "It was very dangerous to use online banking because someone could access to your bank account"; "I was worried about the security of internet banking"; and "My financial data might be passed to other companies".

Another issue mentioned by the non-adopters was the physical contact. Some non-adopters commented that human contact should be a norm for the service at a bank, and online banking lacked of this element. These were the comments. "Face to face interaction was important for bank services"; "I preferred to go to the bank because I could meet the staffs"; "I preferred to do transactions at the bank myself"; "Online banking did not offer personal helps when I needed it".

Second phase, quantitative method, the questions were developed based on the focus groups. Some questions also were derived from previous studies in the literature review process. The interviews and prior studies suggested forty six questions. However, the questions were reduced to thirty nine questions because some questions were not relevant to the local environment. The pilot test for the questionnaire was used to identify any possible error and was used to ensure the validity. Comments and suggestions from the respondents were recorded and the corrections were made at the final stage.

Sample

The final questionnaire included forty six questions. Majority of the respondents are working people who were more likely to use online banking and who are a target segment for online banking. The questionnaires were sent to these working people who worked for both government and private sectors. A non-probability method was used, thus the survey was conducted on the convenience sampling base. Although this method does not make this study representative of all online users in UAE, the sampling units, working people, are nevertheless a population of research interest. About four hundred questionnaires were sent to the target samples and three hundred sixty five questionnaires were returned; however, because of some missing values, three hundred samples were used for the analysis. Table 1 provides the profile of the respondents and their internet uses.

		Frequency	Percent
A.	Gender		
	Female	119	36.06
	Male	211	63.93
	Total	330	100.0
B.	Age	550	100.0
р.	Below 20 years old	24	7.27
	20-25	120	36.36
	26-30	76	23.03
		45	
	31-35		23.63
	36-40	39	11.81
	Above 40	26	7.87
~	Total	330	100.0
C.	Marital Status		
	Married	170	51.51
	Not married	160	48.48
_	Total	330	100.0
D.	Education		
	High school	95	28.78
	College degree	180	54.54
	Master degree	49	14.84
	Doctoral degree	6	1.81
	Total	330	100.0
E.	Household Income per Month		
	Below 10,000	74	22.42
	10,001-20,000	80	24.24
	20,001-30,000	76	23.03
	30,001-40,000	44	13.33
	40,000-50,000	31	9.39
	Above 50,000	25	7.57
	Total	330	100.0
F.	Have Computer at Home		
	Yes	322	97.57
	No	8	2.42
	Total	330	100.0
G.	Have Internet at Home		
	Yes	314	95.15
	No	16	4.84
	Total	330	100.0
H.	Have Computer at Work		
	Yes	283	85.75
	No	47	14.25
	Total	330	100.0
I.	Have Internet at Work		100.0
	Yes	277	83.93
	No	53	16.06
	Total	330	100.0
J.	Number of Months Using	000	100.0
J.	Internet		
	Less than 6 months	11	3.33
	6-12 months	20	5.33 6.06

Table 1: Profile of Respondents and their Internet Uses

	Frequency	Percent
1-3 years	24	7.27
4-6 years	85	25.75
7 years or more	190	57.57
Total	330	100.0
K. Number of Hours a Week Using		
Internet		
Less than 1 hour	28	8.48
1-5 hours	90	27.27
6-10 hours	77	23.33
11-20 hours	67	20.30
21-40 hours	29	8.78
Over 40 hours	39	11.81
Total	330	100.0
L. Internet Access		
Home	105	31.81
Office	71	21.51
Both from home and office	132	40.00
Others (Mobile)	22	6.66
Total	330	100.0

The table shows the profiles of the respondents and their internet uses.

Factor Analysis

Reliability was assessed to ensure the degree of consistency among measurements of the variables. Using Cronbach's alpha, the study found that the reliability of all forty six items was .9095. To assess the overall significance of the correlation matrix, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was measured. The Bartlett test shows that nonzero correlations existed at the significance level of .000. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was measured for the sampling adequacy (MSA). The result shows that the set of variables collectively met the necessary threshold of sampling adequacy with an MSA value. Thus, the set of variables met the fundamental requirements for factor analysis.

To identify the adoption characteristics, the study used factor analysis with varimax rotation as an extraction method. Although the factor loadings of .30 could be considered for the factor due to the large sample size, this study considered .50 as a cut-off points (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). From this procedure, seven factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 were identified (Table 2). The identified factors represented 49.08 percent of the variance of the variables. Seven factors were named as compatibility, difficulty, security, trust, third party concerns, status and human contact. Table 2 summarizes the factors and the variances explained to each factor.

Internal Consistency

In the next step, internal consistency was performed by measuring the item-to-total correlation (the correlation of the item to the summated scale score). Inter-item correlations within each summated scale score (the correlations among items) were also measured. The rule of thumbs was that the scale was considered reliable when the internal consistency for the item-to-total correlation was above .50 and the inter-item correlation was above .30 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). All the correlations of the items to the summated scale scores were above .50 (at the .01 level) and that all the inter-item correlations within each summated score were above .30 (at the .01 level). Thus, the items used for each construct met the requirements of reliability.

Development of Hypotheses

Previous research shows the mixed results of the relationships between online banking and the characteristics of adoption. Many studies show that in general ease of use (Moutinho & Smith, 2000; Mattila, Karjaluoto & Pento, 2003; Wang, Wang, Lin & Tang, 2003), compatibility (Gurau, 2002), trust (Rotchanakitumnuai & Speece, 2003), reference group influence (Karjaluoto, Mattila & Pento, 2002) and computer experience (Wang, Wang, Lin & Tang, 2003) had positive relationships with the adoption of online banking. Also, some studies found that security (Liao & Cheung, 2002; Rotchanakitumnuai & Speece, 2003), third party concerns, and human contact (Gurau, 2002; Mattila, Karjaluoto & Pento, 2003) were negatively related to online banking adoption. Using Gerrard and Cunningham (2003) as a guideline, the following hypotheses were formulated to test for the study.

 Table 2: Characteristics of the Adoption

		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
Compatibi	ity		•				•	
	et banking saves my time as compared to traditional	.574						
	-5 privacy	.609						
	amiliar with technology	.594						
4. Intern home	et banking enables transactions to be conducted at	.743						
	et banking is compatible with my lifestyle	.729						
	sourcing services on the internet	.661						
 Intern 24 hrs 	et banking provides convenience since it is available	.681						
Difficulty								
	et banking web pages are confusing		.542					
	traditional banking is more effective than using et banking		.655					
	Internet banking requires a lot of mental effort		.733					
	ional banking is a difficult way to conduct banking		.764					
5. Intern transa	et banking is a difficult way to conduct banking ctions		.620					
6. Using	Internet banking can be complicated and frustrating		.609					
Security								
	et banking is unsecured			.586				
2. Intern	et banking offers no receipt on payment			.784				
Trust								
1. Using	an Internet banking is financially secure				.732			
2. I trus privac	t in the ability of an Internet bank to protect my				.819			
3. Î trust	in technology an Internet bank is using				.721			
Third Part	v Concern							
	party may track my bank usage patterns on the					.631		
2. Third the int	party may be able to access my financial details on ernet					.732		
Status								
1. I use l	nternet banking to improve my social status						.688	
2. My de collea	excision to adopt Internet banking is influenced by my gues						.771	
Human Co	ntact							
	ce of human element discourages internet banking							.677
0	o face interaction is important for bank service							.770
% variance		10.00	9.56	6.84	6.71	6.13	5.60	4.23
Cumulativ	e variance	10.00	19.57	26.41	33.13	39.26	44.86	49.08

The table shows the characteristics of the adoption using Factor Analysis.

H1: Adopters and non-adopters differed on the basis of their perceptions of Internet banking. As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as being more compatibility (H1a), more trustworthy (H1b), secure (H1c), more in line with status (H1d).

H2: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as being less difficult (*H2a*), they are less concerned about third party (*H2b*), require less human or physical contact (*H2c*).

EMPIRAL RESULTS

To test the hypotheses, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the means of the seven factors (compatibility, difficulty, security, trust, third party concern, status and human contact) of characteristics of online banking adoption. The means and standard deviations of these factors are presented in the Table 3.

Table 3: A Comparison of Adopters and Non-adopters on the Characteristics of Adoption

	Al	All		Non Adopters		ters
	Mean	std	Mean	std	Mean	std
Adoption characteristics						
Compatibility	3.74	.77	3.60	.81	3.80	.74
Difficulty	2.99	.80	3.04	.73	2.96	.83
Security	2.87	.90	2.98	.76	2.82	.95
Trust	3.39	.87	3.20	.88	3.49	.85
Third Party Concern	3.04	.78	3.03	.75	3.04	.80
Status	3.18	.81	3.13	.77	3.24	.82
Human Contact	3.30	.91	3.52	.99	3.24	.87

The table shows the comparison of the means and standard deviation between adopters and non-adopters.

Note: 5 indicates strongly agree on the likert scale. 1 indicates strongly disagree on the likert scale

Hypotheses Testing

The ANOVA result shows that there were significant differences at the .01 level on trust. On the trust factor, the result shows that adopters had higher mean compared to that of non-adopters, suggesting that non adopters did not trust the Internet banking. The results also show that there were significant differences at the .05 level on compatibility and human contact. As compared to non-adopters, adopters felt that using Internet banking fit into their lifestyles and it was not necessary for human contact when they used services at banks. Thus, these results supported hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 2c. The results show that there were no significant differences on four factors (secure, status, difficulty, and third party concern)

		Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Adoption characteristics						
Compatibility	Between Groups	2.963	1	2.963	.4997	.026*
ι ·	Within Groups	172.005	328	.504		
	Total	181.598	329			
Difficulty	Between Groups	.505	1	.505	.785	.376
·	Within Groups	211.140	328	.644		
	Total	211.645	329			
Security	Between Groups	1.830	1	1.830	2.260	.134
·	Within Groups	265.516	328	.810		
	Total	267.346	329			
Trust	Between Groups	6.098	1	6.098	8.230	.004**
	Within Groups	243.035	328	.741		
	Total	249.133	329			
Third Party Concern	Between Groups	.004	1	.004	.007	.935
·	Within Groups	205.194	328	.626		
	Total	205.198	329			
Status	Between Groups	.460	1	.460	.698	.404
	Within Groups	216.109	328	.659		
	Total	216.569	329			
Human Contact	Between Groups	5.587	1	5.587	6.719	.010*
	Within Groups	272.746	328	.832		
	Total	278.333	329			

Table 4: Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The table shows the statistical significant using ANOVA analysis. Notes: ** significant at p < 0.01, *significant at p < 0.05

Table 5: Comparisons of the Mean Scores on the Characteristics

		Adopter	Non-adopter
		Mean	Mean
Compatib	ility		
	net banking saves my time as compared to traditional banking	3.80	3.59
2. I like	privacy	4.01	4.00
	familiar with technology	3.85	3.79
4. Inter	net banking enables transactions to be conducted at home	3.53	3.50
5. Inter	net banking is compatible with my lifestyle	3.77	3.38
6. I like	sourcing services on the internet	3.85	3.43
7. Inter	net banking provides convenience since it is available 24 hrs	3.84	3.55
Difficulty			
1. Inter	net banking web pages are confusing	2.94	2.81
	g traditional banking is more effective than using internet banking	3.05	3.13
3. Usin	g Internet banking requires a lot of mental effort	2.98	3.04
4. Trad	tional banking is a difficult way to conduct banking transactions	3.96	3.08
5. Inter	net banking is a difficult way to conduct banking transactions	2.88	3.09
6. Usin	g Internet banking can be complicated and frustrating	2.98	3.15
Security			
1. Inte	rnet banking is unsecured	2.84	3.09
	rnet banking offers no receipt on payment	2.99	3.13
Trust			
1. Usi	ng an Internet banking is financially secure	3.42	3.12
	ist in the ability of an Internet bank to protect my privacy	3.49	3.18
	ist in technology an Internet bank is using	3.56	3.30
Third Par	ty Concern		
	rd party may track my bank usage patterns on the internet	3.24	3.12
	rd party may be able to access my financial details on the internet	3.24	3.18
Status			
l. Ius	e Internet banking to improve my social status	3.36	3.10
2. My	decision to adopt Internet banking is influenced by my colleagues	3.17	3.09
Human C	ontact		
	sence of human element discourages internet banking usage	3.16	3.38
	e to face interaction is important for bank service	3.30	3.67

The table shows the comparisons of mean scores on each factor.

Table 6: Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results	
H1a: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Supported	
being more compatibility		
H1b: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Supported	
being more trust.		
H1c: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Not Supported	
being more secure.		
H1d: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Not Supported	
being more in line with status		
H2a: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Not Supported	
being less difficult		
H2b: As compared to non-adopters, adopters rated Internet banking as	Not Supported	
being less concerned about third party		
H2c: As compared to non-adopters, adopters required less human	Supported	
contact		

The table summarized all hypotheses testing.

Using factor analysis, the study found seven factors and it also shows that adopters and non adopters differed in their perception toward compatibility, trust and human contact factors. On these seven factors, the results show statistical significant differences on the adoption between adopters and non-adopters on three factors (compatibility, trust and human contact). We elaborate on these results below.

A. Compatibility

Online banking provides many advantages to both individual consumers and corporate consumers. Some advantages identified by Gurau's study (2002) were the reduced costs in accessing and using the banking services and the increased comfort and time-saving. This study shows that compatibility was also an important attribute for the adoption of online banking. The study indicated that adopters preferred innovations and felt that using e-banking was compatible with their life style. Convenience, twenty four hours availability of the internet banking, and ease of conducting transactions at home were important benefits for internet banking mentioned by adopters. The study shows that adopters agreed that Internet banking was compatible with their lifestyle.

B. Trust

Trust is considered important for the online banking adoption because it can increase the rate of adoption. Rotchanakitumnuai and Speece (2003) used the qualitative approach to examine Thai corporate consumers and their study reported that non-adopters did not trust financial transactions made via internet channels. They also found that non-adopters tended to have negative attitude toward online adoption. The results of this study identified trust as the forth characteristics for the adoption of online banking in UAE. Adopters trusted on both the ability of the banks to protect their privacy and the technology the banks were using, and they also believed that using Internet banking was financially secure. On the other hands, non-adopters perceived online banking as a risk. Security, privacy and technology used for internet banking were the main issues of the trust from non-adopters' perception.

C. Human Contact

In general, human or physical contact is a major element of any service business. There is a contrast between adopters and non-adopters on this factor. It makes sense that customers who use online service were more likely to require less or no physical interaction with the bank. This has been evidenced from previous study (Gurau, 2002). On the other hand, lack of human contact or personal service in e-banking was the main barrier for the online adoption (Mattila, Karjaluoto & Pento, 2003). Bank customers who need face to face interaction are more likely not to adopt online banking. Thus, the absence of this element will discourage bank customers from adopting the internet banking. Thus, adopters and non-adopters differ on this basis. Our study shows that non-adopters considered human or personal contact one of the most important attributes. This could be considered as a limitation or the weakness of the online banking from the non-adopters point of views.

CONCLUSION

This study provides many benefits to bank managers. There are many issues that bank managers should consider for their customers who already had Internet banking accounts. The study shows that these customers were still worried about security and third party concern. Banks should be aware of these issues because customers may be stop using the bank's online services if the customers feel insecure about using Internet banking. Communication will be the key in order to solve these problems. Banks may need to communicate and convince their customers that using online banking is safe and secure. Banks need to build their customers confidence about the technology the banks use for the online service. Media such as brochure or newsletters from the banks may be used to communicate with their customers. The bank' website also helps to inform their customers about the bank's online security system. Banks also use website to alert their customers about any fraud that may happen in the future.

Non-adopters are considered potential customers for banks. Bank managers need to do strategic marketing plan how to capture this segment. Our study shows that non-adopters felt trust was the main issue for them. Banks will need to convince customers that using internet is safe and secure. Trust, security and third party concern were major important attributes from the perception of non-adopters. In this case, banks need build the confidence about Internet banking. The objective of the bank on the security and trust issues must be clear and a first-priority task. The bank must inform its policy about security to its customers through all available media such as bank's website, brochure or newsletters.

Compared to adopters, non-adopters felt that ease of use or the difficulty of using online banking was a problem for them. Non-adopters felt that using internet banking was complicated, difficult to understand, and not easy. Banks should consider training and education program that will help customers overcome the difficulty of using online banking. The banks should employ training and promotion approaches to develop the customers' beliefs in the usefulness and ease of use in the system, which in turn will influence the behavioral intention to adopt Internet banking services. A limited trial period for online banking may be offered to these potential customers.

Another issue raised by the non-adopters was about the bank's webpage. These non-users mentioned that the webpage was confusing and that it was difficult for them to conduct transactions online. A customerfocused approach is needed for adapting the Web site to the skills of users. Appropriate training of the bank personnel and intensive educational programs about online banking may be provided to the nonadopters. Banks also can demonstrate how to use its website online to its potential customers. Also, banks need to focus on the design of their web page to unsure that the Web page is uncomplicated, and friendly or easy to use.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Although this study identified the adoption characteristics of online banking for adopters and nonadopters in UAE, the sample used for the study was from a specific geographic area of UAE. Thus, the generalization of this study is limited. Whether the adoption characteristics of online banking identified from this study will be a norm for those in other parts of the country is an interesting for future research.

This study did not explore much on the issue of demographics of adopters and non-adopters. Whether the demographics of the online users will play an important role in the online banking adoption is interesting. Also, knowing the demographics of both adopters and non-adopters will benefit the financial institutions. Banks can use the demographic data for identifying the target segment for their prospect online users.

An interesting finding was that the perceptions for the issues of security and third party concern from both adopters and non adopters were about the same. Qualitative method such as focus group and the intensive interview should be used in the future research to learn more about the UAE consumers' perceptions toward these issues.

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BIOGRAPHY

Somkiat Mansumitrchai is an assistant professor of marketing at ALHOSN University, Abu Dhabi, UAE. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Texas-Pan American. His works were published in journals such as *International Journal of Commerce and Management*. He also presented the papers at *AMA (American Marketing Association), BALLAS, and SWAFAD* conferences. His research areas are in mergers and acquisitions, strategic alliances, e-commerce and internet banking.

Candy Chiu is an assistant professor in ALHOSN University, United Arab Emirates. She received her Doctorate in Economics from Kyoto University, Japan. Her works were published in Journal of Management & Social Sciences, Silicon Valley Review of Global Entrepreneurship Research Journal, Journal on Asian Studies, and more. She also presented research papers at a number of international conferences around the globe. Her research areas are in automotive industry, entrepreneurship, performance management, regional integration, and M&A.

Both authors made an equal contribution for this article.

SUSTAINING BRANDS WITH CHANGING ENVIRONMENTAL DYNAMICS.

Ali Medabesh, Jazan University Mohammed Ghouse Mohiuddin, Jazan University

ABSTRACT

Today we live in a post-modern civilization. This is supposed to have impacts on the customers' behavior and perception. and, if so, the companies must accustom to this. Simultaneously it can be seen that the service sector is becoming larger and sometimes mature and over-supplied. Further, innovative technology has also increased the possibilities for service companies to offer their service through impersonal communication channels. All this has led to companies adapting a more aggressive approach towards creating sustainable brands with changing environmental dynamics. Consequently, the purpose of the study is to expand a understanding that explains how and in what ways a companies can craft sustainable brands in this ever changing markets.

In order to envisage this process of Sustaining brands with changing environmental dynamics a theoretical concept has been developed on the basis of experts interviews, case studies and market analysis pertaining to post-modernism, leveraging customer information, challenges of today's market dynamics etc. The hypothesis indicates that the prerequisite for a brand relationship to exist is that the customers perceive that there is service quality in the company's offering. This will in turn enable the customer to feel the existence of relationship excellence, which in turn leads to loyalty and consequently, a sustainable relationship. Further, by merging the approach of the resource based view with services marketing to determine what resources in the company that contributes to the customer's perception of high service quality. All the post-modern conditions are identified in the areas of services, FMCG, consumer durables and other related areas and it is understood that the condition loss of commitment represents the major threat to the relationship; therefore, we looked into branding as a enormous strategy to retain customers, if not create new ones.

Re- invention is the mantra: As consumers, we all desire our brands too to change at the same pace as our lives and to constantly evolve to appeal to our evolving needs. In this environment, it is natural to ask what marketers can do to keep their brands continuously significant and meaningful to consumers. A brand can no longer be content with symbolizing trust and therefore, reassuring a consumer that they are purchasing a product of trustworthy quality. When multiple brands can offer trustworthy quality, this is not a compelling enough proposition for any single brand. The only way that a consumer can be made to feel like he has no choice but to try the same brand and repeat the consumption represented by the brand is to ensure the value for money. Brands are no different. Brands like NOKIA and SAMSUNG have to constantly keep re-inventing themselves largely defined by their communication. Indeed as product categories and brands multiply, there is a need for brands to go to the basics and understand or, if necessary, redefine the basic consumer need they are fulfilling and then link their fate to their fulfillment. No brand can ignore the need for re-branding exercise. Indeed, it should be core of brand custodian's agenda. Even a brand which is successful has to keep itself refreshed to ensure that it keeps its constantly evolving consumer base engaged. Therefore, we looked into branding as enormous strategy to sustain competition in this dynamic environment.

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KEYWORDS: Modernism, Dynamics, Re-invention, Commoditization and Globalization.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers all over the world debate that we in this new century live in a Post-modern society. The postmodernism can be seen as a reaction towards the Eras of enlightened and modernism that used science, reason and logic to discard the myths and holy ideas that kept humanity from progressing. This era is, among other things, characterized by the shift in attitude where Production is now considered less important than consumption. It is when consuming a product or a service that the value perceived by the customer is created. Post-modernity tends to focus much more on form and style rather than content. The post-modern citizens also want to experience everything, in the present – "here and now" are key words. When looking explicitly at the market, the conditions in modern industrial societies were mass markets, mass production, mass distribution and homogeneity and standardization.

In an era of hyper competition, commoditization, globalization and rapid technological obsolescence, marketers are under pressure to find new conceptual bases on which to design and carry their marketing programs. The haunting reality is that traditional marketing is not functioning. Strategic managers now see many mass advertising campaigns as losing funds. They perceive sales promotion campaign as boosting sales for the time being but being largely unbeneficial. They experience direct mail campaigns as hardly delivering not more than 1 percent response rate approximately. Their new products and services are fading at a disturbing rate.

There are two answers to the marketing challenges facing today's companies. One is to be acquainted with your customer better and get nearer to them(Customer relationship management). The other is to distinguish your offering through your branding effort so that the offering stands out as significant and superior in value for money to a clear target marketplace.

The supremacy of creative branding is visible to all. We are drawn to McDonalds, NOKIA, Coca Cola, Emirates Airlines, and Gillette. These companies have experienced and learned simultaneously how to make their brands live in customers' minds and hearts.

The essence of branding lies in innovation. Coming out of the shell of product branding, today brand managers are branding every possible things on this earth. The practice of branding is the challenging and changing business environment extends across a wide spectrum from product to companies, to CEOs to celebrities, to the extreme end of religious. Today anything that falls under definition of a common noun can be a brand.

There is an increasing amount of markets that are mature and over-supplied and this saturation means that classic mass marketing actions are less efficient as well as less lucrative. This saturation is most evident in markets providing fast moving consumer products and services. One industry where the effects of post-modernity are clearly visible is the financial industry and banking sector where, among other things, technological changes have made it possible to engage in these more indirect relationships between the companies. Decisions taken by banks will ultimately effect whether relationships can be deemed successful by customers and companies.

Other implications of post-modernity that brand managers are facing are the unpredictable actions and choices of consumers. The freedom of choice and loss of commitment makes it even more important to offer a service that is of great quality and thus, decreases risks of switching to another service provider. Consumers use images in products and services consumed to visualize their own opinions and beliefs. More and more services are being able to use technologies giving access to service round the clock and ensuring that brand promise shall not be tarnished at any cost. Let us see what exactly brand consist of:

BRAND

Brands form an important part of our lives which carry specific meaning for every individual and accepted or rejected based on how well they keep promises. Brands are so grained in our life that we cannot think life without them. Walking down the memory lane (of branding) we can find the English artesian J Wedgwood Building the first modern Business brand.

Few brands transform their customers into brand evangelists. The brand is thus a combination of interaction that collectively differentiates the brands; Organization needs to "think different" that requires them to keep giving people new reasons to choose them. Innovation of itself is not enough. Innovation has to be developed or focused on delivering functional and emotional benefits to customers. A Brand is a set of associations linked to a name, mark, or symbol associated with a product or service. The difference between a name and a brand is that a name doesn't have associations; it is simply a name. A name becomes a brand when people link it to other things. A brand is like a reputation. \

The Coca-Cola brand, for example, has associations including Cola, refreshment, red, the Real Thing. Costa Rica quickly conjures up striking locations, fun, shows, and beautiful seashores. Branding is not a new tool in marketing. Branding does half of the job of the marketing. In a B2C market, a customer realize on brand for quality. Brands are not always a positive; associations can be positive or negative. One time banking giant Global Trust Bank for example, has associations including financial mismanagement, fraud and bankruptcy. Similarly we can find umpteenth No. of examples which developed associations with poor maintenance and lack of effective management.

Branding is much more than attaching a name to an offering. Branding is all about making a certain promise to customers about delivering a fulfilling experience and a level of performance. Therefore, branding requires that everyone in the supply chain –from product development to manufacturing to marketing to sales to distribution- works to carry out that promise. That is what meant by "living the brand." The brand becomes the whole platform for planning, designing and delivering superior value to the whole platform for planning, designing, and superior value to the company's target customers.

Every new business finds it tough to decide how to go about brand building. And this is in fact one of the critical elements in its growth and future prospects. Brand strategy needs careful thought and intensive planning backed with a well-research study of the market and its companies. This is probably the most overlooked and misunderstood part of the launch of your company. The brand needs to be engineered to appeal to your primary targets audience.

Branding begins with an understanding of 4 key things

- (I) your primary target customer
- (II) Your competitors
- (III) Your Product/service mix and
- (IV) Your advantage

To construct the most effective brand, primary target customer should be focused for this it is critical to think customer as a single person, his/her age, sex, education, like, dislike, worries, wants, needs and personality must also be carefully examined. Many business people think that company's' Logo is synonym with brand. In reality the logo is very small portion of the brand efforts during setup phases. Later once your brand has been repeatedly communicated, in multiple ways, with frequency and consistency, the logo can begin to embody the overall brand.

For e.g.: VIRGIN Airlines represents luxury and comfortable journey, Nike's logo (a-k-a the "Swiss") stands for winning, Marlboro represents independence, Rolls Royce as an epitome for luxury, TOYOTA

is associated with dependability and economy.

Your Brand is as complex as you are:

> Your brand is your logo, tagline, message, attitude, comments, behavior, office space, appearance, your executive, sales team and staff reflects it.

 \succ It communicates through your stationary ads, broachers, websites, trade show booths, quality, commitments and choice of words.

- > It is seen in what you promise and proven by what you deliver.
- > It makes itself evident in how you treat your employees, suppliers, stakeholders and customers.
- > It is ultimately what people feel and say about you. Not what you claim about yourself.
- Brands serve a Name or Identity.

SUSTAINING BRANDS

Branding looks easy. NOKIA is a powerful brand. PEPSI and TOYOTA and DISNEY are all distinctive and well known brands. Building brand appears to be straightforward; however it's not a bed of roses. Therefore a Brand manager just needs to come up with a excellent name, an eye-catching logo, and a catchy slogan as well.

In actuality, creating, building and sustaining brands are three of the greatest challenges a brand manager will face. For every PEPSI or LUX, There are dozens and dozens of unsuccessful brands. Even well known and respected brands stumble. The branding graveyard is jam-packed.

Brands have a extraordinary ability to impact the way people view products. Consumers seldom just see a product or service; they distinguish product or service together with a brand. As a result, how they recognize the product is shaped by the brand.

Brand and Perception

Perception, of course matter most- how people perceive something matters far more than a absolute truth. The question generally isn't which product or service is best; the question is which product or service people think best. is MERCEDEZ BENZ the best car in the world? Perhaps so, perhaps not; However many people think so, and perception matters most. The presence of a well known brand will dramatically affect how people view a product or service. If people see a premium brand name on a product, they likely view the item as high quality, exclusive, and expensive. If people see discount name on a product, they will probably perceive the item to be low quality and cheap.

Sustaining a position overtime

Brand positioning refers to the specific, intended meaning for a brand in consumers' minds. More precisely, a brand's positioning articulates the goal that a consumer will achieve by using the brand and explains why it is superior to other means of accomplishing this goal. Once a brand position is well established, focus centers on sustaining the position, in a few instances a brand's frame of reference and point of the difference can be sustained without change. For e.g. Marlboro has not altered its cigarette positioning since the mid -1950's. The Marlboro represents "independence the position is empowerment, which is supported by masculine imagery such as cowboys and race cars. In these cases a critical motivation for using the brands and the context in which it is used have not closed thus it has not been necessary for the brand to change in order to maintain its relevance.

In some cases, however, some modification of the position is needed to sustain a brand over time in challenging marketing environments dynamics. Competitive brand strategies are created based on an implicit understanding of the competitive process. Traditionally, That process is presumed to be driven by

rational buyer: Buyers know what they want, brands compete to satisfy buyers, and competitive advantage arises from meeting consumer needs better, faster, or at a lower rate than competitor.

Two classes of strategies can be used to sustain/enhance a brand position.

Fortifying strategy: The fortifying the brand position, which entails maintaining the same brand and position but flamboyance or pontificating the position constantly is key to sustain. Market pioneers such as, Reebok, Coco-Cola, Levi's, and many others remain the best-selling brands in their categories today. Many pioneers outsell later entrants for years, and sometimes for decades. Empirical research shows that these pioneers are not a typical, but they successfully educate buyers, they adopt the best technology available and they have sufficient funds to build up their brands. One of the most powerful advantages the pioneer enjoys is derived from its impact on how buyer value brand attributes. By establishing the category, in defining the dimensions on which brands compete, and in influencing the importance buyer attach to perceived differences.

Leveraging strategy: This approach involves leveraging where a positioning is used to extend the brand equity to new products. If an established brand cannot readily change its position to accommodate changing customers taste and competition, it needs to sustain the relevance of its already-established position. In most instances, this is achieved by identifying modern ways to represents the brand, For e.g. specially "K" historically positioned itself on the ready-to-eat cereal that offered a healthy way of keeping it, for many years fitness was defined in terms of being slender however, in the face of growing displeasure with the objectification of women, a modern representation of fitness was needed. Especially "K' sustained the fit-functional benefits by redefining it as athletic and active, rather than this. In effect special K's benefit was not changed. But it received a contemporary depiction in order to sustain the brand franchise.

In some instances a contemporary representation requires adjustments or innovation beyond changing the spokesperson and the advertising. It's also requiring change in other elements of the marketing mix (price, product, people, and promotion). A sustained position provides a barrier to competitive antsy. A position may be sustained by fortification of the brand through the development of a modern institution of the brand's position or by lading sustain a brand. Foam more functional to more emotional benefits. Alternatively emerging may be used to sustain a brand. This entails a disciplined broadening of the position or the development of the extensions that shares the brand's position.

NOT TO-DO LIST FOR BRANDS

<u>1. Refusing to let go of the past glory:</u> The majority successful brands fall into this trap of hanging on to themselves and making changes which are merely apologetic. For example Nike was the brand for athletes. The only problem was – it was too narrow a platform and it alienated more potential buyers than those it attracted, i.e. those who were into serious athletic pursuit.

The 'revolution' campaign attempted to broaden the appeal – the ad spoke to women as well as to men, the old as well as the young and local town level athletes as well as world class athletes.

However, it was the 'just do it' campaign that truly communicated to everyone aspiring for a walking or a running shoe. By focusing on fundamental values cherished by world class athletes and morning walkers, or even aspiring morning walkers it established a broadest consumer connection platform it had ever created in its history. But to do that, Nike had to jog past its own history.

2. Brand = Logo + Stationery + Font: Brands include the total customer experience and perception to quality, look, and feel, the word-of-mouth of those who have used the brand and hearsay by all including the planed 'hearsay' media, on-line and off-line interactions within the brand, and the tone and posture of all forms of company sponsored communities for the brand.

3. Not looking beyond the product: Brands are not just about physical experiences. Even those that deliver physical experiences must understand that basic psychological experiences that surround the physical product interactions.

Much of what consumer consume must feed their emotions – their wanting to be acknowledged by their peer group, their need to feel connected with their friends and their yearning for joy and fulfillment. Successful brands focus on these psychological needs surrounding their product consumption.

4. Allowing the cost of re-branding cloud the mind: Many marketers get disheartened by the cost of undertaking a re-branding exercise. What they fail to assess carefully is the opportunity cost of not making their brand relevant to the evolving consumer. It should also be borne in mind that a great rebranding exercise need not be the one that involves huge expenditure. An in-house catalyst or a small specialist brand consultant may well steer a successful re-branding with a much lower payout.

5. Allowing the brand to regress into a commodity: Great brand are protagonists of their category. Starbucks did the redefinition of coffee experience and so did Nike for sneakers. All these brands worked as much to enhance the experience with the brand as they did with product features. Delivery an abstract experience always requires greater attention to detail than does crafting of product features.

6. Keeping the brand width too narrow: A brand benefits by touching its consumers at different touchpoints. This can be done in several ways – brand extensions, co-branding, new sub-brands and entering new product categories with the same brand name can be some ways to achieve this. Introduction of Wills Lifestyle clothing was a very intelligent way to broad – base the equity of Wills brand. Kingfisher's extension from spirits to airlines business has broad-based its basic theme of 'Good times' manifold.

BRANDING OF SERVICES

Brand managers of services frequently find that they have much in common with brand managers of consumer or durable goods. For both, brands serve as information and are very important in customer expectations, which contribute to customer satisfaction, Yet challenging issues arise in the brand management of Hotels, Airlines, Retail outlets, Advertising firms, consulting firms and other service firms.

Earlier, consumer marketing has traditionally had the focus on the single transaction of goods and/or services between companies and consumers. A marketing department was regarded as the last function in the production process of the core offering provided by the company, with a mission to manipulate and tell customers what to purchase. The academic marketing field reacted slower to the importance of services than the society and industry and, therefore, the legitimacy of services marketing was not established until the 1980s.

Services are characterized as intangible in comparison to products and consumption of a service is inseparable from production, which means that services is a process where the consumer and provider interacts. This means that branding of services are inherently relationship-oriented. The relationship orientation gives the company several advantages. A relationship, unlike a single transaction, does not end after the interaction. Instead, it has the possibility to grow and become more intensified. This offers an advantage to the company, since it is today considered a universal truth that retaining customers is less expensive than acquiring new ones, even though it is still important to acquire new customers as well. Successful brand relationships are achieved through high relationship quality. Relationship quality has four main dimensions, which are trust, satisfaction, commitment and conflict (negative). By nurturing these dimensions and thus Creating perceived relationship quality for customers, customers can become loyal and will consequently be engaging in repeated purchases and are less likely to switch to other

service providers. Relationships, if used correctly, offer advantages for customers. Through a relationship, customers can develop and feel trust towards organizations and thus reduce the amount of perceived risk in an interaction. Further, it also offers customers' better opportunities to communicate his/her needs and wants to the organization and consequently this might increase Customer value and satisfaction.

ADVANTAGES

Branding has manifolds benefits for any company, if company is able to develop and sustain a long –term brand relationship. The real value to a company lies in the value they create for their customers and in the value the customers deliver back to the company. Accordingly, it is important to mark that the value does not lie in more information and in more advanced technology. The value lies in the customer knowledge and in how the company uses that knowledge to manage their brand's sustainability.

ADVANTAGES OF BRANDING

- perception of product performance
- Great loyalty and customer retention
- Less vulnerability to competitive marketing actions
- Less vulnerability to marketing crises
- Larger Margins and Higher customer Profitability
- More inelastic consumer Response to price increases
- More Elastic consumer Response to price decreases

MARKETING MEMO: | THE BRAND REPORT CARD The world's strongest brands share 10 attributes:

- 1. The brand excels at delivering the benefits consumer truly desire: do you focus relentlessly on maximizing customer's product and services experiences?
- 2. The brand stays relevant: are you in touch with your customers' tastes, current market conditions, and trends?
- 3. The pricing strategy is based on consumer perceptions of value : Have you optimized price, cost, quality to meet or exceed customer expectation?
- 4. **The brand is properly positioned :** Have you established necessary and competitive points of parity with competitors? Have you established desirable and deliverable points of difference?
- 5. **The brand is consistent:** Are you sure that your marketing programs are not sending conflicting messages?
- 6. **The brand portfolio and hierarchy makes sense:** Can the corporate brand create a seamless umbrella for all the brands in the portfolio? Do you have a brand hierarchy that is well thought out and well understood?

- Greater Trade Cooperation and support
- Increased Marketing Communication Effectiveness
- Possible Licensing Opportunities
- Additional Brand Extension Opportunities
- Lower cost of recruiting customers
- Reduced Costs of sales
- Evaluation of customer profitability
- 7. The brand makes use of and coordinates a full repertoire of marketing activities to build equity: have you capitalized on the unique capabilities of each communication option while ensuring that the meaning of the brand is consistently represented?
- 8. The brand's managers understand what the brand means to consumer: Do you know what customers like and do not like about your brand? have you created detailed, research-driven portraits of your target customers?
- 9. The brand is given proper, sustained support: Are the successes or failures of marketing programs fully understood before they are changed? is the brand given sufficient R&D support?
- 10. **The company monitors sources of brand equity:** Have you created a brand charter that defines the meaning and equity of the brand and how it should be treated? Have you assigned explicit responsibility for monitoring and preserving brand equity?

CONCLUSION

Innovate or Die is the classic mantra of the many branding gurus who are putting abundance of efforts to craft smart strategies to sustain brands with changing environmental dynamics. Eventually the reality of market set up is: Regenerate or degenerate.

Constant evolution of animal species has kept them from being obsolete. And the same holds true for brands that do not desire to degenerate into obsolescence. Brands have to keep evolving continuously and this evolution has to be fuelled by innovation. Brands have to keep innovating about new ways to communicate with consumers and to build long-term relevance.

Apple, these days is an innovation factory and the output of this innovation factory has been manifesting itself through a series of life-changing and category redefining products from Apple. IPod reinvented the category of music dissemination industry. Apple's recent reinvention of phone, or rather I-phone's bundling of a mobile phone, an iPod with an in-hand internet browsing device which can deliver emails, net surfing, searches of texts maps in small light-weight format has redefined three disparate categories. While Apple's introduction of I-phone is almost revolutionary introduction, an evolutionary path of redefining current brands can also yield dividends.

Procter & Gamble's continuous efforts to embrace changes and indeed deploy these changes to the advantages of its brands in more static and mature product categories has given a remarkable momentum to the relationship and relevance of its brands with the customer. For example, while other FMCG companies generally viewed large format stores as a formidable barrier to their relationship with the consumers, P & G worked with these stores (such as Wal-Mart) to maximize the profitability of the sorts while it roped their support to launch joint initiatives for P & G brands sold through these outlets. More recently, P & G has led project Apollo a project aimed at understanding the impact of multiple media formats and touch-points on brand purchase. Thus, it has embraced the changes such as media proliferation and media fragmentation through knowledge building and daring to measure what has largely remained unmeasured so far.

The essence is simple whether you are a high tech Apple company or a basic necessity provider P & G, constantly innovate to invigorate your brand offering. Not doing so will not only hurt your top lines, it may inflict a far more irreversible damage to your brand that of slowly becoming irrelevant to its consumers.

Brands create relationship. What kind of relationships exists between companies and customers and how are these built?" is answered by identifying the different relationship builders, forming personal and impersonal relationships.

Regarding the impersonal relationships, these are brands and technological relationships also supported by the some service company resources such as the personal relationships. The brand creates the impersonal relationship through ensuring credibility and reliability, which determines the level of trust and satisfaction important for the creation of long term brand relationships.

All relationships in the service context are arguably dependent on the level of service quality in the interaction. In order to build long term relationships, it is necessary that customers perceive that the quality cohere as much as possible with their expectations or else negative feeling will occur that does not create the satisfaction necessary to build a sustainable long term brand relationship.

Further, we see that the customers' loss of commitment represents the biggest threat to a brand relationship between a company and their customers since it increases the pressure on the company to fulfill customer expectations in order to survive in this cut throat competition.

In order to counter the main problem "how can a company, in the post-modern context, create sustainable brand relationship with their customers and how could the offering be delivered?" it is necessary to give a more extensive explanation of exactly how the relationship builders are linked and can contribute to the long-term success of a company. The main assets of brands are awareness, loyalty, perceived quality and brand association. Therefore, the company resources and capabilities must be developed in order to provide a excellent offering and a great image. Looking more closely, the issues and links identified as important within/between each group of resources are:

- Firm organizational structure
- Firm organizational culture
- Firm brand
- Employees . Technology . Customer .Knowledge

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr.Ali Medabesh is Vice Dean of College Of Business Administration at Jazan University, he can be contacted at College of Business Administration Jazan University (Ministry of Higher Education) 4421 - Arrawabil, Unit No. 6, Jazan- 82822-6561 Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Email: alim@jcba.edu.sa

Dr. Mohammed Ghouse Mohiuddin, Chairman, Department of Marketing & E-Commerce, College Of Business Administration at Jazan University, he can be contacted at College of Business Administration Jazan University (Ministry of Higher Education) 4421 - Arrawabil, Unit No. 6, Jazan-82822-6561 Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Email: mghouse@jcba.edu.sa

CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN THE NIGERIAN FINANCIAL SECTOR: THE EFFICACY OF INTERNAL CONTROL AND EXTERNAL AUDIT

Babalola Adeyemi, Crawford University Adesoji Adenugba, Crawford University

ABSTRACT

Poor corporate governance has become a common lexicon in the Nigerian financial sector. Arguably, the crisis that rocked the sector between 1994 and 2003 are clear testimonies of bad corporate governance due partly to weak internal controls as exhibited in various financial firms and the unprofessional attitude of some of the external auditors. The main thrust of this paper is to determine the efficacy of sound internal controls as checks and balances on the spurious activities of the board and management of the firms. It is also intended to justify the expected role of the external audit in ensuring good corporate governance. For the purpose of this study, secondary sources were utilized and in analyzing the data collected, descriptive statistics was adopted. The principal results showed that weak internal controls were evident in the sector due to the overbearing influence of the chairman in family-controlled businesses and the existence of rubber stamp board. It was also observed that the external auditors and the inspectors from the regulatory authorities have been compromised. Consequently, the authors of this paper opine that a total overhaul of the internal control system within the sector and a visibly independent external audit will be required to curb the excesses of the board and management and guarantee sustainable governance.

JEL: G34

KEYWORDS: corporate governance

INTRODUCTION

Recent failures/collapse of high profit institutions around the world such as Enron, Parmalat, WorldCom, Barings Bank to mention just a few have shown that no company can be too big to fail. A common trend that ran through these monumental failures was poor corporate governance culture, exemplified in poor management, fraud and insider abuse by both management and board members, poor asset and liability management, poor regulations and supervision among others (Babalola,2010).

The financial institutions constitute a critical sector of any economy. Since the aftermath of the financial crisis, in the early 1990's, the stability of the financial system has assumed a greater focus as a key objective of economic policy in Nigeria. Poor corporate governance has been identified as one of the major factors in virtually all known instances of financial sector distress. Moreover, most of the Nigerian financial institutions have been inundated with weak internal controls thus constituting serious dangers to the existence and smooth running of these firms. It is also a known fact that the external auditors who are supposed to generate a true and fair report about their clients have failed to live up to expectations. Even at the global level, the celebrated cases of Enron and WorldCom which had Arthur Andersen, a leading auditing firm as their external auditors have become reference points. A closer scrutiny of the incidences that led to the total collapse of these giant United States of American corporate bodies certainly would have its root in poor internal controls and culminating in compromised external auditing.

The Nigerian financial sector has its crisis traceable to a number of factors chiefly among which were capital inadequacy, lack of transparency huge non-performing loans. In addition to this weak internal

controls and ineffective/compromised external audit also played a very significant role in the crisis that enveloped the sector especially from the early 1990's up till mid-2004. Consequently, these crisis led to the demise of 36 banks and other numerous non-bank financial institutions which were mostly Finance Houses and Mortgage Finance. The degree of the soundness of the internal controls and the reliability of the reports of the external auditors of these institutions to a greater extent determines their efficacy.

The objectives of the study therefore are to determine the efficacy of sound internal controls within the financial sector, to assess whether these controls can serve as checks and balances to the activities of the board and management and to identify the expected role of the external audit in ensuring good corporate governance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Dayton (1984) corporate governance is the processes, structures and relationships through which the board of directors oversees what the executives do. He further says that it is what the executives do to define and achieve the objectives of the company. Shleifer and Vishny (1997) define corporate governance by stating that' it deals with the ways in which suppliers of finance to corporations assure themselves of getting a return on their investment. A similar concept is suggested by Caramanolis-Cotelli (1995) who regards corporate governance as being determined by the equity allocations among insiders (including executives, chief executive officers (CEO's), directors or other individuals (corporate or institutional investors who are affiliated with management) and outside investors. According to Adedipe (2004), corporate governance is a term that is commonly used to describe the way business organizations are managed. The organizations may be for profit or not-for-profit.

Sulaiman (2003) observes that it is the framework for accountable decision-making as well as the structure that turns decisions into actions in organizations. He sees corporate governance as the combination of processes, structures and relationships through which business corporations are directed and controlled. Oyediran (2003) posits that corporate governance is the way and manner in which the affairs of companies are conducted by those charged with that duty. In Nigeria, the governance of a limited liability company is the responsibility of its board of directors. Dozie (2003) believes that corporate governance is characterized by transparency, accountability, probity and the protection of stakeholders rights. He further observes that corporate governance refers to the manner in which the power of a corporation is exercised in the management of its total portfolio of economic and socio resources with the aim of increasing shareholders' value and safeguarding the interest of other stakeholders in the context of its corporate mission.

Internal Controls

These are the responsibility of line management who must determine the level of risks they need to get their banks involved and must assure themselves that the combination of earnings, capital and internal controls are sufficient to compensate for the risk exposures. Supporting functions such as accounting, internal audit, risk management, credit review, compliance and legal, should independently monitor the control processes to ensure, that they are effective and that risks are measured appropriately (Unegbu, 2004) Sulaiman (2004) observes that the role of internal controls is to ensure that appropriate financial, operational and compliance controls are in place. It is the board's responsibility to report on the effectiveness of these controls. Lack of internal controls often causes fraudulent activities to go unchecked and inevitably result in the downfall of the organisation. The internal control function, which is invariably linked to the risk management function, is associated with the internal audit division in most organizations.

Internal Audit, Audit Process and Internal Control

According to Unegbu (2004), it is a key element of management's responsibility to validate the strength of a bank's internal controls. In the limited cases in which the function must be outsourced, the best practice is to avoid using the same firm for the external audit. Unegbu (2004) further observes that Nigerian laws and regulations hold boards of directors responsible for ensuring that their banks have an effective audit process and internal controls that are adequate for the nature and scope of their businesses. The reporting lines of the internal audit function should be such that the information that directors receive is impartial and not unduly influenced by management. There have been cases where CBN supervision reports sent to the Chairman of the bank was received by the CEO and was hidden from the Chairman, it was only discovered when the bubble busted.

External Auditors

Imala (2004) opines that the role of auditors is vital to the corporate governance process. According to him, the effectiveness of the Board and the Senior Management can be enhanced by:

- (i) Recognizing the importance of the audit process and communicating this importance throughout the bank.
- (ii) Taking measures that enhance the independence and stature of auditors.
- (iii) Utilizing, in a timely and effective manner, the findings of auditors.
- (iv) Ensuring the independence of the Head or Chief Internal Auditor through reporting directly to the board or the Board Audit Committee.
- (v) Engaging external auditors to ascertain the effectiveness of internal control.
- (vi) Requiring timely correction by management of problems identified by the auditors.

To strengthen the above processes, the CBN now holds the audit meetings with the external auditors of banks so as to not only intimate them of the terrain and the CBN's expectations, but to also remind them of their independence.

Oyediran (2004) contends that another area of importance over which there are many issues of concern and debate, is the appointment and remuneration of external auditors. The Enron debacle had generated a lot of debate world-wide, rather surprisingly, even in Nigeria, perhaps because of that company's widely publicized in the generation of electricity specifically to boost supply to Lagos-based industrial consumers. Oyediran (2004) further notes that the auditor of a holding company is, under Nigerian law and laws of most industrialized countries, responsible for the true and fair view of the consolidated accounts. It cannot shelve this responsibility on to the shoulders of the auditors of the subsidiary companies. For this reason, Section 367 of the Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA) 1990 empowers the auditor of the holding company to demand information from subsidiaries and enjoins the directors of any holding company to take all reasonable steps to obtain from its subsidiaries any information or explanations required by its auditor.

The reason for these provisions could be traced to past experience in the United Kingdom from whose legislation they were copied. The easiest way to ensure that no one outside a coterie of managers knows what is going on is to have different auditors from the subsidiary companies and the holding company. It is very dangerous for the auditors of a holding company who does not audit the subsidiary companies in which a substantial percentage of the group assets or results are held or generated.

Audit Committee

According to Oyediran (2004) no major industrial country has yet legislated for the creation of Audit Committee, although, in most such countries, the existence of audit committee of publicly-quoted

companies is regarded as an essential requirement of good corporate practice. Nigeria was first in legislating for audit committee and did so as far back as 1990. Unfortunately, the legislation-set-up audit committee, which are in no way similar to those existing or being proposed in the major industrial countries.

The CAMA 1990 states that a public limited liability company should have an Audit Committee (maximum of six members) of equal representation of three members each representing the management/directors and shareholders) in place. The members are expected to be conversant with basic financial statements. The committee has the following objectives:

- (i) Increasing public confidence in the credibility and objectivity of published financial statement.
- (ii) Assisting the directors, especially the non-executive directors, in meeting their responsibility of financial reporting.
- (iii) Strengthening the independent position of a firm's external auditors by providing an additional channel of communication.

The committee is expected to perform the following functions:

- (i) Provision of oversight functions on effective internal control, reliable financial reporting, which must comply with regulatory requirement and corporate code of conduct. This function is being exercised on behalf of shareholders.
- (ii) Review not only external auditors' reports but also, the report of the internal auditor.
- (iii) Maintain a constructive dialogue with external auditors and the board in order to enhance the credibility of financial disclosures. (Kajola, 2008)

Transparency and Disclosure of Information

Sanusi (2002), posits that disclosure and transparency are key pillars of a corporate governance frame work, because they provide all the stakeholders with the information necessary to judge whether or not their interest are being served. He sees transparency and disclosure as an important adjunct to the supervisory process as they facilitate banking sector market discipline. For transparency to be meaningful, information should be accessible, timely, relevant and qualitative. Oluyemi (2005) opines that the quality of information provided by banks is fundamental to corporate governance in a consolidated banking system like that of Nigeria. Transparency would enable the financial market, depositors and other stakeholders to form a fair view of a bank's value and to develop sufficient trust in the quality of the bank and its management. The more transparent the internal workings of the bank, the more difficult it will be for managers and controlling shareholders to expropriate banks assets or mismanage the bank. The current information disclosure requirements in the industry are grossly inadequate to effectively bridge the information asymmetry between banks and investing public in a consolidated banking system.

Unegbu (2003) posits that corporate governance is based on the premise that corporate officers operate best when they are held to account for what they do. Information must be concise and brief, information overload tend to divert attention from weightier matters, thus, leading to inaction. Information obtained timely will lead to disclosure of things not very obvious. Bavly (1999) contends that disclosure is at the heart of accountability. According to Anameje (2007), transparency and disclosure of information are key attributes of good corporate governance which banks must cultivate with new zeal so as to provide stakeholders with the necessary information to judge whether their interest are being taken care of. Sanusi (2003) opines that lack of transparency undermines the ethics of good corporate governance and the prospect for effective contingency plan for managing systemic distress.

Auditors and Corporate Governance

Auditors are given wide powers to enable them to detect wrong doings by the management .They are expected to be independent of the company and report on the company objectively. In fact, auditors can only play their role effectively if they are independent (Peel and O'Donnell, 1995). The auditors are able to remove management's biasness with respect to the presentation of the company's financial information (Carmichael, 1977).They can report to what extent the company practices corporate governance. They are expected to play a very significant role in maintaining good corporate governance (All, 1999). They must ensure that good corporate governance are adopted (Anandarajah, 2001). They must act as the guardian of the company's financial integrity. This is because an effective and objective audit is an essential part of good corporate governance (Low, 2002). This is to ensure that the legal position is in tandem with international standards in the realm of corporate governance. Notably, corporate governance is a key factor for institutional investors in deciding whether to invest in any company (McKinsey and Co, 2002).

Much emphasis is placed on auditors in the context of corporate governance because in most cases, auditors will be the first person to spot corporate exploitation. This is due to the nature of auditing function and the purpose of auditing company accounts. It can also be a case of the only person who is aware of the exploitation besides the wrongdoers. Thus, in many cases the auditors choose to fail to detect the wrongdoing at the expense of their duties and obligations. Enron, the Texas-based energy trading company is the first scandal which shook up the auditing profession although there were many cases involving auditors since the 18th century. Enron has caused a crisis to the confidence in auditors and the reliability of financial reporting (Holm & Laursen, 2007). The audit quality and the independence of the auditors were questionable (Davis, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of this study, secondary sources were heavily relied upon, Articles from learned Journals seminar papers, working paper series, text books and other relevant materials were also Consulted. Both qualitative and quantitative findings were arrived at and simple percentages were adopted for analyzing the data collected.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

According to Sanusi (2002), the primary responsibility of keeping individual banks sound lies with each bank's owners, managers, and the board of directors. Together, they must establish a framework of internal controls and practices to govern the operations of the bank and ensure that it functions in a safe and sound manner. Poor internal governance has been identified as a major factor in virtually all known instances of banking unsoundness. Nnanna (2004) opines that the primary responsibility for maintaining financial sector stability lies largely with the owners, directors, and managers of the financial institutions. They must work together to establish a framework of internal controls and practices to govern the operations of the institutions as well as ensure that the institutions function in a safe and sound manner. The internal control systems must include accounting procedures that adhere to generally accepted standards. Poor internal governance is a serious factor in many instances of unsoundness of financial institutions. One basic requirement is that persons who control and manage the business of banking must be men of integrity, above board, trustworthy and must possess appropriate skills and experience The external audit carried out by the auditors of the financial institutions compromise their reports. The consequence of all of these is that so much non-performing loans were being recorded.

Non-Performing Loans

Insider abuse by bank owners, directors and management staff is another factor which exacerbated loan defaults in some weak banks. Insiders in those banks obtained loans and advances without collaterals in contravention of banking regulations. State Government banks were no exception. The banks were used as extension of the owning states treasuries. Management staff in the weak banks has also been found to collude with customers to defraud the banks by granting loans and advances without adequate collaterals. Sometimes, the loan applications were poorly appraised with inadequate documentation. Such loans go bad so easily leading to poor risk asset quality. The widespread incidence of insider related credits dealt a serious blow to a good number of the banks as shown in the table below.

S/N	Bank	Ratio of Insider Loans to Total Loans (%)	Ratio of Non-Performing Loans to Total Loans (%)
1	Financial Merchant Bank	66.9	99.5
2	Kapital Merchant Bank	50.0	96.2
3	Alpha Merchant Bank	55.0	90.0
4	United Commercial Bank	81.0	90.0
5	Republic Bank	64.9	98.0
6	Commercial Trust Bank	55.9	100.0
7	Commerce Bank	52.0	86.9
8	Credite Bank	76.0	98.3
9	Prime Merchant Bank	80.7	100.0
10	Group Merchant Bank	77.6	94.5
11	Nigeria Merchant Bank	99.9	95.9
12	Royal Merchant Bank	69.0	98.0

Table I : Extent of Insider Loans to Selected Banks in Liquidation

Source: NDIC Annual Report (Various Years).

The data presented in the table above showed that there were gross insider abuses resulting in insider related credits as well as huge non-performing loans. The cause of this can be traced to poor internal controls and unreliable audit reports from the external auditors which failed to reveal the true position of the risk assets of the listed banks from time to time.

CONCLUSION

The study carried out an examination of the efficacy of internal controls and external audit in corporate governance. It observed the extent to which both of them have had impact on corporate governance practices. The study noted that both internal controls and external audit are to a large extent accountable for bad corporate governance. Secondary data were collected and simple statistics were used to express the quantitative aspect of the data. These were meant to determine the efficacy of sound internal controls on the spurious activities of the board and management of the firms. They were also intended to justify the expected role of the external audit in ensuring good corporate governance. The result showed that weak internal controls were evident in the sector due to the overbearing influence of the chairman, particularly, in family-controlled firms and the existence of rubber stamp board. It was also observed that the external auditors and the inspectors from the regulatory authorities are usually compromised. The financial sector generally lacked sound internal controls and highly reliable external audit which would have served as checks and balances for bad corporate governance practices. This is because the firms breed lack of transparency, non-disclosure of information and insider related credits.

There is the need for a total overhaul of the internal control systems and visibly independent external audit within the sector that will act as checks and balances to the board and management and also curb their excesses. The regulatory authorities therefore must endeavor to enforce an enduring corporate governance system that will frown at weak internal controls and non-dependable audit report.

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BIOGRAPHY

Mr Adeyemi Babalola is a Lecturer I at the Crawford University. He is of the Department of .Accounting and Finance, College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University .Kilometre 8 Atan-Agbara Road, P M B 2001, Igbesa, Ogun State, Nigeria. His area of interest is . Financial Management and he is currently a Ph.D candidate at the Obafemi Awolowo . University, Ile- Ife. His Email address is babalolaadeyemi@tahoo.com

Mr Adesoji Adenugba is a Lecturer at the Crawford University. He is of the Department of Accounting and Finance, College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University Kilometre 8 Atan-Agbara Road, P M B 2001, Igbesa, Ogun State, Nigeria. His areas of interest include International Finance, and Comparative Banking among others. His Email address is <u>adenugbaadesojiadetunji@yahoo.com</u>

IMPLICATIONS OF MICROFINANCING ON THE ECONOMY: THE NIGERIAN CASE

Babalola Adeyemi, Crawford University Adesoji Adenugba, Crawford University

ABSTRACT

Commercial banks traditionally lend to medium and large scale enterprises considered creditworthy but avoid dealing with the microenterprises because of their relatively, high associated costs and risks. However, microfinance institutions (MFIs) have, therefore, become the main source of funding microenterprises in developing countries. The main purpose of this study is to establish the funding options open to microenterprises in the country and the extent to which these have been accessed. It is also meant to assess the rate of growth of these enterprises and the factors accountable for this, especially, in the last ten years. The study also covered the funding challenges facing this subsector which include persistent refusal of commercial banks to finance microenterprises, the need to effectively implement the policy framework that would regulate and standardize MFIs operations, assessing medium to long term sustainable commercial sources of fund to mention just a few. Simple descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data collected for the study. The authors are of the view that separation of ownership and management and a strict compliance with the Micro Finance Regulatory and Supervisory Framework will further enhance the activities of these firms and ultimately impact positively on the economy.

JEL: G21

KEYWORDS: Microenterprises, Funding, Microfinance,, Commercial Banks,

INTRODUCTION

Micro enterprises play a significant role in the economic growth of most communities and economies in developed and developing nations. Micro enterprises have also tended to be a strategy in inner-city communities of both developed and developing economies to promote economic development and also to alleviate poverty and social costs such as food stamps and welfare. These enterprises also assist in developing inner-city neighborhoods by creating jobs and a return on investment for entrepreneurs (Schreiner< 2001). A micro enterprise business is a small business with usually five or fewer employees that require less than \$35,000 to start and is too small to qualify for services offered typically by major commercial financial institutions. Typically, these enterprises are informally run businesses involved primarily in retail and service activities. Most of these enterprises have tended to be looked at from a development or poverty alleviation perspective rather than as entrepreneurial activities and potentially growing businesses. Micro enterprises may be further segregated into survival micro enterprises, which include low skilled, low cost as compared to entrepreneurial micro enterprises, which occupies skilled labor, technical knowledge, and greater use of capital. (Shaw, 2004).

Robust economic growth cannot be achieved without putting in place well focused programmes to reduce poverty through empowering the people by increasing their access to factors of production, especially credit. The latent capacity of the poor for entrepreneurship would be significantly enhanced through the provision of microfinance services to enable them engage in economic activities and be more self-reliant, increase employment opportunities, enhance household income, and create wealth (CBN,2005). Microfinance is about providing financial services to the poor who are traditionally not served by the conventional financial institutions. Three features distinguish microfinance from other formal financial

While sufficient evidence and analyses of micro financing, development, and training programs exist, there is a paucity of research that examines the financial and non-financial challenges of the inner-city micro enterprise owners. While studies have been conducted that indentify micro enterprise programs this paper explores the barriers experienced by these entrepreneurs in terms of their potential for long-term business success and determine owner's level of financial dependence and success factor. There is a lack of systematic information available to determine how these micro enterprises got established, how they perform, what their financial and non-financial requirements are, and what their current challenges are like in the inner-city community of Buffalo, New York.((Arup, 2011)

However, in Nigeria, the formal financial system provides services to about 35% of the economically active population while the remaining 65% are excluded from access to financial services. These 65% are often served by the informal financial sector, through Non-Governmental Organization-microfinance institutions (NGO-MFIs), moneylenders, friends, relatives, and credit unions. The implication of this is that most of the funds channelled to microenterprises financing come from the unofficial financial segment of the economy which may not be as much as it should have been if the funds had come from the commercial banks and community banks (CBN, 2005).

Notably, the two principal functions of commercial banks are to accept deposits from their customers and to grant them credit upon requests if found qualified for such a loan. Banks generally prefer to give out loans to customers that can provide acceptable securities to back up these facilities. Since loans are risk assets, commercial banks are often very careful and cautious, hence, they would not ordinarily embark on granting frivolous loans. In addition, banks also prefer giving short term loans to their customers because most of their deposits are short-tenored. By share tradition, they borrow short and to avoid assets and liabilities mis-match, they would want to lend short. However they are compelled by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) to go into medium and long term lending in order to fulfil the quantum of credits to the real sectors of the Nigerian economy. Such loans are in all cases backed by substantial collateral to avoid risks of loan losses. Commercial banks to all intent and purposes, shy away from granting naked loans to any individual or sector of the economy.

Microenterprises therefore, usually, are individuals who are engaged in micro businesses but lack the funding. They look up to financial institutions for loans but because they cannot provide the securities required to back up these loans, they are often denied such facilities. Consequently, micro financing institutions have become the main source of funding microenterprises. This is very common in developing countries because it is seen as a means of growing the economy from the micro level. Because banks and other financial institutions run away from such credits there are challenges to the options open to microenterprises to finance their businesses. This, consequently affect the expansion of microenterprises in particular and the growth of the economy in general (Osuji, 2005). The objectives of the study therefore are to establish the funding options open to microenterprises in the country, to determine the extent to which these have been accessed, to assess the rate of growth of these enterprises and the factors accountable for this and to identify the funding challenges facing the sector

An Overview of Microfinance Sector and Activities

According to the Central Bank of Nigeria (2005), over the years, successive governments in Nigeria have made several attempts to address the issue of access to finance by poorer Nigerians for micro and small scale economic activities. Efforts have included programmes such as the Agricultural Development Programmes (ADP), Rural Banking Schemes, the national Economic Reconstruction Fund, National Directorate of Employment (NDE), the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Better Life for Rural Women, Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) as well as National

Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP). In addition, several Development Finance Institutions, which could amongst other functions, provide additional funding for institutions engaged in microfinance have been established. These include the Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (NIDB), the Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry (NACI), Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) and the Federal Mortgage Bank (MFB). Most recently, the Small and Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme (SMEEIS). Fund was created to provide resources for small and medium industries.

The Central Bank of Nigeria (2005) further observes that unfortunately, most of these programmes have at best recorded limited success in securing wide access to sustainable micro credit as a critical instrument for growth and poverty reduction. A CBN survey of MFIs in 2001 identified 160 registered MFIs in Nigeria. Their operations appeared to have grown significantly in the last decade in terms of size, branch expansion, staffing, savings and credit levels. Ninety-six institutions that responded to the CBN survey had between them savings of about N99.4 million and outstanding credit of about N649.6 million. I have no doubt that these figures are much higher today. Clearly there are significant business transactions in the sector and yet we also know that much of Nigeria's microfinance needs are still not met and that microfinance needs are high and continue to increase. MFIs still continue to be constrained by weak access to funding sources. The additional liquidity provided in the banking sector by the soon-to-be completed bank consolidation process, can be capitalized upon, within the framework of the new policy for microfinance to enhance increased activities in this area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Osuji (2005), microenterprises usually take the form of family businesses in which quite often, the founding family members is the sole staff. They operate mainly in the informal sector and often have no serious plans to expand beyond their existing sizes, although some of them have growth orientation. In most cases, the initial capital is sourced from the personal savings of the promoter. Access to formal financing is not a major contemplation or priority as it is very difficult and sometimes inadvisable, given the existing stage of the enterprise. In most cases also, the owner of a microenterprise is poor, though a number of such businesses have rich owners. This is why microenterprises are generally considered as the businesses of the poor. However, it is not a preserve of the poor to set up microenterprises. The rich also do but that is often only when the rich are motivated by factors other than returns to themselves.

There is no limit to the extent to which microfinance can be conceptualized. According to Olaitan (2005), microfinance is the provision of credit savings, repositories and other financial services to low-income earners or poor households to create or expand their economic activities to improve their standard of living. The concept of microfinance was examined and defined as small-scale financial services-primarily, credit and savings- provided to people who farm or fish or herd; who operate small enterprises or microenterprises where goods are produced, recycled, repaired or sold; who provide services; who work for wages or commissions; who gain income from renting out small amounts of land, vehicles, draft animals, or machinery and tools; and to other individuals and groups at the local levels of developing countries both rural and urban (Oluyombo,2007).

Microfinancing has been described as the provision of financial services to low income or poor people including self- employed (Ledgerwood,1998). It refers generally to the provision of small scale financial services (Gulli,1998). Micro-financing is the provision of both credit and savings services to low income clients. It can also be described as the most realistic and vital channel for financing the poor (Osuji,2005). According to Eluhaiwe (2005) microfinance is the provision of thrift,credit and other financial services and product in very small amount to the poor to enable them raise their income level and improve their standard of living. This is based on the belief that the goals of microfinance have been

poverty reduction and accessibility to market. These appear to be the major contribution of microfinance to the achievement of development objectives.

Microfinance Activities

Babalola (2009) observes that microfinance activities cover a broad range which includes the following: Financial Services: These include the provision of small loans, usually for working capital, informal appraisal of borrowers, investment and business plans; access to repeat and larger loans based on debt capacity, repayment performance, and business performance, streamlined loan disbursement and monitoring and secure savings products. Microfinance loans are small loans granted to microenterprises by financial intermediaries on the basis of the borrower's cash flow. These loans are typically unsecured and charge market-determined interest rates, enabling microfinance institutions to cover cost of funds, operating costs and various risks as well as generate some profit margins.

Non-Financial Services: Many Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and microfinance institutions include non- financial services such as literacy and numeracy training, health and nutrition education, and other social services into their range of services, usually on a subsidized basis. Business Development Services: This is a growing sub-field within micro-enterprises development. Business development services include activities such as business plans development, assistance in developing financial statements and other activities related directly to business performance. Microfinance, therefore has evolved into global industry premised on an assumption that the poor can, and will, save and that such savings can be part of a broader economic development approach intended to support low-income, financing viable enterprises.

The Role of Microfinance in Poverty Reduction

According to Rutherford (2000), access to microfinance is very important because it enables the poor to create, own and accumulate assets and smoothen consumption. Annan (2003), observe that " sustainable access to microfinance helps alleviate poverty by generating income, creating families to obtain health care and empowering people to make the choice that best serve their needs. Together, we can and must build inclusive financial sectors that help people improve their lives". Microfinance is unique among development interventions because it can deliver benefits to the poor on a large and permanent basis. Microfinance institutions that are well-managed had provided financial services to the poor on a sustained way with or without donor support. In additions, microfinance allows the poor to protect diversity and increase their sources of income, the essential path out of poverty and hunger. The ability to borrow a small amount of money to take advantage of business oppourtunities, to pay school fees or to bridge cash flow gap can be a first step in breaking the cycle of poverty (Littlefield, Modruch and Hashemi, 2003).

Osuji (2005) believes that lack of access to finance is fundamental to the inability of members of the informal sector to offer appropriate response to the rapidly changing economic conditions around them. They cannot muster the financial muscle that encapsulates the flexibility and freedom necessary for every viable economic entity to identify and exploit business opportunities in the market place. The result is that they run around in a vicious circle of poverty, watching opportunities, the ones they are able to recognize, go past them. According to Christen, Rhyme and Vogel (1995), microfinance is the sure way to assist economic agents to survive. It does this in several ways including but not limited to the following:

- (1) Sustaining the poor members of society in their self employment
- (2) Enabling the poor to increase their outputs of goods and services
- (3) Reducing general levels of poverty by helping to direct investment capital to areas of greatest need, among others.

Akanji (2007) opines that microfinance programme has been an imperative to alleviating poverty. According to the author, a small number of highly effective microfinance programmes have demonstrated that low-income clients can use small loans productivity, repay them back fully and on time. When given reason to do so, can and are willing to pay high real interest rates for their loans, and often needs savings services as much as or more than credit services. Although there are formal and informal modes of extending micro credit to the poor, the informal approach has been the more potent especially in developing economies like Nigeria. The Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are an example of an informal model. They are usually gender specific and sectionally motivated. These are farmers union, trade union, women group, etc. The NGOs have been involved in providing microfinance services to any of these groups.

Another good example of an informal model is 'Esusu'. This is a revolving loan scheme in Nigeria. It operates like an informal micro-credit programme. The group formed to operate the revolving scheme are voluntarily. Members make fixed contributions of money at regular intervals. At each interval, one member collects the entire contribution from all. Every member takes a turn until the cycle is completed, and then it starts again. For people who take their turn late, esusu functions as a savings mechanism. The esusus are very strong programmes that have assisted the target group to alleviate poverty, particularly among market women in rural/urban market. (Akanji, 2007)The formal model, on the other hand, is built around formal institutions such as the commercial banks, community banks, etc, whose efforts in purveying credit to the poor had not been successful. The reasons for their failure could be traced to their limited knowledge of the poor and no closer relationship between the formal and the informal institutions. The federal government on her own part has attempted with several micro-credit programmes to allievate poverty in Nigeria. Such programmes include Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) is the foremost poverty alleviation agency created by Obasanjo Administration. The programme perceived microfinance as the provision of credit, savings and other financial services to micro entrepreneurs and low income borrowers. Under the NAPEP's microfinance co-ordination, people typically thought of as beneficiaries are regarded as participants because they are given a strong role to build co-operatives, savings and relationships with formal financial intermediaries for sustainable participation in the economic development process. Participants must belong to co-operatives where emphasis is placed on savings and sustainable economic activity.

METHODOLOGY

The sources of data were both primary and secondary in nature. The population for the study was the entire microenterprises in Nigeria which are numerous. In order to have a sample size, representative of the study population, the South West, one of the six geo-political zones, was selected. To further narrow down the scope, two highly urbanized.cities from the zone, Lagos and Ibadan were selected. A total number of 100 microenterprises were selected randomly from Lagos and Ibadan at 60 and 40 considering the population of the two cities respectively. Of the two cities, Lagos is more of a commercial city than Ibadan. The research design adopted was structured questionnaire and these were administered on the 100 respondents selected from both cities. From these number, a total of 84 were filled and returned. The responses were subjected to statistical test by using Likert scale to measure them and these were analyzed by the simple mean. For the secondary data, learned journals, textbooks, Central Bank of Nigeria publications to mention just a few, were consulted.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The Table 1 shows that the bulk of the funds supplied for microcredits come from the informal sector.such as the non-governmental organisations and the newly created microfinance banks. The Savings and Loans Associations as well as the Credit Unions also play reasonable roles in funding

microenterprises. However, the commercial banks have been very skeptical and cautious in granting microcredits.. This is because such facilities are usually naked and may be irrecoverable. The microenterprises are not likely to be in a position to provide the requisite collateral. Thus microenterprises have unrestricted access to funds from the NGOs and microfinance banks.

Table 1: Funding of Microenterprises, Growth and Challenges to Funding

	Sample Mean
Non–Governmental Organisations (NGO) supply funds to microenterprises	4.3
Savings and Loans Associations and Credit Union also fund microenterprises	3.0
Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) provide microcredits	3.5
Commercial banks consider funding microenterprises	2.2
Microfinance banks essentially supply microcredits	4.6
Microenterprises have unlimited access to NGO funding	3-9
NACRDB places some barrier on microenterprises before granting credits	4.4
Commercial banks allow microenterprises to have access to facilities	1.6
Microfinance banks provide unrestricted credits to microenterprises	4.6
Microenterprises are springing up at an alarming rate	4.2
Access to cheap funding, Efficient management, Commitment and Determination to succeed are responsible for	4.1
the level of growth being experienced in the subsector	
High cost of operations poses a great challenge to microenterprises	3.6
Weak Internal Control accounts for the misapplication of microcredits	4.0
Non-repayment of the microcredits hinders the free flow of funding	4.5
Non-chalant attitude of commercial banks to grant microcreditsreduces the volume of credits	3.8

M Mean is calculated based on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 5 – Stronly Agree' to '1 – Strongly Disagree. Source: Field Survey, 2011

The table also shows that quite a lot of microenterprises are springing up in every nook and cranies of the geo-political zone covered by this study as depicted by the sample size selected. This is because of the access to cheap funding, personal management and the determination to succeed. There are serious challenges to funding microenterprises and from the data collected, non-repayment of microcredits constitute the greatest threat. There is also the cases of weak internal controls which in some instances, may affect the application of funds.

The secondary sources consulted revealed that the commercial banks in Nigeria are not inclined to granting facilities to the microenterprises. This is as a result of the high default rate of these microenterprises and their inability to provide the collateral required for such facilities. It was further observed from these sources that the Central Bank of Nigeria having put up the policy framework for the microfinance activities has not effectively implemented the policy.

CONCLUSION

This survey was carried out to assess the implications of microfinancing on the Nigerian economy. Based on the findings, the study concluded that. the non-governmental organisations and microfinance banks which are specifically set up to cater for the needs of the micro enterprises provide both the informal and the formal funds respectively, which are used in growing the subsector. In spite of this, the study also observed that there are daunting challenges which are inhibiting further growth within the sector. Consequently, microfinance banks are not being encouraged to provide unimpeded microcredits owing to the incessant rate of default by the microenterprises. The Central Bank of Nigeria must therefore endeavour to effectively implement the policy framework in respect of microfinance activities that would regulate and standardize microfinance institutions and also enable the microenterprises to access medium to long term sustainable, commercial sources of funds.

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BIOGRAPHY

Mr Adeyemi Babalola is a Lecturer I at the Crawford University. He is of the Department of Accounting and Finance, College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University Kilometre 8 Atan-Agbara Road, P M B 2001, Igbesa, Ogun State, Nigeria. His area of interest is Financial Management and he is currently a Ph.D candidate at the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile- Ife. His Email address is babalolaadeyemi@tahoo.com

Mr Adesoji Adenugba is a Lecturer at the Crawford University. He is of the Department of Accounting and Finance, College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University Kilometre 8 Atan-Agbara Road, P M B 2001, Igbesa, Ogun State, Nigeria. His areas of interest include International Finance, and Comparative Banking among others. His Email address is <u>adenugbaadesojiadetunji@yahoo.com</u>

Mohammed A. Sadi, King Fahd University of Petroleum & Minerals, Saudi Arabia Kashif J. Syed, King Fahd University of Petroleum & Minerals, Saudi Arabia Qamar Iftikhar, Mohammed Saeed Al-Ghamdi

ABSTRACT

Franchising is not entirely new in Saudi Arabia. There have been attempts to study it from customers' (business community) perspective in this country and emphasis is given on the growing importance of international franchising, as well as domestic franchising in various sectors of the economy. This study seeks to provide a framework for evaluating role of franchising in the success of Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SMEs) and how franchising affect local cultural values. The study employs a methodology in which both primary and secondary data are used. It is found that customers appreciate the role of franchising in the development of local businesses and they perceive that franchising is having a positive effect on Saudi culture in general terms.

KEYWORDS: Franchising, Customers, SMEs, Cultural Values.

INTRODUCTION

Within the last ten years, franchising has grown tremendously in terms of total sales and market share in Saudi Arabia. The American, European, and the local franchises continue to remain successful in SMEs segment of the industry. Many of the franchise brand names have already been successful in Saudi market and have created fortune for the business enterprises. Saudi entrepreneurs generally have sufficient capital and are craving for business entrepreneurship. They however, do not have the visualization to venture out on their own with a totally new operation or idea, creating excellent potential for franchising. It is therefore imperative to study about franchising and its link with the well being of Saudi society at large from the perspective of business community. From hereinafter, they shall be referred as customers of franchising or just 'customers'.

The concept of franchising has been a popular mode of business expansion especially with the younger generation of entrepreneurs in Saudi Arabia. The younger generation segment is 44.4 percent of the total population and comprises men and women between the ages of 18 and 45. The unemployment rate in this segment is quite high. Some of the franchise concepts that have proven successful in Saudi Arabia are owned and operated by food and non-food sectors. The food franchise business that are popular among younger generation includes Burger King, Popeye, Hard Rock, McDonalds, Hardees, Pizza Hut, Pizza Inn, Fuddruckers, TGI, Chilies, Wendy's in addition to local franchisers such as Al-Tazij, Kudo, Zahoor Al-Reef, Othaim Corner, and N&A. In hotel sector franchising concepts such as Sheraton, Holiday Inn, Meridian, and Ramada are well known.

According to statistics available, food franchises alone account for nearly 30 percent of the food market in Saudi Arabia. Total revenue from fast-food franchise business stood at US\$343 million in 2000, expected to increase to US\$725 million in 2010. The revenue from local franchisees has also grown many-fold from 1995 to 2005, an average 10 percent growth annually (Siblini, Maher, and Alwazir).

The success of franchising in Saudi Arabian market is attributed to finding the brand name franchiser and suitable location. Most franchises are located near shopping centers or areas of high traffic flow. The

large relatively inexpensive work force from Bangladesh, India, the Philippines, Nepal, Pakistan, and Egypt which have been the reason for its phenomenal success outpacing other industry sectors. In addition, the franchisors have also realized that the culture and religious background of the Saudi people is utmost important when it comes to doing business with them. They therefore have modified their franchise offerings and operational tactics in Saudi market. Such modifications include halal meat, local items, separation of the sexes and a general prohibition on photos or advertising that would be considered only mildly suggestive in the West.

The success of franchise business in Saudi Arabia has been the subject of analysis both in government circles as well as in the popular press. However, what is relevant for the present research is the fact that franchising has not been examined from customers' perception, especially in the Eastern region of Saudi Arabia. This report will attempt to fill this gap. Although a lot of news paper columns have been written in popular press to determine the benefits of franchising, very few columns have ascertain the factors that determine the success of franchising and its link with the well-being of the society.

Research Objectives

Given the above background, the objectives formulated for this study will examine customers' perception whether franchising is a useful tool for business success in industrializing market. Through theoretical and empirical research, we hope to determine the forces that drive the increasing popularity of the franchising concept as a route to business success, specifically the study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- 1. To describe customers' perception toward benefits of franchising in terms of its business success and future prospects in Saudi Arabia.
- 2. To illustrate customers' perception about the impact of franchising on Small-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Saudi Arabia.
- 3. To examine customers' perception regarding the extent to which franchising is effecting (positively or negatively) local cultural values and society in general.
- 4. To develop and test a model in which both business and cultural factors are included as joint determinants of benefits of franchising.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Numerous issues raised by various researchers create clear demarcation between marketing strategies adopted for international and those adopted for domestic franchise systems in industrialized economies. (Audhesh and Kantamneni, 2004). The issues generated in market entry, market penetration, market mix, control systems, training and support systems, trade mark arrangements, banking and credit relations, taxation and legal considerations, location of suitable sites, quality control, supervision and transfer of technology are exacerbated by cultural and language impediments, although the powerful new way of facilitating the two of franchise concept has been documented extensively (Fladmoe-Linquist, 2000), the consumers' perception about success of franchising is relatively understudied especially in industrializing countries (Quinn and Doherty, 2000).

There is a growing dichotomy between international and domestic franchising in contemporary literature. The classical study of Walker and Cross (1989) comparative study of international and domestic franchise systems delineates six key areas of marketing differences among them. These differences lie in 1) international expansion decisions, 2) the timing of initial international expansion, 3) the location of initial expansion, 4) product suitability for international expansion. S) comparative approaches for expansion and barriers, and 6) prerequisites to international expansion. McIntyre (1992) in her study of international franchising of US corporations, found two main marketing differences between international and

domestic franchising; first the "timing of entry and penetration" and second, "changes made in marketing mix variables." Karuppur and Sashi (1992) propose the use of transaction cost analysis to examine internal and external background of international franchising and develop hypotheses accordingly. Walker and Etzel (1973) in their studies signified the differences of franchise recruitment and management and design of franchise package. Eroglu (1992) developed a conceptual model to discuss the same issue. Through this model he described the underlying determinants and processes of internationalization of US franchise systems. The main theme of this model was to continue surviving by increasing long term success and profitability. According to him two competing forces, organizational and environmental, determine the strength of top management's intentions to promote franchising which in turn influence its commitment decisions and action.

Hisrich and Peters (2002) discusses the identification of entrepreneurs and explains how to evaluate opportunities on behalf of their organizations, develop a business plan, estimate resources and develop strategies to manage the organization. According to them the process of creating value requires a unique package of resources and key characteristics that entrepreneurs posses. The role of entrepreneurs is important in industrializing market where SMEs play dominant role in international and domestic franchising (Yeung, 2002). Yeung suggests that entrepreneurs make franchise market a reality because they have privileged access to foreign actor networks. They therefore can facilitate establishing franchise operations.

Long earlier, it was predicted that the development of SMEs would represent the "boom" in franchising (Walker and Etzel 1973), and this prediction appear to have materialized not only in USA but also in Saudi Arabia. Although there is extensive research on franchising as a route to SMEs business expansion in USA, relatively little research exists in this area in Saudi Arabia. Certainly, the empirical research in this area is extremely limited, especially of the dichotomy of international versus domestic food franchising. Kirby and Watson (1999) found that franchising is a viable growth strategy for small firms and that per se it creates few major problems for growth-oriented small businesses. Sen (1998) also found that franchising is an effective strategy for restaurant expansion.

Examination of research in franchising as a route to a successful SME in varying points in time even in USA reveal evidence that the majority of studies have been descriptive or exploratory in nature. Most franchising studies were conducted in isolation with no linkages to SMEs and with minimal synthesis of theory or conceptual foundation (Albaum and Peterson 1984; and Cavusgil and Navin 1981). Bradley (2003) examined over one thousand articles published in the 1995-2000 time period dealing with franchising as a successful route to SMEs and found only 6.28% attempted to test any research hypotheses. Even then Nitin Sanghavi (1998) found that franchising has played a significant role in the development of SMEs in the industrialized West and transitional economies in general.

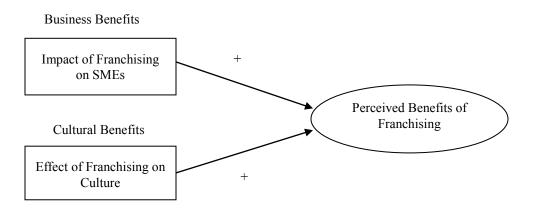
This descriptive approach provides much needed insights into the perception of customers about franchising as a success route to SMEs business in Saudi Arabia, given the lack of data available. However, studies conceptually grounded and conducted from an empirical perspective are clearly mandated. Among the many areas of concern to marketers and entrepreneurs, particularly noticeable is the gap in research on how successful SMEs expand through franchising. Given the vast body of literature on franchising and SMEs, the gap of examining the linkage between the two as a route to successful business expansion while checking customers' perception in Saudi Arabia presents a logical starting point for focused research. Audhesh K. Paswan, S. Prasad Kantamneni (2004) concluded that the well being of SMEs, socio-economic, socio-cultural well being, and employment opportunity are key factors when people evaluate franchising. Current study also evaluates the impact of franchising on growth of SMEs in Saudi Arabia and its impact on culture.

Few points can be derived from the discussion in the above section to make research model. Drivers of perceived benefits of franchising can be categorized into two broad categories 1) Business Benefits

2) Cultural Benefits

For the sake of this study, business benefits of franchising are measured only through its impact on SMEs, because huge percentage of franchising is indeed related to small and medium size businesses in Saudi Arabia. Cultural benefits shall analyze the effect of franchising on culture in general.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model and Hypothesized Relationships



Hypotheses

Franchising Benefits and SMEs Success: Literature has suggested that we can expect a positive relationship between perceived benefits of franchising and its role in development of SMEs. In other words, this hypothesis will test whether customers think that impact of franchising on SMEs can be considered an actual advantage of franchising.

H1: Customers' perception about the benefits of franchising relates positively to their perception about the impact of franchising on SMEs.

Franchising Benefits and Culture: As discussed earlier that international franchising can have an impact on the culture of that society. Various brands of fast food, clothing, shoes etc mostly effects the youth of the nation and tend to change the society in general. Whether this impact is considered positive or negative aspect of franchising, is measured in the next hypotheses.

H2: Customers' perception about the benefits of franchising relates positively to their perception about the effect of franchising on Culture.

METHOD

In this study, questionnaire is designed based on findings in the literature, discussions with specialists, and suggestions obtained from respondents participated in the trial survey. The model and hypotheses are tested using data collected through this questionnaire.

Sample and Data Collection: The trial and formal surveys were administered in the twin cities of Al-Khobar and Dammam in the Eastern province of Saudi Arabia. The survey was mainly distributed to business community of Saudis and Non-Saudis, who are somehow related to franchising (either working in a franchise or have invested in one). A trial survey was also conducted to make sure that questions were comprehensible. Few college students opted to participate in the trial survey.

Formal survey was distributed to more than 500 franchise outlets in the twin cities. It was particularly made sure that respondents posses any managerial position in the franchised outlet. Surveyors were present at the time of distribution in case respondents need any clarifications. Out of 500 more than 60% i.e. 329 responses were collected of which 250 were included in the final sample for analysis.

Measurement: Variables such as benefits of franchising, impact on SMEs and effect on culture have been measured on a five-point likert scale (see Appendix A for construct items). Certain demographic questions like age, gender, nationality, salary, marital status and education were also asked to distinguish the different perceptions of the respondents based on their individuality.

Measure Validation: In order to check the validity of the variables, factor analysis has been conducted. The results of factor analysis have confirmed the validity of two variables which are 'Benefits of Franchising' and 'Impact of Franchising on SMEs'. Cultural benefits have further been divided into two more constructs; 'Effect of Franchising on Life Style' and 'Role of Franchising in Society's Well Being'. After confirming the validity of the variables, Descriptive Statistics and Correlations were also computed for each of the construct as presented in Table1. It can be seen from the mean of the constructs that generally people have positive perception about franchising.

	Scale	No. of Items	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	Variance Extracted
1	Perceived Benefits of Franchising	5	3.95	0.78	-			54.5
2	Impact of Franchising on SMEs	4	3.7	0.83	0.519**	-		53.8
3	Effect of Franchising on Life Style	2	3.78	1.04	0.488**	0.365**	-	85.1
4	Role of Franchising in Society's Well Being	3	3.49	0.78	0.182**	0.284**	0.025	45.3

Table1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among study Constructs

Revised Model: As confirmed by factor analysis, Cultural Benefits have been divided into two constructs. So the second hypotheses (H2) given above will be divided into two further hypotheses.

H2: Customers' perception about the Benefits of Franchising relates positively to their perception about the Effect of Franchising on Saudi Life Style.

H3: Customers' perception about the Benefits of Franchising relates positively to their perception about the Role of Franchising in Society's Well Being.

The revised research model looks like:

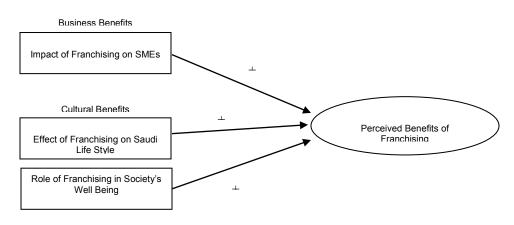


Figure 2: Revised Conceptual Model and Hypothesized Relationships

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic Analysis

Prior to testing the model/hypotheses, a detailed analysis of the demographic variables has been conducted. Results are presented in Table2. In this analysis all of the four constructs are treated as dependent variables and Gender, Age, Marital Status, No. of dependents, Nationality and Monthly Salary are treated as independent variables. This test will show us how various categories of individuals differ in their opinion about franchising? And whether this difference of opinion hold true in the population? One-way ANOVA analysis has been used and Post-Hoc tests were conducted using Bonferroni method. Significance level was set to 0.05 as suggested by many standard researches.

Both male and female respondents considered franchising to be beneficial and healthy for society. Also, in the population there is no difference of opinion in gender regarding the four constructs as the p > 0.05 in all constructs. Age is considered next. Respondents with different age groups hold no difference of opinion in population about 'Benefits of Franchising' and 'Society's Well Being' as they consider franchising to be beneficial and good for society. As far as 'Impact on SMEs' and 'Effect on Life Style' is concerned there is some difference of opinion in the population because p < 0.05 for both constructs. Post-Hoc tests had confirmed that there is a difference of opinion between age group 21-30 and 41-50 for 'Impact on SMEs' construct. In the 'Effect on Life Style' construct, the age group of below 20 differs in opinion with all other ages. This is due to the lack of experience that the younger respondents have because most of these youngsters are newly related to franchising world and they still need to understand how franchising is affecting local culture and business world. Elderly respondents, on the other hand, have gained experience throughout the years working in franchising industry.

Married and bachelor people hold no different opinion in the population. Respondents with different No. of dependents only differ in 'Society's Well Being' construct (p=0.048). People who don't have any dependents consider franchising less effective for the betterment of society than people who have 1-5 dependents. One possible explanation for this is that most of the franchising is related to fast food and restaurant industry. These places offer healthy environment especially for families and kids. So people who have children like to visit these franchises and consider it healthy for society in general.

Independent Variables		ANOVA Sur	nmary Statistics for D	ependent Variables	
		Perceived Benefits of Franchising	Impact on SMEs	Effect on Life Style	Society's Well Being
1. Gender	Ν	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Male Female	199 15	3.94 4.15	3.69 3.83	3.77 3.80	3.52 3.20
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 1.032 p = 0.311	F = 0.406 p = 0.525	F = 0.009 p = 0.925	F = 2.316 p = 0.130
2 Ase Below 20 21-30 31-40 41-50 51-60	2 116 63 31 2	3.50 3.94 3.93 4.08 3.90	3.00 3.54 3.87 4.03 3.75	1.50 3.70 3.82 4.08 4.25	2.67 3.45 3.50 3.73 3.17
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 0.394 p = 0.813	F = 3.535 p = 0.008	F = 3.524 p = 0.008	F = 1.504 p = 0.202
3 Marital Status Married Bachelor	121 93	3.93 3.97	3.71 3.69	3.74 3.83	3.53 3.45
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 0.153 p = 0.695	F = 0.066 p = 0.797	F = 0.418 p = 0.518	F = 0.482 p = 0.488
4. No. of Denendents None 1-5 6-10 More Than 10	96 102 9 5	3.95 3.98 4.04 3.20	3.61 3.76 4.06 3.40	3.66 3.87 4.11 3.30	3.35 3.61 3.33 4.00
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 1.667 p = 0.175	F = 1.342 p = 0.262	F = 1.349 p = 0.260	F = 2.682 p = 0.048
5 Nationality Saudi Non-Saudi	124 89	3.88 4.05	3.60 3.84	3.67 3.92	3.55 3.41
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 2.645 p = 0.105	F = 4.210 p = 0.041	F = 2.852 p = 0.093	F = 1.594 p = 0.208
6 Monthly Salary Less Than SR 5000 SR 5000 - SR 10000 SR 10000 - SR 20000 More Than SR 20000	101 76 22 15	3.90 3.95 4.08 4.12	3.66 3.66 3.85 3.98	3.73 3.82 3.89 3.67	3.41 3.46 3.71 3.91
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 0.606 p = 0.612	F = 0.979 p = 0.404	F = 0.246 p = 0.864	F = 2.515 p = 0.059
7. Education Elementary High School Diploma Some College University Degree Higher Education	2 27 36 30 96 23	3.00 3.96 3.76 4.01 3.98 4.15	4.00 3.78 3.63 3.75 3.66 3.83	4.00 3.91 3.51 3.75 3.84 3.76	3.00 3.48 3.47 3.61 3.48 3.48
F-Ratio Sig(p)		F = 1.419 p = 0.219	F = 0.327 p = 0.896	F = 0.649 p = 0.663	F = 0.305 p = 0.909

Table2: ANOVA Summary for Demographic Variables

Nationality factor also differs in one construct, 'Impact on SMEs' (p=0.041), where non-Saudi respondents consider franchising more beneficial than Saudi respondents in terms of its impact on SMEs. Non-Saudi respondents are generally more aware of business world and they look at it from global perspective due to their experience of working in diverse environments. That is the reason non-Saudi people value the impact of franchising on local SMEs more than Saudi respondents. Lastly, Monthly Salary and Education Level have been analyzed and it is noticed that they hold no difference of opinion in the population regarding franchising and they consider it to be beneficial in general terms.

Model Testing

The hypotheses were tested using Multiple Linear Regression and the results are shown in Table3. As shown in the revised model, 'Benefits of Franchising' was treated as a dependent variable and the three constructs 'Impact on SMEs', 'Impact on Life Style' and 'Society's Well Being' are independent variables which are considered to be the joint determinant of benefits.

The first hypotheses tested the relationship between 'Perceived Benefits of Franchising' and its 'Impact on SMEs'. The results show that perceived benefits are positively related to franchising impact on SMEs (B=0.372; p < 0.001). Thus H1 is supported.

The second hypotheses which was cultural related, tested the relationship between 'Perceived Benefits of Franchising' and its 'Effect on Life Style'. H2 is also supported as the perceived benefits of franchising are positively related to its effect on Life Style (B=0.350; p < 0.001).

The last hypotheses, also related to culture, tested the relationship between 'Perceived Benefits of Franchising' and its 'Role in Society's Well Being'. It is revealed that the data do not support H3 and hence franchising role in Society's Well Being is not perceived as a benefit of franchising.

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable Benefits of Franchising	
Impact on SMEs	0.372 (6.064)*	
Effect on Lifestyle	0.350 (5.959)*	
Society's Well Being	0.068 (1.194)	
Overall F (df)	42.19 (3)	
R2 (Adj. R2)	0.376 (0.367)	
* One-tailed probabilities: p < .001		

Table 3: Regression results [standardized regression coefficient (t value)]

Literature suggested that franchising helps local businesses and SMEs to grow, and this study confirms that this notion holds true even in Saudi market. When talking about effect on culture, however, there are mixed opinions. Franchising is indeed considered beneficial for Saudi culture by Saudi respondents but its role in society's well being is not thought of as a real benefit of franchising. On the other hand, the impact of franchising on Saudi lifestyle is considered a benefit of franchising.

Saudi Arabia is a country of traditions and they have strong cultural values. Even if franchising plays a positive role in terms of society's improvement, the local people will not consider it a benefit as they link their society's well being with traditional values. As far as impact on lifestyle is concerned, due to the family environment provided by many franchises (fast food restaurants etc) along with western culture touch, people do consider it a benefit to attain a vibrant lifestyle.

CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, franchising has found support in Saudi Arabia from the perspective of customers. Most people consider franchising to be beneficial for both local business success and Saudi Life Style. Although, there is a positive attitude towards role of franchising in society's well being, but it is not considered a benefit of franchising.

Overall franchising is beneficial for Saudi economy. It will support local small businesses to grow more rapidly. On the other hand, Saudi Arabia is also an attractive market for franchising as Saudi market is in its growing phase and there is huge potential for many industries. In today's global environment, franchising can be one of the learning doors for Saudi Arabian businesses to put its step in global market.

APPENDIX

Construct	Scale items
Impact on SMEs	1. Franchising is source of healthy business environment
1	2. Franchising is good for SMEs
	3. Franchising adds value to SMEs
	Franchising helps in developing SMEs
Effect on Lifestyle	1. Franchising changes life style of youth
	2. Franchising changes life style of Saudi people
Society's Well Being	1. Franchising is not suitable for Saudi Culture
	2. Franchising is good for Saudi society
	3. Franchising negatively effects local franchising
Perceived benefits	
	1. Franchising is capturing attention of Saudi market
	2. Franchising brings international standards
	3. Franchising opens new channels for employment
	4. Franchising helps business grow quickly
	Franchising increases opportunities for future
For Impact on SMEs, Effect on Lifestyle	Society's Well Being, Perceived Benefits: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

Appendix A: Constructs and Measures

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Muhammad Asad Sadi, is a Professor of Marketing at College of Industrial Management in King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM), Saudi Arabia. He can be contacted through email: <u>amasadi@kfupm.edu.sa</u>. He earned his PhD in Business Administration from Virginia Poly. State University, USA in 1994. Before joining KFUPM, he was teaching at Nanyang Business School, Nanyang Tech. University, Singapore for six years. He has supervised both Masters level and PhD level students.

Mr. Kashif J. Syed, is a Lecturer at Dammam Community College, an affiliate of KFUPM for the last ten years. He is currently holding position of Program Coordinator in the college for Supply Chain Management program. He has been involved in teaching Marketing, Management and Supply Chain courses at the college. He can be contacted through email: jala@dcc.kfupm.edu.sa

Mr.Qamar Iftikhar is Operations Manager at Mohammed Saeed Al-Ghamdi Cont. Est. in Al-Khobar, Saudi Arabia. He graduated from KFUPM as MBA and has been involved in research and consultation activities. He can be contacted through email: <u>qamar 1@hotmail.com</u>.

INVESTING IN EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND CARIBBEAN – THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL CORPORATION

Elvis Mujacevic, University of Rijeka Ana Vizjak, University of Rijeka Andrea Cindric, University of Rijeka

ABSTRACT

The demand for education services in emerging market countries is rising at a faster rate than governments can supply. Public school systems struggle to meet the demand for high-quality primary and secondary education. Most public schools are inadequately financed and the quality of education suffers from too many students and too few teachers per class, insufficient books and supplies, poorly constructed schools, and aging infrastructure. The demand for higher education faces similar challenges. In addition, the inability of students in emerging market countries to pay for tertiary education limits their access to better jobs and to participate fully in a knowledge economy. The past five years have seen a considerable increase in the recognition of the significant contribution that private education can bring to emerging market countries. Many governments are actively encouraging private sector growth while remaining aware of the need to ensure that such provision meets appropriate standards and quality benchmarks. Over the past decade, IFC has become increasingly involved in education. IFC support the start-up or expansion of initiatives in primary, secondary, and tertiary education with a particular interest in student loan program, e-learning, technical and vocational education and training, and other education services. IFC's role includes direct investment in companies and sharing industry knowledge and experience that affects the private education sector. The International Finance Corporation is entering the education sector because of the exceptional developmental benefits that education can create and the innovative, constructive roles that private ownership can play in the sector. IFC's entry provides significantly new instruments with which to enhance the World Bank Group's capacity to promote growth and reduce poverty by investing in human capital through education. This article outlines the role of IFC in financing private education projects in developing countries, in terms of how much has been invested in these countries, type of investment and the effects of these investments.

Key Words: International Financial Corporation, private education, education investments, education projects, emerging markets.

INTRODUCTION

Since its foundation, more than 50 years ago, the mission and vision of the International Finance Corporation is focused on the development of developing countries in the way of financing private sector projects. Of course, it does not invest in projects without any criteria, but it has priority sectors or those who have a high impact on developing country economies. One of these priority sectors is education. The International Finance Corporation is the biggest partner of all countries and it participates with the largest number of investments into education. Given the fact that it is the biggest education investor, it is obvious that it is a great partner to countries in Latin America and the Caribbean in assisting them in education development, in these developing countries which are characterized by a large number of poor people. This is a region where there are more than 500 million people, of whom 25% live in extreme poverty and the more the role of the IFC increases in these conditions, it is important to show a link how this region can potentially develop.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Key element of the development process is investment in education. The importance of education is highlighted since the early 1960s (Psacharopoulos & Woodhall, 1986). Not only formal, but informal education and training provides the skills, knowledge, attitudes and motivation necessary for economic and social development. Jones (2007) also points out that the need for investing in education emerged in the 1960's century. Vukovic (1995) emphasizes the importance of education investments as a means of human capital development. The education investment importance is also highlighted by Pfeffermann (2000) who is explaining that it is important to increase the investment in education in developing countries. Ten years ago already, it was the strategic goal of the World Bank Group to increase the education investments for underdeveloped countries and developing countries (World Bank, 2001). The development of a better education system was set as an international development goal. As far as education investment, Jones (2007) says that the goals and strategies of the World Bank were never completely static: they adapt to the times in which people were living, from the beginnings until today. Furthermore Fielden & LaRocque (2008) said that increased private involvement can bring new skills and knowledge to all levels of educations, from pedagogic to management. Analyzing the higher education costs Middaugh (2000) has emphasized that the costs for providing education means are increasing over the years. His research has revealed certain information which show how much the education investments actually cost, from capital investments, scholarships to infrastructure investment. The impact of the International Finance Corporation in all areas, including the education field is significant. In Doing Business Report (2010a) it is said that about 85% of the world's economies have made it easier for entrepreneurs to operate in the past five years. In fact, the International Finance Corporation is the only multilateral agency that offers direct advisory services to governments on private sector participation in education, as pointed out in its Annual Report (IFC, 2010a). Despite the attempt to provide education for everyone, the education gap is still huge, especially in developing countries according to Vernez, Krop & Rydell (1999).

THE CONDITION OF EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT IN COUNTRIES WITH EMERGING MARKETS

About 77 million children all around in developing countries are not attending school what is a significant educational challenge for all governments around the world (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). There are numerous challenges faced by the developing countries, which makes the decision about investing in education harder. The importance of foreign investment like private equity or in the form of help from the International Finance Corporation is obvious, Fielden & LaRocque (2008) are highlighting some key factors for entering the private sector in education: it can help public schools to keep pace with the growing demand for higher education; it can increase the level of financial resources committed to the education sector and it can also provide additional inputs like training, textbooks, infrastructure or IT. Investing in education means investing in human resources and their potential effects that it would have on the socio – economic development of a country or region. Besides the basic education which should be the foundation for the further education, investing in higher education is also necessary. Still, participation rates for higher education remain low in developing countries and institutions for higher education struggle to absorb growing numbers of secondary school graduates (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). In countries where there has been an increase of persons with a completed higher education degree, the number of workers employed in the primary and secondary sector has significantly reduced, while the number of workers employed in the tertiary sector has highly increased (Vukovic, 1995). Even though it is still a long way for developing countries, the tendency is that the population is slowly beginning to get an education so that the number of educated citizens will get higher. This way the society will slowly improve, the economy of the country will grow and develop and the number of employees in the secondary and primary sector will be reduced while the tertiary sector will be developing. For now, there are numerous obstacles which should be slowly influenced by investments.

Private education also plays an important role here. The most important distinction between public schools and private schools is that public schools receive more than 50% of their funding from public sources. Private "independent" schools are separate from the country and the government and they rely on fee income to survive (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). There are many problems in public universities like the lack of teaching and research resources and also the loss of qualified staff that's leaving to developed countries. Private education has different shapes and sizes like formal private school, individual tutoring services, "cramming colleges", informal schools and Internet-based providers. In that context, private schools are easily regulated in comparison of "government-dependent" private schools that are more heavily regulated (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). Another factor for investing in the private education sector is the dissatisfaction with the quality of public education. Public education has some characteristics that are being avoided in the private education like large class sizes, absence of teachers, lack of books and teaching supplies.

Building poor people's assets, and protecting those who are most vulnerable, is also essential elements of poverty reduction (World Bank, 2001). Entering in the education, private schools give the opportunities for governments to support publicly funded students in private schools as it is said in the discussion paper by Fielden & LaRocque (2008). The issue which is present in developing countries is the inability of public sector educational institutions to absorb growing numbers of students at all levels of education (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). Because of the inability of the public sector there is the need of participation for private education. Private participation is higher at the higher education level than at the school level, which is expected (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). Private schools are often called elite schools but the difference between private schools serving the poor and the elite school is because the ones that are serving the poor are usually set up in non purpose-built buildings. Although private education is often labeled elite, much of the school level provision in developing countries serves the poor population.

IFC investments in education were around \$1 billion in the FY2010 (IFC, 2010a). In the last few years there has been broadening of the private sector's role in the delivery of education in developing countries (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). So there are more and more reasons why private sector should be included in education in developing countries. The private involvement can help to increase the level of financial resources committed to the education sector.

THE INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION COMMITMENT IN EDUCATING THE REGION OF LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

This region is home to 569 million people (Mowforth, 2008). A substantial proportion of the population of Latin America and Caribbean are people who are on the margins of society, about 40 million which represents about 10% of the total population (Kos-Stanisic, 2009). About 129 million (24.5%) people live in poverty. Their average income is less than \$ 2 per day. Out of 128 million people who live in poverty, 30 million (9, 5%) are extremely poor and their average income is less than 1 dollar per day. Krtalic & Tomic (2006) are mentioning that this area is one with the largest and the constant economical inequalities in the world. Considering that Latinos live in a complex economic system, in which people are ranked from too rich to those on the edge of their existence, IFC puts the emphasis more on the ones who are the bottom of the economic pyramid and focuses on the undeveloped areas in the region (Aragao, 2005).

The IFC is, in this region, mostly focused on the key development challenges that the countries in Latin America and the Caribbean face. The strategic priorities of the IFC in this region include the improvement of the business environment, support of projects that include the residents who are most exposed to poverty, the ones at the bottom of the economic pyramid, increasing the focus on smaller countries, especially countries in Central America and the Caribbean, promoting investment into "clean" technology in order to mitigate the effects on climate changes, support of the private sector participation

in the infrastructure development, increasing the access to finances, with the emphasis on micro, small and medium enterprises.

The IFC is a long-term partner of the region and it promotes sustainability, strengthening of the social and environmental standards as well as the strengthening of corporate management. The IFC helps companies and communities to strengthen their comparative advantages in the Caribbean and in Central America, in the parts that have one of the lowest income inequalities. In middle-income countries such as Brazil, Columbia and Mexico, IFC has focused on the promotion of education approaches, telecommunication development, renewable energy sources and improvement of financial services.

Table 1: The investment relationship between the total IFC investment and the investment in the LAC region (FY2010)

	Financing Committed For IFC's Account (\$ Million)	IFC Investment In the LAC Region (\$ Million)	The Investment Relationship between the Total Investment and the Investment In the LAC Region
Total Investment	12,664	3,006	24%
Investment In Health & Education	432	90	21%
The Investment Relationship between the total Investments and the Health & Education Investments	3%	3%	1

The table shows the relationship between the total IFC investments and investments in the LAC region. It also shows the relationship of the Health & Industry sector. IFC had investments for its' own account of \$ 12,664 billion in total, of which the LAC region invested \$ 3,006 billion, which represents a total of 24%. IFC has invested 3% or \$ 432 million in the Health & Education out of the total investments from the funds in the LAC Region \$ 90 million were allocated, which are 3% from the funds invested in this Region. When only comparing the Health & Education Industry, 21% of the total funds, which were allocated for Health & Education Industry, were invested in the LAC region.

In the FY2010, IFC has invested over \$3 billion in the region of Latin America and the Caribbean. This amount includes investments into 133 new projects in the private sector (IFC, 2010b). The investments were slightly different before the financial crisis, now the global financial crisis changed the economic order, deepening the challenges developing countries. Mobilizing the private sector to invest in education and health is critical in developing countries. The reason for this is that the rulings do not dispose with large amounts of money and it is impossible for them to meet the basic expenses of the country they are in charge of and to still have money to invest in education and other needs of their citizens. The IFC has organized 6 programs for the entire growth of the region. Every program brings attention to the work and influence that the IFC had, as far as the way that the work is done as to the influence it had on individual lives and the improvement of the quality of life. The programs include the development if: programs aimed for the people at the bottom of the economic pyramid; Development program for the Caribbean Islands, Development program for Central America; trade financing in the region, Education and health, Climate changes in the region. The IFC influence in Latin America and the Caribbean can be seen in various parameters like the investment in the availability of energy to all residents, availability of drinking water, gas, the supply of telephone lines, and incensement of patients or people who need medical assistance. The improvement is also evident in the increasing number of students.

In the fiscal year of 2008, IFC's investments and incentives have directly and indirectly encouraged the education and the number of students reached 1, 2 million. In 2009 this growth intensity continued and now there are around 1, 4 million students. But there was a decline in 2010 and 1 million people were studying (IFC Annual Report, 2010a). The IFC's total education investments were the investments in 10 countries or \$260, 5 million in 23 education and health projects.

Table 2: IFC Investments in Education Services in Latin America and the Caribbean Region from 2005-2011.

Project Name	Country	Total Project Cost (USD)	IFC Financing (USD)	Type of Financing					
Universidad O&M	Dominican Republic	\$ 43 million	\$ 10 million \$ 4 million	A loan C loan					
Brief project description: to establish a new medical school catering and to create a high quality medical school that is accessible to both qualified local students and foreign students.									
Harmon Hall	Mexico	\$ 20 million	\$ 7.9 million	Equity investment					
Brief project description: The purchase of the selling shareholders' shares, a capital increase in Harmon Hall to finance the expansion plans of the Company for the next 18 months (until the end of 2011).									
Mauricio Nassau	Brazil	\$ 47 million	\$15 million \$10 million	A Loan C Loan					
Brief project description: Construction and upgrade of six new campuses. The proposed project aims to double the number of student enrolments to 50,000 in 2014.									
UWI - University of West Indies	Caribbean Region	\$48.6 million	\$12 million	senior loan					
Brief project description: Capit									
existing buildings and construction		related equipment.							
Duoc Growth - DUOC UC	Chile	\$60.0 million	\$30.0 million	A Loan					
Brief project description: DuocUC	is looking to continue exp	banding its size and offerin	igs through organic grov	wth. The first stage of the project					
involves the construction of a univ 4,000 students. Further stages of the									
		later stage.							
Anhanguera Edu	Brazil	US\$150 million	US\$25.0 million	A Loan					
Brief project description: Manage	ment's growth strategy foc	units.	npus students, distance	learning, and vocational training					
AUA - American University of Antigua Limited	Antigua and Barbuda	\$30 million	\$30 million	A Loan					
Brief project description: The p		f providing long-term finar the next three years (the ")		ination of new loans for AUA					
Uniminuto - Corporacion Universitaria Minuto de Dios	Colombia	\$18 million	\$8.0 million	A Loan					
Brief project description: The phys	ical infrastructure compon	ent of the investment prog	am consists of three pro	piects in Cundinamarca, including					
expansion of two key facilities in E	Bogota and Soacha, as well		phase 1) facility in Gira						
Ideal Invest	Brazil	\$300 million	\$37 million	irrevocable guarantee					
Brief project description: Ideal plar	is to increase its student lo	ans program to approximat next several years.	tely R\$480 million (app						
Real Student Fin - Banco Real Student Financing	Brazil	\$25 million.	\$11.3 million	Risk sharing					
Brief project description: Banco Re	al, a leading Brazilian ban	k wholly owned by ABN A	AMRO, is developing a	lending program (the Program) to					
provide financing to undergrad	uate and working adult stu	dents in Brazil. The Progra on to lower and middle inc	im is designed to increase	se and facilitate access to post					
Duoc - DUOC UC	Chile	\$50 million	\$ 18.75 million	Risk sharing					
Brief project description: Duoc se									
r		eligible for government spo		,					
Fundo de Educacao para o Brasil	Brazil	\$71 million	\$12 million \$4.5 million	Loan Equity					
Brief project description: The Inv	estment will be used to fur	d part of AES' expansion	strategy, cantered on bu						
medium sized cities in the state		0	heast – the country's mo	ost prosperous – over a 3 year					
		mplementation period.							
UNITEC	Mexico	\$184 million	\$30 million	A Loan					
	Brief project description: Investment program that involves the construction of three new campuses in Coyoacan in southern Mexico City,								
Guadalajara, and Monterrey. The investment will consolidate the University's market position as one of the leading private universities providing affordable high quality education in Mexico and expand its operations outside the capital city.									
CentroMedico PDH	Mexico	\$71.4 million	\$14 million	A Loan					
Brief project description: Centro M									
of Guadalajara, Mexico, consisting of two main components: an ambulatory surgery center and an 80-bed general tertiary care hospital.									
an so-bed general remary care hospital.									

The table shows the projects between the IFC and the private sector in the education field, in the regions of Latin America and the Caribbean. Of all the projects, the most concentration of investments in education is in Brazil which is expected considering that this is the country where IFC is the most involved with their investments. There are 5 projects in total for the education segment. Mexico has 3 projects and follows Brazil with a total of \$51, 9 million project value. Chile has two projects and the other countries have established a cooperation with IFC on a single project through these 5 years.

This was a 40% increase when compare to the last FY2009 (IFC, 2009). IFC's education and health projects in Latin America and the Caribbean provided access to education for about 760,000 low and middle income students. The drastic difference in the education investment for Latin America and the Caribbean is visible when comparing the two years, 2007 and 2008. The education investment program has shown positive results. In 2007 the number of students was extremely low, around 100.000. The reason for that is not the disinterest in education or the low development of the population but the inability and insufficient education funds. If more than 50% of the population lives with an income lower than 2 dollars per day then their first priorities include meeting the existential conditions, such as buying food and water. Only when meeting these requirements going to school would be an option. The IFC has also made a big step forward in comparison to 2007 when these programs did not even exist. Investing in education and increasing the availability of student loans, scholarships and others has enabled the increase of better conditions for more people and in 2008 the number of students has reached around 760.000 who have low or medium income. Today, education investment includes 260.5 million dollars in 23 projects which are covering 10 countries. In 2008, these projects have enabled young people from lower and middle class access to education, to 760.000 of them. In Mexico, persons with a higher education degree mostly earn twice as much than people with secondary education. But only very few can afford to go to college by themselves, just 2% of potential students in Mexico have access to student loans. IFC has invested 15 million dollars in education because of this fact and they helped around 2.500 students to provide funding for their further education through loans.

Universidad O&M is the newest education project in Latin America and the Caribbean Region. It is still waiting on its approval. Also, it is the first project of the IFC which is investing in education in the Dominican Republic. Universidad O&M is sponsored by Fundacion Universitaria O&M which is the largest private university in this country. It holds around 40.000 students. The purpose of the project is to establish a new medical school catering that is open to local and to foreign students in equal proportions. The main reason of investing into this project is, actually, to create a medical school that will have reasonable prices and offer a high quality to both local students and foreign students primarily from the US and Canada. Building this kind of medical school will increase the education standards in the country and is going to support the economy's diversification. Also, the lower income students will have easier access to medical education through O&M's scholarship programs. The estimated value of the project is \$43 million and it is expected that the IFC will invest about \$14 million, of which \$10 million will be through A loan and a \$4 million through C loan. The total enrolment capacity is expected to be around 800 students.

The Harmon Hall project is a relatively new Mexican project, signed in August 2010. This is a leading English school chain. The Company has its own schools in 63 cities and over 40.000 students. It is expected that the project has a positive impact for the access expansion to primary and secondary education. Also investing in the project will result in creating new jobs. Creating new jobs leads to hiring additional teachers. IFC will provide a \$7.9 million equity investment and the total project cost is estimated at \$20 million. The high quality standards by which Harmon Hall operates will generate pressure on other competitor schools to pursue accreditation and quality standards. Furthermore, Harmon Hall is going to provide scholarships to students who don't have the money for tuition. By doing so, more low income students will have access to quality English education.

Mauricio Nassau is a Brazilian educational project that was initiated a year ago, in April 2010. The Company is providing undergraduate, graduate and technical education to students in the North East region of Brazil. ESBJ targets primarily middle and low income students. Currently, they have about 25.000 students and it is also their aim with this project to double the number of students until 2014. The total project cost is \$ 47 million. The proposed IFC investment is an A Loan of \$15 million and a C loan of \$10 million. The purpose of IFC investment is to help fund the construction and upgrade of six new campuses. It is expected that the project will increase access to post-secondary education to lower income

students, to attract private investors to the still underinvested Brazilian education sector and to promote improvement of educational standards in a fragmented sector.

The project for the Caribbean Region is called the UWI (University of West Indies) project. The project will provide a wider coverage and accessibility of post-secondary education services in the Caribbean region, particularly for smaller countries and rural areas. UWI is one of the leading universities in the Caribbean region, offering the largest number and type of postgraduate programs. The University has 4 campuses situated in Trinidad, Jamaica, Barbados and an 'Open' Campus. UWI has also student exchange programs with universities in 9 different countries, including the US, Canada and UK. The total estimated expenditure program for the Open Campus is \$48.6 million. The proposed Project involves a \$12 million senior loan to The University of the West Indies to support its capital expenditure program related to distance education and outreach programs. IFC senior loan proceeds would be used for the extension/rehabilitation of existing buildings and construction of new teaching facilities in Barbados, Jamaica, St. Lucia and Dominica. The project will also help UWI diversify its funding sources as it currently depends on government contributions.

Duoc Growth is a project for the education sector in Chile that started in 2009. In 1990, the government of Chile reconfigured the country's higher education system, establishing three distinct types of institutions: universities, vocational institutes and technical training centers. Duoc was therefore created as both a professional institute and a technical training center. Today DuocUC is a leading higher education institution in Chile providing technical degrees and professional degrees. The University operates in 12 campuses and provides more than 80 different degrees, including 50 technical degrees and 30 professional degrees. The total project cost is estimated at \$60.0 million. The proposed IFC investment is a \$30.0 million A loan for IFC's own account. The first stage of the project involves the construction of a university campus in Santiago with the capacity of 4.000 students. Further stages of the project involve similar capacity expansion projects to facilitate organic growth which are to be identified at a later stage. It is expected that the project will contribute to increase the higher education coverage in areas of the Metropolitan Region which is composed mostly of mid and mid-to-low income inhabitants and does not have sufficient higher education offerings. also the project will help to contribute to equality of opportunity and social mobility by expanding the availability of higher education to lower-income segments that is crucial in Chile.

Anhanguera Edu is an investment between IFC and Anhanguera Educacional S.A. in Brazil. The private sector dominates in tertiary education in Brazil (Fielden & LaRocque, 2008). AES is Brazil's leading private professional education company. The Company today is the largest post-secondary education institution in Brazil, with an average enrolment of 141.000 students. AES has educated over 700.000 young working adults in Brazil in 2008, more than any other education institution in America. The Company delivers education services through campus network, vocational training centers and distance learning platform. The project will have a significant development impact because of increasing access to quality post secondary education. Also, good things about the project are that the project will attract other investors to the still underinvested education sector, it will promote vocational training. The total amount of investments is estimated to approximately \$150 million.

AUA project is a 2009 project that is for Antigua and Barbuda. The American University of Antigua (AUA) was founded in 2004 in Antigua and Barbuda as a for profit higher education institution which prepares students to practice medicine in the United States. IFC financing will support AUA's student loan program. The proposed IFC investment over the next three years is \$30 million in the form of an A loan. The proposed project consists of providing long-term financing to support the origination of new loans for AUA students over the next three years.

Uniminuto, a Colombian project was founded and approved in 2009. Schooling in Colombia has traditionally been less accessible to students of lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Colombia has made significant advances at all education levels but the coverage for certain segments of the population still remains weak. It is expected that the project will make the access to tertiary education easier. IFC's involvement should support Uniminuto in securing long-term funding. The total project cost over the 2009-2010 period is estimated at \$18 million. The proposed IFC investment is a \$8 million A loan for IFC's own account. The private sector represents approximately 45% of tertiary enrolment levels so it is also expected that this project will support for public-private partnerships in education. Uniminuto is expected to contribute to increased coverage for students in more remote areas of the country.

Ideal Invest recently started providing students with access to loans in order to finance college tuition. This is also a Brazilian project. Today, the company is the largest private provider of student loans in Brazil, working with 110 universities in 14 states. Ideal plans to increase its student loans program to approximately \$300 million over the next several years. The ideal funds for these loans in the capital markets are through securitizations. In the late 2006, the company launched its student lending product called "Pravaler" to provide students access to loans to pay for tuition at private universities. IFC is providing up to \$37 million because the company plans to accelerate the growth of its student loan portfolio. It is expected that the project will have positive outcomes like supporting the growth of an innovative local entrepreneur; developing capital markets and mobilizing additional private resources in education financing; improving efficiencies in the education system by making tuition flows more predictable for participating universities and reducing drop-out rates and expanding access to tertiary education for students looking for affordable financing alternatives.

Real Student Fin is also a Brazilian project. Banco Real is currently the third largest private bank in Brazil. Banco Real is under this project developing a lending program to provide financing to undergraduate and working adult students in Brazil. The project will enhance access to higher education in Brazil by supporting the development of the private sector student loan market. A well developed student loan market could help to improve equality in access to education in Brazil, by enabling middle and lower income students to finance their post-secondary education with long term loans. In addition, developing the student loan market deepens financial markets by adding a new asset class for financial institutions and investors. IFC's exposure is expected to be up to \$11.3 million.

Duoc is a 2007 year project for Chile. Chile is a competitive market with good availability of long-term financing due to a well-developed capital market and high levels of liquidity of institutional investors. Only about 20% of the population can afford to pay for higher education without outside financing. IFC's strategy in Chile is geared towards filling the gaps in long-term financing and is seeking to address the government of Chile's priorities for the private sector development and sustainable growth with equity. The student loan program will be applicable to students attending any of Duoc's campus locations in Chile. 64% of Duoc's students come from families classified as middle- and lower-income. This project is expected to increase access to higher education, especially among students from lower - and middle-income households. The proposed IFC investment is a \$ 18.75 million. IFC's risk participation will allow Duoc to offer lower interest rates to students, thus making the student loan program more attractive to lower and middle-income families.

Fundo de Educacao para o Brasil was a 2006 year project for Brazil. AES focuses on offering good quality, affordable education to lower-income students in Brazil. It is a private, for profit, post-secondary education company with 10 campuses. IFC's investment of up to \$16 million will be used to fund part of AES' expansion strategy. Their main goal is to focus on small to medium sized cities in the state of São Paulo and other regions over a 3 year implementation period. The total project cost is expected to be \$71 million. IFC's participation in financing the projects will be comprised of a \$12 million loan and a \$4.5 million equity investment.

UNITEC is an educational project between Universidad Technologica de Mexico S.A. and IFC. The project is located in Mexico. Universidad Tecnologica de Mexico S.C. is the third largest private university in Mexico with 40.000 students studying. UNITEC currently offers high school, undergraduate, and graduate programs as well as continuing education programs, and on-line education. UNITEC is investing in the project that involves the construction of three new campuses in southern Mexico City, Guadalajara, and Monterrey. The three new campuses in Coyoacan, Guadalajara and Monterrey are all located in prime locations and are easily accessible. The investment will consolidate the University's market position as one of the leading private universities. The Guadalajara and Monterrey facilities are brand new buildings while the new campus in Mexico City will include a combination of new and renovated buildings. The project cost is estimated at \$184 million. The proposed IFC investment consists of a \$30 million A loan, the proceeds of which will be applied to the second phase of construction of the new Coyoacan campus in Mexico City.

Centro Medico PDH is also a Mexican project worth \$71.4 million. CMPDH is the first health care provider in Guadalajara to specialize in ambulatory surgery. Centro Medico Puerta de Hierro is a new medical complex in the Zapopan neighbourhood of Guadalajara. It consists of an ambulatory surgery center and an 80-bed general tertiary care hospital. The total project cost is estimated at \$71.4 million. The proposed IFC investment is a \$14 million A loan for IFC's own account. It aims to meet the growing demand for such services in the area and becoming a reference center for the 6 million inhabitants of the Jalisco state.

Table 3: Total worth of project for education in the LAC Region by IFC funds (2005-2011)

	Total worth (\$)
All projects (Own funds + IFC funds)	1,088,000,000
IFC funds	267,450,000
- A Loan	162,000,000
- C Loan	14,000,000
- Other	91,450,000

The table shows the total worth of all educational projects in the region of Latin America and the Caribbean, and the division of shares or how the funds IFC participated in their development. IFC funds are divided by the type of financing. The total worth of all educational projects since 2005 was \$1,088 billion, and of that IFC funds were \$267, 45 million. That means that the IFC was in the project realization present with 24, 6% of its own funds. A loans were used most frequently, with \$162 million or 60, 57%. C loans amounted \$14 million and the other financing funds amounted \$91, 45 million.

When presenting these specific projects it is clear that the IFC strategy of investing in the education sector is successful. Still, from a total amount of \$3 billion in the LAC region, only 3% of the funds have been set aside for the education sector. Even though there is still much room for improvement, we should always strive to better and bigger investments and not give up. The education investment projects are becoming recognizable over the years and the importance of investing in education is getting bigger and bigger. However, the investment into human intelligence may not provide immediate visible results and feedback but the effect should be visible over the years.

CONCLUSION

The education sector is a sector in which the IFC has invested the least when comparing it to the others, together with the development of the Health Industry. Even though it is investing the least money in that segment, it is the world's largest multilateral investor in education in emerging markets. Their role is not just too directly invest rather but to help partners in order to encourage them to further investments and education development. This way education standards are raised and it will not only be a short-term growth only when IFC invests but they are trying to raise the awareness about the importance of

Motivating the private sector to invest in education and health in developing countries is critical because the government is often restricted with its funds and cannot meet the needs of their citizens. The key role of the IFC is the cooperation with the government and private investors in order to ensure a quality education and health services to all segments of the population. IFC works with governments and private investors in Latin America & the Caribbean to ensure quality education and health services reach all segments of the population.

Investment in education is a key element of the development process. Ultimately, education is now, more than ever a key to a person's lifetime economic prospect in a world that is rapidly changing both economically and politically. Equality of opportunity in education for all people no matter what is a goal that still remains to be met.

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BIOGRAPHY

Dr. Elvis Mujačević is an Assistant Professor of International Finance at Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. He can be contacted at: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, Primorska 42, 51410 Opatija, Croatia. Email: elvism@fthm.hr

Prof. dr. sc. Ana Vizjak is an Associate Professor at Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. She can be contacted at: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, Primorska 42, 51410 Opatija, Croatia. Email: anav@fthm.hr

Andrea Cindrić is a former student of the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. She studied Business economy in tourism and hospitality and holds a Master in Economics of the area: International Management in Tourism and Hospitality area. She can be contacted at: Drage Gervaisa 24, 51000 Rijeka, Croatia. Email: cindric.andrea@gmail.com

EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA

Elvis Mujacevic, University of Rijeka Ana Vizjak, University of Rijeka Petar Jokic, University of Rijeka

ABSTRACT

The European Bank for Reconstruction and Development was established in 1991 when communism was crumbling in central and eastern Europe and ex-soviet countries needed support to nurture a new private sector in a democratic environment. Today the EBRD uses the tools of investment to help build market economies and democracies in countries from central Europe to central Asia. The EBRD is the largest single investor in the region and mobilises significant foreign direct investment beyond its own financing. It is owned by 61 countries and two intergovernmental institutions. But despite its public sector shareholders, it invests mainly in private enterprises, usually together with commercial partners. It provides project financing for banks, industries and businesses, both new ventures and investments in

It provides project financing for banks, industries and businesses, both new ventures and investments in existing companies. It also works with publicly owned companies, to support privatisation, restructuring state-owned firms and improvement of municipal services. The Bank uses its close relationship with governments in the region to promote policies that will bolster the business environment. This article outlines the role of EBRD in financing projects in tourism and hospitality industry in developing countries, in terms of how much has been invested in these countries, type of investment, the effects of these investments on local economy and the results of these investments.

KEYWORDS: European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Investments, Regional Development Banks, project finance, tourism and hospitality.

INTRODUCTION

The EBRD is an international financial institution that supports projects in 29 countries from central Europe to central Asia. Investing primarily in private sector clients whose needs cannot be fully met by the market, the Bank promotes entrepreneurship and fosters transition towards open and democratic market economies.

The EBRD is the largest single investor in the region and also mobilizes significant foreign direct investment into its countries of operations. The Bank invests mainly in private enterprises, usually together with commercial partners. It provides project financing for the financial sector and the real economy, both new ventures and investments in existing companies. It also works with publicly-owned companies to support privatization, restructuring of state-owned firms and improvement of municipal services.

Owned by 61 countries and two intergovernmental institutions, the EBRD maintains a close political dialogue with governments, authorities and representatives of civil society to promote its goals. In all its operations the EBRD follows the highest standards of corporate governance and sustainable development. As a public institution the EBRD is committed to a rigorous public information policy (EBRD, 2010).

EBRD PROJECT CYCLE

The EBRD is the largest single investor in central and eastern Europe and the CIS. Direct investments generally range from \in 5 million to \notin 230 million. Smaller projects are financed both directly by the EBRD and through financial intermediaries. By supporting local commercial banks, micro-business banks, equity funds and leasing facilities, the EBRD has helped finance over 1 million smaller projects.

The EBRD provides loan and equity finance, guarantees, leasing facilities and trade finance. The Bank also finances professional development through support programmes (EBRD, 2011a). Project finance is the EBRD's core business. To achieve its mission, the EBRD selects and designs projects using three interrelated operating principles, also referred to as the project "eligibility criteria". The first principle is sound banking. In structuring and pricing its projects, the EBRD tries to ensure that the project is economic and financially sustainable, that the cash flows generated by the project are sufficient to repay the debt owed to the Bank, and that the (expected) returns from its investments are commensurate with their (perceived) commercial risks. To ensure that sound banking principles are satisfied, the Bank takes security interests in the assets of investment projects and negotiates conditions related to financial performance, transparency or corporate governance arrangements.

The second operating principle is additionality. This principle supports the notion that the EBRD should not finance projects where the client can find sufficient finance elsewhere on terms and conditions that the Bank considers reasonable. The EBRD can finance loans with tenors longer than those available in the market and provide political comfort as a lender or shareholder. Even if the financial conditions of the loan (or equity) are similar to those that are commercially available, say in terms of pricing and tenor, the additionality of the Bank's financing may rest on the influence of the Bank in the origination, design or functioning of the project. The EBRD becomes additional by requiring the client to comply with business standards or environmental processes, for example, which private banks do not necessarily require as a condition of their financing.

The third operating principle is transition impact. Projects financed by the EBRD need to promote a measure of change and innovation sufficient to contribute to the process of transition to market at the level of the company, sector or economy where the project operates. To assess this measure of change and innovation one needs to understand the economic transition process itself and judge the incremental contribution of the projects financed by the EBRD to that process. Thus, "transition impact", simply stated, is the contribution that a project makes to the process of transformation of a company (the client, sponsor or guarantor), sector or economy (where the project is implemented) from centrally planned structures to market economy structures (Carbajo, 2006).

The reminder of this paper is structured as follows. In section 2 we briefly describe the tourism projects that were financed by EBRD, and we systemize the date by specific categories. Section 3 consiste of economic analysis of investment projects. We analyze investment projects according to varius criteria like amount invested, type of investment, regions invested, etc. At the end of the paper are some concluding remarks.

ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENT OF THE TOURISM PROJECTS IN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA

In this section we will systematize the tourism projects by specific categories. These categories are the following: the host country of the project, the total cost of the investment, EBRD financing (EUR), types of financing (loan types), project category according to the EBRD classification, year of publication and approval of the project as well as the status of the investment project. The defined data will be included in

the analytical process and put into a mutual relationship in order to come to certain conclusions from this relationship.

When we are talking about the analysis, we are referring to "any operation of breaking down or splitting complex objects, phenomena or units to their parts in order to observe more closely and examine the parts and details in order to understand the unit better and safer."

In the process of the analysis, regardless of the applied area, we usually examine relations, relationships and causal links by breaking down an object, thing or phenomenon.

Project name	Country	Total investment cost in EUR	EBRD financing EUR	Type of financing	Project category	Year of the project/Status
Sunny Travel Eood	Bulgaria	30.000.000	20.000.000	10.000.000 A- loan; 10.000.000 B- loan	В	2005/closed
Hilton Podgorica	Montenegro	74.300.000	23.900.000	Senior credit	В	2010/active
Saint Stefan Hotel Complex PPP	Montenegro	92.600.000	37.000.000	A-loan; B-loan;*	В	2010/active
Jadrnaka hotels	Croatia	75.300.000	24.400.000	Equity	В	2008/active
GC Hotels & Resorts	Croatia	330.000.000	52.600.000	27.500.000 senior credit; 25.100.000 equity	В	2007/active
Raduga II	Kazakhstan	17.400.000	6.000.000	Senior credit	В	2005/closed
Joint Venture Halkyr CJSC	Kazakhstan	13.000.000	5.500.000	Senior credit	В	1997/closed
Dom Development SA	Poland	100.000.000	30.000.000	Mezzanine financing	В	2002/closed
ATrium Hotel Warsaw	Poland	79.500.000	14.500.000	12.000.000 variable credit; 2.500.000 subordinated credit	В	2000/closed
Russian Hotel Investment	Russia	98.500.000	33.100.000	27.100.000 senior credit; 6.000.000 equity	В	2010/active
Zao Hotel Corporation	Russia	26.400.000	13.500.000	10.500.000 senior credit; 3.000.000 subordinated credit	В	1998/closed
ORCO Aparthotel	Regional project	142.000.000	14.430.000	Equity	В	2003/closed
TUI Advance Paymants	Regional project	120.000.000	41-200.000	Revolving credit	С	2003/closed

Table 1: EBRD investments in the tourism projects in Europe and Central Asia (1997-2010)

Table 1 shows all investment projects in tourism considering the relevant variables which are taken into account in the analysis. The project documentation does not specify the value of the investments by type of loan, but only the total investment of the EBRD (A+B loan).

The enclosed table shows that out of a total of 13 investment projects in the tourism sector, as much as 11 are in Europe and only two in Central Asia. Two countries are members of former Yugoslavia, Croatia and Montenegro. Both countries have adopted tourism as a strategic determinant in the overall economic development, in their economic program. This fact is completely understandable if we observe the geographic and geomorphologic position of both countries, which together practically stretch over the entire eastern Adriatic coast. The jagged coastline and maintained landscape are a guarantee for a high competitive advantage, which promises a good accommodation occupancy. The characteristic of these countries is an outdated tourism infrastructure which cannot meet the current international standards and tourist demand. Taking this fact into account and in the case of lack of investment in the infrastructure development, the market value falls in the way that offers are of poor quality, which automatically causes

a weaker demand and the loss of the market position and competitiveness. Bulgaria has the same situation, with the exception of having a different geographical position, i.e. the sea access, as the premise for the tourism development in Bulgaria is to the Black Sea. If we take Poland into account, we see that the investments are carried out in major, urban centres. The reason for that is surely the fact that the Polish urban areas are related to the historical and cultural heritage and attract potential tourists. Besides that, major urban areas are usually larger financial centres that attract business people. We have two projects in Russia which are substantially different. Mostly because of the locations. While one is located in the region of St. Petersburg (Zao Hotel Corporation) as a major urban area, the other project (Russian Hotel Investments) is located in several smaller regional centres, which is supposed to result in an additional revitalisation of these areas. The investment in Kazakhstan is also no wonder. It is a country of exceptional natural wealth, which makes the support of the potential private investment initiative by high quality hotel services with recognized international standards, of utmost importance. Except for these mentioned initiatives in capital investment, attention should be paid on two projects of regional dimensions. These are private groups (TUI and ORCO) which are investing in Central and Eastern Europe. TUI as the world's leading tour operator is investing in the hotel infrastructure because this way the quality and quantity of its offer is raised and the market diversified. The ORCO group also invests into hotel portfolios but as well in the construction of smaller Apart-hotels in major urban centres of the region in order to satisfy the western market and its tendency to stay in small flats/apartments in major urban centres.

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF INVESTMENT PROJECTS

The first variable that we will consider is the variable on the total cost of the investment project. Not all the projects were motivated by the same initiative, but we will see that later. Each project is different, depending on what main goal was taken into account during the investment procedure. The biggest project in terms of expenses was the GS Hotels & Resorts (ALH) in Croatia. Its value was estimated at 330 million Euros. The investments of the company ORCO Apart-hotel is the next in the amount of 142 million Euros, followed by TUI Advance Payments with 120 millions, Dom Development SA with a straight 100 million, Russian Hotel Investments with 98,5 million etc. It is interesting to note the recent investment initiatives in Montenegro which together reach a staggering 167 Euros.

Sunny Travel Eood 350 Hilton Podgorica 300 Saint Stefan 250 Jadranka Hotels GS Hotels & Resorts 200 Mil. EUR Raduga II 150 Joint Venture Halkyr CJSC Dom Development SA 100 Atrium Hotel Warsaw 50 Russian Hotel Investment Zao Hotel Corporation 0 ORCO Apart-hotel PROJECTS TUT

Figure 1: Comparisons of the investment project costs

Figure 1 shows the total investment in the tourism sector of the region. The biggest project in terms of expenses was the GS Hotels & Resorts (ALH) in Croatia in the amount of 330 million Euros, followed by ORCO Apart-hotel in the amount of 142 million Euros, TUI Advance Payments with 120 millions, Dom Development SA with a straight 100 million, Russian Hotel Investments with 98,5 million etc.

Funding from the EBRD is subject to certain criteria and various forms of financing. That means that the EBRD is never a majority shareholder in the company for which it approves funding and it also does not participate in any type of management (EBRD 2011a). It does not deny the supervision of the project itself until it acquires the status "closed". Table 1 shows that project investments are different, and some investments are of greater value than others. The share of the EBRD is arranged in the same manner, that way we can see that the investment in Croatia and GS Hotels & Resorts is the biggest and amounts 52,6 million Euros. The investment from TUI is following with 41,2 millions, Saint Stefan with 37 million Euro etc. It is interesting to note that the second largest investment by the ORCO group, which totals 142 million, is financed by the EBRD by "only" 14,42 million Euros. The investment arrangement of the EBRD can be viewed in figure 2..

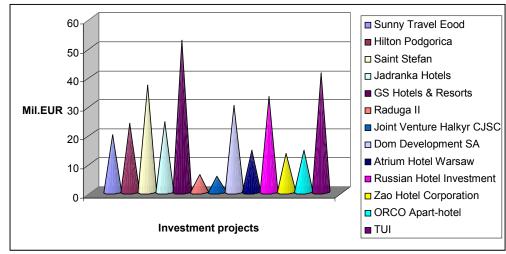


Figure 2: The share of EBRD in financing investment projects

Figure 2 shows the total investment in the tourism sector by EBRD. The biggest EBRD investment in tourism project was the GS Hotels & Resorts (ALH) in Croatia in the amount of 52,6 million Euros, followed by investment in TUI with 41,2 millions, Saint Stefan with 37 million Euro etc.

Figure 3: The share of investments (millions of EUR) according to the countries in the region

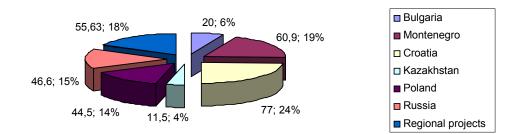


Figure 3 shows percentage of funding by the country. The biggest share of funding has Croatia (24%), followed by Montenegro (19%), Russia (18%), etc.

If we take the overall tourism investments and accommodation sector in Europe and Central Asia into account, in which the EBRD participated during the observed period, we reach the figure of 1 billion and

199 million Euros. The EBRD has, through its own funds, syndicated loans and other ways of financing participated with 316,13 million Euros from the total amount, which ultimately makes up 21% from the total investments. The private sector of countries which have initiated the projects, the sponsors, have participated with 79% of the total project costs or the money equivalent of 882,87 million USD.

It would also be interesting to observe the share of EBRD financing in the countries that have received funding in some form of financing. Figure 3 clearly shows us this segment. Croatia has the largest share, followed by Montenegro, Russia, Poland, Bulgaria and finally Kazakhstan. Regional projects also occupy a large percentage. If this information is taken into account in the way that these funds are placed precisely on the existing tourism markets with high potential (including Croatia), we come to an even greater percentage for each country.

The next figure (4) gives us insight into the relationships between the size of private sector investments of some countries and the EBRD in that country. It is clear that the biggest investments took place in Croatia, both by the private sector and by the EBRD.

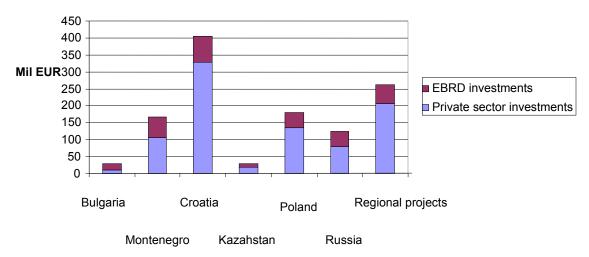


Figure 4: The ratio of investments of the private sector and the EBRD in the specific countries

Figure 4 shows the relationships between the size of private sector investments of some countries and the EBRD in that country. Croatia is again in the first place in terms of private sector financing and EBRD financing.

The following table shows the motives that were the generators of investments in the tourism sector for each project. The following motives are dominant: construction, modernisation, operationalisation, reconstruction, capacity expansion, upgrade construction. It is important to understand the motives of investments because they are always planned with a specific purpose, which further generates subordinate goals which can be achieved by the realisation of the main goal, such as employment, establishing international business standards, deeper cooperation with local suppliers, etc.

Table 2: Motives for project investments

PROJECT	INVESTMENT MOTIVE
Sunny Travel Eood	Development/modernisation
Hilton Podgorica	Reconstruction/expanding/business modernisation
Saint Stefan Hotel Complex PPP	Construction/reconstruction/business modernisation /business expanding
Jadrnaka hotels	Reconstruction
GC Hotels & Resorts	Rebuilding the devastated hotel infrastructure, establishing tourism as a generator of economic changes
Raduga II	Construction/work
Joint Venture Halkyr CJSC	Reconstruction/ business modernisation
Dom Development SA	Construction of accommodation projects for tourism purposes
ATrium Hotel Warsaw	Projecting/construction/work
Russian Hotel Investment	Development/construction/work
Zao Hotel Corporation	Construction
ORCO Apart-hotel	Building Apart-hotels on attractive destinations
TUI Advance Paymants	Upgrade construction and expansion of facilities

Table 2 shows the motives that were the generators of investments in the tourism sector for each project. According to the table the dominant motives are construction, modernisation, operationalization, reconstruction, capacity expansion, upgrade construction.

If we take a look at the fifth column in table 1 called type of financing, we get an insight into the structure and types of financing. It is clear that the tourism sector has two basic types of financing: the credit and the share in the ownership structure. We can consider the revolving credit, which is present in an investment project, as a guarantee, as a form of financing but we will arrange him also in a line of credit. It is precisely these two criteria that we will take into consideration and conduct a deeper analysis. The following figure (5) shows the relationship of these two types of financing and their value. The loans will include A- loans, B-loans, Senior loans, Revolving loans, while the shares in the ownership structure include: Equity, mezzanine financing, the variable credit and the subordinate credit.

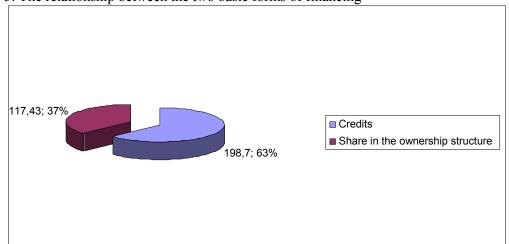


Figure 5: The relationship between the two basic forms of financing

Figure 5 shows the relationship between the two basic forms of financing: credits (loans) and equity financing (share in the ownership structure). As the figure shows, the dominant form of financing is credit (loan) and that's because EBRD never accept more than 25% of equity in any project that finances. Even when EBRD is financing a project in the form of share in the ownership structure EBRD has always clear 'exit' strategy from the project.

The next two figures show the relationship of certain types of credits in the two basic groups.

Figure 6: The relationship of specific loans in EBRD credits

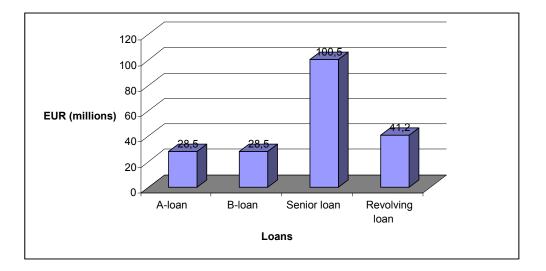


Figure 6 shows the relationship of specific loans in EBRD credits. According to the figure 6, senior loan is the main form of financing in the credit structure of EBRD.

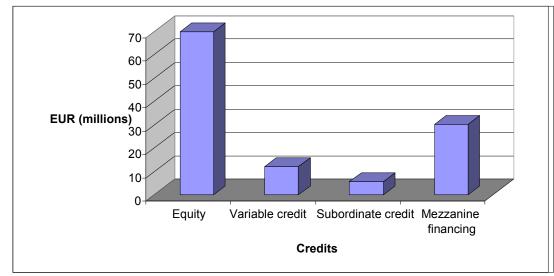


Figure 7: The relationship of specific credits according to the shares in the equity capital

Figure 7 shows the relationship between credit and shares in the equity capital.

It can be observed that the Senior loan and Equity are the two strongest forms of financing and combined they come up with almost the half of the total funding. This fact is understandable if we take into consideration that the senior loans are credits of the highest rank, where the creditor has a payment priority in case something goes wrong. By participating in the equity capital the EBRD expects the return of the investment and there is a constant supervision.

In order to get a clearer picture of the EBRD financing in the tourism sector in Europe and Central Asia, all of the above can be shown in a graphical display that will show us the exact financing form, its amount in millions of Euros as well as the total share which it occupies in the entire picture.

Table 3: EBRD investment forms for the tourism sector in Europe and Central As	sia
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Form of financing	The amount of the EBRD investments in millions, EUR	% of the total investment	
A- loan	28,5	9%	
B – loan	28,5	9%	
Senior loan	100,5	32%	
Revolving loan	41,2	13%	
Equity	69,63	22%	
Subordinate credit	5,5	2%	
Variable credit	12	4%	
Mezzanine credit	30	9%	
IN TOTAL	316,13	100%	

Table 3 shows different forms of financing, and the percentage of the total financing. As we can see from the table 3, senior loans are the main forms of financing, with the percentage of 32%, followed by equity financing (22%). The least form of EBRD financing is subordinate credit (2%). That's because EBRD wants to be sure that the money they invest in a project will give some results, and the debt will be paid back.

The next figure shows the percentage shares of all financing forms which were used for the purpose of the EBRD financing in the tourism sector for the observed region. The Senior loan and Equity, as already mentioned, show the biggest share in the pie chart of financial means.

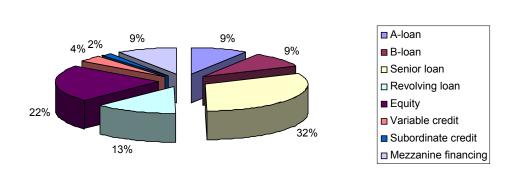


Figure 8: Specific share of every crediting form from the EBRD

As the figure 8 shows, senior loan and equity financing are the main forms of financing by EBRD (about 54 % of the total financing).

The next relevant variable that is worth analysing is the project categorisation according to the environmental impact and social as well as societal impact that these projects have on the local population and beyond. EBRD distinguishes four impact categories (A, B, C and FI). It is obvious that all the projects are in the category rank B except the last one, TUI Advance Payments which belongs to the category C (table 1). This literally means that these are projects (except TUI) which are expected to have a limited unfavourable societal and/or environmental impact and they can be easily solved through mitigation measures. Mitigation measures are listed for every project and they should and must be implemented because of the project functionality but mostly because of the protection, safety and security of the people and environment, which are directly affected by the project. The importance of determining the impact categories of the project is seen through the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development criteria which state that "The project has to meet the banking and environmental standards of the EBRD, as well as those of the host country" (EBRD, 2011a.).

The following variable, which will be analysed, is the time-frame of the investment projects. It is interesting that the investments started in Kazakhstan in 1997 and it took until 2007 for them to start in the countries of former Yugoslavia (Croatia and Montenegro).

Since crediting is not fully provided by the EBRD and its participation is limited to an average share of 21% there is a need for a different capital accumulation. It is generated through national and local commercial banks. Of course, since this is about countries that were in transition and just recently introduced the market economy, it was primary to develop the financial and banking system for the business development. This fact explains the time gap between the initial investments in the financial sector and the initial investments in the tourism sector.

The last analytical process will be focused on the investment project status. We distinguish three categories: active or signed, closed and in the signing process. From a total of 13 projects, 8 have the status closed, 4 are still active and one is in the signing process.

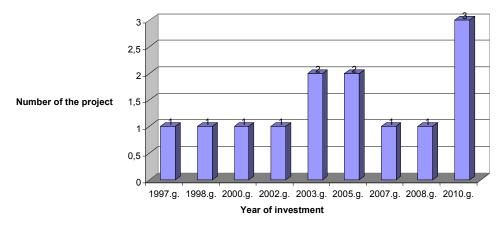


Figure 9: Time-frame dimension of the EBRD investments in the tourism sector in Europe and Central Asia

It can be seen that the older projects are all closed and the recent projects are active/signed or in the signing process. We can come to the conclusion that the EBRD ensures itself when approving financial injections and that it does not invest into projects which do not have the potential for returning the debt. This means that the mechanisms of the entire project cycle function very good and that each stage of the cycle is performed exactly in the way that the EBRD expects it from the borrower.

THE ASSESSMENT OF INVESTMENT PROJECTS IN THE TOURISM SECTOR IN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA CONDUCTED BY THE EBRD

In assessing the investment projects in the tourism sector we will take the last annual report created by the EBRD about the year 2009. There are no data more recent than that, probably because the report for the data from 2010 is still not finished. In presenting the grade it is necessary to distinguish a few things. EBRD distinguishes 4 main sectors in its sectoral division: corporate, energy, financial and infrastructure. Each of them is further divided into sub-sectors and thus we have (EBRD 2010a):

- Corporate agribusiness, manufacturing, real estate and tourism as well as telecommunications,
- **Energy** natural resources and energy sector,
- Financial investment in micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises through financial intermediaries and
- > Infrastructure municipal environmental infrastructure and transport.

The sector and sub-sector which is of our interest is real estate and tourism. We see that it is a part of a larger, superior sector which is called the corporate sector. We have selected 13 projects from the subsector, real estate and tourism for the purpose of this paper, even though there are 76 projects in total. Only 13, however, are directly related to tourism investments, which are the subject of this paper. In order to get the size and importance of the investments in the tourism sector we will start form the total EBRD investment since its existence and then afterwards divide it according to the share that each one occupies in the 4 main listed sectors. Analogous to this way we will reach the percentage value of the tourism sector share in the total portfolio of the EBRD project financing since, in Table 3, we have calculated the total financial resources engaged by the EBRD in the development of the presented 13 projects.

The cumulative value of all financial investments in the existing 4 sectors, from its foundation 1991 until the last report for the year 2009 totals 147,5 billion Euros. The engagement of the EBRD totals 47,7 billion Euros and the remaining part of the mobilized resources is 98,8 billion. 2.835 projects have been financed with this amount (EBRD, 2010a) The part which is concerned with the EBRD's participation is

of interest to us. Looking 5 years back, until 2005, the share of the EBRD investments was at the level of 4-5 billion Euros per year. In 2009 this amount rose to 7,9 billion. The reason for this is the underlined investment which should help in getting out of the crisis, EBRD has declared this itself. The distribution of these 7,9 billion into the sectors was as follows (EBRD, 2010a):

- corporative $\rightarrow 20\%$
- energy $\rightarrow 19\%$
- financial institutions \rightarrow 39%
- infrastructure \rightarrow 22%.

This distribution can be considered significant in the total redistribution from the very beginning of the EBRD business, since values eventually tend to equalize or average according to the Gaussian curve.

So, the corporate sector accounts for 20% but we must be aware of the fact that it is constituted by 4 subsectors. The one that is of our interest is the sub-sector: real estate and tourism. This sector has 76 projects overall, but only 13 of them imply tourism investments in the content. If the total investment of the EBRD in all the sectors amounted 47,7 billion Euros and 316,13 million Euros in the mentioned existing tourism projects, we come to the result that the total participation or percentage share in the tourism sector is 0,7%.

Overall, this share does not seem to have a big importance, but if put it into context of the overall figures and the countries to which the funding was distributed to, it is of great importance after all, for the local tourism sector and the multiplication effects that will generate or have already been generated in the project cycles.

CONCLUSION

We have defined and through calculation proved, that the total EBRD investments in the tourism subsector amount a small part of the entire EBRD investments as an institution in all the sectors which have by plan been intended for financing. However, these investments also present big steps in updating and modernising the existing tourist attractions, in the expansion of already existing and established hotel chains and in the process of building new facilities. We can easily conclude that there is a certain gap between the financial and business sector in the countries where the EBRD is operating. This is most evident in the financing sources which can be unfavourable and uncompetitive, or perhaps the financial structure of a country is not on the level of private entrepreneurship and vice versa. In such cases, an organisation such as EBRD can play a key role in the evolution of an investment project. First, because it is an institution that has the means, or is able to acquire them with its rating and status, and second, because means that are activated this way are significantly cheaper from any domestic commercial loan.

Such projects are carriers of the further development in terms of newly created workplaces, directly in the industry, as well as indirect, on the level of supplying the new companies. In the macroeconomic point of view new workplaces generate new income and raise the overall spending on a higher level. This type of spending should be followed by the offer so the new situation should be adapted with an increased production, which can result in increased export, and of course with the regulation of foreign trade debts and reaching an optimal balance of payments. Naturally, this is a process that requires a little longer time frame, but the theoretical settings are clear, they should just be followed.

So far, Croatia has, on private initiative, twice reached for the EBRD financing. Both initiatives were recent. Taking the Croatian commitment to become one of the leading tourist destinations in the Mediterranean into consideration, this information is surprising, because the hotel infrastructure in the Republic of Croatia is in a bad condition (there are honourable exceptions). These projects make it

evident that the investment motives are mainly linked to construction, reconstruction, modernisation, repositioning of the hotel accommodation and the introduction of international standards as a after-effect of the globalisation process. If resources in favourable terms are available, why not take advantage of them and engage equally in the race of getting a demanding tourism market. The probable reason for that is the fact that tourism in Croatia, unfortunately, still has seasonal character and does not guarantee a certain level of profit that would cover the debts and generated costs. This is the reason why we should use the more favourable financing conditions and make a reprogramming of the entire Croatian tourist offer under the supervision of the EBRD staff. There are indications that point to this direction, but frankly it all seems too slow and that it does not follow international trends and if so than always a few steps behind.

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BIOGRAPHY

Elvis Mujačević, Ph.D, is an Assistant Professor of International Finance at Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. He can be contacted at: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, Primorska 42, 51410 Opatija, Croatia. Email: elvism@fthm.hr

Ana Vizjak, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor at Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. She can be contacted at: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, Primorska 42, 51410 Opatija, Croatia. Email: anav@fthm.hr

Petar Jokić is a graduate student of the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, University of Rijeka, Croatia. He can be contacted at: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija, Primorska 42, 51410 Opatija, Croatia. Email: ds759d10@fthm.hr

SPANISH PROCEEDINGS

FACTORES DE CONTINGENCIA QUE INCIDEN EN LA PROFESIONALIZACIÓN Y COMPETITIVIDAD DE LAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES DEL SECTOR INDUSTRIAL DE TIJUANA, B.C., MÉXICO

Alfonso Vega López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California María Virginia Flores Ortiz, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California María Marcela Solís Quinteros, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo contempla una investigación para analizar las variables de contingencias de liderazgo (gestión) y cultura organizacional para determinar los factores que inciden en el proceso de profesionalización tomando este como un factor de competitividad en las empresas familiares del sector industrial de Tijuana, B.C., México. Tomando en cuenta que los fundadores de las empresas familiares son personas y en muchas ocasiones cuentan con un con un alto grado de compromiso, son visionarios, dotados de gran confianza en sí mismos y con una enorme fuerza de voluntad, que dedican muchas horas a las compañías, y muchas veces ignorando los fundamentos básicos gerenciales para ser altamente competitivos. Para lograr los resultados se han realizado 59 encuestas representativas a los propietarios registrados en el Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano, (SIEM, correspondiente a Tijuana, en Baja California. México.

Palabras claves: profesionalización, cultura organizacional, competitividad

INTRODUCCIÓN

Hoy en día, el país continúa enfrentando el reto de que las empresas familiares evolucionen y la profesionalización es parte de esa evolución, por lo cual los propietarios deben hacerse la pregunta ¿si realmente están siendo competitivas sus empresas?, y pensar seriamente en dar ese paso y buscar el siguiente nivel para sus organizaciones.

Las propias características de la empresa familiar, con directivos familiares, las tensiones y conflictos internos, en muchas ocasiones pueden merman la competitividad de la misma, aun así, este tipo de empresas muestran características diferenciales que bien encaminadas, sabiéndolas utilizar y aplicar les aportan ventajas competitivas, todo esto con miras a buscar una perspectiva empresarial de largo plazo, de tal modo, que no solo busquen lograr objetivos inmediatos, sino que logren la transición de la primera, a la segunda generación y tercera generación.

Una de las principales limitantes de las empresas familiares, es que llevan la informalidad del trato familiar, a la formalidad de una organización considerada como profesional. Con el tiempo, el crecimiento del sistema familia-empresa-propiedad exige un trato más profesionalizado, esto es, darle al proceso de toma de decisiones una forma ordenada, considerando muchas veces una correcta aplicación de la administración y la cultura organizacional de la misma.

Toda empresa que desee preservar su carácter familiar debe tener la capacidad de profesionalizarse, tomando en cuenta que esto incluye atraer y retener a directivos no familiares y planificar la sucesión de su dirección, es decir, el propietario debe saber cuándo es el momento de ceder la batuta y garantizar la competencia del sucesor.

En la mayoría de las empresas familiares el bajo grado de profesionalización, lleva a que se elija a los directivos entre los miembros de la familia, lo que conlleva en muchas ocasiones a malas elecciones. Como decía un sabio propietario de una importante empresa familiar, lo cual no siempre es la mejor decisión.

Por lo tanto, la profesionalización debe ser algo bien pensando y se debe llevar a cabo estableciendo reglas, estructura y un modelo de sociedad, que contemple el conflicto de intereses entre las prioridades y estrategias colectivas de la empresa, los caprichos, deseos y celos individuales de los socios. En este proceso hay que involucrar a todos; es decir, herederos directos e indirectos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La Empresa Familiar Características y Funcionamiento

Lozano (2009), hace referencia de que la empresa familiar se considera de gran importancia en la economía de un país con un sistema libre de mercado, pues representa un alto porcentaje del total de las empresas que operan en este (Neubauer y Lank, 1999; Rutherford, Muse y Oswald, 2006)

Gallo, Lansberg, cfr., Dodero, (2002), definen a la empresa familiar como aquella que incluye dos o más miembros de la familia teniendo control financiero sobre ella (Donelly, 1964). En términos generales se suele asociar a las empresas familiares con las empresas pequeñas y mediana con escasa profesionalización; pero su característica principal y lo que define la esencia de este tipo de organizaciones, no es el tamaño, eficacia de la gestión directiva, sino el hecho de que la propiedad y el control de la dirección está en manos de uno o más miembros de un mismo grupo familiar y que existe intención de que la empresa siga en manos de la familia.

El modelo de los tres círculos (Tagiuri y Davis, 1982), es uno de los que han sido más empleados para describir distintas situaciones actuales y futuras de las empresas familiares. En este modelo cada círculo representa un grupo de personas, con particulares características en relación con la empresa familiar, y las intersecciones de los círculos los grupos de personas que poseen dos o tres de las tres características identificadas por el modelo.

Según coincidan en mayor o menor grado los tres círculos, es decir, estos se superpongan como atraídas por una fuerza centrípeta, algo que suele ocurrir en primera y segunda generación, o se distancien como separados por una fuerza centrífuga, como acostumbra a pasar en empresas familiares de gran tamaño, se estará frente a distintos tipos de empresas familiares, con características muy diferentes, por el número de protagonistas que en ellas trabajan o con ellas tienen relación, por los distintos roles que desempeñan y sus diferentes intereses, así como por el contenido de las relaciones y actitudes que entre unas y otras personas se dan. Otra característica que destaca en estas empresas es la cultura, o dicho en otras palabras, los valores, actitudes y creencias propias de una familia que mayoritariamente dirige y controla la empresa en cuestión.

Esta cultura define el funcionamiento interno que adoptará la firma y debido a ello también han sido cuantiosos los autores que han tratado de estudiarla con el fin de obtener resultados acerca de la problemática específica de la empresa familiar. Sobre esta cuestión podrían destacarse los trabajos de Dyer (1986) y Gallo (1992), los cuales realizan un exhaustivo análisis de la incidencia de dichos valores en los negocios de tipo familiar.

Por último, hay que subrayar otro aspecto significativo que es la visión a largo plazo que este tipo de negocios plantea y que es fruto de numerosas disparidades con las empresas no familiares. Estudios como los realizados por Daily y Dollinger (1991; 1992; 1993) o Donckels y Fröhlich (1991), demuestran esa

afinidad a la continuidad a lo largo de las generaciones, la cual implica uno de los problemas más importantes tratados a través de los años como es la sucesión, puesto que aun existiendo esa visión a largo plazo, muchas empresas no logran superar el cambio de generación.

Competitividad y Empresa Familiar

Entendemos por competitividad a la capacidad de una organización pública o privada, lucrativa o no, de mantener sistemáticamente ventajas que le permitan alcanzar, sostener y mejorar una determinada posición en el entorno socioeconómico." La ventaja de una organización estaría en su habilidad, recursos, conocimientos y atributos de los que dispone dicha organización, los mismos de los que carecen sus competidores o que estos tienen en menor medida que hace posible la obtención de los rendimientos superiores a los de aquellos.

Competitividad es un término que se utiliza con frecuencia pero que rara vez se define. En realidad no hay consenso sobre el concepto de competitividad. Competitividad es una traducción libre de lo que en inglés es *"Competitiveness"*, que quiere decir: *"justa, rivalidad"*, y que deriva de la competencia. Económicamente, es la creación y mantenimiento de un mercado en el que participan numerosas empresas y donde se determina el precio conforme a la ley de la oferta y la demanda". (Chauca, 2000). Es importante para efectos de la investigación determinar la posición competitiva de México y de acuerdo con el Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad, conocido por sus siglas, por IMCO, (2009), como la capacidad de atraer y retener inversiones. La definición mostrada anteriormente implica que para poder atraer y retener inversiones, es necesario que un país ofrezca las condiciones integrales aceptables en el ámbito internacional para maximizar el potencial socioeconómico de las empresas y personas que en él radican y, además incrementar de forma sostenida su nivel de bienestar, más allá de las posibilidades intrínsecas que sus propios recursos, capacidad tecnológica y de innovación ofrezcan y, todo ello, con independencia de las fluctuaciones económicas normales por las que el país atraviese.

De acuerdo con datos de la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (OCDE), en el 2010, México ocupó la posición número sesenta y seis de Competitividad a nivel mundial, Asimismo, la posición competitiva del estado de Baja California, de acuerdo a los indicadores de competitividad, de los estados del país, en el índice general de competitividad de 2007, Baja California ocupa el cuarto lugar a nivel nacional, asimismo se encuentra en el cuarto lugar en desempeño económico, séptimo lugar en eficiencia gubernamental, el cuarto lugar en eficiencia en los negocios, y por ultimo en séptimo lugar en infraestructura.

Las organizaciones competitivas serán la base para que la economía de un país sea fuerte y sólida. Todo se puede lograr si un país cuenta con población competente, lo cual significa gente capaz de crear e innovar, que cuente con las facultades necesarias para desarrollar y operar sistemas tanto tecnológicos como organizacionales que generen satisfactores de óptima calidad." (Cantú, 2001).

La Profesionalización y la Competitividad

En la actualidad nos encontramos en un mundo globalizado, pertenecemos a una unión de países y las empresas familiares en México, enfrentan la falta de profesionalización, la cual se debe llevar esta a cabo estableciendo reglas, estructura y un modelo de sociedad, que contemple el conflicto de intereses entre las prioridades y estrategias colectivas (de la empresa) y los caprichos, deseos y celos individuales (de los socios).

Lozano (2009), menciona que se debe tomar en cuenta que la formación en valores y en habilidades de liderazgo, debe complementarse con la formación en áreas administrativas o en un área técnica importante, esto es, educación formal, que le de capacidades al potencial sucesor de trabajar en la

empresa familiar, (Venter et al.m 2005: Lambrechet, 2005).

En este proceso hay que involucrar a todos; es decir, herederos directos e indirectos. Es probable que, en algún momento de la vida de una empresa familiar, sus dueños piensen que deberán profesionalizarla. Con frecuencia se considera que "profesionalizar" significa cambiar la administración familiar por otra no familiar. En otras palabras, que basta con elegir a un ejecutivo ajeno a la familia para que conduzca el negocio. (Davis, 2007).

Una compañía es considerada profesional cuando muestra altos niveles de desempeño y ética. Esos niveles se alcanzan generando culturas que pongan énfasis en el desempeño, al tiempo que adhieren a valores fundamentales de la compañía, aprenden en forma constante, y se esfuerzan por lograr la igualdad en reconocimiento y recompensas. Las culturas de negocios profesionales se nutren de los esfuerzos de sus líderes y de procesos "formales": fijar metas y reglas claras, valorar el desempeño y la ética de los empleados, contratar personal sobre la base de su capacidad para contribuir, y otorgar ascensos también en función de las contribuciones. Una compañía puede ser de propiedad de una familia, estar administrada por la familia y ser profesional.

La profesionalización nada tiene que ver con categorías, sino con actitudes y comportamientos personales. Y, de hecho, es posible que los miembros de la familia que posean la combinación apropiada de cualidades, tengan ciertas ventajas al administrar el negocio, en especial para asegurar a los principales interesados—familiares accionistas, empleados, clientes y proveedores— que la empresa es estable y pueden confiar en ella. Por lo tanto, no hay que caer en la trampa de suponer que para hacer más profesional una empresa hay que deshacerse de los empleados-familiares.

La profesionalización en las empresas familiares, consiste en hacer que las actividades, se ejecuten con criterios empresariales de eficiencia y evaluación de resultados, sin que la toma de decisiones, se encuentren influenciadas por criterios familiares, que no siempre son compatibles con los empresariales. Para ello, se debe disponer de un equipo directivo con experiencia en los negocios y conocimientos técnicos en administración de empresas.

La profesionalización en México continúa enfrentando el reto de adoptar prácticas de gobierno corporativo para profesionalizar a sus empresas familiares, por lo que si busca acelerar el paso en la materia, requiere de "un sistema político unificado que ayude a crear la infraestructura educativa necesaria para tener incentivos reales en el acceso al financiamiento. (Davis, 2007)

De acuerdo con Farías (2005), para el desarrollo de las empresas familiares, es importante la profesionalización de la empresa, ya que es un paso decisivo para manejar los conflictos potenciales entre los valores, metas de la familia y la organización, una ventaja significativamente importante para la mayoría de las empresas familiares. Por lo cual la profesionalización significa: "llevar a la empresa de una gestión empírica a una científica, que conduzca al desarrollo empresarial, permitiendo la transición de la empresa a través de etapas que la hagan más competitiva.

Asimismo, el desarrollo de una empresa es un proceso de cambio no estructurado, ya que el empresario conoce la situación actual de la organización, pero no conoce los procedimientos y en muchos casos, no tiene definida su visión (el lugar hacia donde quiere ir). Uno de los principales objetivos de la profesionalización, implica modificar su estructura; los problemas que hay que resolver, en este aspecto se resumen en los siguientes puntos: cómo funcionará la comunicación en la empresa, cómo se tomarán las decisiones, cómo se establecerán las pautas de manejo, cómo se determinarán las responsabilidades y se delegará autoridad, cómo se reconocerá y compensará el rendimiento. (Farías, 2005)

Para efectos de esta investigación, se toma en cuenta en el proceso de profesionalización, la cultura

organizacional, liderazgo y la capacitación, como los elementos que inciden de manera directa en la profesionalización y son factores de competitividad.

MÉTODO

La metodología de investigación es cuantitativa y cualitativa. La investigación cuantitativa se aplica para el levantamiento de encuestas, a través de cuestionarios a los propietarios según una muestra aleatoria de la población total de las empresas familiares del sector industrial. Se procesará la información recabada con aplicación del programa estadístico SPSS para el análisis descriptivo e inferencial.

Problemática y Justificación

En el escenario actual de la economía mexicana, se encuentran un número significativo de empresas familiares, en las que de acuerdo a las características del tiempo presente, en donde la turbulencia es muy agresiva, producto de la inestabilidad política, que ha incidido en lo económico, aunado a la poca formación de sus gerentes con respectos a los conocimientos gerenciales que hoy en día se requieren, algunas empresas han cerrado y otras se encuentran estancadas, lo que conlleva a que se tomen las medidas y acciones adecuadas para contrarrestar los efectos de las variables de contingencias del entorno. La profesionalización de las empresas familiares en México, así como en Tijuana, B.C. es tan importante, ya que su existencia puede depender de dicho factor. Muchas empresas, al iniciar la producción de bienes o servicios, deben contemplar y considerar los diferentes factores que inciden en su negocio.

En una primera etapa, el propietario abarca todas las áreas de desarrollo de su empresa, pero llega un momento en el cual es necesaria la profesionalización de la misma y debe poner énfasis en la especialización de tareas para un correcto y sustentable desarrollo. Lo anterior, generalmente es obviado por los empresarios, ya que el trabajo cotidiano, les resta tiempo en temáticas de gestión de su empresa y la mayoría de las veces no cuentan con los conocimientos necesarios.

Factores de contingencia

Los factores de contingencia, son aquellos estados o condiciones organizativas que están asociados al uso de ciertos parámetros de diseño. Los factores a los que vamos a referirnos pueden clasificarse de la siguiente manera:

- 1) La edad y el tamaño, tomando en cuenta la dimensión, ubicación geográfica de la organización; entre mayor antigüedad tenga la organización, más formalizado estará su comportamiento, y entre más grande sea la organización, más compleja será su estructura es decir, más especializadas estarán sus tareas, más diferenciadas sus unidades de trabajo y su componente administrativo. De tal manera que en una estructura burocrática, existe la especialización del trabajo, se requiere la definición de la jerarquía de autoridad, reflejándose en una tecno estructura para planificar y formalizar el trabajo, así como el crecimiento y desarrollo de la empresa. (Planificación proceso de profesionalización),
- El sistema técnico, que utiliza el núcleo de operaciones, es decir, cuánto más sofisticado sea el sistema técnico, más elaborada será la estructura administrativa, siendo más profesional y capacitado su personal y *staff* de apoyo. (Capacitación),
- 3) Distintos aspectos del entorno, especialmente la estabilidad, la complejidad, la diversidad y la hostilidad. (Cultura Organizacional)

4) Algunas de sus relaciones de poder, que se ejerce de manera interna en la empresa, de acuerdo a las necesidades de poder de los miembros de la organización. (Liderazgo)

Objetivos

Objetivo General. Analizar los factores de contingencias, tales como el liderazgo, capacitación y cultura organizacional, para determinar cuáles inciden en el proceso de profesionalización de las empresas familiares del sector industrial de Tijuana, B.C., México

Objetivo Específico. Determinar los factores de contingencia que inciden en el proceso de profesionalización de las empresas familiares del sector industrial.

Muestra

Para ello, consideraremos los factores de contingencia como variables independientes y la profesionalización como un parámetro de diseño con un valor dependiente, suponiendo por consiguiente que la profesionalización representa el elemento "contingente" con la situación de la organización. Para el presente trabajo se eligió una muestra de 59 propietarios de las empresas familiares del sector industrial, registrados en el Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano, correspondiente a delegación Tijuana, Baja California. A los propietarios se les aplicó un cuestionario conformado con 41 preguntas relacionadas al tema de estudio. Una vez recopilada la información de los cuestionarios se procedió a la elaboración de una de base de datos en SPSS y posteriormente se procedió a la captura de la información, para luego realizar el respectivo análisis para su interpretación.Se utilizó una escala de medición con una escala de *likert*. Se elaboraron las tablas y figuras, que nos permiten un análisis de la situación actual de la profesionalización en las empresas del sector industrial. Con dicha información, se pretende determinar los factores que inciden en el proceso de profesionalización de las empresas familiares.

Determinación de la Muestra. Para el presente trabajo se eligió una muestra de 59 propietarios de empresas familiares del sector industrial del Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicana (SIEM) Marzo 2010, Tijuana, Baja California.

Factores que se consideraron en el cálculo de la muestra:

- a) La población se considera con características homogéneas.
- b) Se cuenta con una población finita, ya que el número de empresas familiares es conocido.
- c) Fórmula empleada para el cálculo de la muestra:

 $n = \underline{\partial^2 pq (1)}_{e^2(N-1)\partial^2 pq}$

Tabla 1. Total de Empresas Según SIEM, Marzo 2010

	Población	Muestra
Total de empresas	100	59

Esta tabla muestra que el total de las empresas encuestas si cuenta con un nivel de confiabilidad.

Análisis de Factores de Contingencias de Área y Distribución Geografica

Empleados	Población	Muestra
2 a 4	29	49.15%
5 a 8	19	32.20%
9 a 12	8	13.55%
14 a 28	3	5.08%
Total	59	100%

Tabla 2. Estimación de Proporción de Empresas Familiares del Sector Industrial

Esta tabla muestra la estimación de proporción de empresas familiares que fueron encuestadas en base al número de empleados con el que cuentan.

Tabla 3. Ficha Técnica Encuesta Por Muestreo Empresas Familiares del Sector Indu	Sector Inc	l Sector	del	iares	Famili	presas	reo E	Muest	Por	icuesta	nica E	Τé	Ficha	Tabla 3.
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Trabajo de Campo	Inicio: 12 de Junio de 2010 Final: 29 de Agosto 2010
Universo Objeto de Estudio	Empresas familirares del sector industrial
Ámbito	con dos o más empleados pertenecientes al sector industrial, de Tijuana, B.C.
Amono	Municipio de Tijuana, B.C., México
Selección de unidades muestrales	
Muestra	Muestreo aleatorio simple estratificado
Muestra	59 encuestas
Error Muestral	
	$E=\pm 5\%$ para un nivel de confianza del
Selección unidad muestral Tipo de entrevista	95% y p = q= 0.5 Una encuesta por empresa, responde el
Cuestionario	propietario, gerente o algun directivo de
	la empresa.
	Presencial Estructurado, 41 preguntas relacionadas a
	la situación de las empresas familiares del
	sector industrial

Esta tabla representa la ficha técnica en la cual se refleja el muestreo realizado a las empresas familiares del sector industrial

Tabla 4. Distribución de la Muestra las Empresas Familiares del Sector Industrial

De acuerdo al Tamaño (%)	Porcentaje del tamaño de la muestra
Microempresa Empresa Pequeña	89.80% 10.20%
De acuerdo al sector de actividad (%)	100%

Esta tabla muestra el porcentaje de la distribución de la muestra de las empresas familiares del sector industrial de acuerdo al tamaño

Tabla 5. Antiguedad de Empresas Familiares del Sector Industrial

De acuerdo al Tamaño	Antiguedad	Porcentaje del Tamaño de la Muestra
Microempresa	8.5 años	89.80%
Empresa pequeña	16.1 años	10.20%
De acuerdo al sector de actividad (%)		100%

Esta tabla muestra la distribución de la muestra de las empresas familiares del sector industrial de acuerdo al tamaño, antigüedad y sector de actividad.

Validación del Instrumento

A los propietarios se les aplicó un cuestionario conformado con 41 preguntas, el cual fue validado relacionado al tema de estudio. Se utilizó una escala de medición con categorías de respuestas de opción múltiple. Se elaboraron los cuadros que permiten un análisis de los factores que inciden en el proceso de profesionalización de las empresas familiares. La validez del cuestionario se determinó mediante el coeficiente de confiabilidad de *Alfa-Cronbach*, por medio del programa SPSS: el resultado arrojado por dicho programa fue de .80, un grado de confiabilidad aceptable (ya que esta por arriba .60 y de 0.70, puntuación mínima aceptable.).

Tabla 5: Análisis de Fiabilidad

Alfa de Cronbach	No. de elementos
.873	41

Fuente: elaboración propias con datos del spss (2010)

RESULTADOS

Tabla 6. Correlaciones Bivariadas (Matriz de Pearson) de las variables dependientes

Correlacion Variables	Correlación
Proceso de profesionalización-Planificación del proceso de	.628**
profesionalización	.728*
Proceso de Profesionalización – Capacitación	
En la tabla ao abaomia la consolación	•

En la tabla se observa la correlación

**La correlación es significativa en el nivel 0.01

* La correlación es significativa en el nivel 0.05

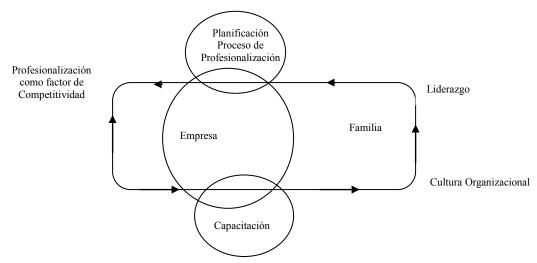
Los resultados de las correlaciones anteriores permiten concluir que dos variables están relacionadas con otras dos variables: Se propone como estrategia de investigación que, a partir de la evidencia empírica que arroja la matriz de coeficientes de correlación de *Pearson*, considerar sólo aquellas correlaciones significativas al rango de 0.01 y 0.05 y de una magnitud igual o mayor a 0.5, lo cual representa una correlación positiva de moderada a fuerte.

Al realizar el análisis de la correlación, se determina que los factores de contingencia que inciden de manera directa en la profesionalización, como factor de competitividad son los siguientes

1. La planificación del proceso de profesionalización a través de un protocolo familiar, en donde se establezcan los procesos de preparación de sucesores profesionales al interior de la empresa, así como la existencia de mecanismos que preparen a los empleados para el proceso de profesionalización.

2. La capacitación incide de manera directa en el proceso de profesionalización, resaltando la importancia de que tanto directivo como familiares como no familiares, deben contar con una educación formal, es decir una carrera profesional.

Figura 1. Factores de Contigencia para determinar la Profesionalización como Factor de Competitividad



Fuente elaboración propia Vega, A. y Flores V. 2011

En la figura 1, se muestra los factores de contingencia, que inciden en la profesionalización, como factor de competitividad en las empresas familiares del sector industrial en Tijuana, B.C., dando como resultado que el proceso de profesionalización y la capacitación, presentando estas empresas un promedio de antigüedad de 9.6 años, por lo anterior, entre más antigua sea la organización, mas formalizado estará su comportamiento, ya que ejercen una influencia más pronunciada en la parte intermedia de la estructura de la organización.

CONCLUSIONES

El principal reto de las empresas familiares del sector industrial, es perdurar por varias generaciones. En el contexto actual, las organizaciones están cerrando de manera continua, y ya no pueden mantenerse sin profesionalizar su administración, debido principalmente al entorno cambiante y a que deben ser competitivas dentro de los mercados globales, quedando atrás el esquema en donde las empresas aprendían sobre la marcha, porque los cambios son tan acelerados que las organizaciones de este tipo tienden a desaparecer.

Por consiguiente, no debe ser pretexto, el que las organizaciones sean empresas familiares, para no llevar una óptima administración, cuando debería ser lo contrario, ya que inician como un pequeño negocio, que bien administrado puede ir creciendo, a través, de la implementación de estrategias, técnicas y herramientas eficientes.

En la etapa de planeación, los propietarios deben considerar que uno de los mejores caminos para tener una compañía fortalecida es la profesionalización, para lo cual, deben tomar en cuenta lo siguiente:

- a) Contratar un porcentaje de directivos o gerentes no familiares ya que estos van a tener una visión más objetiva y amplia experiencia acerca de lo que sucede, así como una gestión sin los vicios de las relaciones familiares.
- b) La profesionalización de la empresa tiene que ver con la formación de los integrantes, principalmente de los sucesores.

- d) Tanto el fundador como la familia, deben tomar en cuenta a los empleados mejor preparados, a través de sistemas de evaluación de desempeños, derivados de la capacitación, estableciendo planes de vida y carrera.
- e) El integrante de la familia designado como el sucesor debe estar preparado, de preferencia que cuente con una carrera para asumir el control de la empresa familiar.

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Dr. Alfonso Vega López. Profesor de Tiempo Completo. Catedrático de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración. Certificación de ANFECA y PROMEP.

Dra. Maria Virginia Flores Ortiz. Coordinadora del área de Recursos Humanos. Catedrático de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración. Certificación de ANFECA y PROMEP

M.A. María Marcela Solis Quinteros. Coordinadora del área de Producción. Catedrático de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración. Certificación PROMEP.

Rafaela Martínez Méndez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

RESUMEN

En este trabajo se presenta un estudio acerca de las estrategias que se implementan en la pequeña empresa de la construcción. A fin de conocer las particularidades de las pequeñas empresa, las amenazas, oportunidades, el mercado al cual van dirigidos los productos y/o servicio y el tipo de estrategia, se analizaron diversos autores relacionados con el tema. Como sustento teórico, para posteriormente tomar algunos factores que se consideraron medir a través de la aplicación de un cuestionario a una muestra de 44 pequeñas empresas.

El objetivo de esta investigación es determinar las estrategias que se aplican en las pequeñas empresas de la construcción ubicadas en el Estado de Puebla. La investigación da respuesta a las siguientes preguntas: ¿Cuáles son las características de las pequeñas empresas de la construcción ubicadas en el Estado de Puebla? ¿Cuáles son las estrategias que implementan las pequeñas empresas de la construcción para poder permanecer en el mercado?

Palabras Claves: Estrategia, tipo de estrategias, pequeña empresa.

ABSTRACT

This paper presents a study of the strategies being implemented in the small construction company. To know the particularities of small companies, threats, opportunities, markets which are targeted products and / or service and the type of strategy, we analyzed several authors on the topic. As a theoretical basis for later taking some factors thought to be measured by applying a questionnaire to a sample of 44 small businesses.

The aim of this research is to identify strategies that apply to small construction companies located in the State of Puebla. The research answers the following questions: What are the characteristics of small construction companies located in the State of Puebla? What are the strategies to implement small construction companies to stay in the market?

Keywords: Strategy, such strategies, small business

ADMINISTRACIÓN DE PRÁCTICAS DE CONOCIMIENTO COLABORATIVO EN LAS CADENAS DE SUMINISTROS: CASO ELECTRICS, S.A.

Jorge Hernández Palomino, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez José de Jesús Espinoza, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez José Luis Anaya Carrasco, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Manuel Aguilar Arellano, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez

RESUMEN

Este estudio descriptivo, de enfoque cuantitativo de corte transversal analiza las prácticas de la administración del conocimiento colaborativo (CKMP) en la formación de coaliciones internacionales para el desarrollo de cadenas de suministros. Este fenómeno sigue incrementando su atención entre investigadores y practicantes de negocios. Este estudio representa los esfuerzos por investigar sistemáticamente los problemas referentes al conocimiento sobre el desarrollo de cadenas de suministros. El propósito fue identificar los antecedentes importantes para una adopción exitosa e implementación de cadenas de suministros. En orden de recolectar la información, el instrumento de cuatro constructos de Li fue utilizado. Para el análisis de la información un análisis factorial fue conducido utilizando los componentes como medida de extracción. Para la identificación de los elementos que afectan a las cadenas de suministros en relación a la infraestructura tecnológica se utilizó el modelo de Li. Para pre evaluar la convergencia y validez discriminante del instrumento de medición la metodología de sort-Q fue utilizada. Este estudio presenta una clara definición de las prácticas en las cadenas de suministros. Los resultados presentados podrán contribuir a lograr un mejor entendimiento de las operaciones en el medio ambiente de las cadenas de suministros. Las limitaciones de este estudio ofrecen una oportunidad de mejora y sugiere direcciones interesantes para futuras investigaciones.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Empresas productivas, infraestructura tecnológica, Mipymes.

INTERNATIONAL COALITIONS FORMATION FOR SUPPLY CHAIN DEVELOPMENT: CASE ELECTRICS CO

ABSTRACT

This descriptive research analyzes with a quantitative cross-sectional design the collaborative knowledge management practice (CKMP) and its relationship with the international coalitions formation for the development of supply chains. This issue continuous increases the attention of researchers and business practitioners. This study research represent the efforts for systematically investigate the issues about the supply chain development. In order to data collect, the Li's four constructs was used. In the data information factor analysis was then conducted using the components as means of extraction. In the identification of the components affecting the supply chain in relationship with the infrastructure technology the Li's model was used. To pre-asses convergence and discriminate validity of the instrument the Sort-Q methodology was introduced. This study presents a clear definition of the supply chain environment. The limitations of this study offer a improvement opportunity and interesting future research directions are suggested.

KEY WORDS: productive companies, technological infrastructure, SMEs.

JEL: J24, O33, L21

INTRODUCCIÓN

Actualmente, el fenómeno de la globalización de la cadena de suministros ha provocado que países localizados en las llamadas "Regiones de Bajo Costo" sean considerados como estratégicos para mantener los niveles de competitividad de las empresas fabricantes de equipo original, Original Equipment Manufacturers, OEM por sus siglas en inglés. Específicamente en las industrias manufactureras y de ensamble de productos automotrices, electrónica, médica y de impresión, éste fenómeno se ha convertido en un elemento clave no sólo para mantener niveles aceptables de competitividad, sino para la supervivencia misma de estas grandes empresas.

México se ha integrado de lleno a la dinámica de la cadena de suministros de la industria manufacturera y de ensamble mundial, donde ya se posiciona en un lugar importante en relación al valor de las exportaciones. Los requerimientos técnicos y regulaciones inherentes para la industria manufacturera representan un nuevo reto para estas organizaciones que típicamente han aprendido y dominado las exigencias de la industria automotriz. Otro factor determinante que a diferencia de la industria automotriz especialmente de ensamble es el modelo de bajo volumen y alta mezcla de productos o de alto volumen y crítico abastecimiento. Estas dificultades hacen que muy pocas empresas mexicanas Pymes, se hayan integrado a la cadena de suministros de la industria extranjera y lograr actualmente un nivel de internacionalización. Para las Pymes la tendencia sobre un nuevo tipo de relaciones de negocio es: formar coaliciones encaminadas por la función de compras de una empresa.

Durante su proceso de detección de una necesidad y el proceso de selección de proveedores locales o extranjero, las coaliciones internacionales representan una dramática oportunidad en la forma en que estas empresas pueden ser consideradas para conducir negocios dentro de la cadena internacional de suministros. Una coalición está caracterizada por cooperación, intercambio de información, compartimiento de riesgos y beneficios de una relación, un acuerdo de largo plazo entre empresas socias. La virtual ausencia de compañías con el perfil organizacional requerido, una estructura de su cadena de suministros y las capacidades técnicas indispensables provocan que se pierdan valiosas oportunidades de negocio, que bien podrían ser aprovechadas por pequeñas y medianas empresas del sector manufacturero. A pesar del progreso considerable que se ha hecho para explotar las maneras en que se alcanza la integración de una cadena de suministros, todavía permanecen algunos elementos sin explorar.

Esta investigación se enfoca primero en el entendimiento previo de la formación de coaliciones internacionales a través de la administración internacional de la cadena de suministros entre dos o más empresas separadas por su entidad legal a un nivel internacional y el propósito por el que se han formado estas coaliciones. El análisis es representativo de la formación de relaciones que se dan en la administración internacional de la cadena de suministros. Mientras que este estudio se basa en la incidencia de la formación de coaliciones internacionales, este estudio se enfoca específicamente en la función estratégica de compras y las relaciones de la administración internacional de la cadena de suministros para formar coaliciones internacionales.

Esta investigación se presenta organizada como sigue. En la sección de revisión literaria, una discusión de la literatura relevante es presentada. En este apartado se clarifica el concepto de administración de la cadena de suministros. Se justifica la infraestructura tecnológica como uno de los elementos importante en las prácticas de la administración del conocimiento colaborativo. Se presenta y justifica la metodología utilizada para la evaluación del modelo planteado. Los resultados obtenidos se presentan realizando las

pruebas estadísticas y su significancia estadística. El apartado de conclusiones y limitaciones presenta la discusión crítica de los resultados obtenidos, así como las recomendaciones para futuras investigaciones.

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BIOGRAFÍAS

Jorge Arturo Hernández Palomino es Doctor en Ciencias de la Administración por la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM). Es profesor investigador en el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ), se encuentra adscrito al departamento de posgrados e investigación. Presidente Fundador del Colegio de Posgraduados en Administración (COLPARMEX), Capítulo Chihuahua. Pertenece al cuerpo tutorial del Doctorado en Ciencias de la Administración de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM).

José de Jesús Espinoza es Maestro en Ciencias por el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ) y profesor de la misma institución en la División de Estudios de Posgrado e Investigación. Coordinador General del Campus II del ITCJ. Es miembro y Presidente en el Colegio de Posgraduados en Administración de la República Mexicana (COLPARMEX) capitulo Chihuahua.

José Luis Anaya Carrasco, es Maestro en Ciencias por el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ). Profesor de la División de Estudios de Posgrado E Investigación en el ITCJ. Es jefe del Departamento de Ciencias Administrativas en el ITCJ.

Manuel Aguilar Arellano es Maestro en Administración por la Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua. Es profesor del departamento de económico administrativas del Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. Consultor e instructor de diferentes empresas privadas.

UNA ACTIVIDAD PARA EL DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS: INDIANA JONES O LA CAZA DEL TESORO

Maria Elena Cobas Cobiella,Universitat de València Raquel Guillén Catalán, Universitat de València Mónica Maldonado Devis,Universitat de València

RESUMEN

Una caza del tesoro constituye una metodología docente aplicable a las materias de los nuevos Grados adaptados al Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior. Es una estrategia pedagógica de sencillo diseño para el docente y de utilidad en el proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje de los estudiantes universitarios. La citada metodología consiste en el diseño de una serie de preguntas y una lista de direcciones de páginas web de las que pueden extraerse las respuestas y que incluye una "gran pregunta" final, cuya respuesta no aparece en las páginas web visitadas y que exigirá que los estudiantes integren los conocimientos adquiridos en el proceso de búsqueda.

.... "Olviden toda idea acerca de ciudades perdidas, viajes exóticos y agujerear el mundo. No hay mapas que lleven a tesoros ocultos y nunca hay una X que marque el lugar"...Indiana Jones y la última cruzada.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Caza tesoros, metodología, búsqueda de información, Tics.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este trabajo presentamos el diseño de una actividad didáctica interdisciplinar entre las materias de Derecho Civil y Economía del Grado en Derecho cuyo objetivo es, facilitar a los estudiantes la adquisición de la capacidad para entender la relación del Derecho con otras disciplinas y fomentar el desarrollo de competencias generales relacionadas sobretodo con el uso de la información disponible en Internet . La actividad que se plantea es una caza del tesoro, también conocida como *Treasure Hunt, Scavenger Hunt o Knowledge Hunt*, que consiste en el diseño de una serie de preguntas y una lista de direcciones de páginas web de las que pueden extraerse las respuestas y que incluye una gran pregunta final, cuya respuesta no aparece en las páginas web visitadas y que exigirá que los estudiantes integren los conocimientos adquiridos en el proceso de búsqueda.

Las cazas del tesoro constituyen estrategias pedagógicas de sencillo diseño para los docentes y de gran utilidad en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de los estudiantes universitarios. Además, una caza del tesoro estimula la adquisición de competencias generales sobre el uso de las tecnologías de la información, en especial la competencia encaminada a adquirir los conocimientos necesarios para ser capaz de utilizar las TICs adecuadamente, para poder localizar, evaluar y utilizar la información jurídica.

Las cazas del tesoro tienen una determinada estructura y se recomienda un concreto procedimiento para su diseño de manera que la actividad se ajuste a los objetivos que perseguimos, a los conocimientos previos de los estudiantes a los que dirigimos la actividad y a sus habilidades en el manejo de la tecnología y la información. La estructura básica de una caza del tesoro la constituyen cuatro partes: introducción, preguntas, recursos y la gran pregunta. A esta estructura básica se le pueden añadir dos partes más: evaluación y créditos. Esta estructura se puede presentar en un formato de Word o en un formato HTML que los estudiantes tengan disponible *on line*.

En la introducción de una caza del tesoro se debe plantear la tarea y las instrucciones para poder llevarla a cabo. Se trata en este apartado de despertar el interés de los estudiantes por iniciar la búsqueda del tesoro. En el apartado de preguntas se relacionan las cuestiones que se van a tener que responder y que deben estar planteadas de acuerdo con los objetivos de la actividad y el nivel de dificultad.

En el apartado de recursos, incluiremos los enlaces a las páginas web en las que los estudiantes, o bien podrán encontrar directamente las respuestas a las preguntas planteadas, o simplemente éstas constituirán una puerta de entrada a otros sitios relacionados de los que deberán extraerlas. La **gran pregunta**, debe coincidir con el objetivo o el tema central de la caza del tesoro y su respuesta no debe ser posible encontrarla en ninguna de las páginas web que se les dan como recurso. En este apartado, los estudiantes deben analizar y relacionar toda la información obtenida en el proceso de búsqueda y sacar sus propias conclusiones. Aunque no se considera un apartado básico, consideramos muy importante incluir la evaluación en nuestra caza del tesoro como una forma más de que el estudiante aprenda (evaluación para el aprendizaje). Una evaluación bien diseñada, que incluya tanto el proceso de búsqueda como el resultado final, proporciona al estudiante información como parte integrante del aprendizaje.

En el diseño de una caza del tesoro se recomienda seguir un determinado procedimiento que comenzará por la identificación clara del tema y de los objetivos, tanto los relacionados con la adquisición de conocimientos como aquellos relacionados con el desarrollo de competencias. De acuerdo con dichos objetivos se diseñarán las preguntas y se establecerán los recursos de los que podrán disponer los estudiantes. La última fase del procedimiento será la preparación de la hoja de trabajo en la que se recogen todos los apartados de la caza del tesoro. Si la forma en que se va a presentar la caza del tesoro es en formato HTML se deberá elegir una de las plataformas que ofrecen plantillas para su elaboración *on line* y la posibilidad de ubicarlas posteriormente en un sitio web. A modo de ejemplo se puede consultar: www.webquest.es ; www.aula21.net. En concreto, se puede visualizar nuestra actividad metodológica del caza tesoro en: http://www.webquest.es/node/7475/

MÉTODO

La temática elegida para el diseño de nuestra caza del tesoro ha sido la profundización en algunos conceptos del Derecho Civil desde un enfoque de Análisis Económico del Derecho. El Análisis Económico del Derecho que se configura como la aplicación de la Teoría Económica al examen de la formación, estructura y efectos de las leyes e instituciones jurídicas, está comenzando a formar parte de los planes de estudios de los Grados de Derecho y Economía adaptados al Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior. La experiencia por su carácter integrador y multidisciplinario sirve para cualquier materia o disciplina, aunque hemos optado por desarrollar la metodología en el Tema referido a la responsabilidad civil extracontractual. Los estudiantes deberán ir construyendo ellos mismos los conocimientos a partir de determinadas pistas que el profesor les irá facilitando. Estas pistas pueden ser artículos, sentencias, casos prácticos, o incluso un link con una información, que a su vez conduce a otro concepto o categoría jurídica. Se puede acompañar de noticias jurídicas, cotidianas e incluso de interés histórico, como puede ser noticias, en relación al surgimiento de la Revolución Industrial para que puedan entender, el momento en qué surge la responsabilidad objetiva y la teoría del riesgo.

Estas pistas son el camino que deben ir atravesando los alumnos, para que puedan ir contestando diversas preguntas sobre la materia, necesarias para conformar el conocimiento básico e imprescindible, tanto de las categorías e instituciones jurídicas, como del Código Civil. A modo de ejemplo señalamos las siguientes preguntas de índole jurídica, así como económica y algunos de los links que utilizarían los estudiantes.

a) Qué es el análisis económico del derecho? ¿Quién es Guido Calabresi y cuál ha sido su contribución a este enfoque?

http://www.cepchile.cl/dms/lang_1/doc_1093.html

b) ¿Qué conceptos económicos se utilizan en el análisis económico del derecho en los temas relacionados con daños (o responsabilidad)?

www.indret.com

c) ¿Qué es el daño?

http://www.larazon.es/noticia/831-un-nino-de-tres-anos-muere-mordido-por-el-pitbull-de-su-familia

http://www.abc.es/agencias/noticia.asp?noticia=698856

d) Culpa "In eligendo.

Véase la Sentencia del Tribunal Supremo 277/2008.

e) Culpa in vigilando.

Analizad el artículo 1903 del Código Civil, cuyo primer párrafo dispone que: "La obligación que impone el artículo anterior es exigible, no sólo por los actos u omisiones propios, sino por los de aquellas personas de quienes se debe responder".

f) Qué diferencias existen entre lucro cesante y daño emergente?.

Vid. Artículo de Prof. Carolina Mesa en http://www.westlaw.es/wles/app/nwles/login/subscription

g) ¿ Qué relación tiene la aparición de la Revolución Industrial con el Derecho de daños?.

http://enciclopedia.us.es/index.php/Revoluci%C3%B3n industrial

La actividad termina con una gran pregunta o caso, que deberán resolver los estudiantes. Será la última etapa del recorrido de las pistas. El sistema de evaluación se compone de dos partes, se evalúa tanto el proceso como el resultado final. Se sugiere que la evaluación sea la sumatoria, de la mitad de la nota de la resolución de las preguntas (los alumnos deben contestar las preguntas de forma reflexiva). En la evaluación se valora tanto la respuesta, como la reflexión y las fuentes adicionales empleadas por los estudiantes. La otra mitad de la nota sería para el resultado de la gran pregunta, que se puede desarrollar a través de un pequeño trabajo de investigación. La evaluación al abarcar el proceso, permite evaluar competencias como la búsqueda de información, el manejo de las bases de datos, la capacidad de interrelacionar las dos materias el Derecho Civil y el Análisis Económico del Derecho, a través de los conceptos en que confluyen ambas disciplinas, como puede ser el cálculo de la indemnización, la presentación económica del daño emergente y el lucro cesante, que son categorías netamente jurídicas, pero susceptibles de cuantificación económica.

CONCLUSIÓN

El Nuevo Espacio de Educación Superior es complejo, tanto para el alumno, como para el profesor, significa un redoble de esfuerzos intelectuales, una capacidad de imaginación, de laboriosidad y, todo ello, sin que perdamos la perspectiva, y nos convirtamos en expertos en metodología de una enseñanzavacía de contenidos. Con el caza tesoros el estudiante, además de que es partícipe de una enseñanzaaprendizaje activa, desarrolla también un conjunto de competencias necesarias como el trabajo en equipo, la búsqueda de información, la capacidad de análisis, el uso de las herramientas informáticas, como bases de datos, tan imprescindibles en la práctica jurídica actual. A lo que se une, algo que carecen la mayoría de los juristas en la actualidad y que es básicamente imprescindible, que es la asimilación y empleo de las categorías económicas; casi todo lo jurídico es posible transformarlo en valor, cuantificarlo, y este tipo de experiencia o metodología, facilita al alumno la incorporación de conceptos jurídicos evaluables desde la óptica de la economía. Esta metodología, no es más que un camino para que nuestros estudiantes lleguen a obtener el mayor tesoro o recompensa que puede tener cualquier persona, el conocimiento; sabiendo por demás, que aprender, saber aprender y que tenga utilidad para el futuro desempeño profesional, no es algo mágico, ni instantáneo, requiere tiempo y paciencia.

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EVALUACIÓN DE LA OFERTA DEL TRANSPORTE TERRESTRE DE CARGA EN LOS PUERTOS Y LA ZONA INDUSTRIAL DE LA CIUDAD DE CARTAGENA

José Morelos Gómez, Universidad de Cartagena Juan Carlos Vergara Schmalbach, Universidad de Cartagena Tomás José Fontalvo Herrera, Universidad de Cartagena

RESUMEN

En este artículo se presentan los resultados de investigación de la evaluación de la oferta del transporte terrestre de carga en la ciudad de Cartagena, a partir del la caracterización y el análisis de las variables y factores que incide en la movilización de la carga a nivel local. La metodología utilizada en el estudio incluyó el análisis cuantitativo y cualitativo de los datos, a través de la aplicación de las técnicas y herramientas avanzadas de la estadística descriptiva. Los resultados obtenidos muestran la importancia que tiene el transporte de carga por vía terrestre, hacia varios destinos dentro y fuera de la región y su inherente contribución al desarrollo económico de la ciudad de Cartagena; del trabajo de investigación se concluye que la mayor participación en la movilización de carga está relacionada con la modalidad de comercio exterior, es decir, la movilización de carga está dirigida a las actividades de exportación e importación, siendo el principal destino de las operaciones de movilización de carga, la zona industrial de Mamonal y en segundo orden la zona industrial del Bosque, hacia los diferentes puertos de la ciudad.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Transporte terrestre, movilización de carga, Zona industrial, Desarrollo urbano, oferta de servicios

KEYWORDS: Ground transportation, mobilization of cargo, Industrial area, urban development, the provisión of services.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este artículo se presentan los resultados de investigación de la evaluación de la oferta del transporte terrestre de carga en la zona industrial la ciudad de Cartagena, en el cual se realiza un diagnóstico del sector, identificando los principales destinos de movilización de la carga, desde y hacia las diferentes zonas (puertos y zonas francas) autorizadas para la realización de esta actividad. Así mismo, se analiza la estructura organizacional del sector en el contexto económico nacional y local del transporte de carga, determinando las variables que relacionan la oferta del transporte de carga, el estado actual del parque automotor y los diferentes tipos de sociedades conformadas para la prestación del servicio de carga. Así mismo, se analiza la situación financiera de las empresas del sector, evaluando su estructura financiera (activos, pasivos y patrimonio) y sus costos operacionales y riesgos asociados con el tipo de carga transportada. Para la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias, la movilización de carga dentro del perímetro urbano corresponde una pieza fundamental que define el desarrollo económico de la urbe, representado en dos centros generadores y destinatarios de carga, tales como la zona portuaria e industrial del Distrito, que la sitúa como uno de los principales centros logísticos de la nación.

En relación con lo anterior, en Colombia, el servicio de movilización de carga por tierra, se ha constituido en la herramienta básica para colocar los productos, bienes e insumos al alcance del consumidor, cliente o usuario final. El servicio de movilización de carga a nivel urbano como parte de este sector, se constituye a su vez una de las columnas principales del desarrollo económico de las ciudades, dado que es el encargado de integrar los mercados de capitales, bienes y servicios, -financieros y laborales- en la economía, contribuyendo a mejorar el nivel de bienestar social.

REVISION LITERARIA

Transporte y Desarrollo Económico Global

El transporte en general en la última década, se ha convertido en un actor de la economía que ha manifestado considerablemente, un valioso aporte en el sector que representa la actividad económica de servicio; este consiste en "la movilización de personas o de cosas de un lugar a otro, por distintos medios o modos, como puede ser el transporte aéreo, terrestre, fluvial, férreo etc." Según el radicado 10943 del 25 de febrero de 2008, mediante el cual eleva consulta sobre el transporte y de acuerdo con lo señalado en el artículo 25 del Código Contencioso Administrativo. El transporte de carga a su vez, como parte de este sistema de movilización, sigue uno de sus propósitos, representado en el traslado de bienes necesarios para las actividades económicas que se desarrollan en la ciudad, la cual puede ser directamente realizada por el interesado, o por el contrario, este puede recurrir a personas o entidades que están dedicadas a prestar esos servicios.

Transporte y Desarrollo Urbano: Muchos son los estudios que nutren cada vez más el concepto de desarrollo en una región o nación. González A. y Alba C. (2006) definen el desarrollo regional como los "avances que surgen en el bienestar económico y social, dado a las actividades de diferentes sectores". A su vez, manifiestan que los resultados en el nivel de crecimiento se obtienen dependiendo de los recursos e innovaciones que se realicen, resaltando tres componentes vitales generadores de integración y convergencia entre regiones, estos son la infraestructura vial, el capital humano y las instituciones; de los cuales, depende la sinergia que debe existir para generar economías de escala, comunicarlas y tener instituciones que las regulen y aseguren su aporte al bienestar.

Por su parte, Rangel (1993) sustenta que para alcanzar un desarrollo urbano en materia de transporte, es prioritario alcanzar puntos de ubicación dentro de una región, que maximicen los beneficios de los productores, así como obtener materias primas y mano de obra en lugares que proporcionen comunicación entre los diferentes sectores productivos y mejoren el nivel de vida de las personas. Esta situación implica, menores costos, reflejados en bajos precios y en un sistema de transporte eficiente y rentable, que permita distribuir insumos y bienes manufacturados hacia los mercados de demanda.

En relación con lo anterior, González A. y Alba C. (2006), muestran su desacuerdo, al considerar que por lo general las empresas, tienden a ubicarse cerca de otras empresas y no de manera indiferente, en donde las ventajas en costos de transporte y las economías de escala tienden a generar jerarquías, que desembocan en el establecimiento de centros de producción óptimos; dicha localización, facilita en un solo lugar la producción y distribución de los insumos, dadas las mejoras tecnológicas, de capital y la concentración de mano de obra, suprimiendo el hecho de obtener recursos de diferentes puntos, ya que los procesos de concentración y de jerarquización de las actividades se ubicarían en un único lugar.

Transporte Terrestre Urbano y Su Importancia

El concepto del desarrollo regional descentralizado, que contextualiza en su estudio Muller (2004), en Colombia busca nuevas oportunidades para las regiones, extenuando el efecto polarizador entre las aglomeraciones y las demás partes del territorio, fomentando polos de crecimiento en ciudades secundarias e intercambios inter e intra regionales. En este sentido es claro que el sistema de transporte en nuestra nación juega un papel clave en el desarrollo de sus regiones, ya que a través de éste se mueven los impulsos del mercado y las innovaciones.

En este orden de ideas, Antun J. y Hernández R. (2005) expresan que el transporte urbano de carga es enormemente complejo y heterogéneo; "en la dinámica de este sector económico de servicio, resulta

difícil identificar características comunes entre diferentes demandantes, diferentes mercancías y diferentes vehículos", debido a la complejidad del mercado mundial, nacional y local.

METODOLOGÍA

Para el desarrollo metodológico de esta investigación se parte de la base de datos registradas (Cámara de Comercio Cartagena y Ministerio de Transporte Regional Bolívar) oficialmente, con actividades de transporte de carga a nivel local, relacionadas con la carga general, granel, líquidos, extra pesadas, por contenedores y especiales, que generalmente tienen como destino el puerto, la zona industrial de Mamonal y el sector industrial del Bosque en el distrito de Cartagena de Indias. Este concepto representa el interés principal de nuestra investigación. Dicho concepto relaciona los tipos de carga y los principales destinos que se pretenden describir en el desarrollo del trabajo de investigación.

El resultado del proceso anterior permitió consolidar una nueva base de datos relacionadas con las empresas identificadas para un total de 95 empresas encargadas de la prestación del servicio de transporte de carga dentro del distrito de Cartagena. Este procedimiento, permitió realizar una verificación para identificar la duplicidad de los datos en el consolidado de las bases anteriormente mencionadas, pasando de 95 empresas a 88 empresas.

Después del proceso de depuración manual descrito anteriormente, se procedió a verificar y comprobar por medio de comunicación vía telefónica y visitas de campo programadas el perfil de las empresas involucradas, es decir, si las empresas registradas en la fase anterior mantienen su actividad económica en vigencia y prestan el servicio de transporte de carga dentro del distrito de Cartagena de indias como actividad principal. Estas empresas son reconocidas por las personas dentro de la actividad como empresas urbanas de servicio de transporte de carga en la ciudad de Cartagena de indiasEste procedimiento permitió identificar 16 empresas, que presentan la modalidad de transporte de carga dentro del perímetro urbano.

De igual forma, en el mismo proceso de visita de campo se identificaron a partir de los clientes finales ubicados en las zonas portuarias (principales puertos) y la zona industrial (principales centros productivos), la participación en el mercado de 5 empresas urbanas de servicio de transporte de carga en la ciudad, adicionales a las 16 encontradas en las bases de datos y 6 empresas que realizan simultáneamente las dos actividades económicas, para un total de 23 empresas con el mismo tipo de actividad existentes en el mercado, es decir, el transporte urbano e interurbano de carga. Finalmente, se realizó la tabulación de los datos y el análisis de inferencias correspondientes

RESULTADOS

Dentro de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias, existe una proporción importante de empresas dedicadas a la actividad económica de servicio relacionada con la movilización de carga por vía terrestre hacia varios destinos dentro y fuera del casco urbano. A continuación, se muestran los resultados y el panorama que identifica el dinamismo del sector transportador de carga dentro del distrito de Cartagena.

Tiempo de funcionamiento: Alrededor del 50% de las empresas que representan la oferta de transporte urbano de carga dentro del distrito de Cartagena, tienen entre 1 y 10 años de participación en esta actividad; de igual, forma existe una proporción 12% de organizaciones ligadas a la dinámica de la movilización urbana de carga que tienen entre 21 y 30 años prestando el servicio.

Participación de la carga movilizada por los vehículos según su tipo. La carga que generalmente movilizan los vehículos a nivel urbano dentro del distrito de Cartagena, corresponde a los contenedores, siendo la más representativa con 36%, resultados que corroboran la fortaleza de la actividad portuaria en la ciudad Cartagena; así mismo, la carga general representa 28% de la carga movilizada. En una misma

proporción y por debajo del rango 10% encontramos transporte de carga a granel, liquida, unitaria, carga especial y extra pesada.

Factores que afectan el desempeño del servicio de movilización urbana de carga. La eficiencia en el servicio de transporte urbano de carga en la ciudad de Cartagena, se ve limitada por ciertos factores que impiden el desempeño óptimo de la actividad. Uno de los factores que afectan el desempeño del sistema de transporte de carga dentro de la localidad, lo representa en gran medida la competencia desleal. Esta ocurre generalmente, cuando las empresas encargadas del transporte interurbano (con origen de la carga Cartagena y destino otras ciudades y o municipios a nivel nacional) disponen de los vehículos que habitualmente destinan en la actividad, para cubrir trayectos dentro del perímetro urbano de Cartagena. Aunque esta situación no corresponde a un abuso de la normatividad, toda vez que no existen políticas que regulen el transporte urbano de carga expedida por el Ministerio de Transporte, tiene un impacto significativo para las empresas oferentes del servicio a nivel urbano, la cual se refleja en una sobre-oferta de precios por la prestación del servicio, muy por debajo de las que en la actualidad maneja el improvisado mercado de servicio de transporte urbano en Cartagena.

CONCLUSIONES

Del proceso de caracterización de las empresas locales transportadoras de cargas dentro del distrito de Cartagena se obtuvo las siguientes conclusiones:

- El sector transporte urbano de carga en Cartagena en su mayoría (92%) pertenece al servicio público, el 8% siguiente, corresponde a las empresas cuyo servicio es privado y de contratación permanente con la organización.
- La mayor parte de los vehículos automotores que prestan el servicio de carga para la ciudad de Cartagena, están representados en modelos de serie comprendidos entre los años de 1991 y 2000, los cuales representan el 36% del total de vehículos registrados. Los vehículos tipo tracto camiones de 5 ejes tienen la mayor representatividad.
- La carga que generalmente movilizan los vehículos a nivel urbano dentro del distrito de Cartagena corresponde a los contenedores, siendo la más representativa con un 36% entendible, siendo Cartagena uno de los principales puertos en Colombia
- Dentro de los principales destinos ubicados en las zonas industriales de la ciudad de Cartagena, el 70% pertenece a zona industrial de Mamonal. La zona industrial del bosque representa un 15% de participación, esto se explica debido a que Mamonal es la principal zona industrial de la ciudad
- Uno de los factores que afectan el desempeño del sistema de transporte de carga urbano dentro del distrito de Cartagena, lo representa la competencia desleal. Esta ocurre cuando las empresas encargadas del transporte interurbano (con origen de la carga Cartagena y destino otras ciudades) disponen de los vehículos que generalmente destinan su carga a otras ciudades, para cubrir trayectos dentro del perímetro urbano de Cartagena.

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BIOGRAFIA

José Morelos Gómez, es docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad de Cartagena, adscrito a la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas en el programa de Administración Industrial. Dirección Piedra de Bolívar. Avenida del Consulado Calle 30 No. 48-152 Apartado Aéreo No. 1382. Telefax 6754454. Cartagena-Colombia. Correo electrónico: jmgco@yahoo.com, josmorelos@unal.edu.co.

José C. Vergara Schmalbach, es docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad de Cartagena, adscrito a la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas en el programa de Administración Industrial. Dirección Piedra de Bolívar. Avenida del Consulado Calle 30 No. 48-152 Apartado Aéreo No. 1382. Telefax 6754454. Cartagena-Colombia. Correo electrónico:juancarlosvergaras@hotmail.es

Tomás José Fontalvo Herrera, es docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad de Cartagena, adscrito a la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas en el programa de Administración Industrial. Dirección Piedra de Bolívar. Avenida del Consulado Calle 30 No. 48-152 Apartado Aéreo No. 1382. Telefax 6754454. Cartagena-Colombia. Correo electrónico: tomasjosefontalvo@gmail.com

Adolfo Rafael Rodríguez Santoyo, Universidad de Guanajuato Germán Rodríguez Frías, Universidad de Guanajuato Eduardo Barrera Arias, Universidad de Guanajuato

ABSTRACT

Los esfuerzos que realizan los empresarios de provincia en tiendas de autoservicio para intentar satisfacer a sus mercados es múltiple, dado que se invierte en: publicidad, investigación de mercados, labores de Merchandising para hacer atractivo el entorno del acto de la compra, una buena selección de variedad de productos, labor de venta, acciones promocionales para hacer atractiva la compra, etc., todo con el objetivo de lograr un posicionamiento en la mente del consumidor y promover la recompra. Por su parte el mercado demanda mejores condiciones para realizar la compra, sobre todo en la actualidad en la que la oferta ha sido revolucionada por una diversidad increíble. Sin embargo es probable que exista una jerarquía en las motivaciones para un sujeto de estudio como lo es el ama de casa de clase media en estas tiendas de autoservicio con lo cual se podría optimizar el conjunto de esfuerzos empresariales. El problema a investigar estriba en caracterizar y analizar los factores de recompra positivos por parte del mercado formado por las amas de casa de nivel socioeconómico medio, mediante acciones realizadas por los empresarios a partir del conocimiento de los principales elementos de decisión que impulsan la compra en este sector de mercado específico. El objetivo central de la investigación es: Determinar los principales factores y su jerarquía como detonadores de la compra en tiendas de autoservicio por la población objeto del estudio. Para ello se revisó de manera amplia la literatura de propuestas básicas, clásicas y actuales sobre el tema, revisión que condujo a proponer hipótesis tales como "Existe una jerarquía en los factores que influven en la decisión de compra" y "Los factores de marketing son determinantes para la decisión de compra". La comprobación se realizó en dos formatos, cuantitativo y cualitativo, el primero vía encuesta cara a cara y el segundo mediante grupos de enfoque.

Antonina Módica-Milo, Universidad de Oriente - Venezuela J. Samuel Baixauli S., Universidad de Murcia - España Susana Álvarez D., Universidad de Murcia - España

RESUMEN

Para las Pymes es difícil acceder al mercado de capitales, por lo que para determinar su probabilidad de fracaso sólo se utilizan modelos basados en información contable. Debido a que el riesgo sistemático afecta tanto a empresas cotizadas como no cotizadas, en este artículo se diseña un indicador de salud financiera (ISF) tomando como referencia la probabilidad de impago de empresas cotizadas calculadas a partir de distintos modelos estructurales. Este indicador, aplicado a empresas no cotizadas, garantiza la dicotomía de la muestra de estimación. Para validar la eficacia del ISF se evalúa cómo afecta a la capacidad predictiva de los modelos contables más utilizados en la práctica. Para ello, se construyen dos indicadores, que son el Cumulative Accuracy Profile (CAP) y el Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC), recomendados por el Comité de Supervisión Bancaria de Basilea (BCBS). Los resultados que se obtienen muestran que el ISF que se propone contribuye a mejorar la capacidad predictiva de los modelos.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Quiebra, probabilidad de impago, modelos estructurales y modelos contables.

ABSTRACT

The SMEs determine the failure probability using only accounting based models because they have serious difficulties to be publicly traded in stock market. Due to the fact that the systematic risk affects to listed and unlisted companies, in this article we design a financial health indicator (ISF) taking into account the failure probability of listed companies, computed using different structural models. The ISF applied to unlisted companies guarantees the dichotomy of the estimation simple. To validate the efficiency of the ISF, we evaluate its effects on accounting-based model predictive capacity using the Cumulative Accuracy Profile (CAP) and the Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC), which have been proponed by Basel Committee on Banking Supervision. Our results show that the ISF improves the predictive capacity of accounting-based models.

KEYWORDS: Bankruptcy, probability of failure, structural models and accounting-based models.

LOS RETOS DE LAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES ANTE SU CONTINUIDAD: CASO TEHUACÁN

Hilario Díaz Guzmán, UPAEP Miguel Ángel Corona J., Universidad Iberoamericana Yésica Mayett M., UPAEP

RESUMEN

La empresa familiar es un motor generador de riqueza económica y bienestar social a nivel mundial. Sin embargo, presenta una tasa de mortalidad muy alta, debido principalmente al reto que representa el conjuntar los diferentes fines e intereses de los sistemas que la componen. Un problema grave al que se enfrenta la empresa familiar en México es la falta de formalidad, la ausencia de reglas para diferenciar sus sistemas y poder conservar por un lado la armonía en la familia y por el otro, la competitividad y rentabilidad en la empresa. Esta es una investigación documental y de campo mediante la aplicación de cuestionarios a empresas familiares de manufactura, comercio y servicios de la ciudad de Tehuacán, Puebla, cuyo objetivo principal es determinar el grado de profesionalización de las empresas familiares de dicha ciudad y analizar cómo se relaciona con el desempeño exitoso de la organización familiar.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La empresa familiar es un tipo peculiar de organización empresarial, donde confluyen tres sistemas: empresa, familia y propiedad, el fin que persigue cada uno es diferente: la familia busca armonía, la empresa pretende competitividad y la propiedad necesita ser rentable. La definición oficial actual del término empresa familiar implica que (Grupo Europeo de Empresas Familiares, 2008), sin importar el tamaño de la compañía, una empresa familiar es si:

1. La mayoría de los votos son propiedad de la persona o personas de la familia que fundó o fundaron la compañía, o, son propiedad de la persona que tiene o ha adquirido el capital social de la empresa; o son propiedad de sus esposas, padres, hijo(s) o herederos directos del hijo(s); 2. Al menos un representante de la familia o pariente participa en la gestión o gobierno de la compañía; 3. Cotizando en bolsa el fundador, sus familiares o descendientes poseen el 25% de los derechos de voto a los que da derecho el capital social¹.

¹ Nota aclaratoria: Una característica típica de las compañías cotizadas es la fragmentación de su propiedad. El mayor accionista (o bloque de accionistas) en muchas ocasiones tiene menos del 50% de los derechos de voto. En dichas compañías un accionista (o bloque de accionistas) puede ejercer influencia decisiva sobre aspectos fundamentales de gobierno corporativo sin tener la mayoría de los votos. El punto cuarto de la definición se refiere a empresas en las que la familia no cuenta con la mayoría de los votos pero que, a través de su participación accionarial, puede ejercer influencia decisiva.

Las organizaciones familiares presentan una tasa de mortalidad muy alta, debido a la dificultad que representa el optimizar conjuntamente el sistema familiar y el empresarial, de tal modo que actúen como un sistema total, eficaz y exitoso (Poza, 2005).En México existen alrededor de 10 millones de empresas familiares (Secretaría de Economía, 2009), que representan el 80% de la actividad económica del país (Universidad de Monterrey, 2008, citado en Pérez, Mánica y Pérez, 2008) y generan el 75% de los empleos. No obstante su relevancia económica en el país, las estadísticas relacionadas a su ciclo de vida son preocupantes, 8 de cada 10 mueren antes de los 2 años de vida (Valda, 2009). De cada 100 empresas familiares que inician en México, sólo 30 sobreviven a la primera generación y cinco a la segunda (Instituto de Empresas Familiares del Tecnológico de Monterrey, s.f. citado en Ortiz, s.f.). Entre las

principales causas de su fracaso están: la falta de planes claros y objetivos, y la falta de reglas claras en los roles para manejar el negocio y para tomar las decisiones importantes (Coparmex, 2008).

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

Son varios los enfoques que han observado el comportamiento de las empresas familiares en varios lugares del mundo y la mayoría de los autores coinciden en que, al intentar buscar un equilibrio entre la parte emocional del sistema familiar y la racionalidad de la empresa se generan conflictos que entorpecen su gestión e impiden su continuidad. El conflicto es inevitable y en sí mismo no es bueno ni malo, es buena o mala la forma en que se maneja (Barszez, s.f.). El éxito de las empresas familiares está cimentado en el logro simultáneo de la "rentabilidad" y la "armonía familiar" (Antognolli, 2006).

Lo anterior lleva a suponer que, el gran secreto de las empresas familiares reside en la armonía familiar (Bavera, 2004), la cuál puede ser definida como el estado de afecto y buena correspondencia que deberían compartir en todo momento los miembros de una familia empresaria para asegurar la buena marcha del negocio familiar (IESE Business School, 2008). Dicha armonía está basada en factores clave tales como, la comunicación efectiva, la unión, el compromiso, la confianza, una baja rotación de personal, un ambiente agradable y la ausencia de conflictos. La comunicación efectiva es una herramienta indispensable para atender y resolver los asuntos de la familia (Bavera, 2004) y el logro del éxito y la continuidad en la empresa (Vidal, 2006). Se ha comprobado que la buena comunicación es el pegamento más sólido e indestructible de la familia (Niethardt, s.f.), una comunicación efectiva en combinación con el establecimiento de reglas claras en la relación empresa-familia minimizan la existencia de conflictos, y en caso de que se dieran, mejoran y facilitan su resolución (Serebrenik, 2008).

De acuerdo a recientes investigaciones, la unidad, el compromiso y la confianza, además de asegurar la continuidad de la empresa familiar, son elementos indispensables para construir y mantener la armonía en la familia (Valda, 2009). La confianza contribuye a la cohesión del grupo filial, promoviendo la conexión e intimidad entre las personas, es la base de la unidad y el compromiso de una familia con su empresa familiar (Niethardt, 2009). En una empresa familiar sana existen intereses comunes y un fuerte compromiso para su consecución. Se entiende por compromiso de la familia con la empresa a la identificación con un proyecto empresarial y sus fines, y en los que cada miembro de la familia pueda ligarse libre y voluntariamente con el proyecto empresarial (González, s.f.). El compromiso es un factor distintivo y propio de las empresas familiares, gracias al cual, los miembros de la familia dedican más tiempo y energía que el que hubiesen estado dispuestos a ofrecer a cualquier otra empresa (Vallejo Martos, 2007). Hay unidad cuando los miembros de una familia se juntan para cuidar su negocio y están dispuestos no solo a evitar conflictos en las decisiones menores, sino también a hacer los sacrificios necesarios cuando haya que tomar las decisiones más difíciles (Gallo, 2002). Otro factor a resaltar, es el liderazgo, un buen líder es capaz de hacer compatibles los intereses divergentes entre la empresa y la familia, procurando la felicidad de ésta y el éxito de la empresa (Ramírez, s.f.). Estar al frente de una empresa familiar exige estar atento a todas las posibles fuentes de conflicto con el fin de mantener la armonía en la familia (Antognolli, s.f.). El líder es una figura determinante para la continuidad de la empresa familiar porque actúa como agente de cambio, capaz de asumir cualquier reto de manera personal o para toda la organización.

Conforme una empresa familiar crece y su gestión se vuelve cada vez más compleja, resulta indispensable su profesionalización (Ch Capital, 2009). La profesionalización es un proceso de transformación gradual y complejo que implica un cambio de mentalidad en cada uno de los miembros de la organización (Belausteguigoitia, 2003, citado en Flores y Vega, 2008). La profesionalización en las empresas familiares, es el hacer que las actividades, se ejecuten con criterios empresariales de eficiencia y evaluación de resultados, sin que la toma de decisiones sea influida por criterios familiares, que no

siempre son compatibles con los empresariales (Ch Capital, 2009). Profesionalizar, además de ayudar a reducir el riesgo de conflicto dentro de la empresa familiar (Amat, s.f.), es un paso indispensable para todas aquellas organizaciones que busquen su continuidad generacional (*Salazar, 2009*). La armonía familiar junto a la toma de decisiones participativa coadyuvan al crecimiento de la capacidad eficiente de la empresa familiar, mientras que la primera incrementa los recursos y energías asignadas a la profesionalización de la organización, la toma de decisiones participativa ayuda a la capacidad de adaptación al entorno (Rodríguez, 2009)

Como se puede apreciar es fundamental concebir a la empresa familiar, como una organización y un sistema estructurado a partir de dos subsistemas, el familiar y el empresarial, que en una relación dialéctica, van encontrando causes que variaran en función de la claridad de sus objetivos y de la identificación de sus intereses, en el marco de reglas de convivencia que creen institucionalidad y generen confianza. De esto se deriva que profesionalizar la vida en las empresas, pero sobre todo en las familiares es un paso definitivo para su permanencia y competitividad en esta época de cambios vertiginosos provocados en gran parte por la gran competencia propiciada por la globalización.

Planteamiento Del Problema E Hipótesis

Un problema grave al que se enfrenta la empresa familiar en México es la falta de formalidad, la cual se ve reflejada en la ausencia de reglas para diferenciar los sistemas que la conforman y así conservar la armonía en la familia y la empresa (FONAES, 2009). A pesar del papel fundamental que las empresas familiares mexicanas juegan en el contexto socio-económico nacional, poco se ha hecho para concientizar a los empresarios de la importancia que tiene el tomar las acciones necesarias para prevenir, en medida de lo posible, futuros conflictos, o dado el caso resolverlos eficiente y eficazmente para evitar el estancamiento y desaparición de sus organizaciones.

En Tehuacán, los principales sectores económicos están conformados por empresas familiares, durante el 2002 las industrias más importantes eran la del vestido, las embotelladoras de refresco, la producción de vacunas para aves de exportación, la producción de alimentos para animales, la producción de ónix y jarcia, la producción ganadera, además de la industria del calzado (Barrios, M. y Santiago R., 2003). Marco Antonio Balseca (2008), director comercial de Agua Mineral de Tehuacán San Francisco, refiere que, durante el periodo de 1940 a 1980, surgieron en Tehuacán empresas familiares como Peñafiel, Garci Crespo, y Productos Balseca generando 3,000 empleos. Al pasar de los años, muchos de estos nombres fueron absorbidos por compañías transnacionales. En la actualidad, de las 13,700 empresas existentes en Tehuacán, en el sector industrial laboran 18,595 personas, en el comercio 19,833 y en servicios trabajan 20,355 (INEGI, 2010). El día de hoy, la única empresa refresquera familiar con capital local es Agua Mineral Tehuacán San Francisco. Sergio Adame (2010) menciona que: "sólo 2 de cada 10 comercios resisten los estragos de la crisis y el resto concluyen en el cierre del establecimiento".

Al igual que la industria refresquera y el comercio en Tehuacán, muchos otros sectores se han visto afectados por factores de diferente índole, tanto internos como externos, repercutiendo principalmente en la falta de continuidad de las empresas familiares de la región. Pero ¿por qué hay empresas que han sorteado la influencia negativa de factores externos e incluso de operación e interacción interna, siendo familiares? Aunque la literatura ya ha avanzado sobre el particular, las condiciones propias del lugar y de la idiosincrasia también juegan un papel relevante, por ello investigar la situación de las empresas familiares en Tehuacán, con una población de 274,906 habitantes (INEGI, 2010), y segunda ciudad en importancia en el Estado de Puebla, es relevante para el futuro de estas organizaciones, y como consecuencia para la generación de empleo y de progreso en la región.

Como resultado de la revisión de la literatura relacionada con la empresa y su problemática, se deduce que la falta de profesionalización es una de las principales causas que impiden la continuidad de las

empresas familiares mexicanas. La falta de profesionalización provoca que los sistemas que conforman la empresa familiar tiendan a solaparse dificultando la dirección de la misma, esta carencia se manifiesta en conflictos. Dichos conflictos de no ser prevenidos o resueltos a tiempo interferirán negativamente en las decisiones empresariales, por lo tanto el problema consistirá en identificar el grado de profesionalización de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán, y cómo influye en el desempeño de la familia dentro del sistema empresarial.

OPERACIONALIZACIÓN DE LAS HIPÓTESIS Y MODELOS

Las hipótesis que guían este trabajo están relacionadas con los elementos internos estructurales y de funcionamiento de las empresas familiares, a saber:

H1: Las empresas familiares con un mayor grado de profesionalización tienen un mejor desempeño.

Planeación estratégica, nivel de educación formal. Proceso de comunicación formal, Normas claras empresa-familia, Experiencia Internacional= Grado de profesionalización

H2: Las empresas familiares con mayor grado de profesionalización tienen mayor armonía familiar

Comunicación eficiente, No conflictos, Ambiente agradable, Baja rotación de Personal Familiar, confianza, Unión, compromiso = Grado de profesionalización

H3: Las empresas familiares con mayor grado de Profesionalización tienen mejor comunicación.

Proceso de comunicación formal, Formación de nuevas tecnologías de la comunicación, Herramientas de la comunicación que mejoran la comunicación = Grado de profesionalización

H4: Los factores que obstaculizan el proceso de profesionalización de una empresa familiar son: Rigidez en la cultura familiar, Falta de reglas claras, Comunicación deficiente, Falta de liderazgo

Proceso de profesionalización = Rigidez en la cultura familiar, Falta de reglas claras, Comunicación deficiente, Falta de liderazgo

Objetivos General Y Particulares

El objetivo general del presente estudio es determinar el grado de profesionalización de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán y analizar cómo se relaciona con el desempeño exitoso de la organización familiar. Los cuatro objetivos particulares que se persiguen son:

- Determinar y analizar los principales obstáculos a los que se enfrentan las empresas familiares de Tehuacán para profesionalizar su empresa.
- Analizar cómo se relaciona el nivel de profesionalización de una empresa familiar con el surgimiento y cantidad de conflictos de carácter familiar.
- Analizar cómo se relaciona el nivel de profesionalización de las empresas familiares con la calidad de su sistema de comunicación para la resolución de conflictos familiares.

• Determinar los principales conflictos familiares de las empresas de Tehuacán y analizar su relación con el desarrollo de su profesionalización.

Alcances Y Limitaciones

El estudio comprendió empresas familiares de manufactura, comercio y servicios de Tehuacán y su región. Este proyecto es un estudio transversal que se efectúa en el lapso de dos años (2010-2011).

METODOLOGÍA

Es una investigación documental y de campo mediante la aplicación de cuestionarios a empresas familiares de manufactura, comercio y servicios de la ciudad de Tehuacán y localidades circunvecinas. Los alcances de la investigación son:

- Exploratoria. Se busca dar una visión general acerca de la empresa familiar en Tehuacán, ya que existe escasa información relacionada con este tema.
- Descriptiva. Se pretende detallar las características de la empresa familiar en Tehuacán y la problemática para su continuidad
- Explicativa. Se busca determinar cuáles son los factores que impulsan el desarrollo y continuidad de las empresas familiares en Tehuacán.

A partir de la revisión de la literatura, se diseñaron modelos para plantear las relaciones entre las variables para cada una de las hipótesis que se explican más adelante. En seguida se diseñó el instrumento y se probó antes de aplicarlo. La construcción del instrumento es resultado de una exhaustiva revisión de estudios relacionados con la empresa familiar hechos en otras latitudes pero considerando en todo momento la cultura familiar y empresarial mexicana. A lo largo de tres meses se formularon ítems y se adecuaron escalas Likert, de intervalo y nominativas acordes con las hipótesis y objetivos de este trabajo de investigación. El instrumento consta de un total de 95 ítems y está dividido en dos partes, la primera se refiere a los datos generales de la empresa, y la segunda a la profesionalización de la empresa, la cual incluye variables que nos permitirán medir:

- El grado de profesionalización de la organización (planeación estratégica, nivel de educación, capacitación, política de recursos humanos, normas empresa-familia, sistemas de control y gestión del desempeño de empleados familiares y no familiares, consultores externos, uso de nuevas tecnologías de comunicación, órganos de gobierno, ambiente familiar, proceso de comunicación).
- La armonía familiar (comunicación eficiente, poca cantidad de conflictos, ambiente agradable, confianza, unión, compromiso, baja rotación de personal).
- Los obstáculos a los que se enfrenta la empresa para lograr su profesionalización (falta de liderazgo, comunicación deficiente, falta de reglas claras, rigidez en la cultura familiar).

Simultáneamente se identificó el marco muestral, al principio se presentaron una gran cantidad de obstáculos para delimitar la muestra entre los que destacan los siguientes: que la información que tienen las cámaras no está actualizada, ni es del todo verídica ya que al contrastar los datos proporcionados con la realidad, estos no concordaban; falta de cultura de participación del sector empresarial en agrupaciones y actividades gremiales; los empresarios se rehúsan a dar cualquier tipo de información acerca de sus

organizaciones; excesiva burocracia para solicitar y proporcionar información y por último a pesar de que el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) hizo un censo económico a nivel nacional en el año 2009, esta información se publicó hasta la primera semana de octubre de 2010. Por todo lo anterior, para avanzar en el marco muestral hubo la necesidad de hacer uso de la información con la que se contaba en ese momento, para dicho fin se utilizó el Censo Económico de Tehuacán 2004 y los datos generales por sector del estado de Puebla 2009, con estos datos se realizaron una serie de cuadros comparativos y proyecciones para obtener una estructura aproximada para Tehuacán 2009 que sirviera de base para empezar a encuestar. A pesar de que las proyecciones hechas fueron muy cercanas a la realidad, no hubo necesidad de utilizarlas, ya que a principios del tercer trimestre del 2010, el INEGI puso en línea el Sistema Automatizado de Información Censal 2009, desde esta base de datos se obtuvieron las cifras para Tehuacán del año 2009 por sector de actividad y por estrato de personal ocupado, como se muestra en la tabla siguiente:

Tabla 1: Unidades Económicas de Tehuacán 2009.

	Tehuacán l	Unidades Económicas 2	009			
	Industria	Comercio	Servicios	Total		
Micro	1820	6788	4521	13129		
Pequeña	179	97	164	440		
Mediana	66	42	10	118		
Grande	7	6	0	13		
Total	2072	6933	4695	13700		

Fuente:. Elaboración propia, basada en el Censo Económico 2009. Esta tabla presenta la estructura de Tebuacán por sector y por tamaño del añ

Esta tabla presenta la estructura de Tehuacán por sector y por tamaño del año 2009

Para el universo de 13,700 unidades económicas de Tehuacán en el 2009 se obtuvo una muestra de 374 empresas con el programa Stats TM v.2, con las siguientes características: Un error máximo aceptable del 5%, un porcentaje estimado de la muestra del 50% y un nivel deseado de confianza de 95%. Con los requisitos anteriores quedó determinada una muestra estratificada que considera sector de actividad y tamaño de la organización. Dicha muestra se obtuvo usando el factor multiplicador 0.027, este se calculó dividiendo la muestra de 374 empresas entre el universo de 13,700 unidades económicas. Una vez obtenido el factor se procedió a multiplicar el mismo por cada una de las casillas de la tabla anterior. La muestra estratificada quedó conformada de la siguiente manera:

Tabla 2: Muestra Estratificada de Tehuacán 2009

	Tehuacán 2009 Muestra Estratificada			
	Industria	Comercio	Servicios	Total
Micro	50	185	123	358
Pequeña	5	3	5	13
Mediana	2	1	0	3
Grande	0	0	0	0
Total	57	189	128	374

Fuente: Elaboración propia, basada en el Censo Económico 2009. Esta tabla presenta la estructura de la muestra estratificada por sector y por tamaño de Tehuacán 2009 de acuerdo al tamaño de muestra de 374 unidades económicas.

Al calcular la muestra estratificada algunas casillas resultaron en ceros, por esta razón surgió la necesidad de buscar que todos los sectores y tamaños estuvieran representados y evitar sesgos. La tabla con la muestra estratificada se modificó de acuerdo a los siguientes criterios:

a) Para evitar sesgo en las empresas medianas, se optó por representar a las de servicios con 2 empresas para suplir el cero resultante en la muestra, para lo cual se calculó el porcentaje que representan estas 2 empresas de las 123 microempresas de servicios resultando el 1.6%; b) Para las empresas medianas de comercio también se aplicó el criterio anterior, dando un total de 3 empresas; c) Para las empresas

grandes, en el caso específico de los servicios se quedó en cero empresas ya que en la estructura de Tehuacán 2009 no existen. Pero en lo referente a la industria y el comercio se incluyeron 2 empresas para cada uno de los sectores para cumplir con el criterio de representatividad y evitar sesgo.

Tabla 3: Muestra Estratificada Modificada de Tehuacán 2009

	Tehuacán 2	2009 Muestra Modifica	ıda		
	Industria	Comercio	Servicios	Total	
Micro	48	181	121	350	
Pequeña	5	3	5	13	
Mediana	2	3	2	7	
Grande	2	2	0	4	
Total	57	189	128	374	

Fuente: Elaboración propia. Esta tabla presenta la estructura de la muestra estratificada final por sector y por tamaño de Tehuacán 2009, la cuál servirá de base para el levantamiento de la encuesta.

Con estos datos se levantó la encuesta a 374 empresas de las cuales 342 resultaron ser familiares, es decir, un 91%, porcentaje muy cercano al estimado para México que es aproximado al 85% (Barber y Axtle, 2007). La condición para la empresa familiar es que tenga más de 5 años de antigüedad, esto con el fin de garantizar que la organización cuenta ya con cierta continuidad y la persona encargada de contestar el cuestionario pueda fundamentar mejor sus respuestas basadas en su experiencia dentro de la empresa familiar. Este criterio se adoptó ya que de acuerdo a diversos autores el ciclo de vida de la empresa familiar es muy corto, según Ernesto Poza (1995) se sitúa en una media de 5 años para el 90% de las empresas que se crean, conforme a Gonzalo Pérez (2004) el 80% de las empresas familiares fracasan antes de cumplir los cinco años de vida, mientras que Marta Nieto (s.f.) menciona que 8 de cada 10 empresas mexicanas mueren antes de los 2 años de vida.

Es importante mencionar las dificultades que se enfrentaron con el levantamiento de la encuesta, ya que son experiencias dignas de compartir y que pueden ser útiles en futuras investigaciones:

a) Una gran desconfianza para compartir información por parte del empresariado debido a la inseguridad que impera en el país; b) El tamaño del cuestionario, muchos no querían responder por el tiempo que según ellos les iba a tomar contestarlo; c) Algunos propietarios al ver que el cuestionario tiene preguntas de índole familiar, se rehusaron a contestar por considerarlas de tipo privado. d) La apatía y falta de actitud participativa y colaboradora de algunos empresarios; e) Algunos otros aunque fueron la minoría, se negaron a contestarlo desde el primer momento que se les invitó a participar. La captura de los datos se hizo en una base de Excel que se exportó a SPSS para su procesamiento.

RESULTADOS

A continuación se muestra un adelanto de los resultados que hasta este momento se continúan procesando, presentado algunas de las características más sobresalientes de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán:

	Comercio	Industria	Servicios	Total
Micro empresa	154	48	116	318
Pequeña empresa	3	5	5	13
Mediana empresa	3	2	2	7
Gran empresa	2	2	0	4
Total	162	57	123	342

Tabla 4. Giro de la empresa por número de trabajadores

Fuente: Elaboración propia

En esta tabla se observa que 342 empresas de Tehuacán contestaron el cuestionario, y fueron clasificadas de acuerdo a la estratificación propuesta por la Secretaría de Economía, según el número de empleados que laboran: micro, pequeña, mediana y gran empresa. Sobresale el sector comercio con 162 empresas de las cuales 154 son micro y 8 son pequeñas, medianas y gran empresa. En segundo lugar está el sector de servicios con 123 empresas, las cuales 116 son micro y el resto son empresas pequeñas y medianas. En tercer lugar se encuentra el sector industrial con 57 empresas y sobresalen los microempresarios con 48 y el resto que son 9 pertenecen a la pequeña, mediana y gran empresa. Cabe destacar que en Tehuacán no existe ninguna empresa grande de servicios, además de que predominan las microempresas en todos los sectores económicos.

Tabla 5:Elabora presupuestos anuales

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Sí	78	22.8
No	264	77.2
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta tabla nos indica que el 77% de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán, no tiene una planificación estratégica, ya que realizar presupuestos nos permite entre otras cosas, planificar actividades, objetivos, recursos, estrategias, cursos a seguir; lo que permite anticiparse a los hechos y, por lo tanto reduce la incertidumbre y el miedo a los cambios. El 22.8 de las empresas si realizan un presupuesto

Tabla 6: Existen normas que regulan la relación familia-empresa

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Sí	111	32.5
No	231	67.5
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta tabla nos indica que el 67.5 % de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán no tienen normas para regular la relación entre la familia y la empresa. Aquellas organizaciones que carecen de estas normas están expuestas a que surjan conflictos que perjudiquen la continuidad de su empresa familiar. Tan solo el 32.5% de las empresas familiares tienen normas que regulan la relación de la empresa con la familia.

Tabla 7: Existe un clima de confianza, colaboración, diálogo y respeto entre los miembros de la familia dentro de la empresa

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Regular	32	9.4
Bueno	225	65.8
Excelente	85	24.9
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta tabla indica que en la mayoría de las empresas familiares (65.8 + 24.9 = 90.70%), confían en los miembros de su familia, existe un alto índice de diálogo, colaboración y respeto entre todos los integrantes de la empresa. Esto permite gestionar la empresa dentro un clima armonioso y de paz. En cambio tan solo el 9.4% de las empresas, tienen un nivel regular de confianza, respeto, diálogo y colaboración entre los miembros de su empresa

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Nunca	210	61.4
Rara vez	76	22.2
A veces sí-a veces no	48	14.0
Frecuentemente	7	2.0
Siempre	1	.3
Total	342	100.0

Tabla 8: Existen barreras de comunicación entre los miembros de la empresa generando situaciones frecuentes de conflicto

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta tabla nos dice que la mayoría de las empresas familiares (61.4%) no tienen barreras de comunicación que generen conflictos entre los miembros que laboran en la empresa familiar. Si sumamos el porcentaje anterior con las empresas que contestaron rara vez (22.2%), nos da un porcentaje alto de empresas (83.6%) que mantienen abiertos los canales de comunicación entre sus miembros y así evitan conflictos que obstaculicen el objetivo de la empresa. En cambio las empresas que tienen conflictos a causa de las barreras de comunicación son mínimas.

Tabla 9: La unidad familiar es fundamental para la permanencia y continuidad de la empresa

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Nunca	3	.9
Rara vez	5	1.5
A veces sí-a veces no	24	7.0
Frecuentemente	111	32.5
Siempre	198	57.9
Total	341	99.7
No aplica	1	.3
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

A través de esta tabla podemos observar que un porcentaje alto de empresas familiares en Tehuacán (57.9 +32.5 = 89.8%), tiene una excelente calidad de relaciones familiares. Los miembros de estas empresas familiares están unidos como familia, sus relaciones son armoniosas y están comprometidos con la continuidad de la empresa. En cambio las empresas cuyos miembros familiares no están unidos y no están comprometidos con la continuidad de la empresa son mínimas

Tabla 10: Cómo se resuelven las Necesidades de la familia

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Malo	1	.3
Regular	23	6.7
Bueno	255	74.6
Excelente	63	18.4
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

La mayor parte de las empresas familiares de Tehuacán resuelven en un término excelente y bueno las necesidades de la familia, esto está representado por el 93% y este alto porcentaje significa que la empresa le proporciona a la familia una estabilidad emocional, económica, y social. Todo esto genera una armonía entre los miembros de la familia.

Tabla 11:	Cómo se resuelven	las Necesidades de	e la empresa
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	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Regular	34	9.9
Bueno	261	76.3
Excelente	47	13.7
Total	342	100.0

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta tabla nos indica que la mayoría de las empresas (90% juntando el término bueno y excelente) resuelven sus necesidades de: reinversión, desarrollo y crecimiento, competencia y del logro de sus objetivos, en forma óptima. En contraste un 9.9% de empresas resuelven sus necesidades en forma regular. Por último recordamos que las pretensiones de esta investigación son:

- Fortalecer las empresas familiares de Tehuacán aportando soluciones a sus principales debilidades
- Aumentar su esperanza de vida
- Concientizar sobre su papel, como generadoras de riqueza y bienestar social, así como de la importancia de su continuidad para la economía regional y nacional
- Aportar nuevos elementos de análisis para el estudio de las empresas familiares en el campo de las ciencias de la Administración.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Hilario Díaz Guzmán, candidato a Doctor en Administración de Organizaciones, UPAEP

Miguel Ángel Corona J. Doctor en Administración. Profesor-Investigador Universidad Iberoamericana Puebla y profesor del doctorado UPAEP

Yésica Mayett M. Doctora en Administración. Profesora UPAEP.

IMPACTO DE LA RSE EN EL DESARROLLO DE LAS ORGANIZACIONES

María Dolores Sánchez Fernández, Universidad de A Coruña

RESUMEN

La ética, la transparencia, el gobierno corporativo de las organizaciones, los códigos de conducta, el aprovechamiento y gestión adecuada de los recursos son cuestiones que se están debatiendo en la actualidad en el entorno de las organizaciones. En este escenario de incertidumbre que conlleva la preocupación de la limitación de los recursos, el bajo nivel de confianza social, la influencia y participación de los diferentes grupos de interés tanto internos como externos en el ámbito empresarial es de gran relevancia. Circunscriben el escenario de responsabilidad social empresarial en la que se enmarcan sus principales actuaciones. En el presente trabajo se analiza el impacto que adquiere la responsabilidad social empresarial en las empresas desde el punto de vista estratégico como respuesta ante la situación actual en el contexto de crisis económica. Las empresas se enmarcan en un ambiente de preocupación ante la pérdida de competitividad y la limitación de recursos entrelazándose con temáticas sociales que afectan directamente a las compañías y los diferentes actores que conforman su entorno.

PALABRAS CLAVE: RSE, Responsabilidad Social Empresarial, ética, gobierno corporativo, códigos de conducta, grupos de interés, estrategia empresarial

COMPETENCIAS Y GESTIÓN DE RIESGOS DE LOS ACTORES DE PROYECTOS

Zoltán Veres, Escuela Superior de Estudios Económicos de Budapest, Hungría László Sajtos, Universidad de Auckland, Nueva Zelanda

RESUMEN

Partiendo del hecho de que todo proyecto se plantea como objetivo la consecución de un resultado, hemos centrado nuestros exámenes en el riesgo de resultado vinculable al resultado esperado del proveedor. La promesa de competencia de proyecto reviste un destacado papel, pues el comprador paga el sobreprecio a cambio de la destreza en la organización de proyectos. El valor percibido a partir de la competencia constituye un de las determinantes decisivas de la percepción de riesgo. En las transacciones, los actores del lado del ordenante también son partes más o menos competentes, que asumen un papel activo en la transacción. Durante nuestro trabajo, analizamos los proyectos de inversión en curso con gran contenido físico y las transacciones de proyectos con contenido físico insignificant. En una primera fase se exploraron las competencias supuestas del interlocutor de negocios. En la segunda fase, pedimos a los entrevistados que evocaran incidentes críticos del proyecto. En la tercera fase, los entrevistados citaron por orden de importancia las competencias. Con la exploración de los riesgos de resultado percibidos por los actores de proyectos, logramos comprender mejor el contenido de las competencias de proyectos, y su papel que desempeñan en la configuración de la percepción de riesgo.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La noción de riesgo percibido se afianzó en el marketing a principios de la década de los 60, siendo interpretada generalmente como inhibidor limitante del comprador en el proceso de adquisición (Dhalakia, 2001). Mientras que son numerosas las definiciones que no establecen diferencias entre "riesgo percibido" (*perceived risk*) e "incertidumbre" (*uncertainty*) – como, por ejemplo, Taylor, 1974 –, las más nuevas interpretaciones (por ejemplo, Dowling y Staelin, 1994) se fundamentan en el criterio de que la diferenciación entre incertidumbre y resultado (*output*) hace referencia a la dimensión tiempo del riesgo percibido. Concebimos la ponderación del riesgo por parte del comprador como la comparación de diversas alternativas (Aqueveque, 2006). Posteriormente veremos que, en el caso del tipo de transacción examinado por nosotros, este fenómeno difiere de dicha concepción desde distintos puntos de vista. Las posibles dimensiones del riesgo percibido fueron definidas por Jacoby y Kaplan (1972) en una estructura aceptada generalmente aún en nuestros días, siendo extensiva a transacciones de servicios mediante la intervención del factor tiempo (Garner, 1986). Partiendo del hecho de que todo proyecto se plantea como objetivo la consecución de un resultado, hemos centrado nuestros exámenes en el *riesgo de resultado (performance risk)* vinculable al resultado esperado del proveedor.

Según la concepción clásica, el objeto de la actividad mercantil de tipo proyecto es la entrega de grandes instalaciones. En este contexto, el objeto del intercambio mercantil es un objeto físico complejo (*hardware*, instalación), al cual pueden vincularse un gran número de servicios complementarios (*software*): servicios de asesoramiento ingeniero, financieros-comerciales y la entrega de diversos productos intelectuales (por ejemplo, procedimientos productivos). Este tipo de transacción es el proyecto de inversión tipo *hardware*, en el que la realización de la gran instalación se materializa en forma de proyecto (Günter, 1979). Si bien el contenido de productos físicos de las transacciones de proyecto puede ser considerable, en este grupo de mercancías no resulta tan evidente que el comprador adquiera productos conjuntamente con los servicios, o adquiera ante todo un servicio, cuyo soporte físico es el suministro de un producto. Ello es evidente cuando el proveedor asume exclusivamente el papel de

asesor, organizador o coordinador en la inversión. Desde el punto de vista del comprador, resulta indiferente si la parte que asume la ejecución es o no fabricante de algunos *inputs*. Él adquiere un servicio integral, que necesita porque la apreciación de la buena solución excede los límites de su preparación (Schmidt-Wagner, 1985, pág. 422). La promesa de competencia de proyecto reviste un destacado papel, pues el comprador paga el sobreprecio del carácter integral del servicio a cambio de la destreza en la organización de proyectos. El comprador no adquiere productos, sino valores, la perspectiva cercana de beneficios basados en el conocimiento y la competencia – *knowledge/competence-based expectations of benefits* – (Page y Siemplenski, 1983, pág. 92). Citando las tesis de Vargo y Lusch (2004, pág. 8): "El producto sirve a la distribución del servicio" y "La fuente fundamental de la ventaja competitiva es el conocimiento".

FUNDAMENTOS TEÓRICOS

Generalmente, denominamos proyectos a aquellos programas que se orientan a la consecución de un determinado objetivo mediante una actividad en grupo delimitada en el tiempo. Partiendo de dicha definición de proyecto, aquí se puede considerar asimismo actividades mercantiles en las que el objeto de la transacción es un *servicio* que no incluye, o apenas contiene *hardware* (por ejemplo, asesoramiento ingeniero, proyección, entrega de procedimientos productivos, actividades de investigación y desarrollo por encargo, investigación *ad-hoc* de mercados, gestión de campañas publicitarias, consultoría, organización de eventos, etc.).

Relaciones De Riesgo Del Proceso Del Proyecto

El modelo de flujo de tipo Cova–Ghauri–Salle (Cova–Salle, 2007) interpreta todo el proceso – desde el punto de vista del proveedor del proyecto –, desde la fase de proyección hasta el perfeccionamiento del contrato. En virtud de ello, el proveedor lleva a cabo un desarrollo funcional, es decir, desarrolla continuamente sus competencias mercantiles, preparándose a solucionar los problemas previsibles de los grupos objetivos. Simultáneamente al desarrollo funcional, el proveedor desarrolla asimismo, de manera continuada, su red de relaciones. En dicha red se encuentran aquellos usuarios que posteriormente podrían devenir interlocutores contractuales. La siguiente fase del proceso es la fase preconcurso, en la que el proveedor ya considera la demanda de mercado del proyecto, o sea, el posible círculo de compradores, eligiendo por un procedimiento selectivo aquellos problemas de compradores (por ejemplo, los que se presentan en forma de convocatorias de concursos) en cuya adjudicación resulta conveniente invertir. La fase de oferta comprende la cadena proyectada en el tiempo "oferta-negociación-contrato".

El carácter único del proyecto y el riesgo implícito en sus resultados constituyen factores que hacen necesaria la relación interactiva entre las partes, orientada a la solución de problemas, ya desde los inicios de la fase preconcurso hasta la entrega final (una más estrecha relación entre las partes presupone incluso una continuidad ulterior). La dependencia del riesgo percibido en el resultado respecto al tiempo significa que todo el proceso transaccional está afectado por la incertidumbre inherente a la benignidad del resultado (final). Lo que es más, en el caso de servicios que predominantemente constituyen un proceso, la benignidad del propio proceso también forma parte del resultado esperado por el comprador.

Existen otras consideraciones referentes a la solución de los problemas inherentes a las particularidades del proyecto. Entre ellas, citemos las más importantes (Engelhardt, 1993; Cova-Salle, 1996, Cova–Salle, 1999, págs. 19-28; Cova–Ghauri–Salle, 2002, págs. 23-31; Veres–Buzás, 2006; Veres, 2009):

• En el ramo de negocios de proyectos el elemento de riesgo más grave radica en la responsabilidad integral del proveedor por los resultados, es decir, el compromiso que representa el hecho de que la consideración de todas las condicionantes del éxito en el cumplimiento es tarea del proveedor. Ello

constituye un factor de riesgo vigente hasta el fin del procedimiento de confirmación del cumplimiento.

- El objeto del proyecto es un producto único por su naturaleza. Para el proveedor, la tarea es también nueva, de carácter único, pues éste raramente realiza transacciones reiteradas en el mismo sistema de relaciones, con el mismo grado de actualidad.
- La solución de los problemas se ve dificultada por el carácter de sistema del objeto del proyecto. Por ello, en la terminología profesional estadounidense se emplea para tales transacciones el término "venta de sistemas" (*system selling*). El carácter de sistema no sólo se refiere al *hardware*, sino también, por ejemplo, al mecanismo de toma de decisiones.
- De los intereses antagónicos inherentes a las relaciones entre los interlocutores de negocios se derivan los llamados riesgos de colaboración. Ello implica que una de las partes se vea tentada a aprovecharse de la falta de conocimientos de la otra parte. Al mismo tiempo, la relación entre comprador y asesor, por ejemplo, es también una relación de dependencia, pues el asesor, desde el punto de vista de sus relaciones mercantiles a más largo plazo, está interesado en mantener una buena colaboración con el proveedor (Schmidt–Wagner, 1985).
- El proceso transaccional puede caracterizarse con diferentes fases, con una prolongada serie de interacciones entre los actores. Tales fases son, por ejemplo: los exámenes de viabilidad, la convocatoria de ofertas (proceso *briefing*), la selección del proveedor o de los proveedores, la realización del proyecto, el *debriefing*, etc.
- Los proveedores crean los productos del proyecto conjuntamente, con la incorporación activa del comprador.
- Del período prolongado de realización se deriva el riesgo de resultado bilateral, que requiere una intensa gestión de las relaciones con vistas a mitigar la percepción de riesgo.
- Tanto el riesgo como la percepción de riesgo no son independientes del historial del proyecto, de los episodios transaccionales que constituyen el proceso de realización. Ello puede implicar incluso incidencias externas como, por ejemplo, el conseguir alguna nueva información sobre el mercado.
- Debido a las pérdidas previsibles, para las partes se hace cada vez más arriesgado abandonar la transacción, por consiguiente, se reduce cada vez más la posibilidad de cambiar a una relación de negocios alternativa. En este sentido, el desenlace más grave ciertamente deficitario es aquel, cuando en el proceso del proyecto los actores exceden el límite que demarca la posibilidad de gestionar rentablemente el cambio desde el punto de vista mercantil (en inglés: *point of no return*).
- La gestión del sistema de relaciones es una tarea bidireccional. En su sentido más concreto implica la gestión de los problemas originados en las relaciones entre las partes; desde el punto de vista estratégico, la estructuración de redes (*networking*).

Competencias De Proyecto

El valor percibido a partir de la competencia constituye un de las determinantes decisivas de la percepción de riesgo. En este contexto entendemos como competencia la competencia epistémica y la competencia heurística tomadas en conjunto en la solución del "problema" objeto del proyecto. En virtud de ello, la competencia epistémica sirve como corroboración de anteriores resultados exitosos (véase: referencias), mientras que la competencia heurística – a falta de referencias relevantes – constituye una promesa de

fiabilidad en que el actor del proyecto es capaz de afrontar las dificultades que implica la solución de problemas inherentes al proyecto (por ejemplo, el actor es miembro de alguna asociación profesional).

En las transacciones de proyectos, los actores del lado del ordenante también son partes más o menos experimentadas (competentes), que asumen un papel activo en la transacción. Expresándonos en términos de marketing, el grado de involucración de los compradores puede ser considerable. La competencia hecha extensiva a la parte ordenante puede justificarse precisamente con ese papel activo (Cova y Salle, 1999; Awuah, 2001; Bettencourt y otros, 2002; Axelsson y Wynstra, 2002).

Las investigaciones llevadas a cabo por Karl Erik Sveiby (1997) contribuyeron notablemente a la mejor comprensión de la competencia de los actores de negocios mercantiles. Merece la pena citar sus constataciones extensibles al mercado de proyectos: "El principal patrimonio (inmaterial) de una empresa de la industria de la construcción lo constituye su aptitud para la ejecución de proyectos integrales... El valor fundamental de las empresas de asesoramiento... radica en la competencia de su personal y en las relaciones que ha estructurado con sus clientes (Sveiby, 1997, pág. 68)".

Enseñanzas De Una Investigación Exploratoria

Proseguimos nuestras investigaciones empíricas con entrevistas a expertos llevadas a cabo en los mercados de proyectos húngaros. El objetivo que nos planteamos fue examinar el riesgo percibido por los actores de las transacciones de proyectos, particularmente en lo referente a las competencias. Además de los riesgos explorados, la investigación tuvo como objetivo encontrar una respuesta al modo de gestión de dichos riesgos. Durante nuestro trabajo, analizamos:

- los proyectos de inversión en curso con gran contenido físico, de tipo *hard* como los de construcción y montaje, de fomento infraestructural, etc. –, y
- las transacciones de proyectos con contenido físico insignificante, de tipo *soft*, como la consultoría, el asesoramiento ingeniero, la proyección, la entrega de procedimientos productivos, actividades de investigación y desarrollo por encargo, investigación *ad-hoc* de mercados, gestión de campañas publicitarias, organización de eventos, etc.).

Entrevistamos a ejecutivos de nivel intermedio de empresas e instituciones, dotados de competencias decisorias en los preparativos y la ejecución de las transacciones de proyectos y que disponen de gran experiencia en la gestión de proyectos En una primera fase de las entrevistas a expertos, buscamos respuesta a las preguntas siguientes:

- ¿Qué exigencias formulan los actores en la fase preparatoria del proyecto?
- Entre dichas exigencias, ¿cuáles pueden considerarse factores primordiales del éxito del proyecto?
- ¿Cuáles son las competencias supuestas del vendedor y del comprador?
- ¿Cuáles son las principales fuentes de información de los actores del proyecto?
- ¿Cuáles son los principales criterios de selección?

En esta fase se exploraron espontáneamente las competencias supuestas del interlocutor de negocios. En la segunda fase de las entrevistas, pedimos a los entrevistados que evocaran incidentes críticos del proyecto (CIT – *critical incident technique*, véase: Haimala – Salminen, 2006). Es decir, acontecimientos que presupusieron el éxito o el fracaso del proyecto. En la tercera fase de las entrevistas, los entrevistados, con la ayuda de tarjetas facilitadas por nosotros, citaron por orden de importancia las competencias corporativas. Las entrevistas a expertos se realizaron en los meses de octubre a diciembre de 2010.

Perfil Del Entrevistado

Durante la compilación de datos, se realizó un total de 129 entrevistas estructuradas en profundidad (*in-depth interview*), la gran mayoría a empresas ordenantes y proveedoras mutuamente vinculadas en el marco de un proyecto. En lo referente a los sectores de actividad de los proyectos examinados, en el mercado de *proyectos hard* entrevistamos fundamentalmente a proveedores de la industria de la construcción, y en menor proporción, de la industria de montaje y de promoción inmobiliaria. Los proveedores de *proyectos soft* fueron empresas del sector de servicios TIC, de asesoramiento, agencias de publicidad y medios, entidades de investigación de mercados y de proyectos de ingeniería. El perfil de los participantes en *proyectos hard* (80 en total) se diferenció notablemente respecto al de los participantes en ambos tipos de transacciones de proyectos ilustra adecuadamente esta diferencia.

La diferencia entre las cualidades personales de los entrevistados justifica asimismo tratar por separado ambos tipos de proyectos. Por ejemplo, entre los ejecutivos de las partes participantes en *proyectos hard*, apenas podemos encontrar a encuestados del sexo femenino, mientras que en los *proyectos soft* un tercio está representado por mujeres.

Tabla 1:	Desglose por tamaño de las empresas entrevistadas entre los participantes en proyectos
hard y soft	

	Tamaño de la empresa						
		Microempresa	Pequeña empresa	Empresa mediana	Gran empresa	No hay datos	Total
Participantes en <i>proyectos</i> hard	n°	10	8	14	10	7	49
Participantes en <i>proyectos</i> soft	n°	11	12	13	30	14	80

Número de elementos y distribuciones porcentuales

Entre las empresas participantes en *proyectos hard*, encontramos en una proporción aproximadamente equilibrada empresas de diverso tamaño, y las empresas participantes como interlocutoras de negocios están representadas por ejecutivos con formación superior, fundamentalmente económica o técnica. Los ordenantes de *proyectos soft* son, por lo general, grandes empresas, mientras que entre los proveedores podemos encontrar empresas de los más diversos tamaños. En este caso, la formación superior parece ser asimismo un requisito básico.

Relaciones De Proyectos - Exigencias, Información

El procesamiento de las informaciones obtenidas se vio dificultado por el hecho de que los encuestados, partiendo de sus propias experiencias en los negocios, adoptan una "actitud holística" respecto a sus interlocutores de negocios antiguos y potenciales; es decir, más allá de las exigencias muy evidentes (por ejemplo, solvencia, observancia de los plazos), delimitan difícilmente las dimensiones imprescindibles para enjuiciar a los interlocutores potenciales del proyecto. Para ellos, el juicio formulado sobre el interlocutor se define durante el primer contacto personal, o incluso anteriormente a ello, sin ponderar el peso de los diversos factores que inciden en la realización del proyecto.

En las transacciones de *proyectos hard* intervienen factores que revisten importancia para ambos actores del proyecto, tanto para el vendedor como para el comprador. Entre dichos factores encontramos la fiabilidad, la motivación, el compromiso con el trabajo, la confianza mutua y la observancia de los plazos. Para la parte vendedora, además de los citados, el factor primordial es la solvencia de la otra parte. En

muchos casos, surgen dificultades atribuibles a que el comprador no es capaz de definir adecuadamente la tarea en cuestión.

Entre los compradores, todos los entrevistados destacaron la preparación profesional, la competencia profesional. Es necesario que en el terreno en cuestión el vendedor disponga de amplias experiencias, particularmente si se trata de una actividad especial: "Yo, como ordenante de un museo, no sólo deseo saber qué tipo de inversiones ha realizado alguien, sino la magnitud de los trabajos que ha llevado a cabo en el terreno de los monumentos". Asimismo, es importante el nivel de capitalización del proveedor, que sea capaz de financiar el proyecto. En cuanto a los factores que inciden en el éxito, se manifestaron notables diferencias entre la parte vendedora y la compradora. Los vendedores estiman que es fundamental el planteamiento de un objetivo real del proyecto, la viabilidad del proyecto (el contrato adecuado, la solvencia de la otra parte). Los compradores destacaron la importancia del Ejecutivo, la relación interactiva. Entre los tres factores de mayor importancia, los actores de la parte vendedora mencionaron la fiabilidad, la seguridad financiera (solvencia) y la postura correcta.

Por el contrario, la falta de fiabilidad, la postura incorrecta (corrupción) y la situación financiera desfavorable fueron citados como factores que les inducirían a abstenerse de colaborar. Desde el punto de vista de los compradores, los más importantes criterios de juicio son la profesionalidad, la fiabilidad financiera y las buenas referencias. Los principales tres criterios excluyentes son el soporte financiero incierto, la inseguridad profesional y la falta de referencias. En la ponderación de riesgos resulta general que los vendedores recaban información empresarial oficial sobre los compradores potenciales. Para los compradores, las fuentes más importantes de información son la referencia, la recomendación, los conocimientos adquiridos en círculos profesionales: "Trato de obtener confirmación, certeza en mi propia red de relaciones". Otros se apoyan principalmente en sus propias experiencias, lo que implica que prefieran trabajar con interlocutores de negocios ya probados. En las transacciones de *proyectos soft*, la exigencia más importante de los actores de la parte vendedora es la solvencia del comprador.

La segunda exigencia citada con más frecuencia es que el ordenante defina adecuadamente la tarea y que lo comunique al proveedor de manera conveniente. Para los compradores, la competencia del proveedor tiene un carácter decisivo. Ello se refiere al conocimiento del perfil de actividad del ordenante, las experiencias relevantes – que se materializan en las referencias –, así como la proactividad y la creatividad. En este sentido, los vendedores citaron en primer lugar la definición precisa de la tarea: "Si no se cumple esa condición, resulta ciertamente imposible el éxito del proyecto". Otro grupo de factores que inciden en el éxito son los referentes al mantenimiento de las relaciones. Según los compradores, la base del éxito es la profesionalidad del proveedor, cómo gestiona el proyecto. Los vendedores recaban información a partir de los balances, de los informes anuales. Además, utilizan su propia red de relaciones. Los *compradores* se apoyan primordialmente en las referencias. Muchos elaboran auditorías o realizan encuestas sobre el interlocutor de negocios potencial.

En resumen, podemos constatar que en los preparativos del proyecto no pueden establecerse divergencias esenciales según el tipo de proyecto, pese a que se manifiestan ciertas diferencias. En las transacciones de *proyectos hard y soft*:

- las exigencias frente a los interlocutores de negocios son similares,
- son semejantes los factores que inciden en el éxito, pero en los *proyectos hard* los entrevistados enfatizan más las capacidades del Ejecutivo de la otra parte y la interactividad,
- en cuanto a la aptitud de los interlocutores de negocios, en ambos tipos de transacciones de proyectos la parte vendedora estima determinante la fiabilidad financiera, pero en los *proyectos soft* también revisten gran importancia el compromiso de la otra parte respecto a su trabajo y la confianza. Entre los compradores no se manifiestan diferencias relevantes.

- La diferencia más notable se percibe en las fuentes de informaciones empleadas. En los *proyectos hard*, la inspección de trabajos anteriores resulta determinante. En las *transacciones soft*, no suele existir esta posibilidad. Aquí se apoyan más bien en otras informaciones (referencias, información empresarial, etc.).

Los requerimientos planteados y las diversas informaciones necesarias para verificar si se cumplen dichos requerimientos se confunden con mucha frecuencia. Un ejemplo de ello es la exigencia de referencias, que realmente constituye una fuente de información sobre los antecedentes del interlocutor de negocios potencial, pero en ocasiones se presenta durante las entrevistas como requerimiento de competencia.

La cualificación de los interlocutores del proyecto a partir de las fuentes de información puede bosquejarse como círculos concéntricos. En el círculo más interno se encuentran las partes con quienes el encuestado ya ha trabajado anteriormente, por tanto, dispone de experiencias propias sobre la competencia de la otra parte, sobre sus puntos fuertes y eventuales puntos débiles. En el próximo círculo, se hallan los interlocutores con quienes aún no ha trabajado, pero en sus relaciones profesionales hay quienes sí han trabajado anteriormente con el interlocutor o interlocutores potenciales del proyecto.

Si tal vinculación indirecta no resulta suficiente para apoyar la decisión a tomar, entonces allí están las referencias, sobre las cuales se puede estimar las aptitudes del interlocutor potencial, así como los datos empresariales asequibles por Internet que, aunque son menos confiables, sirven para filtrar las empresas que implican un riego demasiado elevado. Asimismo, pueden servir de importante apoyo la visita al interlocutor potencial, la calidad de la toma de contactos y la primera impresión que se formula en este encuentro: "Durante las negociaciones previas al inicio del proyecto, pudimos cerciorarnos, ya en el primer encuentro, de la profesionalidad de los ejecutivos de la empresa.Su flexibilidad y estilo de negociación ponen de manifiesto si la cooperación con ellos resultará o no exitosa". La información obtenida en el propio círculo de relaciones de negocios puede complementarse con el juicio general que se haya conformado sobre la empresa en el sector donde ésta opera. A falta de propias experiencias, la buena o mala reputación de la empresa en cuestión puede servir entonces como uno de los elementos de juicio fundamentales.

Proceso De La Colaboración En Proyectos

En los *proyectos hard*, la estructuración de vínculos de confianza ocurre en varias fases. La primera fase la constituye disponer de una referencia o de una recomendación formulada por un conocido. Muchas veces sólo sobre la marcha (*in situ*) se pone de manifiesto para las partes si la otra parte será o no un interlocutor de negocios apropiado, competente.

La mayoría de los incidentes críticos de proyecto citados anteriormente estaban vinculados a la fase preparatoria. Los encuestados pudieron prever ya entonces el éxito o el fracaso del proyecto. El proveedor siente hasta qué punto el comprador está comprometido con su trabajo, mientras que el comprador es capaz de evaluar la profesionalidad del proveedor. Las visitas al pie de obra, características de esta fase, ofrecen una buena base a ambas partes para formularse un juicio sobre los resultados previsibles del proyecto. En esta fase preparatoria, también se bosquejan la situación financiera, las posibilidades de financiación. Esta fase culmina con la elaboración y el perfeccionamiento del contrato. Las circunstancias propias a la celebración del contrato también sirven de señal. Si las partes tienen dificultades al hacer valer sus intereses, o ello resulta imposible, ya entonces surgen dudas sobre el éxito de la colaboración: "Durante la negociación del contrato imperó fundamentalmente un clima de confianza, no obstante, sentí ciertas dudas en relación con el éxito del proyecto. Ello es siempre un punto crítico. Si no incluyo en el contrato cláusulas que protejan nuestros derechos, ello posteriormente puede tener sus consecuencias. Pero si deseo incluir demasiadas cláusulas de este tipo, entonces el ordenante posiblemente rescinda la celebración del contrato".

La segunda fase de los *proyectos hard* la constituye el proceso de realización de la transacción. En esta fase la mayoría de los episodios críticos se derivan de problemas imprevistos de carácter técnico, financiero o relacionados con los correspondientes permisos y, en menor medida, problemas inherentes a la colaboración. No es raro que surjan obstáculos imprevistos, por ejemplo, la falta de algunos permisos. Tampoco es raro el caso en que, si bien la financiación parece algo resuelto al inicio del proyecto, sobre la marcha se pone de manifiesto que se han agotado las coberturas de créditos. La solución de estos problemas implica más de una vez situaciones conflictivas, que inciden en detrimento de la colaboración. En la fase de los trabajos de culminación pueden surgir problemas de calidad y/o discrepancias de índole financiera. Por cuanto en la realización de gran parte de los proyectos, junto a las partes principales participan también subcontratistas, la actuación de éstos constituye un factor de riesgo crítico.

Asimismo, la motivación de los empleados de las firmas participantes en el proyecto desempeña un papel importante, sobre todo si una de las partes percibe cierta incertidumbre en este sentido: "Los empleados... estaban totalmente poco motivados, muy poco dispuestos a colaborar, por consiguiente, peligraban los plazos previstos". En los proyectos soft, en el primer encuentro personal el criterio más importante es la profesionalidad, así como la posibilidad de aplicación práctica por los compradores de los resultados del proyecto. El convencimiento puede materializarse plenamente si el proveedor potencial se ha preparado e informado adecuadamente sobre el futuro ordenante. Es conveniente que quienes potencialmente se adjudicarían el encargo no sólo sean capaces de documentar sus actividades semejantes, sino también el éxito ponderable de las mismas. En el primer encuentro, la fe en la colaboración conjunta en el proyecto dado no sólo puede ser consolidada, sino también puede derrumbarse si la parte no se ha preparado suficientemente o no se hace representar al nivel adecuado: "De entrada, el ejecutivo gestor de las relaciones y su equipo eran todos absolutamente jóvenes poco experimentados, nos asignaron gente inexperta". Puede contar mucho el hecho de que durante la realización del proyecto tengamos experiencias positivas con las que no contábamos. La base de una decisión errónea suele ser en muchos casos la inadecuada "ponderación" de los criterios. Un ejemplo típico de ello es cuando el ordenante potencial se concentra extremadamente en los precios de oferta. Según los encuestados, la formulación precisa de las exigencias depende en gran medida de las personas competentes.

Así como el ordenante requiere profesionalidad de sus proveedores, los proveedores potenciales esperan lo mismo de sus ordenantes, no quieren que se les pida lo imposible: "… a veces nos piden tremendas estupideces. Simplemente, se trata de cosas absolutamente inviables." Las reacciones y comentarios no sólo son importantes para el comprador, sino también para el vendedor. Durante la ejecución de ciertos tipos de proyectos (por ejemplo, de informática), tanto el comprador como el vendedor tienen la posibilidad de probar el servicio en cuestión. En este caso, puede resultar convincente si se aprecia que, en lo fundamental, el proyecto avanza en la dirección adecuada. Un aspecto que incide muy negativamente en los resultados del proyecto es cuando el comprador no sabe exactamente qué quiere, por lo que se hace muy difícil satisfacer sus exigencias; cuando modifica sus ideas y exigencias en el curso del proyecto. Para el proveedor constituye un enorme fracaso que el ordenante no acepte un método de cuya conveniencia el proveedor está plenamente convencido.

Importancia De Las Competencias De Los Interlocutores Del Proyecto

En la fase final de la entrevista, pedimos a los encuestados clasificar 20 competencias de proyecto, elegir diversos factores que figuraban en 20 tarjetas y separarlos en tres grupos por orden de importancia: grupo "A" (de importancia relevante), grupo "B" (de importancia media) y grupo "C" (de menor importancia). En cada grupo podían clasificarse un máximo de 10 tarjetas, pero los encuestados tuvieron la posibilidad de añadir y clasificar también otros factores. Los resultados se muestran en la Tabla 2.

Cabe observar que el hecho de que un ejecutivo empresarial atribuya cierta importancia a un factor determinado depende no sólo del perfil de la empresa y de su círculo de clientes e interlocutores de negocios, sino también de cómo interpreta el concepto en cuestión. Naturalmente, en dependencia de en qué lado se sitúan las partes que intervienen en las relaciones del proyecto, éstas enjuician de manera diferente las cualidades que requieren a sus interlocutores de proyecto. De tal modo, las competencias del comprador más frecuentemente mencionadas como de importancia relevante en la parte proveedora fueron: la fiabilidad financiera, la comunicación, la profesionalidad, la autenticidad, los recursos financieros, la plantilla de profesionales y las aptitudes para la gestión de proyectos. La parte compradora atribuyó, sin embargo, mayor importancia a la autenticidad del proveedor, su profesionalidad, su plantilla de profesionales. Además de los enumerados anteriormente, casi la quinta parte de los encuestados complementó la lista de competencias con otros factores que, a su juicio, revisten asimismo una importancia relevante. Generalmente, fueron los compradores los que añadieron nuevos criterios.

	A – Factores de	B – Factores de	C – Factores de	Sin respuesta
	importancia relevante	importancia media	menor importancia	
profesionalidad	69	22	5	5
comunicación	68	26	2	4
autenticidad	66	27	3	4
fiabilidad financiera	60	22	10	7
plantilla de profesionales	60	25	9	5
aptitudes para la gestión de proyectos	57	30	6	7
postura ética	52	38	5	5
recursos financieros	49	30	9	12
disponibilidad de la debida autorización	47	25	14	14
aptitudes para la solución de conflictos	45	43	7	5
aptitudes innovadoras	41	28	23	8
gestión de las relaciones	32	48	14	6
consciencia de los límites de su propia competencia	29	48	15	9
materiales empleados	23	28	40	9
reputación corporativa delegación de	23	42	28	7
responsabilidades y autoridades	21	42	29	9
comunicación verbal (en lenguas extranjeras)	17	29	46	8
medios empleados	16	32	42	10
extensión de su propia competencia	12	36	35	17
network	10	33	47	10
otros (total de menciones)	21	3	7	69

Tabla 2: Clasificación en grupos de las tarjetas de competencias

Proporciones porcentuales; en orden decreciente, partiendo de la pertenencia al grupo "A"

CONCLUSIONES

Con la exploración de los riesgos de resultado percibidos por los actores de proyectos, logramos comprender mejor – además de las constataciones de fuentes precedentes – el contenido de las competencias de proyectos, su importancia y el papel que desempeñan en la configuración de la percepción de riesgo. El análisis de la metodología de tratamiento de la percepción de riesgo por parte del cliente en la fase precedente al inicio del proyecto, durante la ejecución del proyecto y posteriormente

al mismo resulta útil no sólo desde el punto de vista de la dirección, sino que también puede resultar de utilidad en otras investigaciones interdisciplinarias. Además, dicho análisis puede contribuir al desarrollo de la gestión del trabajo de adquisición y al fortalecimiento de la proactividad de los proveedores. Además de los requerimientos de competencias explorados en investigaciones anteriores, hemos puesto de manifiesto que la mayoría de los compradores aprecia la proactividad de los proveedores. El interlocutor de negocios capaz de ofrecer alternativas de solución en lugar de soluciones estándares induce al cliente a una actitud positiva y despierta su confianza. El desarrollo ulterior de nuestra investigación exploratoria de carácter cualitativo y su extensión cuantitativa podrían asumir como punto de partida el modelo concepcional en virtud del cual los servicios tipo proyecto son clasificados según:

- el *output* del proyecto sea de tipo *hard* o *soft* (tangente o intangente según la terminología de los servicios)
- -el grado de incorporación de los interlocutores de negocios, o sea, de "inversión" en la eficacia del proyecto sea moderado o de elevada magnitud.

La matriz 2x2 configurada de tal modo, según conjeturamos, podría resultar útil en el análisis de las diferencias significantes que se manifiestan en la percepción de riesgo. Con la ayuda del panel que se constituirá en el futuro próximo sobre el mercado de proyectos, nos proponemos verificar esta hipótesis con pesquisas cuantitativas.

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AUTORES

Prof. Dr. Zoltán Veres, catedrático, profesor universitario Contacto: Escuela Superior de Estudios Económicos de Budapest, H-1165, Diósy Lajos u. 22-24, Budapest, Hungría; e-mail: <u>veres.zoltan@kkfk.bgf.hu</u>

Dr. László Sajtos PhD, profesor universitario asociado Contacto: Universidad de Auckland, Nueva Zelanda; e-mail: l.sajtos@auckland.ac.nz

COMPETITIVIDAD EN MEDIOS DE PUBLICIDAD COMPLEMENTARIA EN MÉXICO (CASO ISA CORPORATIVO S.A. DE C.V.)

Omar Ernesto Terán Varela, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca Gilberto Cervantes Moreno, Egresado de la ESCA Unidad Tepepan IPN Luis Brunett Pérez, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca Enrique Espinosa Ayala, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca

RESUMEN

En los actuales mercados globalizados para ser competitivos a largo plazo, debe utilizar procedimientos de análisis y decisiones formales, encuadrados en el marco del proceso de la "administración estratégica". La función de dicho proceso es sistematizar y coordinar todos los esfuerzos de las unidades funcionales que integran a la organización encaminados a maximizar la eficiencia global. Por lo que la Competitividad, es la capacidad de una organización de mantener sistemáticamente ventajas competitivas que le permitan alcanzar, sostener y mejorar una determinada posición en el entorno socioeconómico, y es muy utilizado en los medios empresariales, políticos y socioeconómicos y de manera general; las cuales tiene incidencia en la forma de plantear y desarrollar cualquier iniciativa de negocios, que está provocando una evolución en el modelo relacional entre la empresa y el empresario. Por lo que está investigación tiene como finalidad utilizar herramientas de diagnóstico tales como el FODA, PEST y CAME, que logren establecer estrategia de competitividad que le permitan a la empresa ISA Corporativo S.A. de C.V., con el propósito de mantenerse como líder en el segmento de medios de publicidad complementaria en México.

PALABRAS CLAVES: competitividad y publicidad complementaria.

JEL: M37

ABSTRACT

In today's competitive global markets for the long term, you should use testing procedures and formal decision, framed under the process of "strategic management" The role of this process is to systematize and coordinate all efforts of the functional units that comprise the organization designed to maximize overall efficiency. As Competitiveness is the ability of an organization to maintain competitive advantages it systematically to achieve, sustain and improve a specific position in the socioeconomic environment, and is used in the business, political and socio-economic and, in general; which has implications for how to approach and develop any business initiative, which is causing an evolution in the relational model between the company and the employer. As this research aims to use diagnostic tools such as SWOT, PEST and CAME, establishing achieve competitiveness strategy that will enable the company to SA Corporate ISA de CV, in order to remain as leader in the additional advertising media in Mexico.

KEYWORDS: competitive and complementary media.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Una organización, cualquiera que sea la actividad que realiza, si desea mantener un nivel adecuado de competitividad a largo plazo, debe utilizar antes o después, procedimientos de análisis y decisiones formales, encuadrados en el marco del proceso de la "administración estratégica". La función de dicho

proceso es sistematizar y coordinar todos los esfuerzos de las unidades que integran la organización encaminados a maximizar la eficiencia global. Para explicar mejor dicha eficiencia, consideremos dos niveles de competitividad, la interna y la externa. La competitividad interna se refiere a la capacidad de organización para lograr el máximo rendimiento de los recursos disponibles, como personal, capital, materiales, ideas, etc. La competitividad externa está orientada a la elaboración de los logros de la organización en el contexto del mercado, o el sector al que pertenece. Como el sistema de referencia o modelo es ajeno a la empresa, ésta debe considerar variables exógenas, como el grado de innovación, el dinamismo de la industria, la estabilidad económica, La empresa una vez que ha alcanzado un nivel de competitividad externa, deberá disponerse a mantener su competitividad futura, basado en generar nuevas ideas, productos y de buscar nuevas oportunidades de mercado. La competitividad no es producto de una casualidad ni surge espontáneamente; se crea y se logra a través de un largo proceso de aprendizaje y negociación por grupos colectivos representativos que configuran la dinámica de conducta organizativa, tales como los accionistas, directivos, empleados, acreedores, clientes, y el mercado, entre otros.

El propósito de este artículo es determinar las estrategias de competitividad basado en herramientas de diagnóstico tales como el FODA, PEST y CAME, que permitan mantener a la empresa ISA Corporativo como líder en los medios de publicidad complementaria en México, las causas que originan este fenómeno de estudio se manifiestan durante los últimos años al llegar a este medio las empresas Unidad de Diseño y Comunicación, Publitop, Grupo CPM Internacional, Servicios Poblanos de Mercadotecnia, Liquid Marketing y Air Media Solutions con las siguientes innovaciones: Tecnología (Pantallas electrónicas Circulares y de Gran formato), Lugares de exhibición innovadores (Mesa de área de comida rápida, Carritos de Golf, Sanitarios y Aeropasillos), Innovaciones en exhibición (Medios electrónicos dentro de las aeronaves), Productos especiales de temporada (Árboles Navideños y lanzamientos de nuevos productos y servicios).

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

En la sociedad medieval, la actividad económica se encontraba bajo la tutela de la corona, la cual consideraba el ordenamiento jerárquico de los estados como parte fundamental del buen funcionamiento de la sociedad, y por lo tanto de la economía de las naciones. Esta situación de control total de la vida económica por parte del rey, generaba grandes monopolios, es decir, grandes empresas que bajo la protección especial del rey hacía exclusión de sus competidores. Con los clásicos se inicia la concepción de liberar la actividad económica de la protección del rey, ya que consideraban que dicha tutela era necesaria, sino más bien perjudicial para el buen funcionamiento de la economía nacional. Los clásicos consideraban que los productores al llegar al mercado buscando su propio beneficio, lograban a la vez un fin que no era parte de su intención, es decir, que a partir de la competencia en el mercado los precios se regularían automáticamente, beneficiando a la sociedad en general. En otras palabras, las relaciones de intercambio, o mejor dicho, del sistema económico en su conjunto, pueden ser auto-reguladas a través de la competencia, manteniendo el equilibrio en los mercados. Por ello era necesario eliminar la intervención de la corona ya que impedía la auto-regulación del sistema económico.

Por lo tanto, para los clásicos la competencia es la fuerza motriz que permite el buen funcionamiento del sistema económico de las naciones, es decir, la lucha de los productores por la obtención de un mayor mercado o de una mejor ganancia a través de la competencia, orilla a buscar nuevas formas o estrategias para obtener mejores ganancias, ya sea mediante la baja de los precios de las mercancías o el aumento en la producción, convirtiéndose así la competencia en una constante del mercado. De acuerdo a Smith (1979), es considerado como el padre de la economía e iniciador de lo que se ha llamado el periodo clásico del pensamiento económico, debido a la construcción de un sistema económico. "En su sistema el intercambio viene facilitado por el uso del dinero y la producción se caracteriza por la división del trabajo. Las tres características principales de sus análisis central son la división del trabajo, del precio y de la asignación y la naturaleza del crecimiento económico".

Es en el mercado donde da la competencia, es la interacción de la oferta y la demanda. Es el afán por obtener mejores beneficios lo que estimula la competencia entre los vendedores de dicho bien. Sin embargo, la oferta y la demanda no se ajustan entre sí de manera automática, sino que precisan de acuerdos y regulaciones. Si existe una mayor demanda de un bien, lo que hace que el precio del bien aumente, los productores aumentarán su inversión, crecerán el número de trabajadores y también el uso del suelo para poder aumentar sus beneficios; mientras que si existe una mayor oferta del bien en cuestión, la relación será inversa, hasta ajustar el costo de producir el bien con el precio del mismo.

Esto da origen a las fluctuaciones de los precios de mercado como consecuencia de la competencia de los productores por obtener mayores beneficios en un ambiente de libre competencia. Analizar los factores estratégicos por medio del análisis FODA, considerando la situación actual. FODA es un acrónimo que se usa para describir las Fortalezas, Oportunidades, Debilidades y Amenazas particulares que son factores estratégicos para una empresa específica. El análisis FODA no sólo debe permitir la identificación de las competencias distintivas de una corporación, es decir, las capacidades y los recursos específicos con que una empresa cuenta y la mejor manera de utilizarlos, sino también identificar las oportunidades que la empresa no es capaz de aprovechar actualmente debido a la falta de recursos adecuados.

Con el paso del tiempo el análisis FODA ha probado ser la técnica analítica más perdurable que se utiliza en la administración estratégica. Una serie de estrategias posibles para la empresa o unidad de negocios a considerar, con base en combinaciones específicas de las cuatro series de factores: Las estrategias FO se crean con base en las maneras en que la empresa o unidad de negocio podría usar sus fortalezas para aprovechar las oportunidades. Las estrategias FA consideran las fortalezas de una empresa o unidad de negocio como una forma de evitar amenazas. Las estrategias DO intentan aprovechar las oportunidades superando las debilidades. Las estrategias DA son básicamente defensivas y actúan principalmente para minimizar las debilidades y evitar las amenazas. A partir de ahí, se toma en consideración la necesidad de aplicarlas para entender el comportamiento de la empresa.

METODOLOGÍA

Se realizó un estudio inductivo mediante la aplicación de una serie de instrumentos internos v externos a la empresa para determinar las soluciones basadas en un diagnostico FODA, un PEST para identificar el comportamiento de la competencia y un diagnóstico CAME, que formula la estrategias que se deben seguir para darle solución estratégica a la problemática presentada. Asimismo, se busco el nivel descriptivo para especificar las propiedades y características del fenómeno de estudio y ver su comportamiento y sus tendencias en el mercado publicitario de medios complementarios. Todo el levantamiento del estudio se realizó en un tiempo específico y de manera sistemática desde el punto de vista cualitativo, basándose en una perspectiva teórica donde explique la parte conceptual de las acciones interactivas entre las estrategias y la competitividad de la organización. Dentro del diseño sistemático se concluye con la elaboración de diagramas y matrices de las unidades de negocio de la empresa y que integran los segmentos de medios de publicidad complementarias. También se establecieron instrumento semi estructurados apoyados por empresas externas a través de entrevistas que se realizaron a ejecutivos incluyendo a los directivos, gerentes y a los vendedores de manera interna. La fase externa se realizo a los anunciantes y centrales de medios (competencia) en el aeropuerto de la Ciudad de México, en donde se les pregunto sobre aspectos tales como crisis económica actual, la crisis económica actual, tarifas comerciales, información mercadológica, empresas competidoras, proyectos especiales e innovaciones tecnológicas, seguimiento de la fuerza comercial, servicio de venta y posventa.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados que se generaron de la investigación fueron una matriz de factores estratégicos internos que se realizo con el propósito de determinar cuáles son las Fortalezas y Debilidades más relevantes dentro de la organización, los conceptos cuyo peso especifico sean más representativos que serán utilizados dentro la matriz resumen SFAS, la descripción de proceso de creación de la matriz IFAS, en donde de acuerdo a ciertos valores ponderados se establecen en la columna uno enumere cada uno de los factores estratégicos internos (Fortalezas y Debilidades) que usted considere como más importantes resultantes de la aplicación del instrumento de investigación. Asigne valores a cada factor, de 1.0 (Más importante) a 0.0 (No importante) en la columna dos, con base en el posible efecto de ese factor en la posición estratégica de la empresa. Los valores totales deben sumar 1.0, y por lo que hay que asignarle una calificación a cada factor, de 5.0 (Sobresaliente) a 1.0 (Mala) en la columna tres, con base en el a respuesta de la empresa a ese factor. Multiplique el valor de cada factor por su calificación para obtener su calificación ponderada en la columna cuatro.

Los valores deben sumar entre 3.0 y 3.20: la columna cinco (comentarios) explique el razonamiento usado en cada factor. Los factores internos más importantes se identifican sombreándolos, para ser empleados posteriormente en la matriz de resumen de factores estratégicos. La matriz de factores estratégicos internos se realiza con el propósito de determinar cuáles son las Fortalezas y Debilidades más relevantes dentro de la organización, los conceptos cuyo peso específico sean más representativos que serán utilizados dentro la matriz resumen SFAS. Descripción de proceso de creación de la matriz IFAS: dentro de la columna uno enumere cada uno de los factores estratégicos internos (Fortalezas y Debilidades) que usted considere como más importantes resultantes de la aplicación del instrumento de investigación. Asigne valores a cada factor, de 1.0 (Más importante) a 0.0 (No importante) en la columna dos, con base en el posible efecto de ese factor en la posición estratégica de la empresa.

Los valores totales deben sumar 1.: asigne una calificación a cada factor, de 5.0 (Sobresaliente) a 1.0 (Mala) en la columna tres, con base en la respuesta de la empresa a ese factor. Multiplique el valor de cada factor por su calificación para obtener su calificación ponderada en la columna cuatro.

Los valores deben sumar entre 3.0 y 3.2:, la columna cinco (comentarios) explique el razonamiento usado en cada factor. Los factores internos más importantes se identifican sombreándolos, para ser empleados posteriormente en la matriz de resumen de factores estratégicos. La matriz de factores estratégicos externos se realiza con el propósito de determinar cuáles son las Amenazas y Oportunidades más relevantes fuera de la organización, los conceptos cuyo peso específico sean más representativos que serán utilizados dentro la matriz resumen SFAS. Descripción de proceso de creación de la matriz EFAS: dentro de la columna uno enumere cada uno de los factores estratégicos externos (Oportunidades y Amenazas) que usted considere como más importantes resultantes de la aplicación del instrumento de investigación. Asigne valores a cada factor, de 1.0 (Más importante) a 0.0 (No importante) en la columna dos, con base en el posible efecto de ese factor en la posición estratégica de la empresa.

Los valores totales deben sumar 1.0: asigne una calificación a cada factor, de 5.0 (Sobresaliente) a 1.0 (Mala) en la columna tres, con base en la respuesta de la empresa a ese factor. Multiplique el valor de cada factor por su calificación para obtener su calificación ponderada en la columna cuatro.

Los valores deben sumar entre 3.0 y 3.20: la columna cinco (comentarios) explique el razonamiento usado en cada factor. Los factores internos más importantes se identifican sombreándolos, para ser empleados posteriormente en la matriz de resumen de factores estratégicos.La matriz SFAS es una lista de los factores estratégicos externos e internos de la organización, contiene únicamente las Fortalezas, Oportunidades, Debilidades y Amenazas más importantes y es la base principal de la matriz FODA. Descripción de proceso de creación de la matriz SFAS: En la columna uno (Factores Estratégicos),

enumere los factores internos y externos (sombreados) Después de cada factor indique si es (F) Fortaleza, (O) Oportunidad, (D) Debilidad y (A) Amenaza. En la columna dos (Valor), asigne valores a todos los factores estratégicos internos y externos del mismo modo que se realizo.

Los valores totales deben sumar 1.0: Esto significa que los valores calculados en las matrices IFAS y EFAS previamente tendrán que ser ajustados probablemente. En la columna tres (Calificación), asigne una calificación a la manera en que la administración de la empresa responde a cada uno de los factores estratégicos, estas calificaciones probablemente sean las registradas en las matrices IFAS Y EFAS. En la columna cuatro (Calificación Ponderada), multiplique el valor registrado en la columna dos de cada factor por su calificación en la columna tres para obtener el puntaje de clasificado de cada factor. Esto produce una calificación ponderada de cada factor que va de 5.0 (Sobresaliente) a 1.0 (Mala) .Con 3.0 como promedio. En la columna cinco (Duración), indique corto plazo (menos de un año), mediano plazo (uno a tres años) y largo plazo (tres años o más). La columna seis (Comentarios) repita o modifique los comentarios sobre cada factos estratégico de las matrices IFAS Y EFAS. La calificación ponderada total de una empresa promedio en una industria es siempre 3.0.

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Omar Ernesto Terán Varela, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca Brenda Lissette Alcántara Hernández, ESCA Unidad Tepepan IPN Iris Nayeli Alcántara Hernández, Egresada de la Barra Nacional de Abogados Ofélia Márquez Molina, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca

RESUMEN

En el ámbito internacional la Denominación de Origen, es conocida como indicación geográfica que consiste en un signo que se utiliza para productos que tienen un origen geográfico concreto y poseen cualidades, características o una reputación derivadas principalmente de su lugar de origen. El uso de la denominación de origen como aspecto de los derechos de propiedad intelectual relacionados con el comercio, es un ejemplo típico de los productos agrícolas, que poseen cualidades derivadas de su lugar de producción y en los que influyen factores geográficos específicos, como el clima y el suelo. El hecho de que un signo sea reconocido en tanto que indicación geográfica depende de la legislación nacional de que se trate. Las indicaciones geográficas pueden ser utilizadas para un gran número de productos, ya sean naturales, agrícolas o de fabricación. Por lo antes expuesto, se explica sobre lo que se entiende por Denominación de Origen y sus alcances. La protección, amparo y certificación legal en el sistema jurídico mexicano, la ejerce el Estado por conducto de la Secretaría de Economía (SE) y el Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial (IMPI), teniendo este la titularidad tanto en el ámbito nacional como en el internacional, dicha titularidad se realiza por medio de una declaración que es publicada en el Diario Oficial de la Federación (DOF), la cual otorga la protección legal en todo el país.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Denominación de Origen, agroindustrias, productos.

JEL: N46

ABSTRACT

Internationally the Denomination of Origin, is known as a geographical indication is a sign used on goods that have a specific geographical origin and possess qualities, characteristics or reputation derived mainly from its place of origin. The use of the appellation of origin as an aspect of intellectual property rights related to trade, is typical of agricultural products have qualities that derive from their place of production and which are influenced by specific local factors such as climate and soil. The fact that a sign be recognized as a geographical indication depends on the legislation concerned. Geographical indications may be used for a wide range of products, whether natural, agricultural or manufacturing. For the above explains what is meant by the designation of origin and scope. Protection, shelter and legal certification in the Mexican legal system is exercised by the State through the Ministry of Economy (SE) and the Mexican Institute of Industrial Property (IMPI), taking the title at both the national and internationally, such ownership is made through a statement that is published in the Official Journal of the Federation (DOF), which gives legal protection throughout the country.

KEYWORDS: Designation of Origin, agro-products.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La globalización ha traído como consecuencia que los países entren en una dinámica de integración que ha permitido que se pierdan muchas identidades tales como su cultura, entre otras, en el caso de México hay un producto como es el Nopal que ha visto perjudicado por diversas circunstancias, y como consecuencia en el país hasta el año 2010, se tengan 13 denominaciones de origen y se puede cuestionar donde quedan las demás con tanta riqueza, en donde se deberían de tener por lo menos 30 registros por su naturaleza cultural y se han perdido, no es posible que China y Chile estén solicitando dichos derechos de propiedad y denominación de origen del Nopal, cómo si los productos fueran originarios de dichos países y no de México; porque otros países deben apropiarse del mismo, es de ahí donde nace la importancia que tiene dicho artículo. El artículo se enfoca específicamente en el nopal que es una de las plantas más importantes de México por razones ambientales, culturales, económicas y sociales.

La importancia ecológica radica en la diversidad de géneros y especies, su interrelación con otras de la flora y fauna, así como con otros elementos de la naturaleza como el agua y el suelo. México cuenta con 111 especies de *Opuntia*, género al cual pertenece el nopal, siendo el país con mayor diversidad de especies de nopal en todo el mundo. El nopal es fundamental en diversos ecosistemas. Es el principal componente de la flora del desierto en el norte del territorio mexicano, dado que otras plantas no soportan las condiciones ambientales de estas áreas, constituye un refugio y fuente alimenticia para la fauna silvestre en zonas desérticas y semidesérticas, incluyendo aves, mamíferos, reptiles e insectos.

La importancia económica del nopal en México es muy grande, dado que, como forraje, verdura y fruta constituye una fuente alimenticia principal para millones de mexicanos en condiciones de pobreza, muchos de ellos indígenas, dado que es una planta prehipánica. Además de ser un alimento cotidiano, de la planta se derivan más de 100 subproductos como jugos, mermeladas, bebidas alcohólicas, cosméticos, shampoo, jabón, tintes, impermeabilizantes, adhesivos e incluso, se obtienen medicamentos. Actualmente, en la Secretaría de Salud se están realizando investigaciones sobre los efectos del nopal con la fibra *Psyllium* y calabacín en enfermedades como la diabetes y el colesterol. De igual forma, se emplea en la generación de energía (biogás, etanol, leña) y tiene un uso ornamental en diseño del paisaje, textil y para la elaboración de artesanías. Por lo antes expuesto, se realizará una explicación sobre lo que se entiende por Denominación de Origen y sus alcances.

La protección, amparo y certificación legal de la Denominación de Origen en el sistema jurídico mexicano, la ejerce el Estado por conducto de la Secretaría de Economía (SE) y el Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial (IMPI), teniendo este la titularidad tanto en el ámbito nacional como en el internacional, dicha titularidad se realiza por medio de una declaración que es publicada en el Diario Oficial de la Federación (DOF), la cual otorga la protección legal en todo el país. El Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial por conducto de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, tramitará el registro de la Denominación de Origen para obtener su reconocimiento y protección en el extranjero conforme a los tratados internacionales de los que México forma parte. En el sistema jurídico mexicano se entiende por Denominación de Origen el nombre de una región geográfica del país que sirve para designar un producto originario de la misma, y cuya calidad o característica se deban exclusivamente al medio geográfico, comprendido en éste los factores naturales y los humanos.

En el ámbito internacional la Denominación de Origen, es conocida como indicación geográfica que consiste en un signo que se utiliza para productos que tienen un origen geográfico concreto y poseen cualidades, características o una reputación derivadas principalmente de su lugar de origen. Por lo general, la indicación geográfica consiste en el nombre del lugar de origen de los productos. La Denominación de Origen es un tipo especial de indicación geográfica que por lo general consiste en un nombre geográfico o una designación tradicional utilizada para productos que poseen cualidades o características específicas que cabe atribuir principalmente al entorno geográfico de producción. En el

concepto de indicaciones geográficas quedan comprendidas las denominaciones de origen. Tanto en el concepto del ámbito nacional como el de internacional se tiene la idea, de que una Denominación de Origen sirve para identificar un producto de una región determinada y que las cualidades del producto dependen del medio donde se producen. Por lo que se desprende que la Denominación de Origen no se crea, se reconoce; es un sinónimo de originalidad, que trae aparejado un reconocimiento a una calidad ligada a una zona geográfica. Actualmente México cuenta con 13 denominaciones de origen, las cuales son las siguientes (Ver tabla 1):

Tabla 1: Productos con denominación de origen en México

	DENOMINACIONES DE ORIGEN DE MÈXICO					
No.	Producto con Denominación de Origen	Norma Oficial Mexicana	Consejo Regulador	Fecha		
1	Tequila	NOM-006-SCFI-2006	Consejo Regulador del Tequila(CRT)	Jalisco, Nayarit, Guanajuato, Michoacán y Tamaulipas (1974)		
2	Mezcal	NOM-070-SCFI-1994	Consejo Mexicano Regulador de la Calidad del Mezcal(COMERCAM)	Guerrero, Oaxaca, Durango, Zacatecas y San Luis Potosí (1994)		
3	Talavera	NOM-132-SCFI-1998	Consejo Regulador de la Talavera	Puebla y municipios de Tlaxcala (1995)		
4	Café Chiapas	NOM-169-SCFI-2007	Consejo Regulador de la Calidad del Café Chiapas, A.C.	Chiapas (2001)		
5	Café Veracruz	NOM-149-SCFI-2007	Consejo Regulador del Café	Veracruz (2000)		
6	Sotol	NOM-159-SCFI-2004	Consejo Regulador Mexicano del Sotol	Chihuahua, Coahuila y Durango (2001)		
7	Bacanora	NOM-168-SCFI-2004	Consejo Regulador del Bacanora	Sonora (2000)		
8	Olinalá			Guerrero (1994)		
9	Mango Ataulfo del Soconusco	PNN 2010		Chiapas (2003)		
10	Ámbar de Chiapas	NOM-152-SCFI-2003	Consejo Regulador del Ámbar	Chiapas (2000)		
11	Charanda	NOM-144-SCFI-2000		Michoacán (2001)		
12	Chile Habanero de la Península	PROY-000-SCFI-2010	Certificación por Organismos de Tercera Parte	Campeche, Quintana Roo y Yucatán 2010		
13	Vainilla de Papantla	ANTEPROY-000-SCFI-2010	Certificación por Organismos de Tercera Parte	Veracruz, Puebla 2010		

Fuente: Elaboración propia

MÉTODOS Y METODOLOGÍA

La investigación que se realizó es bajo un proceso inductivo - deductivo, y de búsquedas bibliográficas que permitieron establecer un diseño no experimental transeccional, de nivel descriptivo y de tipo cualitativo. Las herramientas basadas en búsquedas en bases de datos, leyes y páginas de internet, debido a la deficiencia de información respecto al tema.

Consideraciones finales: La denominación de origen tiene sus inicios a partir del Convenio de París, el cual fue firmado el 20 de marzo de 1883 y en México la primera denominación de Origen que se declaró fue el tequila en 1974, es decir 91 años después, por lo anterior, si bien en México la Denominación de Origen es reciente, se tienen las debidas normas para que entre los productores de diferentes las diferentes regiones, que hay en la República Mexicana, se pongan en común acuerdo para que los productos que comercian se vean beneficiados con la declaración de la protección de la Denominación de Origen,

pudiendo tomar como base el tequila o cualquiera de las denominaciones que México tiene. Por lo que se refiere a las definiciones de Denominación de Origen tanto en el ámbito nacional como en el internacional, se puede observar que entre las dos existe una gran similitud referente a lo que pretende proteger, por lo que se señala lo siguiente (ver tabla 2):

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Tabla 2: Compa	raciones	ae io	s amplitos	de la	aenomin	action de	origen
p							

Ámbito Nacional	Ámbito Internacional		
Consideran a la Denominación de Origen como un producto.	La consideran como un signo que se utiliza para los productos.		
Originario de un medio geográfico.	Dichos productos son originarios de un lugar que sirve para identificar la región donde se produce. Las cualidades que poseen dependen de factores geográfico específicos como el clima y el suelo.		
Calidad, intervienen los factores naturales y humanos.			
Como signo distinto es el elemento fundamental para denominar a una marca.	En el ámbito internacional fue necesario señalar lo que significaba un marca y su protección, ya que se tiene que tomar en cuenta que es uno de los factores más importantes una vez que se tiene la declaración de la Denominación de Origen, esto para diferenciar el producto de los demás que existen en el mercado.		

Fuente: Elaboración propia

En relación a las personas que pueden solicitar el uso de la Denominación de Origen, en el sistema jurídico mexicano es muy delimitada la explotación debido a que la titularidad de la denominación la posee el Estado y únicamente las personas que acrediten tener el interés jurídico para realizar el uso de la misma se les podrá otorgar dicha explotación y estas son: las personas físicas o morales que directamente se dediquen a la extracción, producción o elaboración del producto, las dependencias o entidades del gobierno federal, las cámaras o asociaciones de fabricantes o productores, y las dependencias o entidades del gobierno federal.Una de las ventajas que tiene el nopal, para que el gobierno solicite la Denominación de Origen, es que existen tanto organismos como asociaciones de productores de nopal que han hecho una gran investigación sobre la composición, las propiedades, las regiones en las cuales se produce, donde se comercializa, en que países se exporta, así como un estudio sobre las diferentes especies del nopal, un ejemplo es el Instituto Nacional de Ecología.

Se puede deducir que el problema principal es la falta de información, que tienen principalmente los productores del nopal, sobre los beneficios que tendría la Denominación de Origen del Nopal, y como principal beneficio sería que los productores que componen el Estado Mexicano, serían los únicos que podrían realizar la comercialización del nopal; teniendo como consecuencia la comercialización del nopal a nivel mundial, siendo una marca reconocida. Por lo tanto, el Estado mexicano no ha tenido el enfoque y la importancia que con llevaría reconocer la Denominación de Origen el nopal, ya que traería como posibles beneficios:

El desarrollo económico de la región donde se cultive el producto. El reconocimiento por parte de los estados con los México a firmado acuerdos referentes a la protección de la denominaciones de origen (en el ámbito internacional son conocidos como indicaciones geográficas.). El posicionamiento del nopal como una marca, lo que lo posicionaría como un signo distintivo. Por lo anterior es necesario, buscar los medios adecuados para que al nopal se le dé la importancia que tendría para garantizar una óptima producción y con esto la comercialización, un ejemplo claro es el tequila, en sus inicios este producto era consumido por la clase más baja del país, sin embargo con el paso del tiempo se fue posicionando en el mercado y en el gusto del consumidor de clase media, media alta y alta, lo que trajo consigo que el producto tomara una importancia de calidad y este se reconociera ante toda la población y que este pertenece a una determinada región geográfica que tiene que cumplir con diferentes niveles de calidad para que este fuera comercializado, dicho lo anterior es lo que se tendría que hacer con el nopal que este tomara una importancia trascendente, que no fuera reconocido únicamente como un producto que sirve

para el consumidor de la clase más baja, sino que también se reconozca el valor que el nopal tendría como un ingrediente en la dieta de los mexicanos de clase media, media alta y alta (platillos tradicionales), así como los productos derivados, es decir, darle el enfoque al consumidor de que el nopal no solo es una verdura que lo consume la gente de escasos recursos, si no que este puede estar incluido en la dieta de los mexicanos pero como un producto de calidad y distinción.

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IMPLICACIONES AMBIENTALES DE LA POLÍTICA FISCAL EN MÉXICO

Roberto González Acolt, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Felipe de Jesús Salvador Leal Medina, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Bogar García Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

La finalidad de este trabajo es analizar los efectos de la política fiscal –aumento del gasto público- sobre los recursos naturales y el medio ambiente en México, mediante un modelo de equilibrio general computable. Los resultados muestran que el petróleo, ganadería y agricultura presentaron los mayores aumentos en los costos por agotamiento de los recursos naturales. Por otro parte, la ganadería, industria manufacturera; electricidad, gas y agua; y transporte, almacenamiento y comunicaciones fueron las cuatro actividades económicas que mostraron los mayores costos por degradación del ambiente.

PALABRAS CLAVE: gasto público, modelo de equilibrio general computable, costos por agotamiento de los recursos naturales y degradación del ambiente

INTRODUCCIÓN

El efecto que provoca la expansión de la actividad económica sobre los recursos naturales y el ambiente, puede ser evaluado, mediante los modelos de equilibrio general computable (MEGA), los cuales permiten analizar la complejidad de los vínculos directos e indirectos de las variables económicas y ambientales. O'Rayan *et al.* (2000) destacan la utilidad de estos modelos para analizar los efectos de las políticas ambientales o la influencia de otras políticas sobre los recursos naturales y el ambiente. Por su parte, Gandhi y McMorran (1996) mencionan que el análisis de equilibrio general, apoyado en los MEGA, es uno de los principales instrumentos que pueden utilizar los países para derivar conclusiones de cómo las políticas macroeconómicas o sus reformas han afectado al medio ambiente. El presente estudio, utiliza un MEGA estándar al cual se le incorporan los costos por agotamiento de los recursos naturales y por degradación ambiental, con la finalidad de evaluar las repercusiones en los recursos naturales y el ambiente de la intervención gubernamental, a través del gasto público.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Dentro de los estudios que han aplicado los MEGA con el medio ambiente en México, sobresalen el trabajo de Fernández (1993), quien basado en un MEGA, analiza la influencia que ejercerán sobre la economía y el medio ambiente dos diferentes tipos impositivos: un impuesto ecológico neutral y un impuesto ecológico no neutral, su conclusión es que independientemente del régimen impositivo que se aplique existe una disminución de la contaminación, sin embargo el valor bruto de la producción, principalmente de los sectores que más contaminan, se reduce en términos reales.

Rodríguez (2003), utiliza el modelo Boyd-M para analizar los efectos en la economía mexicana y las emisiones de carbono, de la política de supresión de los subsidios en el sector eléctrico. De manera general, excluyendo los cambios tecnológicos, sus conclusiones predicen que la eliminación de subsidios conduce a una baja en el PIB, un aumento en el nivel de precios, una caída en el bienestar de los agentes económicos, un incremento en los ingresos del gobierno y una reducción en las emisiones de carbono. Por su parte, Yuñez-Naude y Rojas (2008), realizan simulaciones para analizar la influencia de una disminución en la oferta de agua superficial para riego y de un cambio en las políticas públicas sobre el sector agrícola, para ello utilizan un MEGA. Uno de sus resultados muestra que una reducción de la

disponibilidad de agua para riego tendrá consecuencias negativas en el sector agrícola, sin embargo estos efectos negativos podrían revertirse con inversiones de las asociaciones de usuarios de agua del sector.

METODOLOGÍA

La parte económica del modelo construido en este estudio es similar a la forma estándar de los modelos de equilibrio general aplicable o computable (MEGA) para los países en desarrollo. En la construcción del MEGA se utilizó la versión desarrollada por Lofgren (2003a, 2003b) y Lofgren *et al.* (2002) del IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute). Sin embargo, a este modelo se le agregaron los recursos naturales y el ambiente como insumos intermedios. Los recursos naturales comprenden el agotamiento del petróleo, los cambios en el volumen de los recursos forestales y el uso del agua subterránea; estos recursos se emplean como insumos naturales en el proceso productivo; es decir, no incluyen ningún proceso productivo. El ambiente incluyó la degradación del suelo, agua y aire, los cuales son empleados directamente por las actividades económicas, aunque sí se ven afectados por éstas.

En el modelo, estos activos ambientales se integraron como insumos intermedios al proceso de producción por cuestión de análisis. Lo anterior permitió visualizar como se ve afectada la "cantidad demandada" al variar las actividades productivas. El modelo consta de 27 ecuaciones, que están divididas en cuatro bloques: precios, producción, instituciones y condiciones de equilibrio. En el bloque de precios se asume calidades heterogéneas en los bienes de diversos orígenes y destinos (exportados, importados y la producción interna usada domésticamente). Este bloque consiste de seis ecuaciones en la que los precios modelados endógenamente están relacionados con otros precios (endógenos y exógenos) y otras variables del modelo. Por su parte, el bloque de producción está integrado por diez ecuaciones y abarca cuatro categorías: La producción doméstica y el uso de insumos (incluye los recursos naturales y el ambiente); la distribución de la producción doméstica en el mercado doméstico, en consumo interno y exportaciones; la agregación de la oferta en el mercado doméstico (integrada por las importaciones y la producción doméstica vendida en el mercado interno); y la definición de demanda para el intercambio de insumos que es generado por el proceso de distribución.

El bloque de instituciones lo conforman seis ecuaciones en las cuales se presentan las fuentes de ingreso y gastos de las familias, las empresas y el gobierno. Las condiciones de equilibrio lo componen cinco ecuaciones: Dos de ellas expresan micro restricciones en el equilibrio de los mercados de productos y factores, otras dos muestran las macro restricciones en el equilibrio del sector externo y del ahorro-inversión; y la última ecuación establece que el modelo es homogéneo de grado cero en los precios y que el precio agregado es igual a uno. Para calibrar el modelo se construyó una matriz de contabilidad social extendida con datos ambientales para la economía mexicana en el 2001.

Asimismo, del trabajo de Annabi *et al.* (2006) se extrajeron las elasticidades hechas para México y países en desarrollo. El modelo fue construido y calibrado con la ayuda del paquete de cómputo GAMS (General Algebraic Modeling System). La calibración resultó aceptable y proporcionó el equilibrio inicial sobre el cual se aplicó la simulación. Un aumento del gasto público en 10 por ciento en la economía mexicana fue el escenario utilizado en la simulación.

RESULTADOS

El agotamiento del petróleo aumenta cuando existe una expansión del gasto gubernamental. En promedio los costos de agotamiento de este recurso aumentaron en alrededor de 3 %, lo cual se explica por el dinamismo de la actividad productiva que generó el mayor gasto público.La expansión de la actividad ganadera se realizó principalmente mediante el desmonte de los bosques, como lo implica sus mayores costos por agotamiento de los activos forestales (Tabla 1), En contraste, el sector silvícola exhibió costos

por agotamiento negativos (Tabla 1) -lo que sugiere acciones o factores positivos que mejoran el desempeño de este activo natural.

Tabla 1: Efectos del Aumento del Gasto Público (10 %) en el Volumen de los Recursos Forestales

Actividades	Cambio porcentual
Ganadería	1.46
Silvicultura	-1.22

Fuente: Elaboración propia con base a los resultados del MEGA

La agricultura es el sector que más demanda agua, aproximadamente el 70 % del consumo total de este liquido es utilizado por este sector, por lo tanto no es extraño que el mayor estimulo económico en la agricultura, conduzca a un aumento en la explotación del agua subterránea por este sector. En comparación con la ganadería y la manufactura -sectores que al expandir su producción, elevaron su demanda de agua subterránea (Tabla 2)-, la agricultura tanto en términos absolutos como relativos tuvo los mayores costos en el uso del agua subterránea (Tabla 2).

Tabla 2: Efectos del Aumento del Gasto Público (10 %) en el Uso del Agua Subterránea

	Costos por a	Costos por agotamiento del agua subterránea (millones de pesos)				
Actividades	año base	simulación (aumento del gasto público)	variación porcentual			
Agricultura	1334.97	1364.466	2.2			
Manufactura	518.441	526.989	1.64			
Ganadería	480.556	487.578	1.46			

Fuente: Elaboración propia con base a los resultados del MEGA

Las dos actividades productivas que más aportaron a la contaminación del suelo, específicamente a la erosión, son: La ganadería y la silvicultura. La erosión del suelo se profundizó en la ganadería y silvicultura lo cual puede deberse al crecimiento de estas actividades productivas al darse el aumento en el gasto público. La Tabla 3 ilustra los costos de degradación del suelo de la ganadería y silvicultura, se observa como el sector ganadero produce costos por erosión del suelo que casi cuadriplican a los del sector silvícola.

Tabla 3: Efectos del Aumento del Gasto Público (10 %) en la Erosión del Suelo

Costos por erosión del suelo (millones de pesos)						
Actividades	año base	simulación (aumento del gasto público)	variación porcentual			
Ganadería	7499.572	7609.16	1.46			
Silvicultura	1976.854	2001.108	1.22			

Fuente: Elaboración propia con base a los resultados del MEGA

De acuerdo al Sistema de Cuentas Económicas y Ecológicas de México (2004), la ganadería y la industria manufacturera son los sectores que en su proceso de producción ocasionan contaminación del agua. La expansión del gasto público llevó a un incremento en el nivel de actividad de estos sectores y como consecuencia, la degradación de este recurso ambiental se elevó en 1.44 % (ganadería) y 1.62 % (industria manufacturera). La Tabla 4 presenta los costos por degradación del agua en que incurren ambas actividades productivas.

Tabla 4: Efectos del Aumento del Gasto Público (10 %) en la Contaminación del Agua

	Costos por er	osión del suelo (mill	ones de pesos)
Actividades	año base	simulación (aumento del gasto público)	variación porcentual
Ganadería	13331.611	13526.421	1.46
Manufactura	11637.937	11829.816	1.65

Fuente: Elaboración propia con base a los resultados del MEGA

CONCLUSIONES

Los sectores petróleo, ganadería y agricultura presentaron los mayores aumentos en los costos por agotamiento de los recursos naturales al darse la expansión del gasto público. El primer sector (petróleo), como es de suponerse elevó su nivel de extracción de crudo. La ganadería contribuyó principalmente a disminuir los recursos forestales y a una mayor extracción en el uso de agua subterránea. La agricultura fue una de las principales actividades económicas que al crecer, elevó de forma relativa y absoluta su consumo de agua subterránea. Como consecuencia del aumento del gasto gubernamental, las principales actividades económicas que al crecer, elevó de forma relativa y absoluta su consumo de agua subterránea. Como consecuencia del aumento del gasto gubernamental, las principales actividades económicas que mostraron los mayores costos por degradación del ambiente fueron: Ganadería; industria manufacturera; electricidad, gas y agua; y transporte, almacenamiento y comunicaciones. Una vez más, el sector ganadero, se ubica entre las primeras actividades que presentan los mayores costos por erosión del suelo y contaminación de agua. La industria manufacturera tiene en la contaminación del agua y aire su principal aporte a los costos por degradación del ambiente. Por último, los sectores electricidad, gas y agua; y transporte, almacenamiento y comunicaciones elevan los costos en la contaminación del aire.

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Roberto González Acolt. Profesor Investigador del departamento de Economía de la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes. rgonza@correo.uaa.mx

Felipe de Jesús Salvador Leal Medina. Profesor Investigador del departamento de Administración Financiera de la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes. fjleal@correo.uaa.mx

Bogar García Martínez. Profesor Investigador del departamento de Administración Financiera de la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes. bogargm@hotmail.com

PLANES DE DESARROLLO DE LAS POLÍTICAS PÚBLICAS EN EL DESARROLLO ENDÓGENO TERRITORIAL Y LAS MICRO, PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS (MIPYMES), BAJO EL CONTEXTO DE SU ESTRUCTURA JURÍDICA

Omar Ernesto Terán Varela, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca Concepción Estéfana López Ramírez, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca Ranulfo Pérez Garcés, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca María de Lourdes Hernández Aragón, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca

RESUMEN

El desarrollo integral de una sociedad supone la consideración de diferentes factores; cognitivos, sociales, culturales, normativos, etc., por mencionar algunos, siendo las Instituciones Públicas las responsables de generar las acciones o políticas públicas orientadas al Desarrollo Endógeno de los Municipios. Es de ahí, donde el Poder Ejecutivo en sus tres niveles: federal, estatal y municipal, determinan los lineamientos jurídicos que analizan las facultades y prerrogativas que tiene cada uno de éstos actores políticos que repercuten en Plan de Desarrollo de la Administración Pública en el Municipio de Amecameca y su relación con el Desarrollo Endógeno. Desde el punto de vista jurídico existe como objeto de ley promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES para el apoyo para su viabilidad, para incrementar su participación en los mercados con la finalidad de fomentar el empleo, para lo cual la secretaria de economía es la encarga de aplicar esta ley "compendio jurídico". Por lo que es fundamental fortalecer las MIPYMES, como estrategia para aumentar los niveles de productividad y generar más empleos, así mismo es necesario continuar con una política integral de apoyo para el desarrollo de la micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas; con énfasis en las de menor tamaño, con el propósito de establecer las condiciones que contribuyan a su ceración, desarrollo y consolidación.

Palabras claves: Políticas Públicas, Desarrollo Endógeno Territorial, Marco Jurídico.

JEL: H83

ABSTRACT

The development of a society involves consideration of different factors, cognitive, social, cultural, legal, etc., To name a few, being public institutions responsible for generating actions or public policies Endogenous Development of Municipalities. It is there where the executive branch on three levels: federal, state and municipal levels, determine the legal guidelines that examine the powers and prerogatives of each of these political actors affect the Development Plan Public Administration in the City Amecameca and its relation to endogenous development. From the legal point of view there as a matter of law to promote national economic development by promoting the creation of MIPYMES to support their viability, to increase its market share in order to promote employment by Secretary of economy which is responsible for this law, "legal compendium." Therefore it is essential to strengthen MIPYMES as a strategy to increase productivity levels and generate more jobs and it is necessary to pursue a comprehensive policy to support the development of micro, small and medium enterprises, with emphasis on those smaller in order to establish the conditions that contribute to their maceration, development and consolidation. KEYWORDS: Public Policy, Endogenous Development Planning, Legal Framework.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En el proceso de globalización en el cual están inmersos los países hoy en día, que están sujetos a buscar la eficiencia y la eficacia de las MIPYMES, deben tener un marco jurídico específico que lo reglamente y que cumpla con la competitividad y desarrollo de su economía. México no es un caso aislado, debido a que a partir del sexenio del presidente Miguel de la Madrid Hurtado, se estableció el decreto presidencial Publicado En El Diario Oficial De La Federación (Dof) De Fecha 22/07/91, En Donde Se Crea Mediante La Ley Federal Para El Fomento De La Micro Industria Y La Actividad Artesanal, Los Lineamientos Jurídicos Que Regularan El Desarrollo De Las Mipymes, Así Como Su relación con los Planes de Desarrollo Nacional (PND), en donde se plantea la necesidad de que las MIPYMES sean competitivas.

En el Foro Económico Mundial se dio a conocer el reporte anual sobre Competitividad para 133 países, y México como en el 2008, se encuentra en el lugar 60, en el centro de la tabla. Suiza le robó el primer sitio a Estados Unidos, mientras que Brasil es la economía de los BRICs (Brasil, México, Rusia, India y China) con una mejora más sustancial, en contraste con Rusia que cayo 12 lugares (2010 La Lonchería, consultada el día 06 de abril de 2011). De acuerdo al reporte del año 2010, México descendió 6 lugares, actualmente se encuentra en el lugar 66. (http://www.mexicomaxico.org/Voto/Competitividad2.htm). Aunque se establece en el PND, los lineamientos para establecer el crecimiento y se han establecido nuevas leyes tales como la LEY PARA EL DESARROLLO DE LA COMPETITIVIDAD DE LA MIPYMES, publicada en el DOF el 06/06/2006 durante e sexenio de Vicente Fox Quesada, en donde se establece que la ley tiene por objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES y el apoyo para su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad.

Los índices de productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad se basan en tres grupos de indicadores: Requisitos básicos (instituciones; infraestructura; estabilidad macroeconómica; y, educación y salud); Eficiencia (educación superior y capacitación; eficiencia de mercado; mercado laboral; sofisticación del mercado financiero; adaptabilidad tecnológica; y, tamaño del mercado interno); e, Innovación (sofisticación de negocios e innovación). Por lo anterior, en México el Gobierno Federal estableció en el Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano (SIEM), y sus reglas de operación publicadas en el DOF el 05 de diciembre de 2007, en donde se establece que las Cámaras Empresariales y sus Confederaciones, establecerán como instrumento de Estado y administrado por la Secretaría de Economía (SE) al SIEM cuyo objeto es captar, integrar, procesar y suministrar información para permitir un mejor desempeño de las actividades empresariales, y que se establezca de acuerdo a la política integral de desarrollo empresarial con especial atención a las empresas PYMES, un sector tradicionalmente marginado en el sistema financiero mexicano, dado que la banca percibía a este sector como de alto riesgo (PND, 2001). De otro lado, la banca de desarrollo no contaba con esquemas de fomento competitivos que incentivaran la oferta de financiamiento hacia las empresas MIPYMES, además estas no contaban con las garantías hipotecarias que respaldaran el crédito, entre otros requisitos contables y financieros que exigían las instituciones de banca múltiple; como resultado, del año 2000 al 2002, en promedio el 53.3% del financiamiento a este sector, provenía de proveedores.

Por lo anterior, la Secretaria de Economía crea el Sistema Nacional de Garantías (SNG), a través de la Subsecretaría para la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa, coordinando conjuntamente con la banca de desarrollo las acciones necesarias para operar esquemas de financiamiento con la banca múltiple, en donde la principal virtud fuera contar con productos financieros adecuados a las necesidades de las empresas MIPYMES, que no se solicitaran garantías hipotecarias, y que las condiciones de tasa y plazo fueran las más adecuadas, en función del monto. Los cuales a las MIPYMES, de acuerdo a su naturaleza en gran

parte de las ocasiones no pueden solventar su crecimiento y solo sirven para la sobrevivencia de los dueños.Con el objeto de determinar el apoyo para la viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad de las MIPYMES, se han generado leyes publicadas en el DOF para promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación y sustentación de las mismas para el apoyo e incrementar su participación en los mercados con la finalidad de fomentar el empleo, para lo cual la SE es la encarga de aplicar la ley "compendio jurídico" (ISEF, 2009). A pesar de conseguir avances importantes ya que las MIPYMES constituyen el 99% de las unidades económicas y representan el 50% del PIB por lo cual generan más del 70% de empleos en México.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Las Políticas Públicas se refieren a actividades materiales o simbólicas que gestionan las autoridades públicas (Kauffer, 2002). Esta definición se centra en dos elementos. El primero se refiere a la determinación de los principales actores de las políticas: las autoridades, los gobiernos. El segundo revela que las políticas públicas, deben tomar en cuenta acciones concretas y elementos aparentemente no relevantes, como los simbólicos, los ideológicos, los que tienen que ver con las maneras informales de hacer las cosas, la dimensión de la cultura. En la definición de Thoenig (1985, citado por Kauffer), se abre otra perspectiva de comprensión, para este autor una política pública representa las acciones que un gobierno decide realizar o no realizar. De modo que la decisión de no actuar ante un determinado problema constituye en sí una política pública.

Así, una política pública no es solamente una acción concreta; puede ser una acción simbólica. En uno de los elementos constitutivos de la noción de sistema político, encontramos lo que se llama "políticas públicas". Se encuentran en el elemento institucional, llamado régimen político. Tal como señala (Alcántara, 1995), las mismas se consideran como determinados flujos del régimen político hacia la sociedad". "Son concebidas como "productos del sistema político" y no deben entenderse como partes exógenas del mismo, sino como constitutivas de las acciones o de los resultados de las actuaciones de los elementos formalmente institucionalizados del sistema político adscrito al ámbito del Estado". En otras palabras, las políticas públicas son las acciones de gobierno en acción, que busca como dar respuestas a las diversas demandas de la sociedad y que se pueden entender como uso estratégico de recursos para aliviar los problemas nacionales. Con el crecimiento del Estado y de las tareas que este poco a poco va asumiendo como suyas, pasa del Estado gendarme o liberal, al Estado actual donde sus funciones son de mayor envergadura, donde éste se va haciendo cada vez más intervencionista, con lo cual va afectando el quehacer diario de los ciudadanos, interviniendo en la economía, en la educación, en el trabajo, en la producción, en la seguridad social, entre otras materias.

Es entonces donde surgen una cantidad mayor de demandas y necesidades que el Estado necesita hacer frente, con lo cual comienza el mismo a captar grandes cantidades de dineros(en su mayoría originado de los impuesto) por parte de los ciudadanos, y los regresa a ellos en forma de programas y servicios que van en beneficio de los propios ciudadanos. Es así como a través de estos programas y servicios sociales surgen las políticas públicas, de allí su importancia de estudio a través de formas sistémicas y analíticas. De acuerdo a lo anterior, la actividad productiva del país esta constituida por tres sectores económicos: Primario (agropecuario y minero), Secundario (industrial) y Terciario (servicios).

1.- Sector Primario: Actividades económicas relacionadas con la transformación de los recursos naturales en productos primarios no elaborados. Usualmente, los productos primarios son utilizados como materia prima en las producciones industriales. Las principales actividades del sector primario son la agricultura, la minería, la ganadería, la silvicultura la apicultura, la acuicultura, la caza y la pesca.

2.- Sector Secundario: Actividades que implican la transformación de alimentos y materias primas a través de los más variados procesos productivos.

3.- Sector Terciario: Actividades económicas que no producen bienes materiales de forma directa, sino servicios que se ofrecen para satisfacer las necesidades de la población.

(Wikipedia Foundation Inc., 2010). De acuerdo a las políticas públicas se establece el Plan Nacional de Desarrollo (PND), que dentro de uno de sus pilares que establece el comportamiento de las MIPYMES, y determina en el objetivo no 6 lo siguiente: Promover la creación, desarrollo y consolidación de las Micro, Pequeñas y medianas Empresas (MIPYMES). Las estrategias generales para promover el desarrollo de las estas serán: ESTRATEGIA 6.1 Favorecer el aumento de la productividad de las MIPYMES e incrementar el desarrollo de productos acorde con sus necesidades. ESTRATEGIA 6.2 Consolidar los esquemas de apoyo a las MIPYMES en una sola instancia. ESTRATEGIA 6.3 Impulsar el desarrollo de proveedores, elevando el porcentaje de integración de los insumos nacionales en los productos elaborados en México y consolidando cadenas productivas que permitan una mayor generación de valor agregado en la producción de bienes que se comercian internacionalmente. Con ello se busca seguir una política integral de desarrollo de sectores que resultan estratégicos por su contribución a la generación de valor agregado, el nivel de empleo formal bien remunerado y la promoción del desarrollo regional equilibrado.

Estrategia 6.4 Revisar y ajustar los programas actuales de apoyo para que permitan lograr un escalamiento de la producción hacia manufacturas y servicios de alto valor agregado. En el PED dentro del pilar se seguridad económica en su vertiente I, denominada Desarrollo económico, describe a grandes rasgos un marco institucional y normativo para crear un clima propicio para el desarrollo de negocios y para la generación de empleos productivos. Y dentro del PMD, se busca brindar facilidades a las empresas para que puedan iniciar operaciones en la región así como implementación de conferencias para dar a conocer las riquezas que presentan hoy en día los municipios de la región.

De acuerdo al Compendio Jurídico (2009) de las PYMES, donde se hace referencia que desde el año de 1988 se han formulado leyes y que han sido publicadas en el DOF y muestra que se han generado una serie de reformas, donde el propósito de las mismas es el apoyo a la viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad de las MIPYMES, por lo que los elementos fundamentales son el fortalecer las MIPYMES, como estrategia para aumentar los niveles de productividad y generar más empleos, así mismo es Necesario continuar con una política integral de apoyo para el desarrollo de las mismas; con énfasis en las de menor tamaño, con el propósito de establecer las condiciones que contribuyan a su creación, desarrollo y consolidación.

Partiendo de lo anteriormente expuesto, se tomaran como referencia los datos del sexenio de 1982 a la fecha. En el sexenio del presidente Miguel de la Madrid Hurtado, se publica en el DOF del 26 de enero de 1988, por decreto se establece que las microindustrias en operación podrán inscribirse en forma gratuita en el Padrón Nacional de la Microindustria, y que para el 22 de julio del 1991, se formula por decreto la Ley Federal Para El Fomento De La Micro Industria Y La Actividad Artesanal, En Donde Se Establece Por Primera Vez La Estratificación De Las Mipymes, Como microindustrias y actividad artesanal, sin determinar la cantidad de empleados que la integren, donde se involucra a los tres sectores productivos del país, y se crea la comisión intersecretarial para el fomento de las mismas, también se establece la ley de orden público y de interés social que sería administrada por la Secretaria de Comercio y Fomento Industrial, en donde se establece el otorgamiento de apoyos financieros, fiscales, de mercado y de asistencia técnica, asimismo se establece la clasificación de acuerdo al tipo de empresario como persona física o moral.

En el sexenio del presidente Carlos salinas de Gortari, se establecen los reglamentos de promociones y ofertas durante el PND 1989 1994, que establece la necesidad de adecuar el marco jurídico de la actividad económica para evitar la regulación excesiva que impone costos elevados, limita la competencia impulsando los precios al alza, discrimina entre diversos agentes productivos, desalienta la productividad y propicia una asignación ineficiente de los recursos. Es hasta el sexenio de Vicente Fox Quezada se logra

estratificar por sectores el tamaño de las MIPYMES, donde toma en consideración a las actividades económicas del país, y lo establece en función de la cantidad de empleados, por lo que se promulga la Ley para el Desarrollo de la Competitividad de las MIPYMES, así como el Consejo Nacional para la Competitividad, la cual fue publicadas el 06 de junio de 2006, que tiene como objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES, asimismo, establece artículos y reglamentos para su funcionamiento. Una de las últimas leyes promulgadas para el desarrollo de las MIPYMES se da en el sexenio de Felipe Calderón Hinojosa, en donde en el PND 2007 2012, establece una nueva estratificación basada en la cantidad de empleados y ventas anuales, dicha estratificación solo mencionan a los sectores productivos secundarios y terciarios, sin tomar en consideración el sector primario, en el acuerdo por el que se establece la estratificación de las MIPYMES, publicado el 30 de junio del 2009, que tiene por objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES, en el apoyo para su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, en un marco decrecientes encadenamientos productivos que generan mayor valor agregado nacional, y que de común acuerdo con la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público se considera necesario establecer la estratificación, con el fin de evitar la discriminación en contra de empresas intensivas.

METODOLOGÍA

La metodología aplicada en el desarrollo de la investigación es de tipo cualitativo debido a que la investigación propone establecer estrategias de búsqueda bibliográficas y referenciales en bases de datos e internet, de manera retrospectiva que permiten lograr ver como se han comportado las leyes promulgadas para el funcionamiento y la estructura jurídica de las MIPYMES, su participación en el desarrollo endógeno y sustentabilidad de la región. Es de tipo descriptivo debido que al realizar el análisis del comportamiento de las leyes, su aplicación y en la forma de cómo establecer los lineamientos de integración de las acciones públicas de las MIPYMES, con el propósito de lograr su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, y su funcionamiento jurídico. Es de tipo no experimental, transversal debido a que recolecta los datos directamente en un solo momento de los documentos investigados, sin manipular o controlar alguna variable y la recolección de datos.

Consideraciones Finales

Por más de 20 años se han promulgado leyes y establecidas de manera recurrentes en los PND, PED y PMD, que hablan específicamente de la viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, y se han incrustado como prioridades en los planes de desarrollo con el propósito de lograr el desarrollo endógeno territorial de los municipios, estados y nacionales, que al día de hoy no han sido concretados de manera eficiente en su ejecución que beneficie la competitividad de las MIPYMES, lo que ha provocado que la competitividad del país de una u otra forma haya perdido escalones, debido a que los programas de apoyo aunque se han incrementado, no se han destinado de manera eficiente para que cumpla con su propósito.

Asimismo, hay que tomar en consideración que hubo un momento en el tiempo en la cual los lineamientos que se establecieron desde 1988 para la estratificación de las MIPYMES en donde se contemplaban los tres sectores productivos y que en las últimas reglamentaciones solo se han tomado como referencia para la estratificación los sectores secundarios y terciarios, y el cuestionamiento seria en donde quedo el sector primario, que es el responsable de la producción del país y que es de ahí donde da sentido al resto de los mismos; para promover el crecimiento de todos los sectores productivos del país hay que establecer y plantear lineamientos de integración y cooperatitividad que permitan la competitividad de las MIPYMES. Por lo tanto para que las MIPYMES cumplan con su propósito de manera idónea que es la generación de empleos y participar en el PIB de manera eficiente y eficaz, hay

que establecer lineamientos jurídicos idóneos con leyes que permitan cumplir con su propósito. Para terminar se retoma con lo que se empezó en la introducción que dice "El desarrollo integral de una sociedad supone la consideración de diferentes factores; cognitivos, sociales, culturales, normativos, etc., por mencionar algunos, siendo las Instituciones Públicas las responsables de generar las acciones o políticas públicas orientadas al Desarrollo Endógeno de los Municipios. Es de ahí, donde el Poder Ejecutivo en sus tres niveles: federal, estatal y municipal, determinan los lineamientos jurídicos que analizan las facultades y prerrogativas que tiene cada uno de éstos actores políticos que repercuten en Plan de Desarrollo de la Administración Pública en el Municipio de Amecameca y su relación con el Desarrollo Endógeno".

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Terán, Varela Omar Ernesto, López Ramírez, Concepción Estéfana, Pérez Garcés, Ranulfo. Profesor del Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca, Profesor de Posgrado de la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

Hernández Aragón María de Lourdes, Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca. Estudiante del 6to Semestre de la Licenciatura en Administración del Centro Universitario UAEM Amecameca

Sonia Elizabeth Maldonado-Radillo, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ana Ma. Guillén Jiménez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Rafael Ernesto Carranza Prieto, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Este trabajo presenta una investigación de tipo descriptivo, correlacional, transversal con diseño no experimental sobre el diagnóstico del compromiso organizacional de los empleados de una universidad pública. Su objetivo consiste en identificar el nivel de compromiso y si existen diferencias significativas entre el compromiso de los docentes y el compromiso de los empleados administrativos; para alcanzarlo se trabajó con una muestra de 156 empleados de una universidad pública. Para la recolección de los datos se utilizó un cuestionario Allen y Meyer y validado por Frutos para su empleo en universidades; su confiabilidad fue determinada a través del alfa de Cronbach, obteniendo un índice de confiabilidad de 0.83. Los resultados obtenidos muestran que el compromiso de los empleados con la organización es bueno; además, revelan que existen diferencias significativas entre el compromiso de los docentes y el compromiso.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Compromiso Organizacional, empleados universitarios, universidad pública

INTRODUCCIÓN

El éxito de una organización obedece, en gran medida, a las relaciones humanas y éstas a su vez dependen de las variables actitudinales como es el caso del compromiso organizacional (CO); por esta razón, éste ha sido un tópico estudiado ampliamente en todos los ámbitos. El principal interés de este estudio estriba en el hecho de estar asociado a resultados organizacionales como son: el desempeño, el ausentismo, la rotación de personal, entre otros (Juaneda y González, 2007).

Tras la pesquisa de buenos resultados en cuanto a su productividad y a la calidad de sus programas educativos, las instituciones públicas de educación superior (IPES) se han orientado a la evaluación del compromiso de sus empleados. Como ejemplo en este ámbito, recientemente se han publicado los estudios de Capellas y Veciana (2004), Loli (2007), Edel, García y Casiano (2007) y Mayorga, Ramírez y Viloria (2008), por mencionar algunos.

Tratando de encontrar herramientas que proporcionen elementos para mejorar los resultados organizacionales y con el marco geográfico de una universidad pública mexicana, se propone el objetivo de este trabajo que consiste en identificar la existencia de diferencias significativas entre el compromiso de los empleados administrativos y docentes Esta evaluación es importante porque promoverá, en un futuro, la formulación de lineamientos estratégicos que favorezcan las actitudes de los empleados y mejoren su desempeño laboral.

El estudio se limita conceptualmente al compromiso organizacional, espacialmente empleados administrativos que laboran en el área financiera y docente de las Facultades de Administración de una universidad pública localizada en el noroeste de México; temporalmente cubre el período comprendido en 2011.

METODOLOGÍA

Tipo de Estudio y Diseño: Con la finalidad de alcanzar el objetivo propuesto se realizó un estudio transversal con diseño no experimental, caracterizado como descriptivo-correlacional. Se asumió como descriptivo porque pretende especificar las características de los fenómenos estudiados y se presume correlacional porque evaluó la relación entre dos o más conceptos, particularmente el compromiso y el tipo de empleado (Hernández et al., 2006).

Universo de Estudio y Muestra: El análisis tomó como universo a empleados administrativos y docentes que laboran en dos campus de una universidad pública; se empleó una muestra no probabilística (muestreo por conveniencia) de 156 participantes a los cuales, entre enero y febrero de 2011, les fue aplicado el cuestionario. La muestra obtenida presenta las siguientes características:

- 1. El 55.2% son mujeres (56 administrativas y 30 docentes) y el 41.0% son hombres (33 administrativos y 31 docentes).
- 2. Es predominantemente madura (más del 41.7% rebasa los 46 años). En este rango de edad, hay 34 empleados administrativos y 31 docentes.
- 3. Las condiciones de empleo son buenas, ya que 104 (66.7%) son empleados de base; 69 son empleados administrativos y 35 docentes.
- 4. El 46.4% del personal laboral en el campus Mexicali mientras que el 43.6% lo hace en el campus Tijuana.

Instrumento: Para la recolección de los datos se utilizó la versión validada por Frutos et al. (1998) del Cuestionario sobre Atributos de la Organización (CATO) propuesto por Allen y Meyer (1990). Este instrumento mide los niveles de compromiso organizacional (afectivo, de continuidad y normativo); se integra por 20 ítems cuya categoría de respuestas fue en escalamiento numérico de cinco valores, donde (1) es de totalmente en desacuerdo y (5) es totalmente de acuerdo. Aun cuando la confiabilidad del instrumento se ha determinado en investigaciones anteriores (Edel, García y Casiano, 2007), en este estudio se corroboró a través del α de Cronbach obteniendo un índice de 0.83 el cual, según George y Mallery (1995), podría considerarse con un nivel bueno para su aplicación.

Análisis De Datos

Se utilizó el paquete *Statistical Package for the Social Siences* (SPSS) para obtener frecuencias, estadísticos descriptivos, la confiabilidad (α de Cronbach) y ANOVA para datos independientes. Para llevar a cabo la identificación del Compromiso Organizacional se utilizó el baremo de la Tabla 1 construido en función del número de ítems que integran el cuestionario, en la que cada pregunta tiene cinco alternativas y considerando que solo existe una alternativa de respuesta para cada ítem.

Tabla 1: Baremo de Intensidad para Compromiso Organizacional

Rango		Categoría	U
1	33	Malo	
34	66	Regular	
67	100	Bueno	
	1 20 1	1 1 ' 5 1.	,•

El CATO se integró por 20 ítems, en donde cada ítem tiene 5 alternativas de respuesta (Likert), cada respondiente debe seleccionar sólo una respuesta para cada ítem, por tanto el valor máximo por cuestionario es 100, con base en esto, se establecieron los intervalos de puntuaciones indicados en este baremo. Fuente: Elaboración propia

RESULTADOS

Compromiso Organizacional de los empleados de la universidad pública

La Tabla 2 describe para cada tipo de empleado y para el total de la muestra: el número de casos, la media, la desviación típica, el error típico, los intervalos de confianza para la media al 95% y los valores máximo y mínimo.

Tabla 2: Estadísticos descriptivos por tipo de empleado

	Categoría Laboral		
	Administrativo	Docente	Total
N	91	63	154
Media	68.5	73.76	70.65
Desviación Típica	10.90	11.64	11.47
Error Típico	1.14	1.46	.925
Intervalo de Confianza para Límite inferior	66.23	70.82	68.83
la Media al 95% Límite superior	70.77	76.70	72.48
Mínimo	18.0	44.0	18.0
Máximo	93.0	96.0	96.0

En la Tabla muestran los resultados de los estadísticos descriptivos de la muestra Fuente: Elaboración propia con resultados de trabajo de campo

COMPROMISO

Al comparar el resultado de la media total (70.65) del Compromiso Organizacional con las categorías establecidas en el baremo de intensidad (Tabla 1) se puede afirmar que el CO es bueno; esto es, el estado psicológico que caracteriza la relación entre los empleados y la universidad puede calificarse de bueno. Esta situación es favorecedora para la institución ya que, de acuerdo con Edel, García y Casiano (2007), los niveles altos de compromiso en los empleados de las universidades públicas contribuyen a que se mantengan las capacidades colectivas así como las ventajas sostenibles y duraderas que la propia institución ha sido capaz de obtener.

Compromiso Organizacional Entre Empleados Docentes Y Administrativos

Los datos se sometieron a un análisis de varianza (ANOVA) para muestras independientes, utilizando como factor de contrastación el tipo de empleado. Se aplicó esta prueba considerando que los datos de la muestra provienen de empleados que son diferentes; esto es, el compromiso se encuentra asociado a un empleado y éste puede ser docente o administrativo. Los resultados se muestran en la Tabla 3.

Tabla 3: ANOVA para datos independientes

		Leven Varia	ba de e para anzas ales			Prueba T-	-Student para I	Medias iguales		
		F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (2 colas)	Diferencia de Medias	Diferencia de Error Estándar	Confian	ervalo de iza de la rencia Alto
COMPROMISO	Varianzas iguales	1.129	.290	-2.86	152	.005	-5.25	1.83	-8.88	-1.63
	Varianzas desiguales			-2.82	127.7	.005	-5.25	1.86	-8.93	-1.57

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de datos de campo

En esta Tabla se ilustra las diferencias significativas entre empleados administrativos y docentes; ahí se muestra que el valor t-observado (-2.86) tiene una significancia de 0.005 la cual es menor que el umbral de significancia establecido (0.05) por tanto existen diferencias significativas entre el compromiso de los empleados administrativos y el compromiso de los docentes.

En este sentido los resultados revelan que los docentes tienen un compromiso diferente al de los administrativos. Álvarez (2008) opina que el hecho de que existan diferencias entre ambos grupos podría tener implicaciones para las teorías de comportamiento organizacional y para el diseño de estrategias encaminadas a fomentar actitudes y comportamientos favorables de los recursos humanos.

CONCLUSIONES

A través de los análisis de la presente investigación, se logró identificar la existencia de diferencias significativas entre el compromiso de los docentes y el compromiso de los empleados administrativos.

Asimismo, se identificó el nivel de compromiso de los docentes y empleados administrativos de la universidad pública, que desde el enfoque conceptual-multidimensional, se define como bueno, de acuerdo a las categorías establecidas. Estos hallazgos pueden considerarse como adecuados ya que conducen a reconocer que, tanto los empleados administrativos como docentes tienen una identificación psicológica fuerte con la universidad pública para la cual laboran y se sienten satisfechos de pertenecer a la misma. Sin embargo, estos hallazgos deberán tomarse con reserva ya que, como fue mencionado, la muestra es no probabilística y no se tiene la seguridad de que cada unidad muestral integre a la población total en el proceso de selección de la muestra, por lo cual no es factible hacer inferencias sobre el compromiso en función del tipo de empleados. Esta particularidad puede tomarse como una limitante; no obstante, cualquier información obtenida resulta útil porque podría considerarse como preliminar o servir como base para investigaciones futuras.

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Sonia Elizabeth Maldonado-Radillo, Docente de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales y Jefe del Departamento de Auditoría del campus Ensenada de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Maestra en Administración, Estudiante del programa de doctorado en Ciencias Administrativas, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. Correo: se.maldonado@gmail.com

Ana Ma. Guillén Jiménez, Docente de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Auditor Interno de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California en el campus Mexicali, Maestra en Administración por la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. Correo: guillen@uabc.edu.mx

Rafael Ernesto Carranza Prieto, Docente de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Maestro en Finanzas Corporativas del CETyS con mención Honorifica y Maestro en Evaluación Inmobiliaria e Industrial por el Instituto Tecnológico de la Construcción. Correo: ecarranza@uabc.edu.mx

AUTONOMIA FINANCIERA DE LOS MUNICIPIOS EN MEXICO 1989-2008

Manuel Diaz Flores, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Roberto González Acolt, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

El objetivo de este trabajo es hacer un análisis de las tendencias de los ingresos de los municipios de México en el periodo 1989-2008 incorporando la heterogeneidad municipal que tienen los 2,454 Ayuntamientos que existen en el país ubicados en 32 entidades federativas o estados subnacionales que integran la federación de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos. Con la finalidad de avanzar hacia este propósito se consideró conveniente desarrollar una muestra estadísticamente significativa mediante una metodología compatible con resultados de estudios anteriores y que tomara en cuenta su tamaño y problemática particular, evitando así en lo posible las generalizaciones. De acuerdo a las premisas anteriores, se aborda la problemática financiera municipal clasificando los municipios en 5 grupos de acuerdo a su población: Metropolitanos, Urbanos Grandes, Urbanos Medios, Semirurales y Rurales. La muestra calculada fue de 332 Ayuntamientos distribuidos en cada estrato tomando en cuenta el número de habitantes según la tipología antes mencionada. El problema fundamental que aquí se aborda es precisamente la búsqueda de estrategias para reducir gradualmente la falta de autonomía financiera que los municipios tienes respecto de la federación y de sus respectivos estados.

INTRODUCCION

La descentralización fiscal del Sistema Federal Mexicano, desde la perspectiva de los ingresos, es un reto sobre todo considerando el alto grado de centralismo que se manifiesta en la fuerte dependencia financiera de los municipios respecto de los recursos federales. El problema fundamental que aquí se aborda es precisamente la búsqueda de estrategias para reducir gradualmente esta falta de autonomía financiera que los municipios tienes respecto de la federación y de sus respectivos estados. Existen obstáculos vinculados a importantes rezagos en sus sistemas administrativos y tecnológicos, en la profesionalización de su personal, en sus marcos normativos, además de ausencia de sistemas de planeación y de gestión que permita un manejo más eficiente y eficaz de sus recursos. Adicionalmente, lo que hace más complejo el estudio de la problemática municipal en México es la gran diversidad en tamaño, desarrollo cultural, desempeño socioeconómico, así como la fortaleza de sus instituciones reflejada en la modernización de sus sistemas administrativos, legales y la capacitación de su personal.

Si bien, existen trabajos que profundizan cada vez más estos aspectos, no se han logrado incorporar diseños de estrategias diferenciadas en materia de descentralización fiscal en el ámbito municipal. La estrategia de investigación que aquí se sigue es abordar la problemática de la dependencia financiera municipal tomando en consideración esta gran diversidad municipal mediante una clasificación por tamaño de municipios de tal forma que se logren identificar los problemas de ingresos asociados a cada grupo en particular y no hacer generalizaciones que por lo general terminan aplicando políticas únicas a realidades diferentes.

REVISION LITERARIA

En México, uno de los trabajos pioneros sobre la descentralización fiscal de las haciendas municipales de nuestro país es (Cabrero 1996) en el cual se hace un estudio comparativo del desempeño de las finanzas públicas de 6 municipios urbanos de México y se plantea la necesidad de modernizar su gestión hacendaria para obtener mejores resultados en espera de políticas más profundas que modifiquen las

relaciones hacendarias intergubernamentales. Existe una serie de trabajos que de alguna manera establecen el marco general ya que abordan los aspectos centrales que es necesario transformar de manera profunda y que forman parte de las debilidades del Sistema Nacional de Coordinación Fiscal. En este sentido Astudillo (1999) muestra que el total de recursos que el gobierno central transfiere a estados y municipios equivale a la mitad de la recaudación nacional de los dos impuestos más dinámicos que son el al Valor Agregado (IVA) y el Impuesto Sobre la Renta (ISR). Sampere (1998) propone que los estados y municipios se queden gradualmente con una parte de la recaudación del Impuesto Sobre la Renta de Personas Fisicas por ser un impuesto que tiene menos movilidad y de acuerdo a la teoría del federalismo fiscal más factible de administrar por estos ámbitos de gobierno. Diaz (2003) diseña algunos escenarios en donde el Sistema Nacional de Coordinación Fiscal va cediendo recursos a los estados y los municipios dejando parte de la recaudación por concepto del IVA e ISR en los gobiernos locales, promoviendo así una mayor responsabilidad fiscal y fuentes de ingresos más robustas, además de transparentes y más sencillas de actualizar. Sin embargo, para la instrumentación de las instituciones, normas, recursos humanos y sistemas administrativos con que cuenta los municipios para hacer frente de manera sentos a estos retos.

Cabrero y Orihuela (2002) presenta ya un análisis de las finanzas en municipios urbanos de México mediante una clasificación de acuerdo a su población y en esta muestra, aunque más reveladora de lo que pasa en las grandes ciudades, se advierte que estos Ayuntamientos tienen mejores estructuras financieras y por tanto haciendas más fortalecidas en contraste con las pequeñas ciudades o municipios rurales que tienen mayores rezagos. En este contexto se circunscribe el presente trabajo el cual retoma parte de esta metodología de Cabrero y Orihuela y con una muestra más amplia presenta un diagnóstico de las tendencias financieras que los municipios de México han tenido recientemente.

METODOLOGIA

El estudio sobre los 2,454 que de acuerdo al Instituto Nacional para el Federalismo y el Desarrollo Municipal (INAFED) existían en el año 2007, se diseñó una muestra sobre este universo de municipios. Para calcular el tamaño de esta muestra se aplicó una fórmula genérica comúnmente usada en muestras estratificadas en poblaciones finitas de la forma siguiente:

n=	Npq				
	ME ²	- (N-1)	+ PQ		

Donde n: tamaño de la muestra

N: Tamaño del universo

p: Probabilidad de ocurrencia

q: Probabilidad de no ocurrencia (1-p)

Me: Margen de error o precisión expresado como probabilidad

Nc: Nivel de confianza o exactitud. Expresado como valor z que determina el área de probabilidad buscada

En el caso que nos ocupa y sustituyendo los valores el cálculo quedó planteado de la siguiente forma:

Variable	Descripción
Ν	Los 2,454 municipios del país
Р	1-5=.5 es el mayor punto de incertidumbre que se puede asumir, expresado como probabilidad
Q	1-5=.5
Me	+/- 5% margen de error. Expresado como probabilidad (.05)
Nc	95% de nivel de confianza o exactitud. Expresado como valor z que determina el área de
	probabilidad buscada (1.96)2

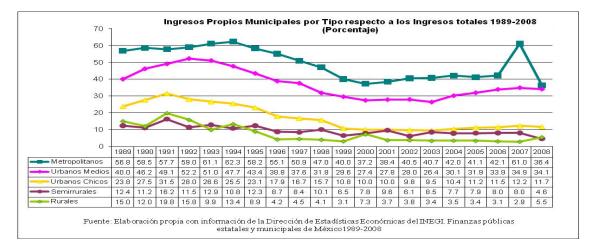
Una vez sustituidos los valores en la fórmula anterior y realizadas las operaciones el tamaño de la muestra resultante fue de n=332 municipios los cuales fueron estratificados atendiendo al grupo en donde se ubican y la población que representa cada tipo de municipio respecto del total. La distribución quedó de la siguiente manera:

Tipo de Municipio	Rangos Población	No municipios	de	Relación porcentual	Población que representan (%)	Muestra
Metropolitanos	500,000 en adelante	39		1.6	32.6	11
Urbanos Medios	100,000-4999,999	142		5.8	29.2	33
Urbanos Chicos	15,000-99,999	867		35.3	30.4	212
Semirurales	2,500-14,999	1014		41.3	7.4	60
Rurales	1 - 2,499	392		16	0.5	16
Total		2,454				332

Con esta tipología se busca presentar las tendencias de los ingresos municipales de acuerdo al grupo en donde se ubican, lo que permite incorporar un análisis más detallado que promueva estrategias diferenciadas acordes a cada problemática particular considerando estos 5 estratos de municipios que seguramente tienen en común otros factores además de la población.

RESULTADOS

La siguiente gráfica muestra cómo el total de ingresos propios de los Municipios Metropolitanos, que se definen por no considerar ningún tipo de transferencia de recursos federales (impuestos, derechos, productos, aprovechamientos y contribuciones de mejoras), alcanzaron niveles de alrededor del 60% en los primeros diez años del periodo considerado y del 40% en los últimos diez años. En el caso de los Urbanos Medios, sus ingresos propios representaron por arriba del 40% de sus ingresos totales y posteriormente descendieron al 30%, en contraste con los Urbanos Chicos que se mantuvieron alrededor del 11% al final del periodo y los rurales y semirurales que fluctuaron entre 3% y 8% lo cual refleja su alta dependencia respecto de los recursos federales. Como se puede observar este análisis muestra de manera diferenciada la dependencia municipal respecto del gobierno central. Esta misma gráfica en un análisis agregado de todos los municipios del país mostraría que en los primeros diez años del periodo los ingresos propios pasaron de 30% a solamente 20% de los ingresos totales lo cual no refleja diversidad de problemáticas financieras en la heterogeneidad municipal mexicana.



CONCLUSIONES

El fortalecimiento de las finanzas públicas municipales requiere tener una fuente de ingresos más dinámica ya que la actual no representa ningún incentivo para la mayoría de los municipios, lo cual

promueve que el incremento de los recursos federales aumente la dependencia financiera y la pereza fiscal de la gran mayoría de los municipios. En este trabajo se constatan las tendencias generales que presenta el conjunto de los municipios de México en estudios anteriores: una alta dependencia financiera y una baja recaudación. Se muestra que por lo general a medida que un municipio es más grande tienen mayor recaudación. Sin embargo, existen otras variables, además de la población, que en muchos casos de municipios pueden explicar mejor su baja dinámica en el cumplimiento de sus potestades tributarias. En México, las reformas Constitucionales de 1983 y 1999 al Artículo 115 Constitucional no se han traducido en un incremento de ingresos propios de los Ayuntamientos por lo que se requiere un nuevo diseño que tome en cuenta tanto las especificidades como las generalidades.

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Manuel Díaz Flores, profesor investigador del Departamento de Economía de la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes. Línea de investigación Economía Pública y Desarrollo Local mdiaz@correo.uaa.mx Roberto González Acolt, profesor investigador del Departamento de Economía de la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes. Línea de investigación Economía ambiental y Desarrollo Local. rgonza@correo.uaa.mx

FACTORES DE SATISFACCIÓN DENTRO DEL CLIMA LABORAL DE UNA PYME

Armandina Margarita Olloqui López, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México Maricela Carolina Peña Cárdenas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México Eugenia Miroslava Ramos Iruegas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México

RESUMEN

La combinación adecuada de la Tecnología, el Recurso Financiero y Humano son determinantes básicas para lograr un clima laboral que permita a las empresas ser competitivas, por lo que requieren promover la satisfacción de su personal en el trabajo. El objetivo de este estudio corresponde a la fundamentación teórica de un proyecto de investigación, cuyo propósito es conocer los factores de mayor incidencia en la satisfacción laboral. La metodología utilizada es de carácter documental efectuada mediante una revisión literaria analizando contenidos de artículos de revistas científicas, investigaciones, libros de texto, tesis de maestría y doctorales, así como de las teorías relacionadas con la motivación, que permita identificar indicadores de satisfacción laboral.En los resultados esperados a través del presente estudio se encontraron que son múltiples los factores involucrados en la satisfacción laboral, y para poder medirlos, diferentes autores han usado escalas de medición las van a permitir diseñar un instrumento que se adapte a las características de las Pymes en la industria metal-mecánica de Monclova, Frontera y Castaños, Coahuila, México.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Satisfacción Laboral, Clima Organizacional, Motivación. ABSTRACT

The right combination of Technology, Financial and Human Resources are basic determinants for a work environment that allows business to be competitive, so you need to promote their personal satisfaction at work. The objective of this study is the theoretical fundamentation of a research project that purpose to identify the factors involved on job satisfaction. The methodology is based in documents and literature review analyzing contents of journal articles, research, textbooks, theses and doctoral dissertations, as well as theories related to motivation, to identify indicators of job satisfaction. Expected results through this study found that multiple factors involved in job satisfaction, and to measure them, authors have used different measurement scales which will allow to design an instrument that suits the characteristics of SMEs in the metal-mechanical industry Monclova, Frontera and Castaños, Coahuila, Mexico

KEYWORDS: Job Satisfaction, Organizational Climate, Motivation

INTRODUCCIÓN

Ante los retos que el mundo actual plantea a las organizaciones, éstas han tenido que reformular estrategias orientadas a su supervivencia, a ser productivas y competitivas, optimizando sus recursos tanto financieros como humanos, materiales y tecnológicos. El elemento humano es clave para obtener resultados positivos al enfrentar dicha situación, ya que en su desempeño dentro de la empresa realiza las actividades que se requieren para el logro de los objetivos y, que se espera que éstos, sean congruentes con los que directivos, empleados y trabajadores tienen de manera personal. Por ello, en las últimas décadas, se ha incrementado el interés por realizar estudios en relación a la motivación y la satisfacción laboral, tema que nos ocupa en esta presentación, la cual se refiere a la fase inicial de una investigación cuyo propósito es identificar los factores de mayor incidencia en la satisfacción laboral del personal dentro del clima organizacional de PyMes de la región, cuya actividad productiva corresponde a la categoría de industria metal-mecánica.

A continuación, se incluye, en la primera parte, información de la revisión literaria efectuada, seguida de un bosquejo de la metodología a seguir en la segunda fase, para terminar con las referencias y datos biográficos de las autoras.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Antecedentes

Según Peiró (2000), la satisfacción laboral (o satisfacción con el trabajo) se trata de la actitud relacionada con el trabajo que más atención ha recibido por parte de la investigación y aunque el estudio sistemático de su naturaleza y sus causas comienzan en la década de los treinta (cuando Hoppock, en 1935, desarrolló los primeros estudios sobre esta temática), algunos autores ya habían estudiado diversas actitudes de los empleados frente a diferentes aspectos del trabajo.

Atalaya (1999) expone que gran parte del paternalismo de los administradores de las décadas de 1930, 1940 y 1950 pretendían que los trabajadores estuvieran contentos y las primeras teorías de la relación entre la satisfacción y el rendimiento quedan resumidas, en esencia, en la afirmación de que un trabajador contento es un trabajador productivo. Agrega la autora que en las décadas de 1950 y 1960 hubo docenas de estudios para establecer la relación entre satisfacción y productividad y no encontraron una relación consistente; sin embargo, en la década de 1990, aunque las investigaciones han tenido limitaciones, sí se pueden obtener algunos datos de la evidencia existente.

Al respecto, Salgado, et al (1996) mencionan que se han llevado a cabo estudios que pretenden encontrar relaciones entre: el clima y la conducta de liderazgo (Schein, 1985), la satisfacción y el compromiso con la organización (Mathieu, 1991; Mathieu y Zajac, 1990), la satisfacción y el absentismo y la rotación del personal (Porter, Steers, Mowday y Boulian, 1974), la satisfacción y el rendimiento (Petty, McGee y Cavender, 1984), agregando que a pesar de la abundante literatura sobre clima organizacional y satisfacción laboral (ver Locke, 1976, 1984; Brunet, 1983), el acuerdo entre los autores sobre el contenido de ambos constructos dista de ser completo (Moran y Volkwein, 1992).

La motivación laboral ha sido objeto de estudio sistemático desde unos años antes que la satisfacción laboral; en los años cincuenta surgen teorías, hoy fuertemente consolidadas, sobre la motivación, mientras que hasta los años sesenta no hay un desarrollo significativo del estudio sobre la satisfacción laboral (SATW, 1984, en Ramírez et al, 2008). A continuación, en la Tabla 1, se muestra un concentrado de la clasificación de las teorías de la motivación, según Campbell, Dunnette y otros (1970):

Motivación y Satisfacción laboral

Ramírez, et al (2008) exponen que, en un primer momento, "la motivación es anterior a la satisfacción al ser previa al trabajo, pero una vez que este se realiza, el grado de satisfacción que reporte influirá en la dinámica interactiva de la motivación; a su vez, ésta, como orientadora de la acción, incide en la satisfacción laboral en tanto se relaciona las expectativas con los resultados de la conducta laboral y se evalué su grado como suficiente y satisfactorio".

Ramírez, et al (2008) refieren que "la motivación laboral es un proceso interno que parte de una serie de necesidades personales y que se orienta a la satisfacción de estas a través de unas realizaciones externas concretas de índole laboral; la satisfacción en el trabajo, por su lado, es una actitud que, en tanto se posee, facilita y hace menos penoso el proceso de satisfacción de las necesidades a las que orienta la motivación.

Tabla 1: Clasificación de Teorías de la Motivación, de Campbell, Dunnette y otros (1970)

a)	Teorías de Contenido trata	n de definir los aspectos y factores específicos que motivan a las personas a trabajar.
Año	Nombre	Descripción
1954	Jerarquía de las necesidades	Se trata de un sistema o pirámide de necesidades que tiene una jerarquía de cinco
	de Maslow	necesidades: las <i>Fisiológicas, De seguridad, Sociales, Estima y Autorrealización</i> . Las necesidades inferiores deben satisfacerse antes de que las superiores se vuelvan importantes.
1951,	Teoría de las motivaciones	Menciona que la motivación laboral, está en función de tres necesidades o motivos: de
1961	sociales de McClelland	<i>logro, de poder y de afiliación</i> ; estas son aprendidas, por lo que la organización puede condicionar conductas favorables al rendimiento a través de recompensas vinculadas directamente con esa conducta.
1959	Teoría biofactorial de	También llamada teoría de la motivación-higiene, parte del supuesto básico de que hay dos
	Herzberg	factores distintos en los extremos de dos continuos: de satisfacción-no satisfacción
	e	(influenciado por los factores intrínsecos o motivadores del trabajo) y de insatisfacción-no
		insatisfacción (que depende de los factores extrínsecos, higiénicos o ergonómicos que no
		son motivadores en sí mismos, pero reducen la insatisfacción).
1960	Teoría X-Y de McGregor	Propuso dos posiciones: una básicamente negativa, nombrada teoría X, que asume que las necesidades de nivel bajo dominan a los individuos y otra básicamente positiva,
		denominada teoría Y, en donde predominan las necesidades de nivel alto que incluyen
		métodos para optimizar la satisfacción de un empleado la toma participativa de decisiones,
		los trabajos desafiantes, la responsabilidad y las buenas relaciones de grupo.
1972	Teoría ERC de Alderfer	Postula que existe una jerarquía con tres grandes niveles de necesidades que son: las
		necesidades de existencia, necesidades de relación y necesidades de crecimiento. Plantea
		que es posible que estén activas dos o más necesidades simultáneamente así como un
		ordenamiento flexible donde es posible transitar de necesidades sin que sean satisfechas
		totalmente unas para pasar a las siguientes (Robbins, 2004).

b)		ran en la descripción de la forma de potenciar, dirigir y terminar la conducta en el
	trabajo.	
Año	Nombre y Autor	Descripción
1957	Teoría de Path-Goal de Georgopolus, Mahoney y Jones	Es la primera versión de estas teorías, postulando que el rendimiento laboral aumenta si se percibe como un medio (path) para conseguir objetivos personales (goal) y desciende cuando no considera esa relación.
1964	Teoría VIE o de las Expectativas de Vroom	La motivación es producto de tres factores (VIE): <i>Valencia</i> (el grado en que se desee una recompensa), <i>Instrumentalidad</i> (estimación de que el desempeño conducirá a recibir la recompensa) y <i>Expectativa</i> (estimación que se tiene de la probabilidad de que el desempeño produzca un desempeño exitoso). De esta manera, es posible esquematizar tres tipos de relación: esfuerzo-desempeño, desempeño-recompensa y recompensa-metas personales.
1963, 1965	Teoría de la equidad de Adams	Los empleados comparan lo que aportan al trabajo (esfuerzo, competencias, experiencia, educación) y sus resultados (salario, aumento, reconocimiento) con los de sus pares en el mundo laboral; si dicha relación es considerada equivalente, se presenta un estado de equidad, pero si la relación no es percibida así resulta un estado de desigualdad (Robbins, 2004).
1968	Modelo de circulación de Porter y Lawler	Parte de la hipótesis de que la relación entre la expectativa y la realidad de la recompensa produce satisfacción o insatisfacción laboral; se compara si la recompensa recibida efectivamente por el rendimiento en su trabajo corresponde a la que consideraba adecuada a cambio de éste.
1968, 1969	Teoría de las metas de Locke	Se postula que el desempeño de los individuos es mayor cuando existen metas o niveles de desempeño establecidos que cuando no los hay; un aspecto central es que los trabajadores participan conscientemente en la fijación de metas, aprecian el modo en que su esfuerzo producirá un buen desempeño, recompensa y satisfacción personal. Se consideran cuatro elementos: Aceptación de la meta, Especificidad, Reto y Retroalimentación.

Fuente: Elaboración propia. Muestra clasificación de Teorías de la Motivación

Caballero (2002) cita a Weinert (1985: 297-8) destaca que "la concepción de la satisfacción en el trabajo como una actitud se distingue básicamente de la motivación para trabajar en que ésta última se refiere a disposiciones de conducta, a la clase y selección de conducta, así como a su fuerza e intensidad, mientras que la satisfacción se concentra en los sentimientos afectivos frente al trabajo y a las consecuencias posibles que se derivan de él". Robbins (1996) coincide con este autor al definir la satisfacción en el trabajo como "la actitud general, positiva o negativa, de un individuo hacia su trabajo; una persona con un alto nivel de satisfacción en el puesto tiene actitudes positivas hacia el mismo" (p.181). Locke (1976) definió la satisfacción laboral como un "estado emocional positivo o placentero de la percepción subjetiva de las experiencias laborales del sujeto". Weinert, (1985) citado por Ramírez, et al (2008) afirma que "las teorías de la motivación consideran la satisfacción laboral principalmente como un sistema fisiológico-

psicológico de reacción y de sentimiento de la persona trabajadora, sin desdeñar su componente cognitivo".

Ramírez, et al (2008) sintetizan que según la teoría bifactorial de Herzberg, la satisfacción y la motivación laboral están relacionadas con el contenido del trabajo (necesidades de orden superior, satisfacción–no satisfacción) y con el contexto (necesidades de orden inferior, insatisfacción–no insatisfacción). Para las teorías de la necesidad, una necesidad superior produce una tensión que se considera *insatisfacción*, mientras que la ausencia de esa tensión se considera *satisfacción*. Para las teorías de la expectativa la satisfacción laboral se identifica con *un estado anticipado* positivo causado por las recompensas derivadas de lo laboral (Vroom, 1964) y de la comparación entre recompensas esperadas y recibidas (Porter y Lawer, 1968) la satisfacción laboral surge de la percepción del valor de la recompensa y del esfuerzo realizado para hacer el trabajo. Para las teorías del arecompensa esperada (pp 171-172).

Cabe mencionar que para conocer el grado de satisfacción laboral, es indispensable considerar la presencia de las diferencias individuales y el contexto social y cultural, el giro y tamaño de la empresa, la edad, preparación y experiencia del trabajador; además, se debe tomar en cuenta que la satisfacción en el trabajo es de índole multifactorial, por lo que diversos autores han aportado diferentes aspectos a identificar, tales como: remuneración, condiciones del área laboral, desempeño, motivación, desempeño de tareas significativas, promociones, reconocimiento, retos, responsabilidad, relación con los compañeros y con los superiores/subordinados, productividad, compensaciones, cooperación, participación en la toma de decisiones, aportación de idea nuevas, políticas, logro de objetivos y metas, compromiso, retroalimentación, entre otras.

Salgado et al (1996) investigaron la satisfacción laboral y el clima organizacional en una pequeña empresa española, utilizando como instrumento de medición de clima organizacional la Work Enviroment Scale (WES) de Moos (1974/89) y de satisfacción laboral el Job Descriptive Index (J.D.I.) de Smith, Kendall y Hulin(1969). Los resultados sugieren que, básicamente, satisfacción y clima son dos variables diferentes y que sólo se relacionan en un aspecto concreto: la percepción de las relaciones interpersonales; también indican la conveniencia de que en los estudios de diagnóstico del clima organizacional se investiguen y analicen separadamente clima y satisfacción ya que podrían tener efectos diferenciales sobre la productividad laboral (rendimiento, absentismo, rotación, accidentes, etc.).

Cuadra y Veloso (2007) realizaron un estudio de seguimiento y evaluación del Clima Organizacional, cuyos resultados se refieren a "un alto porcentaje de incremento en variables consideradas positivas en cuanto al clima laboral: satisfacción laboral, disminución de la tensión e incremento del liderazgo, lo que se vio reflejado en una baja de accidentes, de días no trabajados y aumento de la productividad".

Medición De La Satisfacción Laboral

Harpaz (1993) en Cavalcante (2004) expone que, para medir la satisfacción en el trabajo, se pueden utilizar dos métodos: los directos (como los cuestionarios, la entrevista, las escalas de diferenciadores semánticos, el método de los incidentes críticos y la comparación) y los indirectos (se basan en técnicas proyectivas en las que los individuos revelan, sin saberlo, sus actitudes).

Cavalcante (2004) enlista varios instrumentos de medición de la satisfacción en el trabajo: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-MSQ (Weiss, Dawis, England y Lofquist, 1967) basado en la teoría de adaptación al trabajo; Job Diagnostic Survey-JDS (Hackman y Oldham,1975); Job Satisfaction Survey-JSS (Spector,1985); Job Descrptive Index-JDI (Smith, Kendal y Hulin,1985); Cuestionario S4/82, S20/23 y S21/26 (Melia, Peiró y Calatayud, 1986); Job in General Scale-JIG (Ironson et al, 1989); Escala Multidimensional de Satisfacción en el Trabajo (Shouksmith, Pajo y Jepsen, 1990); Escala General de

Satisfacción (Overall Job Satisfactionfue desarrollada por Warr, Cook y Wall en 1979), además de varios cuestionarios utilizados en el ámbito educacional.

METODOLOGÍA Y RESULTADOS ESPERADOS

La metodología para esta fase del proyecto de investigación, consistió en hacer una revisión literaria sobre el tema. El diseño metodológico correspondiente para la segunda fase del estudio incluye: tipo de investigación es de campo, transversal, descriptivo; la empresa objeto de estudio pertenece a la categoría de industria metal mecánica y la muestra se calculará con la fórmula correspondiente y se seleccionará de manera aleatoria (los sujetos de la muestra será personal administrativo y, en su mayoría, operativo). Se elaborará un instrumento estructurado (o se usará el de Melia y Peiró y/o el de Warr, Cook y Wall) posterior a un estudio piloto, seleccionando los ítems que se adapten a las características de las PyMes de la región. La tercera fase estará conformada por los resultados y la interpretación de los mismos, después de tratarlos con el paquete estadístico SSPS versión 17.0, obteniendo el Coeficiente de consistencia interna de Cronbach y los Coeficientes de Contingencia de Kendal.

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Armandina Margarita Olloqui López, Docente Investigador de tiempo completo de la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración Unidad Norte de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, México. Su e-mail es: amolloqui@yahoo.com.mx

Maricela Carolina Peña Cárdenas, Docente Investigador de tiempo completo de la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración Unidad Norte de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila. Su e-mail es: penacardenas@hotmail.com Eugenia Miroslava Ramos Iruegas, cursa el último semestre de Licenciado en

OBTENCIÓN DE PRECIOS IMPLÍCITOS PARA ATRIBUTOS DETERMINANTES EN LA VALORACIÓN DE UNA VIVIENDA

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España) José M^a Caridad y Ocerin, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Nuria Ceular Villamandos, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Francisco José Rey Carmona, Universidad de Córdoba (España)

RESUMEN

La valoración de una vivienda a partir de sus principales atributos (externos e internos) resulta de interés en nuestra sociedad para numerosos colectivos. En este trabajo se plantean dos objetivos principales: en primer lugar la obtención de modelos econométricos de valoración inmobiliaria utilizando metodologías alternativas (MPH vs. RNA) y, en segundo lugar, la obtención de precios implícitos de los atributos de una propiedad efectuando una comparativa entre las dos metodologías seleccionadas.

La utilización de las redes neuronales artificiales permite un mayor ajuste al valor real de las transacciones de vivienda. Asimismo, en cuanto al cálculo de los precios implícitos o marginales obtenidos para cada uno de los atributos determinantes del valor de una vivienda se concluye que la red proporciona un valor más congruente y próximo a la realidad que el modelo tradicional hedónico. Para las estimaciones se ha dispuesto de una base de datos de 2.888 transacciones en una ciudad de tamaño medio como Córdoba (España).

PALABRAS CLAVE: precio vivienda, economía urbana, redes neuronales, metodología hedónica.

BIOGRAFIA

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España), es2nutaj@uco.es

ANÁLISIS PORMENORIZADO DE LOS DETERMINANTES INTERNOS EXPLICATIVOS DE LA ACTIVIDAD EXPORTADORA DE UNA EMPRESA

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Álvaro Espejo León, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Fernando J. Fuentes García, Universidad de Córdoba (España)

RESUMEN

Los determinantes que pueden motivar la salida de una empresa a los mercados exteriores se clasifican a priori en dos grandes grupos: externos e internos. Entre los condicionantes externos destacan el entorno general y sectorial o las políticas de promoción de cada gobierno, que afectan al grado de compromiso de las empresas con la exportación. En cuanto a los factores internos -en los que se centra este trabajoes preciso señalar que suponen una parte importante del compromiso exportador y dentro de los cuales sobresalen diversos aspectos de la empresa -como su tamaño, la calidad de sus productos, la antigüedad o su forma jurídica-. Éstos, son tan importantes como las características del gerente o las percepciones de éste sobre la actividad exportadora.

El objetivo principal de este documento se centra en identificar todas aquellas variables internas determinantes del comportamiento exportador de una empresa, así como definir la intensidad y el sentido de su influencia en dicha actuación. La clasificación seguida distingue entre tres grandes grupos de variables: las características de la empresa, las características de la dirección y las percepciones directivas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Determinantes internos, recursos y capacidades, actividad exportadora.

BIOGRAFIA

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España), es2nutaj@uco.es

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Álvaro Espejo León, Universidad de Córdoba (España) Fernando J. Fuentes García, Universidad de Córdoba (España)

RESUMEN

A través del presente trabajo se pretende ofrecer una visión sobre el pasado, presente y la previsible evolución estratégica del sector del vino en España. Para ello se analizan aquellos aspectos considerados más relevantes a la hora de estudiar la realidad de este sector: superficie cultivada, la producción, el consumo y sus tendencias, así como exportaciones e importaciones. Todo ello, encuadrado dentro del contexto mundial y de la situación de las principales potencias en dicho sector, con el objetivo de proporcionar una visión más amplia. Factores destacables -como la irrupción de vinos de nuevos orígenes (australianos, chilenos, argentinos) que compiten con bajos precios, la política de arranque de viñedos autorizada por los organismos de la Unión Europea, unido a cambios en las tendencias de los consumidores en el ámbito nacional- están afectando negativamente a un sector que combate esta situación por medio de la salida al exterior y del cuidado de la calidad del producto con el objetivo último de seguir manteniendo un importante peso específico a nivel nacional y de continuar siendo un referente mundial.

PALABRAS CLAVE: vino, exportación, sector vitivinícola, España.

BIOGRAFIA

Julia M. Núñez Tabales, Universidad de Córdoba (España), es2nutaj@uco.es

PERSONAL ADMINISTRATIVO, SATISFACCIÓN LABORAL Y VARIABLES SOCIODEMOGRÁFICAS DE UNA DEPENDENCIA DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR

Jorge Fernando Ku Cruz, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo da a conocer los grados de satisfacción laboral de una dependencia de educación superior, y determinó si existen relaciones entre la satisfacción laboral y antigüedad laboral; la edad, el nivel educativo y las diferencias entre las variables sociodemográficas (sexo y estado civil) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral y antigüedad laboral del personal administrativo y manual.

PALABRAS CLAVES: satisfacción laboral, variables sociodemográficas, antigüedad laboral.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La importancia de realizar un estudio de personal administrativo, satisfacción laboral y variables sociodemográficas de una institución de educación superior, radica que en diferentes estudios han demostrado contradicciones en relación de dichas variables con ciertas características del personal de la organización. Algunas investigaciones indican, que existe una relación negativa entre la satisfacción laboral, con el ausentismo y la rotación; otras por su parte, apoyan que la satisfacción laboral, estimulan la productividad. Sin embargo, en la actualidad no existe una base sólida para hacer afirmaciones contundentes, sobre la relación de la satisfacción laboral con suficientes características de la organización, esta situación se da tanto a nivel nacional como local.

REVISIÓN LITERATURA

Frías (2006) realizó un estudio acerca del nivel de satisfacción laboral del profesorado de una escuela pública en España. Este estudio fue de tipo cualitativo (a través de grupos de discusión y entrevista profunda) y consistió en entrevistar a los 58 académico que conformaban dicha universidad, con el fin de que describieran cómo se sentían en su trabajo. Algunos de los resultados de ésta fueron: a) que conciben a la satisfacción desde dos perspectivas una emocional (como un sentimiento o actitud) y una racional (representa la consecución de objetivos); b) que los profesores de base se sienten más satisfechos que los de contrato; c) que existe un menor nivel de satisfacción en relación a aspectos como la remuneración y el reconocimiento profesional; y d) que a pesar de las adversidades se sienten satisfechos y tiene una gran dedicación al trabajo que desempeñan.

Aguilera, Ferrer y Castellos (2005) realizaron un estudio para determinar la efectividad de las estrategias de motivación y la satisfacción laboral en una Facultad de Educación Física de Santiago de Cuba. El presente trabajo consistió en evaluar la efectividad de los acciones de mejora que se había implementado en dicha institución a partir del 2000, para ello se elaboró una encuesta de tres preguntas, la cual se aplicó a 30% (163) de los trabajadores que se encontraban laborando en ese momento. Con respecto a los resultados se encontró lo siguiente: a) "El grado en que el centro cubre las expectativas del trabajador, el 53.3% (87) se encuentran totalmente satisfechos, el 32. 4% (53) se encuentran parcialmente satisfechos y el 14.3 % (23) se siente parcialmente insatisfechos; b) en lo que respecta a la pregunta dos, "El grado de satisfacción en relación con el sentimiento de pertenencia a la facultad"; el 90.8% (148) de los trabajadores manifestaron sentirse satisfechos de pertenecer a la facultad; y c) en relación con el grado de de satisfacción que experimentan con factores como el trabajo, el trabajo en equipo, la relaciones interpersonales, el salario, el reconocimiento social, las oportunidades de superación, entre otros; el

90.8% (148) mencionó un nivel alto de satisfacción, el 5.5% (9) un nivel medio y el 3.7% (6) un nivel bajo. Por su parte Morillo (2006) realizó un estudio para determinar el nivel de satisfacción del personal académico en relación con el estilo de liderazgo del Jefe de departamento académico. La muestra del estudio estuvo conformada por el 40% del personal académico del Instituto Pedagógico de Miranda "José Manuel Siso Martínez" de Caracas Venezuela.

Los resultados encontrados fueron los siguientes: a) el personal se encuentra altamente satisfecho en relación con el estilo de liderazgo; b) en relación con las relaciones interpersonales, el personal académico se encuentra satisfecho; c) en lo referido al nivel de satisfacción con el sistema de incentivos, los académicos no se encuentran satisfechos; d) existe diferencia en el nivel de satisfacción en relación con el estilo de liderazgo entre los distintos departamento académicos que existen en la facultad; e) existe una diferencia significativa en el nivel de satisfacción en relación con las relaciones interpersonales entre los distintos departamento académicos que existen en la facultad; e) existe una diferencia significativa en el nivel de satisfacción en relación con las relaciones interpersonales entre los distintos departamento académicos que existen en la facultad, estando más satisfechos los académicos del departamento de Ciencias Naturales y Matemáticas; y f) no se existe diferencia en el nivel de satisfacción en relación con el sistema de incentivos, los académicos de todos los departamentos manifestaron estar insatisfechos con el sistema de incentivos de la escuela.

En Hermosa (2006), realizó una investigación para determinar la relación entre la satisfacción laboral y el síndrome de Burnout en profesores de educación primaria y secundaria. En México y en particular en el Estado de Yucatán, se han desarrollado diferentes estudios que tratan de establecer las variables que mejor describen la satisfacción laboral del personal de diferentes sectores económicos del estado, para ello autores como Marín (2006); Canul y Cetina (2007); Ortega (2007); Calderón (2008), entre otros, han desarrollado estudios para determinar el nivel de satisfacción laboral y su relación con variables como le edad, estado civil, el nivel educativo entre otras. A continuación se describen dichas investigaciones: Marín (2006) realizó una investigación para establecer la relación entre la satisfacción laboral, la permanencia laboral y el sexo, edad, y estado civil en una organización dedicada a la construcción de materiales, la muestra fue de 122 empleados de los cuales 105 fueron hombres y 17 mujeres. Se aplicó la "Escala de Satisfacción Laboral (ESL)" de Novelo, Mendoza y Cetina (2006). Esta investigación reveló que: a) lo hombres poseen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral que las mujeres, b) los solteros posen mayor satisfacción laboral.

Calderón (2008) realizó una investigación para establecer nivel de satisfacción laboral de 37 sujetos que laboran en una organización dedicada a la fabricación de materiales para la construcción. La muestra estuvo conformada por siete directivos y 30 no directivos, a los cuales se les aplicó la Escala de Satisfacción Laboral de Novelo, Mendoza y Cetina (2006). Su investigación reveló que : a) el personal directivo y no directivo, así como el personal de las áreas de ventas y de producción, no presentaron diferencias en el nivel de satisfacción laboral, así como en cada una de sus dimensiones (estilo de liderazgo y autonomía, promoción e incentivos, trabajo en equipo, elaciones interpersonales, ambiente físico, implicación y gestión de conflictos); b) conforme aumenta la edad, independientemente del área de trabajo, aumenta el nivel de satisfacción en relación con la "implicación; c) conforme aumenta el nivel educativo, independientemente del área de trabajo, disminuye el nivel de satisfacción laboral, así como el estilo de liderazgo y autonomía, la promoción e incentivos, el trabajo en equipo, la implicación y la gestión de conflictos y d) los solteros tienen menor satisfacción laboral y menor satisfacción en relación con las dimensiones "estilo de liderazgo y autonomía", "promoción e incentivos", "implicación" y "gestión de conflictos, que los casados.

Planteamiento Del Problema: Para la elaboración de esta investigación se realizó un análisis, donde se vio un área de oportunidad que son los empleados de una dependencia de educación superior, considerando para la solución del problema se plantea de la siguiente manera: ¿Cuál es la relación que existe entre personal administrativo, satisfacción laboral y variables sociodemográficas de una dependencia de educación superior? Autores como Marín (2006); Canul y Cetina (2007); Ortega (2007) y

Calderón, (2008), en sus respectivas investigaciones, trataron de establecer la relación entre la antigüedad o permanencia laboral con variables como sexo, edad, estado civil y nivel educativo. Sus resultados fueron los siguientes:

Marín (2006) encontró que conforme aumenta la edad aumenta la antigüedad laboral y que no existen diferencias en la antigüedad laboral por sexo y estado civil. Por su parte Canul y Cetina (2007) encontraron: a) no hay diferencia, estadísticamente significativa, entre el personal directivo y no directivo en relación con la permanencia laboral; b) no existe diferencia en la permanencia laboral entre hombres y mujeres; c) no existe diferencia en la permanencia laboral entre el nivel educativo y la permanencia laboral, lo cual indica que conforme aumenta el nivel educativo, independientemente del área de trabajo, disminuye la permanencia laboral.

Justificación del problema: Algunas empresas les dificulta demasiado prestar atención a su personal, debido a que se enfrentan en situaciones administrativas, que le llevan mucho tiempo en solucionar y descuidan la parte mas importante que es la satisfacción laboral, por esta razón los empleados buscan realizar otras actividades al no ser liderados, por eso las organizaciones buscan estrategias que les sirva de apoyo para que el trabajador se motive y se desarrolle dentro de la empresa para sentirse satisfacción laboral, ausentismo, accidentes de trabajo, permanencia laboral y productividad en sus diversas áreas, con el fin de solucionar problemas que puedan afectar directamente al personal. Buscando la forma más objetiva las variables que están influyendo de manera positiva o negativa en el comportamiento actual de la organización, aplicando planes de acción para lograr los objetivos planteados.

Variables

La presente investigación fue descriptiva y correlacional y las variables de estudio fueron: Variables independientes:

- Sexo,
- Edad,
- Estado Civil
- Nivel Educativo.

Variables dependientes:

- Satisfacción Laboral
- Antigüedad Laboral.

METODOLOGÍA

Se tiene por objetivo describir la metodología que se siguió en todo el proceso de la presente investigación, así como también una breve descripción del instrumento que se utilizó y de los sujetos que participaron en la misma.

Preguntas de Investigación

- 1. ¿Cuál es el nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal de la organización investigada?
- 2. ¿Cuál es la relación que existe entre el nivel de satisfacción laboral y la antigüedad laboral del personal de la organización investigada?

- 3. ¿Cuál es la relación entre las variables sociodemográficas (sexo, edad, estado civil y nivel
- 4. educativo) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral y con la antigüedad laboral del personal administrativo y manual de la organización investigada?

Objetivo General: El objetivo del presente estudio fue explorar, describir y comparar el nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal administrativo y manual de la organización investigada, así como, la relación de dicho nivel con la antigüedad laboral y con las características sociodemográficas de dichos empleados.

Objetivos Específicos

- 1. Determinar el nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal administrativo y manual de la organización investigada.
- 2. Establecer la relación de la antigüedad laboral con el nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal administrativo y manual de la organización investigada.
- 3. Establecer la relación de las variable sociodemográficas (sexo, edad, estado civil, y nivel educativo) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral con la antigüedad laboral del personal administrativo y manual de la organización investigada.

<u>Hipótesis</u>

Hipótesis de Trabajo En la medida que el personal de la organización investigada tenga un mayor nivel de satisfacción laboral, su antigüedad laboral será mayor.

Hipótesis estadísticas: En el caso de la pregunta 1 no se presenta hipótesis estadística descriptiva.

 H_1 : No existe correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre el nivel de satisfacción laboral y la antigüedad laboral.

 H_2 : No existe correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre las variables sociodemográficas (edad y nivel educativo) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral y con la antigüedad laboral.

 H_3 : No existe diferencia, estadísticamente significativa entre las variables sociodemográficas (sexo y estado civil) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral y con la antigüedad laboral.

Muestra: La muestra de esta investigación estuvo conformada por 33 sujetos, de los cuales 45% (15) son hombres y 55% (18) son mujeres. El rango de edad y antigüedad laboral oscila entre los 28 y 53 años, y de 0 hasta 35 años respectivamente. El proceso para obtener la muestra fue intencional, por cuotas y con el propósito de que las muestras cubran las características de los estratos correspondientes a las poblaciones respectivas, por lo que la muestra fue no probabilística.

Variables: La presente investigación no tiene por objetivo establecer relaciones de causalidad, por este motivo no se establecieron en este estudio variables dependiente e independientes. Las variables atributivas consideradas fueron: Sexo, Edad, Estado Civil y Nivel Educativo, así también las variables concepto: Satisfacción Laboral y Antigüedad Laboral.

Instrumento: El instrumento de medición que se utilizó fue la "Escala de Satisfacción Laboral-Universidad (ESL-U)" de Novelo, Mendoza, Cetina, Iuit y Canul (2007), tipo Likert, que se construyó ex

profeso para el estudio en el que se incluyó a la organización "Y"; dicha escala estuvo formada por 65 reactivos distribuidos en 7 dimensiones; la confiabilidad total de la escala es de .956 y su varianza total explicada es del 58.50%; la confiabilidad y la varianza de cada una de las dimensiones son: "Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía" .958 y 36.11%, "Atención Integral al Personal" .929 y 7.02%, "Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo" .912 y 4.79%, "Ambiente Físico" .780 y 3.45%, "Sueldo y Prestaciones" .817 y 2.57%, "Promociones" .809 y 2.38% e "Identidad" .692 y 2.18%.

Tipo de estudio y diseño de investigación.

Esta investigación fue un estudio descriptivo con diseño de investigación correlacional, porque es una investigación dirigida a describir el nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal de la organización investigada, a través de variables organizacionales y sociodemográficas en una estructura social real. El enfoque es con una metodología cuantitativa.

Análisis estadístico.

Para dar respuesta a las preguntas e hipótesis de investigación se realizaron los siguientes análisis estadísticos:

- a) Frecuencia
- b) Medidas de tendencia central y de dispersión
- c) Correlaciones (Producto Momento de Pearson)
- d) Medias (Prueba *t* con muestras independientes).
- Todos los análisis estadísticos se realizaron a través del SPSS 12.

Como punto final es importante recalcar la importancia de este capítulo, al ser él que proporciona los lineamientos a seguir para el estudio de las variables de una manera objetiva y lo más apegado posible a la realidad.

RESULTADOS

Se plasmó los datos de esta investigación, por medio de tablas donde se presente los resultados obtenidos a través del procesamiento estadístico con el SPSS, mencionando las pruebas utilizadas, los grados de libertad, su significatividad, e información relevante.

Nivel de satisfacción laboral del personal de la organización investigada.

Tabla 1: Calificaciones de la Escala de Satisfacción Laboral del personal

		x	DE
Satisfacción Laboral		3.7	.750
1.	Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía	3.8	.826
2. 3.	Atención Integral al Personal Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo	3.3 3.8	.973 .790
4.	Ambiente Físico	4.1	.908
5.	Sueldos y Prestaciones	3.6	1.01
6.	Promociones	3.0	1.22
7.	Identidad	4.6	.517

Fuente: elaboración propia

El personal de la organización investigada, tiene satisfacción alta en relación con el Ambiente Físico y la Identidad; una satisfacción medianamente alta en relación con la Satisfacción Laboral, el Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía, la Atención Integral al Personal, las Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo y los Sueldos y Prestaciones; y una satisfacción entre medianamente baja y medianamente alta en relación con las Promociones. Relación entre el nivel de satisfacción y la antigüedad laboral del personal de la organización investigada"

Tabla 2: Coeficiente de correlación de la satisfacción laboral con la antigüedad laboral

		Antigüedad Laboral
Satis	facción Laboral	071
1.	Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía	031
2. 3.	Atención Integral al Personal Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo	078 118
4.	Ambiente Físico	.091
5.	Sueldos y Prestaciones	.105
6.	Promociones	087
7.	Identidad	099

Fuente: elaboración propia

No existe correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre la Satisfacción Laboral y cada una de sus dimensiones con la antigüedad laboral Relación entre las variables sociodemográficas (edad y nivel educativo) con el nivel de satisfacción laboral y la antigüedad laboral.

Tabla 3: Coeficiente de correlación de la satisfacción laboral con la edad y el nivel educativo

		Edad	Nivel Educativo
Sati	facción Laboral	029	.209
1.	Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía	099	.184
2.	Atención Integral al Personal	055	.069
3.	Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo	006	.110
4.	Ambiente Físico	.084	018
5.	Sueldos y Prestaciones	.109	.158
6.	Promociones	061	.066
7.	Identidad	.015	.155

Fuente: elaboración propia

No existe correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre la Satisfacción Laboral y cada una de sus dimensiones con la edad y el nivel educativo.

CONCLUSIONES

En la figura 1 aparecen todos los valores t obtenidos para la correlación entre satisfacción y antigüedad laborales

Como se puede observar en a figura 1, todos los valores t calculados se encuentran en la zona de no rechazo por ser mayores a -1.697 y menores a 1.697, valor teórico de t para 31 grados de libertad y 5% de significancia (Mc Daniel y Gates, 2005 p. A-38), por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza

que no existe una relación entre la satisfacción y la antigüedad laborales. En la figura 2 aparecen todos los valores t obtenidos para la correlación entre satisfacción laboral y edad

Figura 1: Valores t para correlación entre indicadores de satisfacción y antigüedad laborales

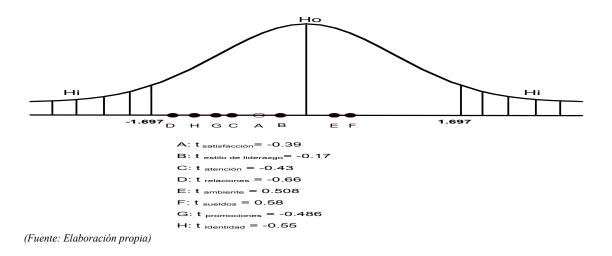
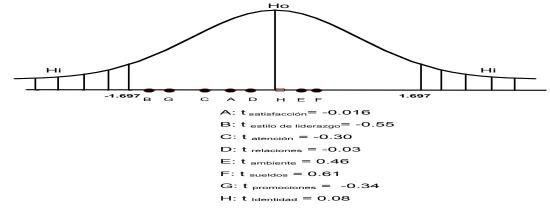


Figura 2: Valores t para satisfacción laboral y edad (Fuente:



(Fuente: Elaboración propia)

Como se puede observar en la figura 2, todos los valores t calculados se encuentran en la zona de no rechazo por ser mayores a -1.697 y menores a 1.697 valor teórico de t para 31 grados de libertad y $\alpha = 5\%$ (Mc Daniel y Gates, 2005 p. A-38), por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza que no existe una relación entre la satisfacción laboral y la edad.

El personal de la organización investigada, tiene satisfacción alta en relación con el Ambiente Físico y la Identidad; una satisfacción medianamente alta en relación con la Satisfacción Laboral, el Estilo de Liderazgo y Autonomía, la Atención Integral al Personal, las Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo y los Sueldos y Prestaciones; y una satisfacción entre medianamente baja y medianamente alta en relación con las Promociones. Lo anterior concuerda con Robbins (2004) cuando propone que para que el trabajador se sienta satisfecho es importante que se le proporcionen trabajos interesantes, recompensas justas y equitativas, condiciones físicas adecuadas y buenas relaciones con los compañeros de trabajo.

Se encontró que conforme aumenta la antigüedad laboral aumenta el nivel de satisfacción en relación con el Ambiente Físico. Estos resultados no concuerdan con lo encontrado por Marín (2006), Canul y Cetina (2007), Ortega (2007) y Calderón (2008) quienes no encontrón correlación entre el nivel de satisfacción laboral y la antigüedad laboral. Se encontró que conforme aumenta la edad aumenta el nivel de satisfacción en relación con: las Relaciones Interpersonales y Trabajo en Equipo, el Ambiente Físico y las Promociones. Estos resultados concuerda con lo encontrado por varios autores como Chale y Galaz (2003), quienes proponen que la satisfacción laboral aumenta con la edad, la más baja satisfacción laboral corresponde al personal más joven, ya que éstos desean obtener una realización personal más completa.

No se encontró correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre la Satisfacción Laboral y cada una de sus dimensiones con el nivel educativo. Este resultado puede explicarse mediante la teoría Vroom (1964, en Werther y Davis 2001), quien propone que si los individuos están satisfechos con su trabajo al grado que les permita obtener lo que desean; su desempeño será eficiente siempre y cuando los conduzca a la satisfacción de sus necesidades, sin importar el grado académico que poseen.

No se encontró diferencias, estadísticamente significativas, entre el nivel de satisfacción laboral y cada una de sus dimensiones con el sexo. Lo encontrado no concuerda con los estudios de Bryant (2002, en Canul y Cetina, 2007) y Marín (2006), el primero encontró que las mujeres poseen mayor satisfacción laboral que los hombres y la segunda encontró que los hombre poseen nivel mayor de satisfacción laboral que las mujeres. Se encontró que los casados tienen un mayor nivel de satisfacción en relación con los Sueldos y Prestaciones, que los solteros, esto contrasta con lo encontrado por Gottlieb, Kelloway y Martín-Matthews (1996, en Parra y Paravic, 2002) y Beatty (1996, en Parra y Paravic, 2002) quienes proponen que la familia (pareja e hijos) juega un papel importante para la consecución de la satisfacción laboral.

Se determinó que no existe correlación, estadísticamente significativa, entre la Satisfacción Laboral y cada una de sus dimensiones con la antigüedad laboral. En general, los trabajadores de más de 8 años de antigüedad se muestran más satisfechos que los que llevan menos años. Los de mayor antigüedad están menos satisfechos con condiciones físicas, con los compañeros y en la relación con el jefe más inmediato. Los de menor antigüedad están menos satisfechos con reconocimiento de una buena labor, cantidad de responsabilidad, salario, oportunidad para emplear sus capacidades, relaciones sociales entre dirección y empleados, oportunidad para promocionar, forma en que se dirige la sección, atención que se le presta a sus sugerencias, satisfacción en el horario, las diferentes actividades que realiza en su trabajo y en la estabilidad del empleo. Según la teoría del ajuste laboral cabe esperar una relación positiva entre antigüedad y satisfacción laboral; al igual que se observa en el estudio de Marín, L. (1981) donde demostró que los mayores niveles de satisfacción se alcanzan en relación a algunas características del puesto como: la relación con los compañeros, el trato con los subordinados y el tipo de salario. En nuestros resultados si encontramos que los mayores niveles de satisfacción, sobre todo en los factores internos se dan en los trabajadores de mayor antigüedad, pero los datos no son estadísticamente significativos. Se encontró que a menor nivel educativo mayor antigüedad laboral.

Estos resultados contrastan con los obtenidos por Marín (2006) y Calderón (2008) quienes no encontraron relación entre el nivel educativo y la antigüedad laboral. Este aspecto puede ser explicado por el tipo de tarea que desempeñan el personal, debido al personal con mayor nivel educativo espera que se le asignen tareas que sean más desafiante y enriquecedora, sin embargo muchas veces la tarea resulta rutinaria y alienante.No existen diferencias entre hombre y mujeres en relación con la antigüedad laboral. Este resultado concuerda con lo encontrado en las investigaciones de Clark (1997, en Artacho, et al., 2007), Marín (2006), Canul y Cetina (2007) y Calderón (2008).

Por último, cabe recordar los resultados de la investigación de Novelo (2003) acerca de las relaciones de las variables sociodemográficas con la antigüedad o permanencia laboral: la edad correlaciona

positivamente con la antigüedad laboral, así como, los operarios casados tienen mayor antigüedad laboral en la maquiladora que los operarios solteros; lo anterior es de esperarse ya que esas variables tienen como atributo el tiempo (la edad y la antigüedad laboral avanzan simultáneamente; el casarse y tener hijos es algo que cultural y socialmente transcurren sucesivamente conforme avanza determinado período de tiempo y por ende la edad).

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IDENTIFICACIÓN DE PERFILES ESTRATÉGICOS EXITOSOS PARA LA CONTINUIDAD DE NEGOCIOS

José Antonio Tello Ávila, Universidad de Talca Carolina González Vargas, Universidad de Talca

RESUMEN

La capacidad de las empresas para superar eventos disruptivos es considerada una condición de supervivencia. Contar con esta capacidad se ha vuelto una necesidad imperiosa, más aun si se consideran los desastres naturales – terremotos y tsunamis – ocurridos en los últimos 14 meses, los que han diezmado tres naciones: Haití (Ene-2010), Chile (Feb-2010) y Japón (Mar-2011). La capacidad de las empresas para reaccionar y superar eventos disruptivos se ha investigado profusamente durante la última década, acuñando el concepto de resiliencia empresarial. La presente investigación tiene por objeto identificar un perfil de empresa capaz de sobreponerse a eventos disruptivos de gran magnitud, a partir de modelos teóricos de resiliencia empresarial, posteriormente validados por la experiencia de aquellas empresas chilenas que fueron capaces de sobreponerse al terremoto del 27 de febrero de 2010. Los resultados obtenidos muestran, con un 84% de confiabilidad, que existen factores claves de resiliencia empresarial que configuran un perfil exitoso, el cual puede ser introducido en el proceso de planificación estratégica o, considerar éstos factores como parte de sus políticas o procedimientos, de tal manera de asegurar la continuidad de negocios posterior a un evento disruptivo de gran magnitud.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Matriz de vulnerabilidad, evento disruptivo, riesgo para la continuidad de negocios, resiliencia empresarial.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En las últimas décadas han tenido auge los estudios relacionados con la continuidad del negocio y la capacidad resiliente de las empresas. Autores como Gary Hamel y Yossi Sheffi han desarrollado nuevas teorías sobre el enfoque estratégico de las empresas, cambiando el enfoque tradicional centrado en el éxito. Estos nuevos planteamientos están orientados a la comprensión de las razones y factores que explican la perduración de las empresa en el tiempo a pesar de las amenazas externas como pandemias, ataques terroristas, interrupciones en los servicios de electricidad, virus y amenazas electrónicas, huracanes, tsunamis, etc. que han hecho de los negocios centros vulnerables. Paralelamente varias organizaciones como el Instituto de Continuidad de Negocio (Business Continuity Institute) fundado en 1994, desarrollan investigaciones sobre los factores que determinan la capacidad de las empresas de sobreponerse a eventos disruptivos y la forma en que las empresas pueden construir organizaciones fuertes capaces de sobreponerse a estos eventos. Una de las consecuencia del terremoto que afectó a la zona central de Chile el 27 de febrero del presente año y que remeció la realidad social y económica de las regiones Séptima y Octava es la importancia que tienen los estudios sobre resiliencia empresarial que han planteado la interrogante de cuán preparadas están realmente las empresas para sobreponerse a eventos disruptivos que atenten contra la supervivencia de los negocios.

La presente investigación tiene como propósito desarrollar un modelo que permita identificar perfiles resilientes, basándonos en los estudios sobre la continuidad del negocio, la resiliencia empresarial, y en la hipótesis del éxito estratégico planteada por Ansoff en 1985. Esta última plantea que el éxito de las empresas está determinado por la relación entre la percepción que la empresa tiene de su entorno, su respuesta estratégica para afrontar los cambios y los recursos organizacionales. El modelo teórico desarrollado plantea que éxito en la continuidad del negocio como el resultado de la percepción que la empresa posee de su entorno, la agresividad de sus respuestas estratégicas, la disposición de sus recursos

organizacionales y su capacidad resiliente. Los resultados obtenidos muestran que para que una empresa logre sobreponerse a un evento disruptivo, como el pasado terremoto, debe tener una respuesta estratégica congruente con los cambios en su entorno, poseer los recursos suficientes para apoyar dichas medidas estratégicas y tener un grado de preparación que le permita enfrentar las posibles amenazas que pudieran significar el término del negocio.

La metodología utilizada consistió en una revisión bibliográfica de los conceptos relacionados con la Hipótesis de Ansoff y los conceptos de continuidad del negocio y resiliencia, en base a los cuales se construyó un modelo teórico. Una vez identificadas las variables se procedió a construir el instrumento para la recolección de datos, constituido por 63 variables, y que fue aplicado a una muestra de empresa de la séptima región del Maule. El análisis de los datos recolectados indica que existe una correlación entre la percepción del entorno, la respuesta estratégica, los recursos y la resiliencia estratégicos de éxito en la continuidad del negocio que se ajustan al modelo planteado. Los resultados obtenidos cuentan con un índice de confiabilidad del 0.830, lo que permite concluir que el modelo desarrollado permite afirmar que la continuidad del negocio está relacionada con la forma en que la empresa percibe su entorno, incluyendo su competencia, sus clientes y la oferta de mercado que realizan; la agresividad con la que compiten, la forma en que adaptan sus estrategias de acuerdo con el entorno y las demandas del mercado; los recursos organizacionales, especialmente los recursos intangibles como la experiencia y habilidades de sus trabajadores y su capacidad resiliente, determinada por el grado de conocimiento de amenazas y el grado de preparación interna que posee la organización y los trabajadores para enfrentar situaciones que pudieran implicar el termino del negocio.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La conceptualización del entorno permite determinar el escenario en el cual se plantea la empresa, reconocer los factores directos e indirectos que pueden impactar en los resultados futuros y por lo tanto señalar el posible rumbo que debiera seguir la organización para lograr las metas y resultados esperados. Duncan (1972) señala que es posible clasificar el entorno de una organización en entorno interno y entorno externo dependiendo de los factores físicos y sociales que lo compongan y su pertenencia a los límites de la organización o la toma de decisiones de la misma. El entorno interno corresponde a los elementos personales característicos de cada entidad, aquellos elementos que son inimitables por otras compañías dado que se desarrollan a partir de la experiencia y las relaciones inter-organizacionales. Parte de estos elementos, tales como las habilidades y capacidades, son reconocidas por otros autores como recursos estratégicos, los cuales serán revisados más adelante.

Por otro lado, Robbins & Coulter (2005) se enfocan en el entorno externo y señalan que el entorno o ambiente externo se refiere a "las fuerzas e instituciones fuera de la organización que pueden influir en su desempeño", es decir, reconoce que las empresas se situan dentro de un entorno como un participante y por lo tanto, estan sujetas a su influencia. En el Modelo de las cinco fuerzas de la industria (Porter, 2002) el autor señala que el resultado financiero de una empresa está determinado por la estructura de la industria a la que pertenece, siendo el objetivo de las organizaciones es desarrollar una estrategia que les permitan competir en esta industria, que se adapte a sus puntos fuertes y que les permitan obtener resultados superiores a su competencia. La definición del entorno y sus elementos es fundamental al momento de analizar una empresa y su desempeño, sin embargo la percepción o conceptualización del una misma organización. Como Gordon (1997) señala que "La percepción suele hacer que diferentes personas tengan diferentes interpretaciones o visiones, en ocasiones incluso contradictorias de un hecho o persona (...) Muchas veces, los administradores y subalternos, compañeros o supervisores ven y describen la misma situación de una manera diferente".

La lógica dominante (Phahalad & Bettis, 1986) corresponde a la forma en que los directores conceptualizan la empresa y toman decisiones sobre la asignación de los recursos críticos, ya sea en las tecnologías, en desarrollo de productos, distribución, publicidad o en la gestión de los recursos humanos. La definición y el origen de las estrategias ha sido un punto de discusión entre diversos autores, algunos como Henderson relacionan el concepto de estrategia con el de competencia, mientras que otros como Ohmae (1988) la relacionan con el concepto de valor.

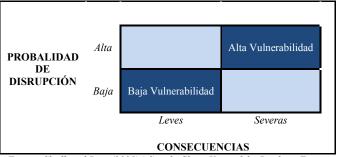
Sin embargo, la mayor discrepancia ha surgido en cuanto al proceso de formulación de las mismas. Para algunos autores las estrategias corresponden a un proceso de planeación deliberado y realizado con anticipación; mientras que para otros autores, como Mintzberg (1987), las estrategias pueden emerger como repuestas a los cambios del entorno sin existir, necesariamente, una estrategia formulada con antelación. Hill & Jones (2005) destacan esta habilidad de generar diversas rentas a partir de los recursos y señalan que los recursos son el capital de la organización de factores financieros, físicos, social, humano, tecnológico y organizativo que permite crear un valor para sus clientes. Hunt (2000) afirma que un recursos es cualquier entidad, tangible o intangible, a disponsicion de la empresa que le permite productir de manera eficiente y/o eficaz en un mercado, produciendo lo que tiene valor para un segmento de mercado. En este sentido, los recursos son los elementos necesarios para la producción, siendo su combinación la única diferencia entre unas organizaciones y otras. Sin embargo, aún cuando el objetivo fundamental de recursos es permitir la producción o venta de los elementos de la organización, para algunos autores como Hunt (2000), Hill & Jones (2005) y Hunt & Davis (2008) los recursos pueden utlizarse con un doble propósito: Por una parte la producción y venta de productos o servicios y por otra, la generación de ventajas competitivas que le proporcionen a la empresa mayores resultados financieros. Esto último a través de la combinación y mantención de recursos estratégicos únicos.

Según Hunt & Davis (2008) cada organización posee recursos que son únicos, tales como el conocimiento de sus empleados, la eficiencia de los procesos u otros desarrollados al interior de la propia organización; los cuales por sus caracteristicas no son adquiribles o copiables fácilmente, transformándolos en recursos inmóviles y significativamente distintos dentro de la misma industria, convirtiendose en fuentes de ventajas competifivas de largo plazo. Por otro lado, autores como Milliken (1990), Narayan (1993); Kraatz & Zajac (2001) y Thompson & Strickland (2004) indican que los recursos no solo se relacionan con la estrategia y la forma de objeter ventajas competitivas. De acuerdo con estos autores los recursos pueden afectar la forma en que las organizaciones perciben el entorno que les rodea y la forma en que estas reaccionan estratégicamente. Milliken (1990) y Kraatz & Zajac (2001) postulan que la posesion de recursos por parte de una empresa puede afectar su percepción del entorno, señando que una empresa que cuente con un sufciente respaldo en cuanto a recursos percibirá un entorno menos incierto que una empresa que dentro del mismo entorno, posea una menor cantidad de recursos.

La resiliencia en el ámbito empresarial refiere a la capacidad de las empresas para sobreponerse a eventos catastróficos y continuar operando. Esta capacidad se desarrolla mediante el conocimiento de las amenazas que pudieran afectar la continuidad del negocio y el desarrollo de planes de preparación para enfrentarlos. Hamel & Välikangas (2003) afirman que la supervivencia de las empresas se basa en su capacidad para reinventar los modelos de negocio según a como cambien las condiciones en el entorno, es lo que han definido como resiliencia empresarial. Una organización resiliente es capaz de prosperar en tiempos turbulentos gracias a su capacidad de adaptación, a su flexibilidad organizativa y a su anticipación al futuro. No se trata sólo de que sea capaz de de responder y sobreponerse a una crisis única o salir delante después de un revés, se trata de su capacidad para anticipar y ajustarse continuamente a los cambios profundos, a las tendencias que pueden deteriorar la rentabilidad del negocio. Sheffi (2005) define la resiliencia como una capacidad de reacción y superación, utiliza las nociones originales del concepto, explicando que así como para la ciencia la resiliencia representa la habilidad de un material para lograr recuperar su forma original luego de ser deformado; en el ámbito empresarial la resiliencia compañías para retornar a su nivel de rendimiento normal (producción,

servicio, indicadores financieros, etc.) luego de una disrupción. De acuerdo con Sheffi y Rice (2005) la probabilidad de ocurrencia de un evento combinada con el nivel de impacto que podría tener al interior de la empresa determina el grado de vulnerabilidad de la empresa ante dicho evento. Tal como se ilustra en la Figura 1, los eventos con bajas consecuencias aún cuando sean más probables representan un nivel bajo de vulnerabilidad. Son parte del alcance de la administración de operaciones diarias. Por otro lado, aquellos que a pesar de su baja probabilidad de suceder podrían generar graves consecuencias deben ser respondidos y considerados en un plan que albergue posibles respuestas para enfrentarlos, respuestas que van más allá de la administración diaria. El objetivo principal de una organización resiliente es lograr un trauma cero, en el cual la mutación de la organización se ajuste constantemente a las oportunidades emergentes y las tendencias incipientes. Para lograr esto la empresa debe construir en miras a su futuro más que defenderse de su pasado, evitando cambios revolucionarios que generen caos, enfocándose en cambios rápidos y graduales, cambios para los cuales la empresa esté preparada y dispuesta (Hamel y Välikangas).

Figura 1: Matriz de Vulnerabilidad



Fuente: Sheffi and Rice (2005)A Supply Chain View of the Resilient Enterprice.

Mallak (1998) señala que para poner en marcha la resiliencia la empresa necesita aprender a ser resiliente, proporcionando las herramientas y capacidades a quienes conforman la organización. Afirma que los trabajadores son piezas claves dentro de la organización resiliente, pues llevarán a cabo decisiones en momentos críticos, siendo necesaria un clara cultura que dicte las directrices para tomar decisiones basadas en los principios y objetivos de la misma, más allá de sus decisiones personales, además cuando se conforman grupos de trabajo estos permiten manejar una crisis aun cuando se ausente uno o más miembros, proporcionado una visión global de la situación, determinada por la percepción individual de cada miembro del equipo. La organización resiliente debe engrandecer la función de los empleados y las decisiones que estos pueden tomar, de forma de que aprendan del reto diario de tomar decisiones y puedan implementar esa habilidad frente a un citación critica que atente contra la continuidad de la empresa; y fomentar la comunicación entre los empleados a fin de que la información fluya, permitiendo una respuesta más rápida y eficiente.

Además agrega que es necesario que los individuos tengan acceso a los recursos externos necesarios para superar un conflicto. Esta posecion de los recursos no solo impacta en la forma en que son percibidas las amenzas sino que además influencia la conducta que se adoptará frente a los actuales y futuros conflictos. Identificar y evaluar el riesgo de interrupción de negocios y medir la forma de planificar para la recuperación dependerá de una comprensión completa de cómo opera la empresa. Las empresas deben examinar las áreas potenciales de riesgo, la probabilidad de ocurrencia de un evento, su nivel potencial de perturbación, el probable impacto para los empleados y el impacto financiero de las operaciones interrumpidas. (Melton, A. and Trahan, J.2009). Sheffi (2005) resume el concepto de análisis de impacto o análisis de vulnerabilidad de que eso ocurra? ¿Qué consecuencias habría si ocurriera? En las respuestas a estas preguntas la empresa reconocerá lo que idéntica como importante y urgente y le dará un

primer foco para organizar un plan de continuidad. Barbecho (2009) centra su análisis en los efectos de la disrupción-clasificación señalando que será una disrupción o desastre cuando amenace o rompa con las operaciones o servicios críticos del negocio o por suficiente tiempo como para afectar financieramente a la compañía que pudiera afecta la continuidad del negocio. Mientras que si este evento suspende el flujo normal en las operaciones normales durante un periodo de tiempo relativamente corto, sólo se definiría como una interrupción. Esta diferencia, implica también una diferencia en las respuestas a realizar, sin embargo es importante mencionar que no se debe descuidar una interrupción por mínima q esta sea, pues su presentación constante mermará la continuidad del negocio, ya sea en el mediano o largo plazo. Como expone Zechariah (2010) en su artículo "A taxonomy of Business Continuity Organisations", las organizaciones presentan diferentes estructuras para la continuidad del negocio de acuerdo a los requerimientos de la compañía y el entendimiento de la disciplina de la continuidad del negocio; cada una de estas estructuras implica una serie de roles y responsabilidades que difieren entre una organización y otra. Sin embargo, este autor afirma que se pueden identificar tres tipos de "organizaciones en continuidad de negocios" de acuerdo al nivel de integración entre la continuidad del negocio y la administración de las estrategias corporativas, y destaca la influencia de su modelo de administración de la continuidad del negocio en relación a la resiliencia, y a su vez, su rendimiento a largo plazo. Estas categorías están basadas también en los tres niveles estructurales que frecuentemente repoden ante incidentes los cuales son referidos como, estratégico, táctico y operacional. Los tres tipos de organizaciones de continuidad de negocio son:

- Organización basada en procesos: Este tipo de organizaciones administra la continuidad del negocio a nivel de funciones especializadas particulares, generalmente TI, seguridad y servicio corporativos. En este tipo de organizaciones la anticipación y los planes son desarrolladlos para posibles eventualidades que puedan afectar estas áreas, limitando la participación a la continuidad a estas áreas. El proceso es visto como un requerimiento externo regulatorio necesario para asegurar las operaciones.
- Organizaciones con Gestión de la Continuidad del Negocio: Este tipo de organizaciones establece la administración de la continuidad de negocio basado en las buenas prácticas y estándares de la industria. A diferencia del tipo anterior, en esta organización la ACN está integrada a través de los distintos niveles de operaciones y distintas áreas, tales como recursos humanos, seguridad, TI, administración del riego, etc. En este tipo la cultura de las organizaciones incluyen la continuidad del negocio como algo fundamental, donde los trabajadores son incorporados en la implementación de las estratégicas de continuidad del negocio
- Organización estratégicamente resiliente: El principio central de las estrategias estratégicamente resilientes se basa en su habilidad para generar ventajas competitivas a través de la integración de la ACN en su proceso de administración estratégica general. Los elementos de la continuidad del negocio forman parte de los altos niveles de planificación, y tienen la habilidad de ayudar a la organización a realizar sus objetivos estratégicos. La resiliencia les ayuda a asegura la continuidad de sus operaciones a fin de cumplir con sus clientes y sus accionistas, pero además la ACN le permite identificar amenazas y oportunidades presentes en el entorno de la compañía.

La estructura para la continuidad del negocio que adopte cada organización dependerá de la comprensión de su negocio, del análisis de cada uno de los elementos operacionales de la compañía. Incluyendo, entre otros, la revisión de la visión y misión, los productos y servicios que se proporciona altos clientes, las estrategias de crecimiento, las perspectivas del mercado a futuro, los terceros involucrados en sus procesos, la cadena de valor y las amenazas y riesgos que pueden afectar a cada uno de estos. (Forero & Renata; 2006). El objetivo es lograr la incorporación y sincretismo de la administración para la continuidad del negocio con el proceso general de administración de la empresa, incorporándolo como un factor capaz de genera una ventaja competitiva. El enfoque de administración para la continuidad del

negocio cambia a medida que pasa el tiempo. De acuerdo a la experiencia y conociendo de la empresa y los beneficios de la administración de continuidad del negocio la empresas tienden a expandir su alcancen dentro de la organización. Lograr una organización resiliente requiere comunicación entre los distintos niveles de la empresa y la habilidad para delegar responsabilidades, lo cual solo se construye con el paso del tiempo y el conocimiento que ello implica.

METODOLOGIA

Este trabajo se ha desarrollado en el marco de una investigación empírica enfocada a la comprobación de la hipótesis según la cual "El éxito en la continuidad del negocio está determinado por la percepción del entorno de la organización, la acometividad de la respuesta estratégica, la disposición de los recursos y capacidades de la empresa y su habilidad resiliente".

Esta hipótesis tiene sus bases en la hipótesis del éxito estratégico (Ansoff 1990) y se fundamenta en la relación de cuatro macro variables: Percepción del entorno, acometividad estratégica, disposición de los recursos y resiliencia empresarial. De acuerdo con el modelo presentado, la forma en que exista una relación reciproca entre estas variables determinará las posibilidades de éxito de la empresa. Estas macro variables están compuestas a su vez por variables específicas que permiten un mayor nivel de análisis sobre las macro variables relacionadas con las empresas sometidas a estudio, permitiendo de esta manera la determinación de los perfiles estratégicos de estas organizaciones.

De acuerdo con Tello (2004), las variables pueden ser definidas de acuerdo a los modelos de Ansoff (1990), Hunt (1997) y Sheffi (2005) de forma tal de que permitan realizar un diagnostico estratégico de las empresas de acuerdo a las percepciones y tendencias. Con el fin de recolectar la información necesaria para desarrollar esta investigación se elaboró un cuestionario para el diagnostico estratégico de las empresas seleccionadas en la muestra, el cual incluyo estas cuatro macro variables en 56 preguntas en escala likert de 5 niveles, además de 5 variables demográficas. El diagnostico estratégico es un enfoque sistemático que permite diagnosticar los retos ambientales futuros que enfrentarán las empresas, de acuerdo a un estudio de niveles de turbulencia; e identificar las respuestas estratégica y la respuesta de la organización. En otras palabras permite determinar los cambios que la empresa debe realizar en su estrategia y en su capacidad interna para asegura su éxito en un ambiente futuro. (Ansoff 1990). El procedimiento de diagnóstico deriva de la hipótesis del éxito estratégico, planteada y validada empíricamente por Ansoff, quien declara que el potencial de rendimiento de una empresa es el óptimo cuando se cumplen las tres condiciones siguientes:

- 1. La acometividad del comportamiento estratégico de la empresa concuerda con la turbulencia de su entorno.
- 2. La respuesta de la capacidad de la empresa está de acuerdo con la acometividad de su estratégica.
- 3. Los componentes de la capacidad de la empresa deben apoyarse mutuamente.

De acuerdo a lo planteado por el autor, una empresa que cumpla con estas tres condiciones presentará un perfil estratégico como el que se ilustra en la Figura 2 en el cual presenta una alienación entre la turbulencia del entorno, la acometividad de la empresa y capacidad de la empresa. La línea punteada representa el perfil de la empresa, el cual se puede observar una concordancia entre el nivel de turbulencia del entorno percibido, la acometividad estratégica implementada y la capacidad de respuesta de la empresa. Independiente del nivel en que se encuentre, un perfil será exitoso mientras se presente una concordancia entre estas tres condiciones. Para el desarrollo de esta investigación se ha agregado una cuarta condición a la hipótesis del éxito, que señala que el logro y la conservación de rendimientos

óptimos por parte de una empresa dependen de su capacidad para prepararse y sobreponerse ante situaciones disruptivas que pueden afectar su continuidad, lo que se ha definido como la macro variable "Resiliencia Empresarial".

Figura 2: Perfil Estratégico Exitoso según Ansoff

	1	2	3	4	5
Turbulencia del					
Entorno	1	1	I	i.	
Acometividad					Ž
Estrategica Capacidad de	1		I	1	
respuesta					

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir del modelo de Ansoff.

La hipótesis del éxito de Ansoff junto con la cuarta condición planteada para este estudio se han traducido en cuatro dimensiones de estudio: Percepción del entorno, recursos actuales, orientación estratégica y resiliencia empresarial.

Figura 3: Perfil Estratégico para la continuidad del Negocio

	1	2	3	4	5
Turbulencia del					
Entorno Acometividad					
Estratégica Capacidad de					
resnuesta Resiliencia					
amprocarial					

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir del Modelo de Ansoff

El éxito de una empresa dependerá de la relación entre estas variables, siendo el óptimo una relación como la indicada en la Figura 3; donde el nivel de acometividad estratégica, la capacidad de respuesta y la capacidad de resiliencia están acorde al nivel de turbulencia determinado en el entorno. La inclusión de esta cuarta variable al modelo busca justificar la capacidad de permanencia en el tiempo de las empresas, más allá de sus resultados actuales. Implica que una empresa constantemente preparada será capaz de tener éxito y además de asegurarlo a pesar de las circunstancias disruptivas que le amenacen.

Para efectos prácticos de esta investigación se ha determinado que el perfil óptimo está representado por una línea perfecta, en el cual cada punto representa una de las variables medidas; de igual modo, y considerando como base el estudio de Tello (2004) en la identificación de perfiles estratégicos, se han traducido las dimensiones antes mencionadas a términos conocidos, de esta forma la respuesta estratégica corresponde a los recursos actuales y la acometividad corresponde al nivel de agresividad estratégica. La teoría de la competencia basada en recursos establece que existe una ventaja comparativa en recursos cuando un tipo de recurso de la empresa permite producir una oferta que (1) es percibido por algún o algunos segmentos del mercado como que posee un mayor valor y/o (2) permite producir a menores costos (Hunt 1997). Estos recursos generan una ventaja por sobre los competidores y por lo tanto, no son comunes, fácilmente adquiribles o imitables por el resto de las empresas, pues si lo fuera no aportaría una ventaja para quienes lo poseen.

De acuerdo con Hunt (1997) estos recursos se pueden clasificar en:

- Financieros (reservas de efectivo, acceso a mercados financieros, etc.)
- Físicos (plantas, materias primas, equipos, etc)

- Legales (marcas, licencias, etc.)
- Humanos (el conocimiento y habilidades de cada empleado por ejemplo)
- Organizacionales (competencias, controles, rutinas y cultura).
- Información (conocimiento acerca de cliente, competidores, tecnologías, etc.)
- Relacionales (relaciones con los proveedores, cliente, competidores, etc.)

El argumento de la ventaja basada en recursos consiste en que la posesión de una empresa de un recurso (o conjunto de recursos) únicos permite a la empresa obtener un desempeño superior a la competencia, proporcionándole una ventaja competitiva en algún segmento específico del mercado. Del mismo modo, cuando las empresas tiene una desventaja en recursos ocupan posiciones de desventaja competitiva que producen efectos financieros inferiores. Por lo tanto las organizaciones compiten por ventajas comparativas en recursos que produzcan puestos de ventaja competitiva para algunos segmentos de mercado y, en consecuencia, el rendimiento financiero superior.(Davis & Hunt, 2008).

Davis & Hunt, afirman que el proceso competitivo contribuye al aprendizaje dentro de la organización, dado que la competencia de las organizaciones por lograr un segmento de mercado beneficioso les permite aprender de sus resultados financieros inferiores producto de su posición de desventaja competitiva y les incentiva a intentar neutralizar o saltarse a las empresas en posición de ventaja mediante la adquisición o la innovación de sus recursos, buscando o creando uno superior, acorde con sus capacidades y necesidades. La generación de una ventaja en recursos obliga a las empresas en posición de ventaja a seguir reinvirtiendo en los recursos que le generan una ventaja y preocupándose constantemente por mantener la brecha con su competencia pues aunque los recursos únicos son dificilmente transables, adquiribles o imitables; los esfuerzos de los competidores pueden llegar a alcanzar el éxito en un determinado momento. La ventaja competitiva basada en recursos se basa en la adquisición de un recurso único, distinto y relativamente inmóvil de manera que dificulte la labor de la competencia por adquirir los recursos que generaron dicha ventaja competitiva y financiera.

INVESTIGACIÓN EMPÍRICA

El terremoto que afectó a la Región del Maule – Chile – el 27 de febrero del 2010 ha dejó múltiples consecuencias entre la población. Ante esta nueva realidad surge la necesidad de conocer cuáles son los elementos que permiten que una empresa logre superar un evento de esta magnitud y continuar operando, esto es lo que se define como continuidad del negocio; poseer las capacidades, recursos y habilidades necesarias para prolongar la existencia del negocio a pesar de los cambios del entono y de eventos disruptivos que pudieran implicar el término de un empresa.

Para ello se ha construido un modelo teórico basado en (1) la Hipótesis del éxito estratégico planteada por Igor Ansoff (1990), (2) la teoría de la competencia basada en recursos propuesta por Shelby Hunt (1997) y (3) el planteamiento de las organizaciones resilientes formulada por Yossi Sheffi (2005. Este modelo relaciona la Continuidad del Negocio con la percepción del entorno que poseen los empresarios, la agresividad de su respuesta estratégica, los recursos estratégicos que poseen y la resiliencia de la organización. Este modelo teórico (ver Figura 4) se basa en la hipótesis de investigación definida en el capítulo 2 y que plantea que el éxito de una empresa para lograr la continuidad de su negocio depende de la percepción de su entorno, su respuesta estratégica ante la turbulencia del entorno, sus recursos , y la capacidad resiliente de flexibilizarse ante los cambios.

Figura 4: Modelo Teórico



Fuente: Elaboración propia

Procedimiento

Para la construcción de este modelo se realizó una revisión de literatura de los conceptos relacionados: (entre estos) la continuidad del negocio, el éxito empresarial, estrategias, recursos, entorno empresarial y resiliencia. Posteriormente se realizó un análisis de la forma en que estos conceptos se relacionan entre si, definiendo de esta forma los primeros esquemas del modelo. Luego se formuló un instrumento de recolección de datos compuesto por 63 variables, (incluyendo 7 variables demográficas) agrupadas en 5 ítems, el cual fue aplicado a una muestra de empresas de la séptima región. La muestra fue constituida por empresas de diferentes rubros y tamaños, de las cuales se obtuvo un total de 113 cuestionarios válidos.Una vez recopilada la información, y utilizando el programa SPSS 15.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) se procedió a efectuar un análisis de correlaciones parciales entre las variables originales para evaluar la existencia de relaciones con un grado de significación adecuada que permitiese determinar una relación estructural entre las variables teóricas planteadas.

A través del análisis factorial, utilizando el método de extracción por componentes principales y rotación varimax, se pudo ajustar el modelo teórico a la información contenida en las 63 variables originales, obteniéndose así un número menor de número menor de nuevos factores (14 factores) considerando una pérdida de información mínima. La varianza total explicada por estos 14 nuevos factores fue de 69.86%.

Desarrollo De Modelo

A partir de los factores obtenidos del análisis factorial se han definido las nuevas variables que forman parte del modelo, como se observa en la Figura 4 se ha determinado un modelo en el cual la continuidad del negocio se relaciona directamente con la resiliencia empresarial, la respuesta estratégica, los recursos de la organización y la percepción del entorno. Cada uno de estos constructos está compuesto por las variables que componen los factores identificados. El entorno está determinado por la percepción del nivel de turbulencia que presenta, la cual, entre otros elementos, está determinada por los retos pasados y futuros, las condiciones del mercado y los actores del entorno.

Para el constructo respuesta estratégica se han definido, entre otras, variables relacionadas con el tipo de oferta de mercado, las estrategias genéricas, la variedad de estrategias implementadas en el último tiempo, la innovación en los procesos y productos y el grado de agresividad de su respuesta estratégica.

En el constructo recursos organizacionales se incluyen variables relacionadas con recursos económicos y cómo la falta de recursos económicos limita el accionar de las organizaciones, variables enfocadas en los recursos que estratégicamente permiten una diferenciación con la competencia, tales como maquinarias

En el caso de la resiliencia se han incluido variables relacionadas con el grado de preparación y planificación formal ante eventualidades, la incorporación y aprendizaje de los procedimiento existentes por parte de los integrantes de la entidad, los procedimientos de comunicación con los trabajadores, proveedores y clientes en caso de una emergencia, el grado de conocimiento de las amenazas que podrían interrumpir las actividades de las empresas y el grado de confianza que las organizaciones tienen en la eficiencia de estos procedimientos ante un evento disruptivo.

De acuerdo con esta estructura formulada, es necesaria una relación entre cada uno de estos constructos, y las variables que los componen, para considera una empresa como capaz de sobreponerse a un evento disruptivo y lograr la continuidad de su negocio.

El modelo fue analizado de acuerdo a una escala de confiabilidad (los datos obtenidos de este modelo se encuentran detallados en la tabla 1) en la que se obtuvo el crombach alfa de cada constructo. La información del modelo indica que si bien existe una consistencia interna en el conjunto de los constructos, con un cronbach Alfa del .824 para el modelo, algunos de los constructos dentro del modelo presentan cronbach alfas bajos, tal es el caso del constructo Percepción de Entorno (α =.559) y del constructo de Recursos Organizacionales (α =.489); que disminuyen la confianza del modelo en su conjunto.

Tabla 1: Valores de confiabilidad del modelo inicial

	Modelo Inicial	Constructo 1: Percepción Entorno	Constructo 2: Respuesta Estratégica	Constructo 3: Recursos	Constructo 4: Resiliencia
α	.824	.559	.667	.489	.795

En vista de los resultados obtenidos del análisis de confiabilidad se ha determinado la necesidad de realizar ajustes al modelo, evaluando la relación de cada una de las variables dentro de los constructos, a fin de lograr constructos confiables que permitan definir un modelo.

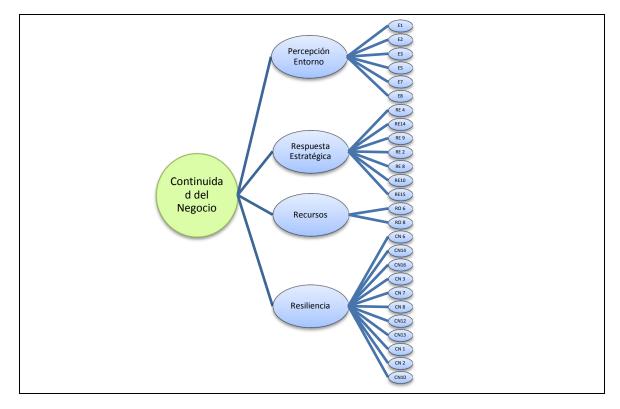
Modelo Ajustado

La siguiente tabla (ver tabla 2) presentan los valores de confiabilidad de los constructos que conforman el modelo ajustado (Figura 8). Como se puede observar el crombach alfa es más alto en el modelo ajustado, (α modelo original=.824; α modelo corregido =.830), esto se debe a la reducción de variables en los constructos que conforman el modelo, los cuales se redujeron a las variables con una mayor correlación.

Tabla 2: Valores de confiabilidad del modelo ajustado

	Modelo	Constructo 1:	Constructo 2:	Constructo 3:	Constructo 4:
	ajustado	Percepción del Entorno	Respuesta Estratégica	Recursos	Resiliencia
α	.830	.602	.645	.797	.804

Para el ajuste del modelo, se han eliminado las variables con una correlación baja, cuyo nivel de confianza es bajo.



Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de información desde SPSS.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados de esta investigación fueron obtenidos a partir de la información recolectada de la aplicación de un cuestionario a una muestra de empresarios de la séptima región que se vieron afectados por el terremoto. Los cuestionarios validos recolectados fueron analizados mediante un análisis de correlaciones y un análisis factorial, de los cuales resultaron 26 variables relacionadas con un nivel de confianza razonable, de las cuales resultó el modelo para la continuidad del negocio definido anteriormente. Los resultados han indicado que el modelo ajustado posee un nivel de confianza razonable, con un alfa de crombach de 0.830. En términos de confianza de los constructos que componen el modelo, los resultados del análisis de confiabilidad presentan alfas de Cronbach con valores razonables, que fluctúan entre 0.60 y 0.80.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados de los análisis realizados han confirmado con un grado de confiabilidad de α =.830 la hipótesis de investigación planteada al inicio de esta investigación. Los resultados señalan que el nivel de respuesta estratégica de las empresas encuestadas presenta un nivel de agresividad bajo; en donde las respuestas estratégicas de las empresas se enfocan a satisfacer las demandas de los clientes, innovando en distintas estrategias, pero manteniendo una línea con lo que se ha realizado hasta entonces. Destaca una preocupación por lograr maximizar los beneficios mediante la optimización de los procesos, se observan una tendencia hacia el estudio e implementación de procesos más eficientes.

Respecto de los recursos de la organización, la eliminación del resto de las variables consideradas inicialmente durante el análisis y el alto nivel de confiabilidad de las variables finales resultantes, ha

ratificado la importancia de los recursos únicos en las organizaciones (Hunt, 1997) destacando entre ellos los recursos intangibles, relacionados con los trabajadores de las empresas. La experiencia, las habilidades y la lealtad de los trabajadores son consideradas por los empresarios encuestados como los recursos más valiosos al interior de la organización, claves para el éxito y la continuidad del negocio, superando a otros recursos, tales como los físicos y económicos.

La alta correlación entre estas variables y su nivel de confianza revelan la importancia de los recursos intangibles únicos, tales como los conocimiento y habilidades de sus empleados, la experiencia en el mercado, y otros elementos relacionados con la experiencias de la empresa han sido identificados por los empresarios de la muestra como los recursos determinantes en el funcionamiento de las empresas. Para estas empresas, los trabajadores fueron recursos claves para retomar la marcha de sus negocios una vez ocurrida la disrupción. Se pueden identificar principalmente tres elementos relacionados con el nivel de resiliencia de las empresas: (1) la planificación ante eventualidades,(2) la preparación interna, y (3) el grado de preparación de los trabajadores . Es obvia la conclusión de que las empresas que lograron superar disrupción, fueron aquellas que contaban con un tipo de planificación y preparación.

Lo que no era obvio es que la eficacia de ello depende de la incorporación de medidas de emergencia en el conocimiento colectivo de la organización más que de su estipulación formal escrita, siendo demostrado por los resultados que relacionan la capacidad resiliente de las empresas con el grado de preparación de los trabajadores. Finalmente, podemos concluir que las empresa que logran sobreponerse a una disrupción, como el terremoto del 27 de marzo de 2010 en Chile, son aquellas que (1) responden con un nivel de agresividad acorde al nivel de turbulencia que perciben en el entorno luego de la disrupción, (2) que utilizan sus recursos en función de su respuesta estratégica (reconociendo como valiosa la función que cumplen sus trabajadores en la organización), y (3) que planifican ante la eventualidad acorde con las amenazas que implican el término del negocio.

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FACTORES QUE HAN DETERMINADO LA COMPETITIVIDAD A TRAVÉS DEL MODELO DE LA 5TA. HÉLICE SISTÉMICA EN LA INDUSTRIA MAQUILADORA DEL SECTOR ELECTRÓNICO EN TIJUANA, BAJA CALIFORNIA, MÉXICO

Rodolfo Martínez Gutiérrez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, México María Marcela Solís Quinteros, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, México Santos Leyva López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, México

RESUMEN

El objetivo de la investigación es identificar los factores que han determinado la competitividad internacional en la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico de Tijuana, Baja California, México. La metodología de investigación construida se ha denominado "5ta. Hélice Sistémica" que consiste en utilizar como referencia los modelos de competitividad existente y el enfoque de la triple hélice, pero contextualizándolo a los avances del desarrollo empresarial y sectorial, creando un modelo que contempla cinco hélices de desarrollo sectorial. Con los resultados obtenidos se propone una iniciativa de Política Gubernamental para el desarrollo sectorial, que sirvan de referencia al sector empresarial, cámaras empresariales, consultores empresariales, sector educativo y sector gobierno, para la toma de decisiones estratégicas y conformación de una agenda sistémica que contribuya al desarrollo económico sectorial.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Competitividad Sistémica, Industria Maquiladora, Sector Electrónico

INTRODUCCIÓN

En los últimos 30 años Baja California México, se ha convertido en una de las regiones más dinámicas de Norte de México y Latinoamérica para la manufactura de productos electrónicos, este dinamismo se basa en que en la región norte ha alcanzado altos niveles de competitividad en comparación con otras regiones del país. Según los registros del Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Información (2004) muestran que las empresas maquiladoras de exportación a nivel nacional, ofrecen fuentes de empleo a 1,1152,30 personas, es decir, 3% de la población económicamente activa (PEA) del país, existen 2811 maquiladoras en México, el Estado de Baja California ocupa el primer lugar nacional con 902 maquiladoras instaladas, que representan el 32% nacional en sus cinco municipios, según datos del Directorio de la Industria Maquiladora de Baja California (2010) en Tijuana se concentra el 65% a nivel estatal, lo que representa un 20% a nivel Nacional, según datos del Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano (2010).

Por lo anterior la Secretara de Desarrollo Económico de Tijuana (2010) señala que las operaciones de empresas globales y nuevas prácticas laborales siempre están encaminadas a satisfacer los retos de la competitividad internacional, identificándose las prácticas operacionales a través de la innovación, capacitación y la investigación tecnológica, hacia una fuerte cultura de mejoramiento continuo y satisfacción del cliente. La propuesta de la investigación fue que las empresas maquiladoras del sector electrónico se les evaluara de manera cualitativa y cuantitativa para determinar cuáles los factores de éxito que inciden en la competitividad local, estatal e internacional para fortalecer sus debilidades y capitalizar sus fortalezas. Por otra parte las instituciones de gobierno requieren conocer y actualizar el marco jurídico donde las políticas públicas provean incentivos hacia las prácticas que reditúen en un entorno competitivo de las empresas y con ello la economía y bienestar de la población.

Las instituciones educativas por su parte deben coadyuvar a través de una estrecha vinculación de actualizar sus planes y programas de estudio para que los recursos humanos que provean, sean de un nivel de conocimientos apropiados para la dinámica industrial y demanda competitiva internacional del sector electrónico.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Competitividad Sistémica

El concepto de competitividad sistémica se caracteriza por contener cuatro niveles analíticos distintos, pero interconectados entre sí: el nivel meta, el nivel macro, el nivel meso y el nivel micro. (Ver Tabla 1)

Tabla 1:	Modelo	de	Compe	titivid	lad	Sistémica

Nivel	Enfoque	Características
Meta	Cultura	Desarrollo de habilidades y conocimientos de la sociedad en
Macro	Economía del País	caminados a la competencia a través de una formación social . Variables macroeconómicas, reformas de políticas fiscal, presupuestaria, monetaria y cambiaria, equilibrio del sistema
Meso	Industria por región y sector	económico. Políticas que fomenten la formación de infraestructura y apoyo a las industrias.
Micro	Estructura de las empresas	Factores de comportamiento de la empresa; productividad, costos, esquemas de organización, innovación, gestión empresarial, calidad, flexibilidad y rapidez

En la tabla se muestra que al analizar la competitividad desde varios niveles en un país, el nivel micro representa una estrategia de análisis para la presente investigación.

Nivel Meta. Forma parte integral de los otros niveles, y se refiere a la capacidad de organización por parte de todos los actores, para canalizar los conocimientos sociales, que permitan a su vez regular y conducir correctamente, tanto a nivel macro como micro los intereses del futuro. Que permitan cohesionar esfuerzos para generar ventajas nacionales de innovación y conocimiento, es decir el desarrollo de habilidades y conocimientos de la sociedad encaminados a la competencia, a través de una formación social de estructuras que permitan la modernización de la economía.

Nivel Macro. Se refiere a las variables macroeconómicas y su estabilización, para poder competir en el mercado mundial, pues su inestabilidad no permite operar eficientemente el mercado nacional y limita el crecimiento de la economía.

Nivel Meso. Dentro de este nivel es considerado el desarrollo de políticas que fomenten la formación de estructuras y apoyo específico hacia aquellas industrias o empresas líderes en el mercado nacional, así como también formar y apoyar aquellas empresas que consideren que puede alcanzar a los líderes o la formación de competidores. Dentro de este nivel se considera lo nacional y regional o local, pues son procesos distintos pero no por ello no interconectados.

Nivel Micro. "A nivel micro, se identifican factores que condicionan el comportamiento de la empresa, como productividad, los costos, los esquemas de organización, la innovación con tecnologías, la gestión empresarial, el tamaño de empresa, etc." (Rojas: 1999: 14). Siendo los indicadores de la productividad del trabajo y el capital la calidad, la flexibilidad y la rapidez.

Michael Porter (1991) define a la competitividad como "La producción de bienes y servicios de mayor calidad y menor precio que los competidores domésticos e internacionales, que se traducen en crecientes beneficios para los habitantes de una nación al mantener y aumentar los ingresos reales" en otras

definiciones este mismo autor trata a la competitividad como un indicador que mide la capacidad de competir que se tiene ya sea dentro de una nación o dentro de una empresa.

Puesto que la las empresas ya no compiten de manera aislada, sino en forma de clúster, en grupos de empresas de un sector, y en donde es necesaria una estrecha relación con los sectores productores de conocimiento y tecnología, como lo son las universidades, centro de investigación y desarrollo, instituciones financieras, entre otras. También una mejor organización de los diferentes departamentos que conforman la cadena de valor, tanto para disminuir tiempos perdidos, como para disminuir inventarios y hacer más estrecha la comunicación hacia el mercado. Por lo que la visión de la competitividad sistémica resalta a diferentes niveles los retos a los cuales se enfrenta la empresa, la región y las naciones ante los nuevos requerimientos de la industria, en un plano internacional.

La Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico OCDE (2000) menciona que la competitividad es el grado en que un país, estado o región produce bienes de servicio bajo condiciones de libre mercado, los cuales enfrentan la competencia de los mercados internacionales mejorando simultáneamente los ingresos reales de su población y la consecuente productividad de sus empresas y gestión gubernamental.

Industria Maquiladora: Según Contreras (2007) la industria maquiladora se ha convertido en el modelo de desarrollo industrial en la región norte de México, caracterizada por el Diario Oficial de la Federación (1988), en proveer: a) Fuente de empleo, b) Fortalecer la balanza comercial a través de mayor aportación de divisa neta, c) Contribuir a una mayor integración interindustrial y elevar la competitividad internacional de la industria nacional, d) Elevar la capacitación de los trabajadores e impulsar el desarrollo y transferencia de tecnología al país.

Sector Electrónico: Carrillo (2010) señala que "la industria electrónica es el motor de otras industrias, que crecen en el ámbito mundial a una tasa anual entre 12 y 14%, la aplicación de la electrónica a los sistemas de producción y comunicación tiene que ver con la división del trabajo y con la relaciones laborales". La industria maquiladora del sector electrónico ha ido sujeto de diversos análisis e investigaciones de su trayectoria y evolución, concretando según Carrillo (2004) tres categorías de generaciones, identificada como:

- 1. Empresa de primera generación; escaso nivel de tecnología, basada en trabajo manual.
- 2. Empresa de segunda generación; contemplan proveedores locales, e cuenta con trabajadores calificado a través de la capacitación y certificación de habilidades.
- 3. Empresa tercera generación; contempla el desarrollo de clúster y cadena de suministro, sistema competitivo de productividad.

De acuerdo a López (2010) La maduración de los sistemas de la industria maquiladora se entiende como la adquisición de capacidades tecnológica y vínculo de mercado, y se clasifican en cuatro:

- 1. Escalamiento de proceso; eficiencia en transformar materia prima en productos
- 2. Escalamiento de producto; transitar hacia productos más sofisticados
- 3. Escalamiento de funcione; adquisición y de nuevo sistemas de producción
- 4. Escalamiento entre sectores; mover hacia otros sectores económicos

De acuerdo con Mungaray (2003) las bondades de la política industrial activa el desarrollo económico, la investigación y la formación, pueden ser viables a nivel regional, de acuerdo con las características específicas de la población, el espacio y las vocaciones industriales. Sin embargo, sólo si la promoción económica forma parte de la autoridad estatal permite verificar la evolución de los objetivos de bienestar

social y de los agentes productivos locales, la descentralización de la política industrial sería factible y justificable.

Una caracterización de la ventaja comparativa de la localización de Baja California es la zona fronteriza, con una intensa dinámica migratoria y una amplia cobertura de servicios educativos en todos los niveles, le que ha permitido mantener una baja estructura de costos laborales y una fuerza de trabajo con gran capacidad de aprendizaje y alta productividad, este conjunto de factores se han convertido en una ventaja competitiva, que ha estimulado una creciente presencia de empresas internacionales con diversos niveles de desarrollo tecnológico. Su complementación de factores, a la vez que motiva la especialización de proveedores de servicios en el lado de Baja California, ha estimulado el desarrollo de proveedores de insumos industriales en el lado de California y con ello el crecimiento industrial y de los servicios profesionales en el área de San Diego y sur de California.

METODOLOGÍA

Todo lo anterior sustento la construcción de instrumentos que se validaron a través de la revisión multidisciplinaria, como es el caso de especialistas lideres en Economía, Administración e Ingeniería, además de entrevistas especializadas a través de entrevistas a profundidad, arrogando información sobre los factores y acciones que inciden en la competitividad de la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico. Creando una metodología de enfoque triple hélice contextualizada, denominada "5ta. Hélice Sistémica" donde los informantes seleccionados estratégicamente representaron a los empresarios sujetos de investigación, los funcionarios públicos de Gobierno, organismos empresariales, consultores empresariales y el sector educativo, para identificar las percepciones de sus puntos de vista a través de "focus group" y encuestas globales de la imagen del desarrollo económico de Tijuana, Baja California, México.

Pregunta de la investigación: ¿Cuáles son los factores que determinan la competitividad sistémica en la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico, en Tijuana, Baja California, y que son inherentes a la competitividad internacional?

Preguntas De La Investigación Por Sector (5ta. Hélice Sistémica)

- 1. ¿Cuáles son los factores inherentes a la industria maquiladoras del sector electrónico de Tijuana, B.C. México, que determinan su competitividad internacional?
- 2. ¿Cuáles son las políticas educativas de educación superior que han favorecido el capital humano que trabaja en la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico en Tijuana, B.C., México?
- 3. ¿Cuáles son las políticas públicas que han favorecido la competitividad la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico de Tijuana, B.C. México?
- 4. ¿Cuáles son los programas de gestión pública de los organismos empresariales que han favorecido la competitividad la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico de Tijuana, B.C. México?
- 5. ¿Cuáles son los servicios de las empresas de consultoría que han gestionado y han favorecido la competitividad la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico en Tijuana, B.C. México?

Objetivo de la investigación:El objetivo general es identificar los factores que determinan la competitividad internacional de la Industria maquiladora del sector electrónico en la ciudad de Tijuana, Baja California.

Hipótesis De La Investigación

H1. Las empresas que implementan sistemas de administración del conocimiento, cadenas de suministro, asesoría especializada, adquisición de capital humano competitivo a través de vinculación con el sector educativo y satisfacer las expectativas de sus clientes, favorecen la competitividad internacional.

La investigación se enfoco a analizar los diferentes modelos de las organizaciones a nivel internacional, nacional y estatal (Tablas de la 2 a la 10) dentro del ámbito de competitividad que inciden en el análisis de la industria maquiladora, tomando como referencia el modelo de competitividad sistémica en sus cuatro niveles. Una vez realizada la investigación cuantitativa, se identificaron las características de las empresas líderes a través de los estudios de SEDECO (Secretaria de Economía del gobierno del estado de Baja California), SE (Secretaria de Economía), SIEM (Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano) e INEGI (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Información).

RESULTADOS

De acuerdo al modelo de competitividad sistémica y sus cuatro niveles (micro, meso, macro y meta) se identificaron lo enfoques de cada factor de los 12 pilares del reporte de competitividad del Foro Económico Mundial, se identificaron 3 factores con enfoque micro: "Eficiencia de los mercados, Sofisticación de las empresas e Innovación" (Ver Tabla 2)

Tabla 2 : WEF (Foro Económico Mundial) Índice de C	
I ania 7° WEELEORO ECOnomico Muindiali Indice de L	mpennvidad Ctional
1 a 0 a 2. WEI (1010 LC01011100 Waldal) males as C	

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Infraestructura	Meso
Instituciones	Meta
Estabilidad Macroeconómica	Macro
Salud y Educación Primaria	Meso
Educación Superior y Capacitación	Meso
Eficiencia de los mercados	Meso
Eficiencia del mercado laboral	Micro
Sofisticación del mercado financiero	Meso
Preparación Tecnológica	Meso
Amplitud del Marketing	Meso
Sofisticación de las empresas	Micro
Innovación	Micro

En la tabla el modelo de 12 pilares del Foro Económico Mundial contiene 3 pilares enfocados a nivel micro sistémico, los cuales son: "Eficiencia de mercado laboral, Sofisticación de las empresas e Innovación"; representando dicho modelo útil para el análisis de la competitividad internacional desde la perspectiva de las empresas.

La estructura del reporte de competitividad del Instituto para el Desarrollo Gerencial (IMD), contempla un factor de nivel micro, denominado "Eficiencia Empresarial". Ver Tabla 3

Tabla 3: IMD (Instituto para el Desarrollo Gerencial) Índice de Competitividad Internacional

Factores	Variables	Enfoque sistémico
Eficiencia de Gobierno	Finanzas Públicas, Política Fiscal, Entorno Institucional, Legislación empresarial, Entorno Social	Macro
Actividad Económica	Economía doméstica	Meso
Eficiencia Empresarial	Productividad, Mercado laboral, Finanzas, Prácticas administrativas, Actitudes y valores.	Micro
Infraestructura	Infraestructura básica, Tecnología, Infraestructura científica, Salud y medio ambiente, Educación	Meso

En la tabla se muestra que el Instituto para el Desarrollo Gerencial, maneja un eje de cuatro factores para la determinación de la competitividad de los países, de los cuales el factor denominado "<u>Eficiencia Empresarial</u>" está orientado a nivel micro sistémico, el cual incluye subíndices de referencia y peso especifico, para realizar análisis precisos de la competitividad internacional.

La Organización Internacional para la Estandarización, contempla un enfoque en su mayor parte de nivel micro, siendo solo una cláusulas de ocho de enfoque nivel meso, denominado "Requerimientos Legales" (ver Tabla 4)

Tabla 4: ISO (Organización Internacional para la Estandarización)

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Definición y campo de aplicación	Micro
Terminología de las organizaciones	Micro
Requerimientos legales	Meso
Sistemas de gestión	Micro
Estructura y responsabilidad de la organización	Micro
Gestión de los recursos	Micro
Realización del producto y/o servicio	Micro
Análisis, medición y mejora continua	Micro

En la tabla se observa que este modelo representa una base para el diagnóstico de la gestión empresarial de las organizaciones en términos de estandarización y planificación estratégica, de las ocho factores de referencia contiene 7 directamente de importancia para determinar la competitividad de una organización en el nivel micro sistémico, a excepción de la clausula de requerimientos legales.

El Gobierno Federal Mexicano, contempla en el Plan Nacional de Desarrollo cinco ejes estratégicos como base de su estructura para el desarrollo del país, y este a su vez es la base de los Planes Estatales de Desarrollo, y que de acuerdo al enfoque de la competitividad sistémica, contempla los niveles meso, macro y meta. (Ver Tabla 5).

Tabla 5: PND Plan Nacional de Desarrollo del Gobierno Federal Mexicano (2006-2012)

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Estado de Derecho y seguridad.	Macro
Economía competitiva y generadora de empleos.	Macro
Igualdad de oportunidades.	Meta
Sustentabilidad ambiental.	Meso
Democracia efectiva y política exterior responsable	Macro

En la tabla se observa que dentro de los ejes del plan nacional de desarrollo del gobierno federal mexicano, no contiene lineamientos de utilidad directa para el análisis de la competitividad empresarial a nivel micro sistémico.

En el caso de los estudio realizados por el Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad, contempla dos vertientes básicas que son de enfoque micro, las cuales son: "Competitividad Empresarial y Desarrollo Sustentable". (Ver Tabla 6).

Tabla 6: IMCO (Instituto Mexicano de Competitividad)

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Competitividad Empresarial	Micro
Desarrollo Sustentable	Micro

En la tabla se observa que el modelo de competitividad nacional mexicano contiene dos ejes básicos para el nivel micro sistémico, uno sustentado en las característica de competitividad de negocio y el segundo eje enfocado a los planes estratégicos para el futuro del negocio en términos de subsistencia a mediano y largo plazo, denominado "Desarrollo sustentable"

El Centro de Estudio de Competitividad y el CNIMME contemplan en su reporte de competitividad factores de aspectos regulatorios y de planeación estratégica con enfoque del nivel micro denominados "Industria Limpia y Desarrollo Sustentable" (ver Tabla 7).

Tabla 7: CEC – CNIMME (Centro de Estudios de Competitividad – Consejo Nacional de la Industria Maquiladora de Exportación)

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Empleo Formal	Meso
Cultura Laboral	Meso
Desarrollo Tecnológico	Meso
Infraestructura Regional	Meso
Desarrollo Social	Meso
Industria Limpia	Meso
Desarrollo Sustentable	Micro

En la tabla se muestra un factor de nivel micro sistémico, denominado <u>"Desarrollo Sustentable"</u> el cual tiene como objetivo identificar la capacidad de planeación estratégica de permanecer a mediano y largo plazo en el mercado en un equilibrio con los recursos naturales.

En el caso del Plan Estatal del Gobierno de Baja California, contempla características más enfocadas al desarrollo regional con enfoque del nivel meso y macro, pero resaltando un factor denominado "Formación para la vida" del nivel meta sistémico (ver Tabla 8).

Tabla 8: Plan Estatal de Desarrollo 2008-2013 del Gobierno Estatal de Baja California, México

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Seguridad y Justicia Integral	Macro
Formación para la vida	Meta
Desarrollo Regional Sustentable	Meso
Economía competitiva	Meso
Bienestar y Desarrollo Humano	Meta
Gobierno al Servicio de la Gente	Macro

En la tabla se observa que dentro de los ejes del Plan estatal de desarrollo del gobierno de Baja California, no contiene lineamientos de utilidad directa para el análisis de la competitividad empresarial a nivel micro sistémico.

La Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico de Baja California (SEDECO) e Instituciones Educativas, presentan resultados del observatorio de competitividad del Estado a través de diversos factores, pero solo contempla uno con enfoque de nivel micro sistémico, el cual se denomina "Factor Empresas" (*ver Tabla 9*).

Tabla 9: Observatorio de Competitividad Estatal – Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico de Baja California, México

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Factor Personas	Meso
Factor Infraestructuras	Meso
Factor Gobierno	Macro
Factor Resultados Económicos	Macro
Factor Empresas	Micro
Factor Innovación, Ciencia y Tecnología	Meso
Factor Manejo del Medio Ambiente	Meso

En la tabla se muestra que el Observatorio tiene un factor de nivel micro sistémico, denominado <u>"Factor Empresas"</u> el cual tiene como principal objetivo medir productividad, calidad de las empresas y finanzas

El reporte de competitividad sistémica por Entidad Federativa, contempla dos factores micro los cuales miden: Inversión, Austeridad, Competitividad, Responsabilidad y Responsabilidad Social, Cadenas de Suministros, Mejoramiento Continuo, Productividad, Calidad Total, Innovación y Tecnología de Punta, Evaluación Globalización de Proyectos (ver Tabla 10).

Tabla 10: Índice de Competitividad Sistémica de las Entidades Federativas (ICSar, 2009)

Factores	Enfoque sistémico
Factor Empresario	Micro
Factor Empresa	Micro
Factor Sector Regional	Meso
Factor Nacional	Macro
Factor Valores Sociales	Meta
Factor Internacional	Macro

En la tabla se muestra que Índice de competitividad sistémica de las entidades federativas, tiene dos factores del nivel micro sistémico, denominado "Factor Empresario y Factor Empresas" los cuales miden: Inversión, Austeridad, Competitividad, Responsabilidad y Responsabilidad Social, Cadenas de Suministros, Mejoramiento Continuo, Productividad, Calidad Total, Innovación y Tecnología de Punta, Evaluación Globalización de Proyectos.

RECOMENDACIONES

En las siguientes Tablas 11 y 12 se plantea las recomendaciones de seguimiento a los resultados y conclusiones de la presente investigación para contribuir al estado del arte en el tema de estudios de competitividad sistémica en la industria maquiladora del sector electrónico.

Tabla 11: Propuesta de la Investigación: "Factores de éxito que determinan la Competitividad Sistémica en la Industria del Sector Electrónico en Tijuana, Baja California, México"

Nivel	Enfoque	Responsable	Características	Acción Especifica
Meta	Cultura	Los 3 niveles de	Desarrollo de habilidades y	Desarrollar programas de Estudios
		Gobierno y la Sociedad	conocimientos de la sociedad	específicos sobre vocaciones empresariales por la Ciudad y Estado.
Macro	Economía del País	Gobierno Federal, Estatal y Municipal	Variables macroeconómicas	Desarrollar políticas públicas sobre apoyos para capacitación e innovación tecnológica sectorial, incentivar la inversión en ciencia.
Meso	Industria por región y sector	Organismos Empresariales	Políticas que fomenten la formación de infraestructura y apoyo a las industrias	Gestionar la vinculación interinstitucional en las universidades, organismos empresariales y empresas para capitalizar la experiencia sectorial y consolidar clusters industriales.
Micro	Estructura de las Empresas	Empresas	Factores de comportamiento de la empresa; productividad, costos, esquemas de organización, innovación, gestión empresarial, calidad, flexibilidad y rapidez	Fomentar actividades de clústeres de empresariales para fortalecer las cadenas de suministro y la gestión de empresarial en términos de capital de trabajo y generación del conocimiento, para posicionar la competitividad de la curva de aprendizaje de la región.

En la tabla se muestra las propuestas de los factores que determinan la competitividad empresarial, así como acciones específicas a desarrollar en una fase inicial de seguimiento a la consolidación de la implementación de los factores en una región empresarial. Tabla 12: Aportación al Sistema Empresarial Mexicano (SIEM) de la Secretaria de México (SE) del Gobierno Federal, a través del Censo Económico Nacional: "Factores de éxito que determinan la Competitividad Sistémica en la Industria del Sector Electrónico en Tijuana, Baja California, México"

Estadística Generada en el SIEM	Salida Actual	Acción Especifica
Información de la pagina		
http://www.siem.gob.mx/siem2008/portal		
/consultas/ligas.asp?ter=5		
Entidad Federativa	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Mapas geográficos	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Por Estado, Tipo y Rango de Empleados	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Por Estado y Actividad	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Historial por Estado años 2001-2010 Reporte Actual		Vigente
Por Empresas que Exportan e Importan Reporte Actu		Vigente
Por Proveedores de Gobierno	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Por Ámbito	Reporte Actual	Vigente
Por Competitividad Empresarial	NUEVO	Planteamiento a la Secretaria de Economía de la importancia
Por Estado Reporte Propuesta		de implementar en el Censo Económico Nacional y en la
Por Ciudad	Reporte Propuesta	Encuesta del SIEM los Factores que determinan la
Por Giro Reporte Propuesta		Competitividad Empresarial para generar estadísticas, que
Por Sector Económico	Reporte Propuesta	generen información de triple Hélice
		generen miornaeton de urpre rienee

En la tabla se muestran los reportes generados por el sistema de información empresarial mexicano (SIEM) así como los reportes propuestos en esta investigación señalados como "Reporte Propuesta" los cuales podrían generar estadísticas con un orden, categorización, segregación, estratificación y agrupación de empresas de acuerdo a índices (factores) de competitividad empresarial por tipo y clasificación. Generando con ello información valiosa para la toma de decisiones en los 4 niveles sistémicos del desarrollo económico de México.

CONCLUSIONES

1. Elementos como producto de la investigación serán el sustento para crear una serie de iniciativas para desarrollar una propuesta de Política Pública enfocada a la Competitividad Sistémica Industrial en Baja California, pudiendo ser un modelo que replique sus factores de éxito en otras regiones nacionales o a nivel internacional.

La competitividad internacional, demanda que las empresas desarrollen capacidades locales con alcances globales, capitalizando la experiencia de sus vocaciones empresariales. Así como establecer alianzas estratégicas denominadas recientemente como Clústeres, que faciliten la cadena de suministros en las regiones para fortalecer sus operaciones y sus retos en término

MOTIVACIÓN LABORAL EN EMPLEADOS ADMINISTRATIVOS DE LA UNIVERSIDAD JUÁREZ AUTÓNOMA DE TABASCO

María del Carmen Ancona Alcocer, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Manuela del Socorro Camacho Gómez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Cecilia García-Muñoz Aparicio, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco

RESUMEN

La motivación para el trabajo es un factor determinante para el logro de una mayor eficiencia profesional. La motivación laboral induce a los empleados a la acción e influye en la forma, dirección e intensidad de su comportamiento o conducta, y determina el nivel de esfuerzo por alcanzar los objetivos planteados. El objetivo general de esta investigación fue describir las motivaciones laborales del personal administrativo de dos áreas académicas con mayor número de empleados de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, que permitiera aportar elementos para mejorar su desempeño. El diseño del estudio fue no experimental, transeccional, sus datos fueron tomados en un único momento en el tiempo y descriptivo porque su objetivo fue caracterizar el fenómeno con la finalidad de generar propuestas de solución (Hernández, Fernández, Baptista, 2006). Los resultados de esta investigación muestran que existe una correlación media positiva entre el incentivo económico y la realización personal, con lo cual se puede percibir de manera incremental la realización personal en cuanto mayor sea el beneficio, teniendo una población homogénea a pesar de que son dos divisiones académicas diferentes, las cuales por motivos de confidencialidad se manejarán como División A y División B.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Motivación laboral, personal administrativo, División Académica

INTRODUCCIÓN

La premura de los cambios que enfrenta la sociedad en el entorno competitivo en busca de la calidad, ha generado en los sistemas educativos la necesidad de plantearse nuevas formas de concebir y organizar a las escuelas y el trabajo que sus integrantes realizan en ellas (Elizondo, 2001). La Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, en el contexto global mundial no está ajena a los cambios actuales, ya que si no se cuenta con un equipo humano preparado, motivado y responsable, aunque se adquiera tecnología de punta, no se garantiza éxito en la maximización de los recursos. Un ejemplo de ello son las demandas que se están planteando en la educación superior para responder de manera adecuada al exigente mundo laboral (Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, [UJAT], 2008).

En esta ponencia se destaca que el área administrativa de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco está compuesta por 10 divisiones académicas, el personal de rectoría, de la secretaría de servicios académicos, la secretaría de servicios administrativos, la secretaría de finanzas, la contraloría y el patronato universitario (UJAT, 2007), y se eligió al personal administrativo de las dos áreas académicas de mayor antigüedad en la universidad, que por motivos de confidencialidad se conocerán como División A y División B. Esta investigación tuvo como objetivo conocer los factores motivacionales del trabajo administrativo por considerarse de gran importancia para que los Subdirectores, Directores y Jefes de Departamento aprendan a conocer y utilizar las capacidades de su personal, crear un ambiente motivador y positivo, comunicarse, resolver los conflictos, con la finalidad de que tanto el personal administrativo como el académico, trabajen en forma conjunta como un equipo eficiente que permita incrementar los niveles de productividad.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Los recientes desarrollos económicos, tecnológicos, y sociales han cambiado los contextos sociales e interpersonales del ambiente laboral, los cuales han tenido un efecto en el comportamiento y desempeño de los empleados, quienes a falta de una motivación adecuada ponen en riesgo el bienestar y la estabilidad de las empresas e instituciones. La motivación es fundamental para energizar, conducir y canalizar la conducta humana a favor de las metas organizacionales (Edwards, Scully y Brtek, 2000; Kleinbeck y Furhman, 2000; Según Ospina, 2006 y Robbins, 2004). Otros autores (Maldonado, Navarro y Radillo, 2006 y Lopes, 2006) mencionan que la motivación es la causa del comportamiento de un organismo y que tiene una secuencia de necesidades que empieza por los deseos básicos de la supervivencia corporal llegando hasta un proceso de auto-conocimiento y aprovechamiento máximo de su potencial.

Tremblay y Wils (2005 citado por Tremblay y Simard 2005) han identificado al menos ocho comportamientos que son requeridos además de estar motivados: 1) Ayuda a los otros, 2) facilitación interpersonal, 3) coordinación con los otros, 4) espíritu de tolerancia, 5) mejoramiento continuo, 6) participación en la vida cívica interna: 7) lealtad organizacional y 8) orientación hacia el cliente. Estos comportamientos y su manifestación es sin duda aquello que diferenciaa mejor la movilización de la motivación individual. La motivación laboral influye la forma, dirección, intensidad, y duración del comportamiento o conducta, además de que induce a que los empleados evalúen su desempeño, tomen decisiones y demuestren su creatividad y entusiasmo para realizar determinada actividad, su satisfacción en el cumplimiento de las funciones, el esfuerzo por cumplirlas y por último, les permite saber qué tan realizados se sienten al estar desempeñando determinado cargo (Meyer, Becker y Vandenberghe 2004, Richards, 2001).

Factores Motivacionales

En cuanto a los factores motivaciones, Pérez y Rojas (2001) afirman que para que un trabajo sea motivador, debe estar orientado a la consecución de una meta propuesta por el propio individuo u organización, pero siempre vinculado a la persona; Blumen (2008) indica que las personas necesitan tener interés en el entorno y estar motivado a interactuar con él. Es decir, el desarrollo es el resultado de interacciones recíprocas entre los organismos y el entorno, que a su vez actualizan el potencial genético del organismo. Por lo tanto, a mayor interacción entre el organismo y el entorno, mayor realización del potencial genético. Necka (1986 citado por Blumen, 2008) menciona que tomando como ejemplo el de una persona con habilidades verbales, que puede buscar fama y fortuna a través de la composición de obras literarias (un motivo instrumental), pero al mismo tiempo tiene una fuerte sensación expresiva). También es posible que las personas muestren diferentes combinaciones o patrones de motivaciones". Más aún, esta estructura puede cambiar con el paso del tiempo.

Teoría de las Necesidades: En este sentido también se encuentra la Teoría de las Necesidades que está estrechamente relacionada con los conceptos del aprendizaje. Se establece que muchas necesidades tienen su origen en la cultura de una sociedad: logro, afiliación y poder. Esta propuesta de McClelland permite que la administración trate diferencialmente a sus empleados según la tendencia de cada uno, de manera que el supervisor se comunicara con sus empleados según la necesidad particular de cada persona (Chiavenato, 2000).

Teoría de la Equidad de Adams: Según Robins (2004), existe una importante función que cumple la equidad en la motivación, regularmente, los empleados comparan lo que aportan al trabajo (esfuerzo, competencias, experiencia, educación) y sus resultados (salario, aumento, reconocimiento) con los de sus

pares en el mundo laboral. Si la relación es considerada equivalente, se considera la presencia de un estado de equidad. Esta teoría sostiene la existencia de cuatro variables moderadoras de la elección del referente: género, antigüedad, nivel en la organización y escolaridad.

Teoría de las facetas del trabajo y calidad de vida laboral: El movimiento a favor de la calidad de vida en el trabajo, según Hackman y Oldham (1980, citados por Furnham, 2000) indican que el potencial motivador de cualquier empleado es una función de multiplicación. Dicha teoría sugiere que existen tres estados psicológicos críticos relevantes en el terreno laboral; *significado experimentado:* los empleados deben sentir que el trabajo tiene significado personal y que vale la pena según su sistema de valores; *responsabilidad experimentada:* ellos deben sentirse responsables por los procesos y resultados de su trabajo; *conocimientos de los resultados:* necesitan recibir información, en forma regular, en sentido de si su desempeño en el puesto conduce a resultados adecuados y satisfactorios.

METODOLOGÍA

<u>Objetivo</u>

El objetivo general de la investigación fue describir las motivaciones laborales del personal administrativo de las 2 áreas académicas con mayor número de empleados de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, que permitan aportar elementos para mejorar su desempeño.Los 4 factores motivacionales que se consideraron en el estudio fueron el incentivo económico, realización personal, relaciones interpersonales y estabilidad de vida.

Diseño de la Investigación: El diseño del estudio se definió como no experimental ya que no pretendió controlar ni modificar ninguna de las variables descritas en este proyecto, es transeccional porque sus datos son tomados en un único momento en el tiempo y es descriptivo porque su objetivo es caracterizar el fenómeno con la finalidad de dar propuestas de solución (Hernández, Fernández, Baptista, 2006).

Población: El universo bajo estudio lo constituyó el área administrativa de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco (Ver anexo No. 1), la cual está compuesta por 10 divisiones académicas, el personal de rectoría, de la Secretaría de Servicios Académicos, la Secretaría de Servicios Administrativos, la Secretaría de Finanzas, la Contraloría y el Patronato Universitario, agrupadas como personal centro. Esta población está compuesta por 973 trabajadores en activo, de los cuales 585(60.12%) son hombres y 388(39.88%) son mujeres (UJAT, 2007). Como finalidad del estudio se hizo necesario acotar la población para observar los principales factores motivacionales de las áreas administrativas a fin de poder conocer el fenómeno con un mayor detalle, y por otro lado se seleccionaron 2 divisiones para que se pudieran hacer comparaciones sobre los factores motivacionales y las características sociodemográficas. Se manejaran las divisiones como División A y División B.

Diseño del Instrumento: El instrumento utilizado fue un cuestionario de elaboración propia conformado por 4 dimensiones distribuidas en 20 reactivos. Adicionalmente se incluyeron cinco reactivos generales de los cuales 3 corresponden a variables socio demográficas tales como estado civil, edad y género; y 2 a datos sobre la institución tales como antigüedad y área. El cuestionario se presentó en una escala tipo Líckert con cinco opciones de respuesta: Totalmente en Desacuerdo = 1, En desacuerdo = 2, Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo = 3; De acuerdo = 4; Totalmente de acuerdo = 5. Los reactivos se presentaron de manera alternada en relación a las 4 dimensiones consideradas en el cuestionario. El cuestionario se entregó de directa al personal para ser contestado. El período de aplicación abarcó cerca de un mes, los primeros quince días para aplicarlos en la división "A" y los siguientes 15 días para la división "B". Se logro recolectar el total de los 45 cuestionarios distribuidos. Las especificaciones del cuestionario así como las definiciones operacionales de cada dimensión se ilustran en la Tabla 1.

T 11	1	TD 1 1	1	· ~ ·
Tahla	۱· ۱	Tahla	de	especificaciones
1 aora	1.	1 aora	uu	copectificaciones

Dimensión	Definición	Reactivos
Incentivo económico	Este factor se refiere a la retribución	1 Siento que mi paga reconoce mi esfuerzo
	económica en el empleo; a la	5 Mi sueldo satisface mis necesidades básicas
	satisfacción percibida del trabajador	9 Hay posibilidades de avance salarial en este empleo
	con su salario y a las posibilidades de	Mi paga corresponde a mi responsabilidad
	incrementar o mejorar	17 En este empleo puedo prosperar económicamente si me
	económicamente en esta ocupación	esfuerzo
Realización personal	Esta dimensión intenta evaluar la	2 Mi trabajo me hace sentir pleno
	satisfacción con el cumplimiento de	
		Realizar este empleo contribuye a mi bienestar.
	deseadas y significado de la ocupación	Este trabajo tiene un significado positivo en mi vida
	para el bienestar del sujeto.	18 Estoy contento de hacer este trabajo
Relaciones	Esta dimensión evalúa el tipo de	
interpersonales		7 Me gusta convivir con mis compañeros de trabajo
	en el ambiente laboral y el grado de satisfacción con las mismas.	11 Asisto a reuniones sociales y otros eventos con mis compañeros de trabajo
		15 Las relaciones con compañeros de trabajo son cordiales
		19 Estoy a gusto con el trato que recibo de mis compañeros
		de trabajo
Estabilidad de vida	Esta dimensión se refiere a la	4 Mi trabajo me mantiene sano
	importancia que se le da al trabajo	8 Mi trabajo lo mantiene ocupado y alejado de los vicios.
	como fuente de estabilidad y	12 Mi trabajo me hace sentir productivo
	satisfacción personal, y su	16 Gracias a mi trabajo soy una persona productiva.
	contribución a la salud física y mental	20 Me gustaría continuar trabajando a pesar de haber
	de la persona.	cumplido la edad de jubilación

Procedimientos para el análisis de datos: Para el análisis estadístico de resultados se empleó el programa estadístico Statistics Package for Social Science SPSS Versión 16.0 para Windows Vista; Se realizó un análisis de estadística descriptiva y de frecuencias con la finalidad de describir el comportamiento del fenómeno bajo estudio en cada una de las divisiones bajo estudio. Con el análisis estadístico de correlación se determinó el nivel de confiabilidad del cuestionario y la correlación existente entre las variables objeto de estudio. También se realizaron las correlaciones entre las variables generales, las dos relativas a la organización y las tres variables socio demográficas.

RESULTADOS

División A

Como parte de los objetivos del estudio se presentan con detalle los resultados de los cuestionarios por cada una de las divisiones académicas que participaron en el mismo. Los resultados descriptivos para las cuatro dimensiones de la variable motivación en la primera división en la que se aplicó el cuestionario se reportan en la tabla 2.

Tabla 2: Estadísticas descriptivas con relación a las dimensiones del cuestionario – división académica "A" (escala 0 -20)

Dimensión	Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
Incentivo Económico	9	25	19.00	3.730
Realización Personal	17	25	22.21	2.467
Relaciones Interpersonales	16	25	21.08	2.483
Estabilidad de vida	15	25	21.08	3.092

Se puede apreciar que la dimensión con la media más alta es la realización personal y la más baja el incentivo económico, siendo consistentes los resultados de esta división con los resultados generales. Es preciso remarcar que el incentivo económico reporta de igual forma la desviación estándar más grande.

En la tabla 3 se reportan los valores de la media y la desviación estándar de cada uno de los reactivos que conforman la dimensión sobre Incentivo Económico para la división académica "A".

Tabla 3: Estadísticas descriptivas de los reactivos de la dimensión Incentivo Económico cuestionario – división académica "A" (escala 1 - 5)

Read	tivo	Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
1.	Siento que mi paga reconoce mi esfuerzo	1	5	3.46	1.215
5.	Mi sueldo satisface mis necesidades básicas	1	5	3.75	1.073
9.	Hay posibilidades de avance salarial en este empleo	2	5	3.79	.884
13.	Mi paga corresponde a mi responsabilidad	2	5	3.88	.947
17. esfue	En este empleo puedo prosperar económicamente si me	1	5	4.13	1.076

Se puede apreciar que los valores que se reportan en los promedios de respuestas nos indican que las respuestas oscilaron desde una posición neutra (ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo= 3) y un valor de aceptación (De acuerdo= 4). El reactivo con la media más alta fue el 13 que cuestiona sobre el pago y el nivel de responsabilidad, siendo esta una diferencia particular con relación a los resultados generales. La tabla 4 reporta los valores de la media y la desviación estándar de cada uno de los reactivos que conforman la dimensión sobre la Estabilidad de vida.

Tabla 4: Estadísticas descriptivas de los reactivos de la dimensión Estabilidad de vida cuestionario – división académica "A" (escala 1 - 5)

Reactivo		Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
4.	Mi trabajo me mantiene sano	1	5	3.79	1.103
8.	Mi trabajo lo mantiene ocupado y alejado de los vicios	2	5	4.33	.963
12.	Mi trabajo me hace sentir productivo	3	5	4.50	.659
16.	Gracias a mi trabajo soy una persona productiva	3	5	4.29	.751
20. cumj	Me gustaría continuar trabajando a pesar de haber blido la edad de jubilación	2	5	4.17	.963

Se aprecia que los valores que se reportan en los promedios de respuestas indican que las respuestas oscilaron desde una posición neutra (ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo= 3) hasta un valor de total aceptación (De acuerdo= 4 y Totalmente de acuerdo = 5).El reactivo con la media más alta es el 12, que cuestiona sobre si el trabajo es un incentivo a la productividad. El reactivo que reporta la media más baja es el cuatro que cuestiona sobre la salud en relación al trabajo.

A excepción del reactivo cuatro, todos los demás reportan una desviación estándar menor a la unidad. La desviación estándar más alta se reporta en el reactivo cuatro, lo que indica que es la pregunta con mayor dispersión en las respuestas. Los resultados para esta dimensión son consistentes con los resultados generales.

División B

Los resultados descriptivos para las cuatro dimensiones de la variable motivación en la segunda división en la que se aplicó el cuestionario se reportan en la tabla 5.

Dimensión	Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
Incentivo Económico	10	24	17.38	4.006
Realización Personal	18	25	22.38	2.269
Relaciones Interpersonales	15	25	20.71	2.866
Estabilidad de vida	13	23	20.33	2.288

Tabla 5: Estadísticas descriptivas con relación a las dimensiones del cuestionario – división académica "B" (escala 5 -25)

Se puede apreciar que la dimensión con la media más alta es la realización personal y la más baja el incentivo económico, siendo consistentes los resultados de esta división con los resultados generales. Es preciso remarcar que el incentivo económico reporta de igual forma la desviación estándar más grande. En la tabla 6 se reportan los valores de la media y la desviación estándar de cada uno de los reactivos que conforman la dimensión sobre Incentivo Económico para la división académica "B".

Tabla 6: Estadísticas descriptivas de los reactivos de la dimensión Incentivo Económico cuestionario – división académica "B" (escala 1 - 5)

Rea	ctivo	Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
1.	Siento que mi paga reconoce mi esfuerzo	1	5	3.00	1.095
5.	Mi sueldo satisface mis necesidades básicas	2	5	3.67	.966
9.	Hay posibilidades de avance salarial en este empleo	1	5	3.71	1.231
13.	Mi paga corresponde a mi responsabilidad	2	5	3.29	1.007
17. esfu	En este empleo puedo prosperar económicamente si me erzo	2	5	3.71	1.102

Se puede apreciar que los valores que se reportan en los promedios de respuestas nos indican que las respuestas oscilaron desde una posición neutra (ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo= 3) y un valor de aceptación (De acuerdo= 4). El reactivo con la media más alta es el cinco que cuestiona sobre la suficiencia del pago en relación a las necesidades básicas. El reactivo con la desviación estándar más alta es el nueve, lo que nos indica que es la pregunta con mayor dispersión en las respuestas. Esta dimensión reporta valores ligeramente diferentes a los resultados generales. La tabla 7 reporta los valores de la media y la desviación estándar de cada uno de los reactivos que conforman la dimensión sobre Realización Personal.

Tabla 7: Estadísticas descriptivas de los reactivos de la dimensión Realización Personal cuestionario – división académica "B" (escala 1 - 5)

Rea	ctivo	Valor mínimo	Valor máximo	Media	DS
2.	Mi trabajo me hace sentir pleno	4	5	4.52	.512
6.	Mi trabajo es importante para mi	3	5	4.52	.602
10.	Realizar este empleo contribuye a mi bienestar.	2	5	4.14	.793
14.	Este trabajo tiene un significado positivo en mi vida	4	5	4.57	.507
18.	Estoy contento de hacer este trabajo	4	5	4.62	.498

Se puede apreciar que los valores que se reportan en los promedios de respuestas nos indican que oscilaron en los rangos de una posición de aceptación (De acuerdo= 4 y Totalmente de acuerdo= 5). El

reactivo con la media más alta es el 14, que cuestiona sobre un significado positivo del trabajo en el esquema de vida. El reactivo 10 es el que tiene la media más baja y es donde se cuestiona si el empleo contribuye al bienestar de la persona.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados muestran una población homogénea, aunque sean dos divisiones distintas y no tienen diferencias estadísticas significativas una con respecto a la otra, y se puede observar que la dimensión con mayor valor es la realización personal, siendo la más baja el incentivo económico; de igual forma se puede destacar que en la administración de las dos divisiones hay dos tipos de personal administrativo: los de apoyo y los directivos que también son profesores y que ganan un sueldo por realizar labores administrativas. En el estudio se puede ver que el empleado establecer como primer factor motivacional el incentivo económico después la estabilidad económica y por último las relaciones interpersonales.

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BIOGRAFÍA

María del Carmen Ancona Alcocer es Maestra en Administración por la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Es Licenciada en Administración por la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Actualmente es Directora de la División de Ciencias Económico Administrativa de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco y participa en el cuerpo académico de Globalización y Políticas Públicas.

Manuela Camacho Gómez es Doctor en Educación Internacional. Ha hecho estudios especializados en la Universitá Commerciale Luigi Bocconi en Milán, Italia; en el Centro Internacional de Formación de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo en Turín, Italia, Centro de Estudios Empresariales en Zaragoza, España y en el INCAE Business School de Managua, Nicaragua. Es directora y colaboradora en diversos proyectos de investigación sobre Turismo, Mercadotecnia, Negociaciones y Educación Internacional.

Cecilia García Muñoz Apáricio es Maestra en Administración por la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Es Licenciada en Administración de Empresas por el Tecnológico de Monterrey (ITESM). Actualmente es Coordinadora Administrativa de la División de Ciencias Económico Administrativas de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco y participa en el Proyecto de Aspectos Económicos de los Desastres en Tabasco.

APLICACIÓN DE HERRAMIENTAS DE CALIDAD PARA EL INCREMENTO DE LA PRODUCTIVIDAD EN LA EMPRESA SOLUCIONES COPISER

Sandra Patricia de la Garza Cienfuegos, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Roberto Gerardo Adán Sánchez, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Manuel de Jesús Vázquez Franco, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

RESUMEN

La implantación de la estrategia es el paso determinante de este proyecto, pues una estrategia es tan buena como su puesta en práctica. Es decir, por mucho que la estrategia haya sido muy bien pensada, si la ejecución no se encuentra acompañada de talento directivo y de liderazgo, la estrategia no funcionará. Realizar un diagnostico de la organización identificar las brechas de desempeño, fortalezas, debilidades, amenazas y áreas de oportunidad.El objetivo del presente proyecto es incrementar la productividad de la empresa Soluciones COPISER mediante la implantación de un modelo de calidad. Cuyo eje principal será elevar el nivel de satisfacción de nuestros clientes La metodologia es de carácter mixto cualitativa ya que se acudio a la información documental y cuantitativa donde Las técnicas utilizadas fueron entrevistas, Se eligió una muestra de 33 clientes, por lo tanto se utilizó un instrumento de elaboración propia. Además de investigación de fuentes documentales, registros estadísticos y entrevistas a clientes y proveedores para medir la calidad del servicio. Finalmente tenemos la evaluación de resultados en donde medir, comparar y evaluar los resultados obtenidos implica necesariamente Proponer la implementación de la estrategia de calidad para incrementar la competitividad de la empresa.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Estrategia, Liderazgo, Calidad

ABSTRACT

The implementation of the strategy is the key step of this project, as a strategy is as good as its implementation. That is, by far the strategy has been very well thought out, if the execution is not and leadership, accompanied bv talent management the strategy will not work. Making a diagnosis of the organization to identify performance gaps, strengths, weaknesses and areas of opportunity. The objective of this project is to increase business productivity solutions COPISA by implementing a quality model. Whose main focus will be to raise the level of customer satisfaction The methodology is a mixed qualitative as it went to the document and quantitative information where utlizando techniques were interviews, was selected a sample of 33 clients, so we used a home made instrument. In addition to research of documents, statistical records and interviews with customers and suppliers to measure the quality of service. Finally there is the evaluation of results where to measure, compare and evaluate the results imply propose the implementation of quality strategy to increase the competitiveness of the company.

KEYWORDS: Strategy, Leadership, Quality.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El objetivo del presente proyecto es incrementar la productividad de la empresa Soluciones COPISER mediante la implantación de un modelo de calidad. Cuyo eje principal será elevar el nivel de satisfacción de nuestros clientes La principal fuerza de esta transformación es la creación de valor superior para los grupos de interés de la organización a través de un entendimiento de sus necesidades, de la estrategia de

la organización y la mejora continua de los sistemas y procesos, así como de los productos, bienes y servicios.

El primer paso de nuestro proyecto fue la definición clara del negocio en donde se declaran misión, visión y principios corporativos, es decir el conjunto de valores, creencias y normas que regulan la vida de la organización. El conocimiento e identificación de estos por parte de todos los miembros de la organización es de vital importancia ya que definen la cultura organizacional la cual inspira la vida de la empresa dándole así la carta de navegación ética por la cual se regirá la ejecución de sus actividades.El segundo paso fue realizar un diagnostico de la organización que nos permitiera identificar las brechas de desempeño frente a un estado deseado y apreciar sus fortalezas y debilidades así como también sus amenazas y áreas de oportunidad.Evaluar los resultados y analizar si estos están acorde con sus objetivos y responden a las expectativas De entre las variadas estrategias que se tienen se opto por una estrategia de diferenciación enfocado a la distribución y el servicio al cliente. Dos aspectos que son cruciales para lograr la satisfacción total del cliente.

Antecedentes: Soluciones Copiser surgió en 1993 como una empresa dedicada a la venta de equipo de copiado, renta y servicio técnico. Esta idea surgió a raíz de que su propietario Lic. Manuel De Jesús Vázquez Franco estuvo trabajando como vendedor en otra compañía de giro similar y observo que generalmente las compañías venden equipos y se preocupan muy poco por el servicio técnico. (Postventa). Se observo también que había muchos nichos de mercado abandonados (áreas geográficamente alejadas sin ser trabajadas) misma que el propietario estaría dispuesto a cubrir.

Planteamiento Del Problema: Al estar enfocado demasiado al servicio técnico se descuida la cuestión administrativa, demasiada rotación de personal, deficiente sistemas de información., perfiles de puesto inexistentes. no existe un sistema de calidad implantado. el creciente auge del correo electrónico, el cual reduce la necesidad de tanto papeleo y por lo tanto la necesidad del fotocopiado y La fácil entrada de nuevos competidores

Objetivo: El objetivo del presente proyecto es incrementar en el 2011 la productividad de la empresa Soluciones COPISER en un 20% mediante la implantación de un modelo de calidad. Los bjetivos específicos son:

- 1. Implementación del sistema de calidad
- 2. Aumento en el índice de satisfacción del cliente
- 3. Mayor posicionamiento en el mercado
- 4. Disminución del índice de rotación de personal

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

(Llano, 2004)menciona la humildad aplicada al conocimiento del comportamiento humano ya que no nos deja creer que siempre vamos a encontrarnos en la cumbre sin embargo nos ayuda a valorar nuestra empresa y ver la ventaja competitiva que otros nos llevan, saber rectificar los errores de si mismos.

(Merrill, 2010)Si analizamos los éxistos de las empresas, vamos a encontrar los fracasos. Pero aprendieron de ellos para mejorar y encontrar el camino al éxito mediante un benchmarking de otros procesos de calidad. Como si fuera una copia en excelente para lograr una mejora continua, seguir siempre adelante sin rendir la batalla autoevaluando la actividad de la calidad.

(Drucker, 1999)El directivo establece factores importantes para el buen desempeño de la empresa y de cada integrante de la misma, para ello es necesario voluntad de cambiar, la capacidad de aportar un valor agregado como la innovación y pone a prueba diferentes productos y servicios de la organización, el lider debe de contar con la capacidad de toma de decisiones sobre un producto o servicio. Sin embargo (Porter, 2008)nos dice identificar y reforzar en la cadena de valor, las ventajas competitivas y estrategias

competitivas. Existen una serie de actividades para la empresa que agregan valor al cliente estan relacionadas por eslabones y constituyen la cadena de valor

METODOLOGÍA

Es de carácter mixto cualitativa ya que se acudio a la información documental y cuantitativa donde se involucra calidad, estrategias y liderazgo. Las técnicas utilizadas fueron entrevistas, se utilizaron dos instrumentos, el primero fue un Autodiagnóstico en línea que se encuentra en la pagina de la Secretaria de Economía. Este es un sistema vía *Internet* que permite evaluar la operación interna de la empresa. Se obtiene una evaluación a través de un semáforo por cada sección del cuestionario que se contesta, donde el semáforo indicará a través de sus colores, qué tan eficaz y eficiente es el procedimiento del área evaluada. Al ser modular el sistema, se puede obtener una evaluación aún y cuando no se contesten todos los temas. El segundo fue una encuesta para conocer el nivel de satisfacción y la percepción del cliente.

RESULTADOS

Figura 1: Con la finalidad de tener valores cuantitativos de las distintas áreas analizadas se le dieron valores a cada color del semáforo (rojo=50 amarillo=75 y verde=100), quedando la evaluación de la siguiente manera.

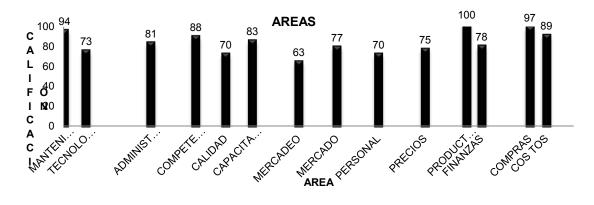
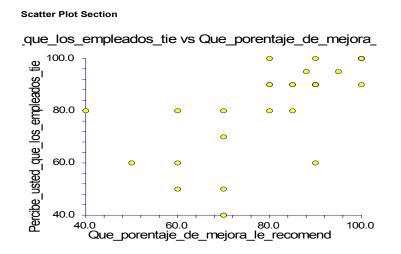


Figura 2: Correlación



CONCLUSIONES

En la literatura se mencionan varios conceptos sobre el papel que desempeña un buen directivo en la empresa siendo el la clave importante para el desarrollo y funcionamiento de la organización, debe tener un espiritú emprendedor y saber conducir e involucrar a los empleados del negocio para innovar, valorar la empresa y no perder de vista la ventaja competitiva que otros nos llevan. Se encontró en el análisis de las encuestas que en nivel de satisfacción del cliente en lo que respecta a la atención de los empleados es de un 82%, no se ve significativo por la atención que ofrece el director a estos clientes, sin embargo, se identifico la falta de personal para la mejora continuo.

Una vez habiendo establecido las áreas que presentan mayor problemática así como los objetivos del proyecto, se realizaron planes de trabajo para atacar cada una de las áreas basándonos en una metodología de resolución de problemas denominada Ruta de la Calidad y que se utiliza dentro de un entorno de trabajo de Calidad Total y de Gestión por procesos, para mantener los indicadores de control uniformemente dentro de unos límites aceptables de variación.

Propuesta

Tabla 1: Ruta de Calidad

				1		 	 	
		cada semana obtener			Se hace asi	4		
		la información			ahora para			Elaborar un control
Hacer		necesaria de la			monitorear			de calidad en un
Hatel		actividades realizadas	Director		los			reporte diario de
		de cada uno de los	General y	Oficina,	resultados			ventas y cartera de
	5	agentes	Secretaria	Secretaria	obtenidos			clientes visitados.
						l ¢		
		Verificar los resultados			Para			
Verificar		logrados por los	Director		verificar			Elaborar juntas
vernicai		agentes y si se cumplió	General y	Sala de	quien logro			mensuales con el
		con el objetivo de	Sub-	Juntas de la	ganar el			personal
	6	acuerdo a lo planeado	Director	Empresa	estimulo			involucrado
								Secretaria
								elaborará las
		Comparar el antes						graficas de ventas e
		contra el despues de	Director					incremento de
		acuerdo al plan	General y	Sala de	Se verifica			cartera de clientes.
		estrategico	Sub-	Juntas de la	la mejora			Para analizar la
	7	establecido	Director	Empresa	continua			mejora continua.
					Es			
					necesario			
Actuar		Definir los problemas			definir las			
		de acuerdo a los			fallas y			
		resultados .			mejorarlas			
		Planear lo que hay que			continuame			
		hacer con los			nte y no			
		problemas resultantes			descuidar la			De acuerdo a los
		Evaluar los pasos de la	Director		empresa			reportes de ventas
		ruta de calidad.	General y	Sala de	hasta la			y graficas de los
		Definir nuevos	Sub-	Juntas de la	baja de			rubros antes
	8	proyectos.	Director	Empresa	utilidades.			mencionados.

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Sandra de la Garza, es Catedratico Investigador de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, Carr 57 k.m. 4.5, Monclova, Coahuila, México cienfuegoss2005@yahoo.com.mx, Roberto Adán, es catedratico de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Facultad de Ing. Mecanica y Electrica, Barranquilla s/n Col. Guadalupe, Monclova, Coahuila, México, roberto_adan@hotmail.com, Manuel Vazquez, estudiante de doctorado en la Facultad de Contaduría y administración de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Carr 57 k.m 4.5. en Monclova, Coahuila, México, manuelsolcopiser@hotmail.com

PROYECTOS DE VINCULACIÓN ESCUELA-EMPRESA COMO ESTRATEGIA DE APOYO EN LA CALIDAD DEL PROCESO ENSEÑANZA APRENDIZAJE DE LA EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR

 Velia Verónica Ferreiro Martínez, Universidad Autónoma del Estado Baja California. Janette Brito Laredo, Universidad Autónoma del Estado Baja California.
 Adriana Isabel Garambullo, Universidad Autónoma del Estado Baja California. Carolina Martínez López, Universidad Autónoma del Estado Baja California.

RESUMEN

La presente investigación analiza las variables que influyen en el proceso enseñanza aprendizaje al realizar proyectos integradores en vinculación con empresas por estudiantes de la Licenciatura en Administración de Empresas de la Facultad de Ingeniería y Negocios Tecate, en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. El modelo educativo de la universidad pretende generar un ambiente de aprendizaje y sensibilidad entre los estudiantes respecto de sus compromisos sociales y su superación, que incentive su creatividad, motive su participación y proporcione oportunidades de aprovechar sus talentos, trabajando en conjunto con sus compañeros y en vinculación con el contexto externo. Los resultados obtenidos permiten observar que con la implementación de proyectos las variables conocimiento integrado, trabajo en equipo y experiencia laboral son predictoras significativas que apoyan la calidad del proceso enseñanza aprendizaje. Como conclusión se resume que la realización de proyectos vinculados con empresas permite a los alumnos integrar conocimientos y adquirir experiencias para su futuro desempeño profesional, por lo tanto se recomienda incluirlos en instituciones de educación superior que busquen lograr un aprendizaje significativo y efectivo durante la formación profesional de los estudiantes.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje, vinculación escuela-empresa, calidad en educación superior.

EVALUACIÓN DEL MODELO COLOMBIANO DE DESCENTRALIZACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA Y AUTONOMÍA REGIONAL

Mary Luz Ordoñez Santos, Universidad de Pamplona, Colombia

RESUMEN

A lo largo de su bicentenaria vida como Estado independiente, Colombia no ha encontrado la necesaria estabilidad en su modelo político-administrativo. Durante el siglo XIX y después de una cadena de guerras civiles, inexorablemente se promulgarían sucesivas constituciones alternativamente centralistas y federalistas. Finalmente en la carta de 1886 se adoptaría el centralismo como paradigma del Estado. Si bien el modelo fortaleció la unidad nacional, simultáneamente acentuó las disparidades socioeconómicas entre las regiones. Para atacar el problema, la Constitución de 1991, consagró la descentralización administrativa y la autonomía regional como nuevo paradigma de Estado. Sin embargo, el componente financiero y transmisor del proceso descentralizador fundamentado en el Sistema de Transferencias Territoriales o Sistema General de Participaciones, se convertiría en causa recurrente del creciente déficit fiscal del Estado. En la búsqueda del equilibrio en sus finanzas, diferentes gobiernos reformarían la constitución en 2001 y 2007 modificando la fórmula del cálculo de las transferencias del nivel central a los entes territoriales. La consecuencia inmediata sería una disminución de las participaciones regionales respecto de los ingresos corrientes de la nación que conduciría a un proceso de recentralización del gasto público y al desfinanciamiento de las competencias a cargo de los gobiernos regionales.

PALABRAS CLAVES: descentralización, autonomía, transferencias, Colombia

INTRODUCCIÓN

Dentro del complejo catálogo de problemas propios de los países en vías de desarrollo, en el caso Colombiano, concurrentemente ha estado presente el de la identificación, institucionalización y aplicación del modelo político–administrativo de Estado. En efecto, desde el grito de independencia de la Nueva Granada –hoy Colombia- de la madre patria Ibérica el 20 de julio de 1810, los líderes libertarios, se transaron en un violento y prolongado conflicto por la adopción del modelo administrativo del naciente Estado. Las consecuencias fueron, tanto una cadena de guerras civiles entre facciones centralistas y federalistas, como un permanente estado de inestabilidad política e institucional, expresada en la vigencia efimera, de al menos nueve constituciones nacionales entre 1810 y 1886, amén de otras de carácter regional en los periodos federalistas, que finalmente terminaron socavando los cimientos de la unidad nacional. Habría de esperarse entonces, la entrada en vigencia de la Constitución de 1886, que proclamaría a Colombia como una nación unitaria con centralización política. Si bien, durante los 105 años de vigencia de la referida carta política –hasta 1991-, se afianzaron la unidad nacional y la integridad territorial, no menos cierto es que, el centralismo político y administrativo, polarizó el poder y los beneficios del desarrollo socio-económico alrededor de la capital y de una pocas regiones ricas, en desmedro de las zonas periféricas, pobres y marginales.

Como una estrategia política para atacar las inequidades derivadas del centralismo, la centenaria Constitución de 1886, fue reformada en 1986 para introducirle la figura de la elección popular de alcaldes. Si bien ésta enmienda contribuyó al fortalecimiento de las democracias locales, no habérsele acompañado de las necesarias herramientas fiscales, debilitó su impacto en función de la descentralización y de la autonomía regional, y consecuentemente, terminó convirtiéndose, más en un instrumento de carácter político que redistributivo.

Ya inmersa en los tiempos posmodernos de una globalización en ciernes, en 1991, Colombia adoptó una nueva Constitución Política. En ella, se consagró como principio fundante, que: "Colombia es un Estado social de derecho, organizado en forma de república unitaria, descentralizada, con autonomía de sus entidades territoriales...." (art.1°.C.P.). Complementariamente la normatividad estableció como mandatos imperativos las competencias a cargo de los gobiernos nacional, departamentales y municipales y asignó los recursos para financiarlas, inicialmente dentro de un modelo fiscal de participación de los entes territoriales en los ingresos corrientes de la nación y cuya fórmula de cálculo ha sido modificada en dos ocasiones -reformas constitucionales de 2001 y 2007- y hoy es conocida como Sistema General de Participaciones (SGP) o "músculo financiero de la descentralización".

Desde entonces, los argumentos en torno a las bondades y a las inconveniencias de las sucesivas reformas al SGP, han generado y alimentado un gran debate nacional, al interior del cual, tendenciosamente se percibe que las referidas modificaciones al régimen de transferencias impulsadas desde el gobierno central, han estado orientadas al debilitamiento del músculo financiero del modelo descentralizador, con profundas secuelas en la construcción de la equidad regional y el fortalecimiento de las democracias locales.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

UNA APROXIMACIÓN A LA TEORÍA DE LA DESCENTRALIZACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA Y LA AUTONOMÍA REGIONAL

Para la ciencia económica y con fundamento en las teorías -principalmente- de Wheare Keneth y Wallace Oates, la descentralización se refiere a la forma de organizar la administración pública entre el gobierno central y los gobiernos locales. Esta definición, implica que el análisis de la descentralización y la autonomía, este ligado con el concepto del federalismo fiscal, definido por W. Keneth como "el método de dividir poderes de manera que el gobierno central y los gobiernos regionales están, dentro de su esfera, coordinados e independientes". Se dividen poderes, para que cada nivel de gobierno los ejerza de la mejor manera en beneficio de los ciudadanos bajo su tutela. En la misma línea, la descentralización debe concebirse como un medio para conseguir un fin y no como un fin en sí misma, y su éxito debe juzgarse por si ella conduce a mayores tasas de crecimiento y por si cada nivel de gobierno presta a sus ciudadanos el mejor servicio posible dentro de las responsabilidades asignadas, entendiéndose por ejemplo, que la justicia y la defensa nacional, al igual que las políticas de estabilización económica y de redistribución del ingreso siempre corresponden a la lista de funciones del gobierno central y que los bienes y los servicios públicos que benefician a ciertos grupos de la población deben ser provistos por los gobiernos locales (Musgrave 1959 y Oates 1972). De esta manera se garantiza una relación directa entre los costos y los beneficios de la utilización de dichos bienes.

Complementaria y concretamente desde lo fiscal, existe una variedad de sistemas y teóricamente se consideran dos casos extremos con relación al grado de descentralización, o dicho de otra forma, al grado de concentración de las responsabilidades fiscales -ingresos y gastos- entre los diferentes niveles de gobierno. De una parte, se puede considerar un sistema fiscal en el cual los gobiernos locales tienen completa autonomía en el gasto y en el ingreso. En estos sistemas, los impuestos locales financian los bienes públicos territoriales y el gobierno federal se encarga de la defensa nacional y la redistribución del ingreso. De otra, se tiene un sistema fiscal centralizado en el cual el gobierno nacional es el principal recaudador de impuestos y el proveedor de los bienes y servicios públicos locales y nacionales. Un aspecto importante que diferencia a los dos sistemas, es que en el primero las políticas de descentralización se llevan a cabo a través de la reducción de transferencias del gobierno "federal" a los gobiernos locales. Una ilustración de esta política de descentralización sería la reforma al sistema de bienestar social en los Estados Unidos en 1996, en donde se pasó de un esquema de transferencias sin límite con contrapartida local a uno de transferencias fijas y limitadas. Contrariamente, en el caso de los

sistemas centralizados, las políticas de "descentralización" se llevan a cabo con un incremento de las transferencias del gobierno central hacia los gobiernos locales, tal sería el caso colombiano después de la Constitución de 1991 y hasta el año 2001.

Finalmente, la descentralización no solo debe ser vista como un proceso fiscal y administrativo, también tiene la finalidad política de cohesionar la unidad nacional y facilitar la participación ciudadana. La experiencia en países que en momentos de su historia han tenido dificultades para mantener un nivel mínimo de cohesión nacional, ha demostrado que acentuar y profundizar modelos descentralistas o de regionalización y aún proclives al federalismo ha resultado conveniente para afianzar la unidad nacional y fortalecer las democracias locales.

METODOLOGÍA

Evolución Histórica Y Socioeconómica

Desde la firma del acta de la independencia, el 20 de julio de 1810, que formalizó la separación absoluta de la Nueva Granada de la monarquía española, la naciente junta de gobierno inspirada en la Constitución de los Estados Unidos de América de 1787, sería proclive al federalismo y con fundamento en este modelo político-administrativo, en 1811 se firmó en Santa fe de Bogotá la primera Constitución verdaderamente nacional. Con este hito, se inició la larga lucha entre centralistas y federalistas que marcó la historia del Estado colombiano en sus dos siglos de vida independiente, que se reflejó en una cadena de guerras civiles durante el siglo XIX y cuyos bandos ganadores alternadamente impusieron su propia constitución, ya centralista, ya federalista. Los liberales radicales llegaron al extremo del federalismo, proclamando en la Constitución de 1863 -a lo que hoy es Colombia- como Estados Unidos de Colombia, hito que amenazó tanto la estabilidad política como la integridad de la convulsionada nación. De tal manera, que se necesitó un nuevo estatuto político que garantizara la supervivencia del Estado en condiciones de unidad y en el marco de una compleja coyuntura política, se expidió la Constitución de 1886, que privilegiando el modelo de administración centralista sobre el federalista y el orden sobre las libertades, permitió la consolidación definitiva de Colombia como estado-nación y sería su carta de navegación durante 105 años hasta la expedición de la Carta Política de 1991.

La Constitución de 1886, no solo adoptó definitivamente el nombre oficial de República de Colombia, también proclamó que "La nación colombiana se reconstituye en forma de república unitaria", y en desarrollo de este principio estableció que: "La soberanía reside esencial y exclusivamente en la nación, y de ella emanan los poderes públicos...", y que serían entidades territoriales de la república "... los departamentos, las intendencias, las comisarías y los municipios o distritos municipales en que se dividen aquellos y estas". La aplicación del nuevo modelo constitucional centralista de 1886, llevó a que los antiguos Estados soberanos institucionalizados en la Constitución federal de 1863 se convirtieran en nuevos departamentos y en términos fiscales, a que sus ingresos tributarios propios, progresivamente pasaran al fisco nacional que en adelante los recaudó y transfirió a voluntad del gobernante de turno. La guerra de los mil días -1889/1902- no solo incidió en la pérdida del departamento de Panamá -hoy Estado independiente-, también incrementó los ingresos fiscales del nivel central, a costa de los nuevos departamentos. A su vez durante el siglo XX, los ocho grandes departamentos se subdividieron hasta llegar a veintidós en los años ochenta, dentro de un modelo de feudalización de la división político administrativa, iniciada y fomentada por el partido conservador, hegemónico en el poder desde 1886, como una estrategia para debilitar, tanto el poder de los antiguos grandes departamentos, como el de sus élites regionales, todo en aras de una creciente centralización del país.

En el ámbito de la administración departamental y municipal, la carta de 1886 estableció que "en cada uno de los departamentos habrá un gobernador, que será al mismo tiempo agente del gobierno y jefe de la administración seccional ... [que] ... dirigirá y coordinará, además, en el departamento, los servicios

nacionales en las condiciones de la delegación que le confiera el presidente de la república" (art. 181), con independencia para la administración de los asuntos seccionales dentro de las limitaciones que estableció la misma Constitución, pero ejerciendo sobre los municipios la tutela administrativa para "... planificar y coordinar el desarrollo regional y local y la prestación de servicios, en los términos que las leyes señalen" (art. 182). Complementariamente, la carta dispuso que "... la Ley, a iniciativa del gobierno, determinará los servicios a cargo de la nación y de las entidades territoriales, teniendo en cuenta la naturaleza, importancia y costos de los mismos, y señalará el porcentaje de los ingresos ordinarios de la nación que deba ser distribuido entre los departamentos, las intendencias y comisarías y el Distrito Especial de Bogotá, para la atención de sus servicios y los de sus respectivos municipios, conforme a los planes y programas que se establezcan ... el treinta por ciento de esta asignación se distribuirá por partes iguales entre los departamentos, intendencias y comisarías y el Distrito Especial de Bogotá, y el resto proporcionalmente a su población" (art. 182).

A lo largo del siglo XX, la aplicación de las precitadas normas constitucionales permitieron el fortalecimiento del poder político y económico centralizado en las autoridades nacionales, mientras que las competencias administrativas residían en las entidades territoriales, de tal manera, que al interior del modelo centralista colombiano citando a Trujillo Muñoz (2001) existía "… una sola, plena y única soberanía, sin residuos parciales de ella en los entes territoriales", que con el correr del tiempo generó un problema de tipo estructural, según el cual, los procesos de desarrollo económico y social avanzaron más rápidamente que el proceso equivalente en sus instituciones políticas y en su aparato administrativo, con profundas repercusiones en los procesos de administración regional por la desarticulación entre el manejo jurídico y político de la administración pública y las condiciones del desarrollo socio-económico de la diversidad regional del país. Consecuentemente, la implementación del modelo, necesariamente trajo como consecuencias negativas, entre otras, las controversias de carácter financiero y económico, entre los niveles central, departamental y municipal, especialmente referidas a las competencias administrativas, al origen y distribución del recaudo de los impuestos y otras sobre las apropiaciones para el gasto público.

En el ámbito socioeconómico, después de casi cien años de vigencia del modelo centralista consagrado en la Constitución de 1886 y con el desmedido aumento de la población del país, que pasó, -según el DANE 1999-, de 4.143.632 habitantes en 1905 a 37.442.791 en 1993, aparecieron con fuerza creciente las demandas sociales, especialmente en las regiones y municipios más pobres en procura de la provisión de servicios públicos por parte del gobierno central, como forma de contactar a las autoridades con los ciudadanos corrientes y en la búsqueda de una mejor redistribución de los recursos públicos entre los diferentes grupos sociales y regionales del país. Igualmente se incrementaron las presiones de los políticos regionales para obtener mejores participaciones presupuestales del erario nacional, y como condición *sine qua non* para el fortalecimiento de sus caudas electorales, mientras simultáneamente se profundizaban los desequilibrios territoriales.

En efecto, en el 2004, en los departamentos de Antioquia, Valle, Atlántico, Cundinamarca, Bolívar y Santander se localizaban 439 municipios que constituían el 40% de los 1.099 que para ese año existían en Colombia. Agregándole a éste grupo la capital Bogotá, entre todos conformaban el 58,1% de la población total del país en el mismo año y generaban el 67.8% del PIB en un espacio geográfico equivalente al 14,9% del territorio nacional. En los departamentos de Nariño, Norte de Santander, Boyacá, Córdoba, Magdalena, Cauca, Tolima, Caldas, Cesar y Risaralda, se asentaban 439 municipios - que representaban el 40% del total- y en cuyas jurisdicciones habitaba el 29% de la población total del país. En estos departamentos se producía el 20,2% del PIB sobre un 18,8% del territorial nacional.

Los departamentos de Huila, Sucre, Meta, Quindío, Guajira, Caquetá, Chocó, Putumayo, Casanare y Arauca, en forma agregada contenían 205 municipios que representaban el 18,9% del total y el 12,4% de la población del país. En sus jurisdicciones se producía el 11,2% del PIB en un 12,2% del territorio nacional. Por último, los departamentos de Guaviare, Vichada, San Andrés, Amazonas, Guainía y Vaupés

en conjunto solo tenían 15 municipios, en los cuales habitaba el 1% de la población del país, y se generaba solo el 1% del PIB en un 34,1% del territorio.

Las marcadas disparidades regionales, sumadas a la necesidad de reordenar el territorio en función de las condiciones del desarrollo socio-económico, también justificaron la imperiosa necesidad de aplicar en el país un verdadero modelo de descentralización administrativa y de autonomía regional, cuyos primeros referentes importantes fueron, tanto la reforma constitucional de 1968, que introdujo la figura del Situado Fiscal, como la Ley 12 de 1986, que transfería recursos y funciones de la nación a los municipios. Sin embargo, la piedra angular del proceso, lo constituyó la elección popular de alcaldes instituida a través el Acto Legislativo número 1 de 1986, que permitió el quiebre de la estructura del centralismo político de la carta de 1886, sustrajo al alcalde de la dependencia jerárquica del gobernador, impulsó la autonomía municipal y estimuló la participación política de los grupos sociales y regionales más desfavorecidos. Esta reforma se constituyó en el antecedente inmediato de la Constitución de 1991 que consagró a Colombia como un "...Estado social de derecho, organizado en forma de República unitaria, descentralizada, con autonomía de sus entidades territoriales..." (Constitución Política de Colombia (1991) y consecuentemente proclamó como norma superior la existencia de diferentes niveles de gobierno: el nacional, los departamentales y los municipales. El primero en cabeza del presidente de la república, los ministros de despacho y los directores de departamento administrativo; y los segundos con la jefatura de gobernadores y alcaldes, que siendo de elección popular, perdieron su condición de "agentes" del jefe ejecutivo superior según sea el caso.

RESULTADOS

Análisis Económico De La Descentralización Fiscal Periodo 1991-2001

Desde los años cincuenta del siglo XX y hasta hoy, la economía colombiana y su modelo de desarrollo implícito, se inscribieron dentro del marco del sistema capitalista propio de los países en vías de desarrollo, siendo sus principales características: a) la tendencia al predominio del trabajo asalariado y por tanto a la desaparición de las formas de producción para el autoconsumo; b) la tendencia a la centralización y concentración de la propiedad y por tanto a la reducción de la importancia de la producción artesanal y de la pequeña industria; c) la tendencia a la concentración de las actividades económicas y de la población en las cuatro principales ciudades del país -Bogotá, Medellín, Cali, Barranquilla- y consecuentemente la dinamización de las migraciones rural-urbanas con su efecto complementario de disminución absoluta y relativa de la población rural; d) la tendencia al incremento en la importancia de la producción industrial y de servicios y a la reducción de la participación de la actividad agrícola; e) la proclividad a la centralización del Estado y a la concentración de las principales funciones en materia de estabilización económica y promoción del desarrollo.

En este contexto, en el periodo comprendido entre 1991 y 2001, la aplicación del modelo descentralizador y autonómico regional, consagrado en la Carta Política de 1991, se enmarca dentro de un proceso de creciente deterioro de las principales variables e indicadores económicos y fiscales, así: primero, el irregular comportamiento del PIB, cuya tasa de crecimiento cayó desde el 4,3% en 1990, al (-4.2%) en 1999, generando una de las mayores crisis económicas y financieras en la historia de Colombia. Segundo, la asimetría entre unos débiles ingresos tributarios, que pasaron del 9,7% del PIB en 1990 al 13% en el 2000, y un creciente gasto que lo avanzó del 9% del PIB al 18% en el 2000. Tercero, el rápido crecimiento del déficit fiscal que del (-0.5%) del PIB en 1990 se situó en (-6%) en el 2000. Cuarto, el creciente nivel de endeudamiento público que avanzó del 4% al 47.7% entre 1990 y 2001. Desde la teoría económica, formular y aplicar un modelo descentralizador, en las condiciones anteriormente descritas, supone implementar una descentralización política, administrativa y fiscal, sin incurrir en desequilibrios macroeconómicos y materializar el objetivo, según el cual, la distribución y asignación de los ingresos fiscales de ser equitativa con base en la focalización del gasto por grupos

sociales y regiones dentro de los fines del Estado Social de Derecho consagrado en el artículo 1º de la Constitución de 1991. En la misma dirección, los entes territoriales simultáneamente deben hacer un esfuerzo tributario, con el fin de financiar las nuevas competencias asignadas en el modelo. Esta interpretación se constituyó en el fundamento jurídico-político, sobre la cual se redactaron los artículos 356 y 357 de la precitada Carta de 1991, por lo demás constitutivos del marco fiscal de la descentralización, que en sus apartes pertinentes establecieron que:

Art.357... (Parágrafo) La participación de los municipios en los ingresos corrientes de la nación se incrementará, año por año, del catorce por ciento en 1993 hasta alcanzar el veintidós por ciento como mínimo en el 2002. La ley fijará el aumento gradual de estas transferencias y definirá las nuevas responsabilidades que en materia de inversión social asumirán los municipios y las condiciones para su cumplimiento. Sus autoridades deberán demostrar a los organismos de evaluación y control de resultados la eficiente y correcta aplicación de estos recursos y, en caso de mal manejo, se harán acreedores a las sanciones que establezca la ley.

Respecto a las finanzas públicas en el periodo 1991-2001, economistas de diferentes tendencias coinciden en afirmar que su creciente deterioro en los finales del siglo XX se originó por tres factores: primero, la crisis del sistema de pensiones. Para enfrentarla, el gobierno aumentó el gasto en este rubro, del 1% del PIB en 1990 al 3% en el 2003. Segundo, el gasto en seguridad y justicia para mantener la legitimidad institucional del Estado, al interior del cual, el componente militar pasó del 2% del PIB en 1990 al 4.5% en el 2003. Tercero, las transferencias del gobierno central a los entes territoriales para financiar las competencias y servicios sociales a su cargo, que crecieron del 2.4% del PIB en 1990, al 5.6% en 2003.

Dentro del contexto de las finanzas y los presupuestos territoriales, la referida crisis fiscal del gobierno central, inercialmente se trasladó a los entes territoriales, de tal manera, que pese a sus crecientes ingresos por vía de las transferencias del nivel nacional, los mayores niveles de gasto y endeudamiento y su reducida base tributaria, generaron un desequilibrio estructural que, finalmente comprometió la viabilidad financiera de municipios, distritos y departamentos, con profundas repercusiones tanto en las finanzas nacionales como en el comportamiento macroeconómico del país. Puntualmente, las principales causas del desequilibrio en las finanzas territoriales en el periodo 1991-2001 fueron: a) Excesiva dependencia de las transferencias, que se constituyeron en la principal fuente de ingresos de los gobiernos territoriales, b) Reducidas y poco dinámicas bases de tributación, c) Ineficiencia e ineficacia del gasto público en las competencias a su cargo, d) Altos niveles de endeudamiento e impacto marginal en el cumplimiento la excelencia de la gestión financiera local, e) Creciente deuda de las pensiones sin fondear en los presupuestos locales, f) Problemas derivados de la crisis macroeconómica de final de siglo, caracterizada entre otros factores, por la disminución de la actividad productiva, la crisis bancaria y el alza de las tasas de interés. A partir de estas condiciones el modelo descentralizador y autonómico se tornó insostenible; en consecuencia, el gobierno nacional se vio en la necesidad inaplazable de iniciar un programa de ajuste fiscal en los niveles central y territorial, dentro del marco de una política de estabilidad macroeconómica de mediano plazo.

Para el efecto, en el periodo 1997-2001, se expidieron las leyes: 358 de 1997; 549 de 1999; 550 de 1999; y 715 de 2001; cuyo espíritu se fundamentó en instrumentos fiscales como: a) El establecimiento de límites a los gastos de funcionamiento de las entidades territoriales, atando su nivel a la disponibilidad de recursos de libre destinación, b) El mejoramiento de los criterios de categorización de los departamentos y municipios, tomando en cuenta su situación financiera y administrativa, su población y sus ingresos corrientes de libre destinación, c) Focalización de las transferencias en la financiación de los servicios de educación, salud y agua potable, d) Mayor exigencia para la creación de municipios, entre otros.

Pese a la entrada en vigencia de los precitados instrumentos legales y en términos de resultados esperados, el ajuste dificilmente se alcanzó; de tal manera que en el año 2000 el gobierno acentúo la

estrategia para atacarlo, a través de la ley 617 que redefinió las categorías para la clasificación de los municipios, les impuso límites a los gastos de funcionamiento como proporción de los ingresos corrientes de libre destinación; especificó qué recursos no debían destinarse al financiamiento de estos gastos y los obligó a la generación de excedentes para la inversión. En la misma dirección, en casos de incumplimiento de los límites fijados a los gastos y de no alcanzar las metas propuestas en los planes de saneamiento hacia una viabilidad financiera, la precitada ley dejó abierta la posibilidad de bajar la categoría a las entidades territoriales y de fusionar departamentos y municipios.

En término de resultados, la evaluación de los resultados del proceso descentralizador, en el periodo 1991-2001, muestra que su marco fiscal sustentado en el creciente aumento de las transferencias territoriales, sumado a los gastos en pensiones, seguridad y defensa, efectivamente, habría de considerarse como uno de los detonadores determinantes de la crisis fiscal de finales del siglo XX. En efecto, las regiones pasaron de tener participaciones en los ingresos corrientes de la nación del 1,6% del PIB en los años ochenta al 4,6% en el 2001 con un crecimiento promedio de 10.5% que les permitió aumentar el gasto del 12.8% a comienzos de los noventa hasta cerca del 40% en el 2001. Estos comportamientos confirman la hipótesis según la cual, el modelo fiscal de la descentralización, consagrado en la Constitución de 1991 descentralizó el gasto, pero no fortaleció las bases tributarias territoriales. En materia de endeudamiento, el modelo sustentado sobre unas transferencias y unas competencias territoriales sin condicionamientos ni controles, también generó un significativo aumento de las acreencias de departamentos y municipios, por lo demás respaldadas mayoritariamente por el gobierno nacional que al final de la década, ante el nivel de insolvencia de los entes territoriales asumió como propias, elevando su deuda pública como proporción del PIB.

En materia de logros por competencias, con el aumento de la participación de los entes territoriales en los ingresos corrientes de la nación, es evidente que aumentaron sus ámbitos de cobertura en educación, salud y agua potable en los entes territoriales, aunque sin alcanzar el nivel de universalidad consagrado como objetivo social del modelo descentralizador. Este resultado no solo evidenció las primeras fisuras del proceso, sino que también generó duros cuestionamientos sobre su utilidad como instrumento de desarrollo regional; de tal manera que la década 1991-2001 terminó con un poco más del 50% de los municipios del país en un nivel de "desarrollo medio", el 40% con un "desarrollo aceptable" mientras que únicamente el 1% alcanzó la categoría de "desarrollo alto".

Análisis Económico De La Descentralización. Periodo 2001 - 2007

En el 2001 y transcurridos diez años desde la entrada en vigencia de la Constitución de 1991, la aplicación y evaluación del modelo fiscal de la descentralización y la autonomía regional, basado en la fórmula que haría depender las participaciones territoriales de los ingresos corrientes de la nación agudizó los crecientes desequilibrios de las finanzas del gobierno nacional: de una parte, la fluctuación de los recursos financieros territoriales, producto de su dependencia de las transferencias del nivel central generó la necesidad de hacer permanentes adiciones presupuestales para complementar la financiación de la salud y educación de departamentos y municipios; de otra, la lógica de distribución prevista en la Ley 60 de 1993 para el "situado fiscal", como participación en los ingresos corrientes de la nación, no reflejó una asignación acorde con las necesidades de recursos en las entidades territoriales, estableciéndose porcentajes forzosos y homogéneos, que afectaron la adecuada financiación y la eficiencia en el gasto en los diferentes sectores sociales del orden territorial.

Planteada así la situación coyuntural, a comienzos de la primera década del siglo XXI, el gobierno nacional presentó ante el Congreso de la República, un proyecto de reforma constitucional tendiente a modificar los artículos 356 y 357 de la Carta Política, como instrumento que le permitiera alcanzar tres propósitos fiscales del orden territorial: primero, suprimir las rigideces presupuestales; segundo, mejorar los instrumentos de control del gasto y tercero, mejorar los ingresos públicos, especialmente los

tributarios. Finalmente, el proyecto fue aprobado, convirtiéndose en el Acto Legislativo 01 de 2001, reformatorio de los precitados artículos constitucionales sobre los cuales se edificaba el modelo fiscal descentralizador original. En aras a la brevedad y a la pertinencia, en este documento solamente se transcribe la norma transitoria contenida en el artículo 357:

"... Durante los años comprendidos entre 2002 y 2008 el monto del Sistema General de Participaciones crecerá en un porcentaje igual al de la tasa de inflación causada, más un crecimiento adicional que aumentará en forma escalonada así: para los años 2002, 2003, 2004 y 2005 el incremento será del 2%; para los años 2006, 2007 y 2008 el incremento será de 2.5%". "Si durante el período de transición el crecimiento real de la economía (producto interno bruto) certificado por el DANE en el mes de mayo del año siguiente es superior al 4%, el crecimiento adicional del Sistema General de Participaciones de que trata el presente parágrafo se incrementará en una proporción equivalente al crecimiento que supere el 4%, previo descuento de los porcentajes que la nación haya tenido que asumir, cuando el crecimiento real de la economía no haya sido suficiente para financiar el 2% adicional durante los años 2002, 2003, 2004 y 2005 y 2.5% adicional para los años 2006, 2007 y 2008 (parg. T2, art. 3°. Act. Leg. 1 de 2001)". "Al finalizar el período de transición, el porcentaje de los ingresos corrientes de la nación destinados para el sistema general de participación será como mínimo el porcentaje que constitucionalmente se transfiera en el año 2001. La ley a iniciativa del Congreso establecerá la gradualidad del incremento autorizado en este parágrafo. "En todo caso, después del período de transición, el Congreso, cada cinco años y a iniciativa propia a través de ley, podrá incrementar el porcentaje. "Igualmente durante la vigencia del Sistema General de Participaciones de los Departamentos, Distritos, y Municipios, el Congreso de la República, podrá revisar por iniciativa propia cada cinco años, la base de liquidación de éste (parg. T 3, art. 3° act. Leg. 1 de 2001)".

En términos macroeconómicos, el precitado Acto Legislativo 01/01 y sus leyes reglamentarias, desvincularon las transferencias territoriales de los ingresos corrientes de la nación hasta el año 2008. Consecuentemente, la nueva fórmula propició, tanto la reducción de la tasa real de crecimiento de aquellas, como ingentes ahorros para la financiación del creciente déficit fiscal del Estado. Ello obligó a las entidades territoriales a reducir su dependencia de las transferencias del nivel nacional y con el ahorro generado a través del ajuste fiscal en el marco de la aplicación de la Ley 715, en lo sucesivo ayudaron a financiar sus inversiones en las competencias y servicios a su cargo. Sin embargo, desde diferentes sectores de la vida nacional, se argumentó que la reforma a la fórmula constitucional inicial de cálculo de las transferencias, se habría fundamentado en un supuesto equivocado, según el cual éstas serían las principales causantes del enorme déficit fiscal de la nación en los años noventa, y ello explicaría, la conveniencia de recortarlas, desacelerarles su crecimiento o congelarlas hasta el año 2008 para equilibrar las finanzas del gobierno central. Complementariamente, la crítica sostuvo que siendo otros factores los causantes del creciente déficit, el recorte de las transferencias no arreglaría el problema del desbalance financiero del estado nacional y en cambio si se castigaría innecesariamente la inversión social que realizarían los entes territoriales afectando principalmente la cobertura y la calidad de los servicios de educación y salud. Consecuentemente el referido recorte a las transferencias habría sido una decisión políticamente equivocada, en tanto que las entidades territoriales sacrificarían sus flujos financieros para las competencias a su cargo, en aras de la solución del creciente déficit del gobierno central.

Desde un perspectiva macroeconómica, la nueva fórmula fiscal del modelo descentralizador aplicado durante el periodo 2001-2007, teóricamente avanzaría en dos frentes, de una parte, el desligamiento temporal del monto de las transferencias de los ingresos corrientes de la nación (ICN) en el mismo periodo, aseguraría que los mayores recaudos generados por las sucesivas reformas tributarias o por un mejor desempeño de la economía, no se tradujeran automáticamente en mayor gasto del gobierno, como había ocurrido en el periodo 1991-2001. Con este supuesto, el gobierno sentaba las bases para un eventual ahorro fiscal durante el período de transición –hasta el año 2008- que podría reflejarse en un menor déficit de la administración central, Sin embargo, estas metas no se alcanzaron, en tanto que en el periodo 2002-

2006, mientras los ingresos corrientes de la nación se incrementaron en un 68.1%, el Sistema General de Participaciones –transferencias- solamente lo hizo en un 40.3%, generándose un ahorro para el gobierno central de 17 billones de pesos en el 2006, cifra alta, pero insuficiente para financiar su creciente gasto que durante el mismo periodo en promedio alcanzó el 67% del gasto público total. De otra, al desligar las transferencias territoriales de los ICN, el gobierno habría intentado contener una fuente de prociclicidad en la política fiscal, que limitaría la necesaria estabilización económica, que por lo demás, finalmente no se logró y obligó a nuevas medidas como una nueva reforma constitucional, la segunda en la primera década del siglo XXI, igualmente afectadora del músculo financiero de la descentralización.

Una evaluación sobre los resultados del proceso descentralizador en el periodo 2001-2007 establece que si bien es cierto, con la aplicación de las políticas de ajuste fiscal del cruce de los siglos XX y XXI, las entidades territoriales mejoraron su situación fiscal, no menos cierto es, que la reducción del monto de las transferencias, solamente permitió ligeros avances en las competencias a cargo de municipios y departamentos y al igual que en el periodo anterior, la esperada cobertura universal en los campos de la educación, los servicios públicos y el agua potable, tampoco se alcanzó. En la misma dirección, persistieron los problemas de eficiencia en la inversión social, de equidad en la asignación del gasto y de baja capacidad de gestión en las entidades territoriales, que en conjunto, agudizaron el retroceso de la descentralización, al tiempo que se mantuvo el irregular desempeño de los municipios y departamentos en la prestación de los servicios a su cargo, reconocido esta vez por el propio gobierno a través de diferentes documentos de sus principales organismos técnicos como el Departamento Nacional de Planeación (DNP), y el Departamento Nacional de Estadística (DANE).

Los cuestionables resultados fiscales y sociales del proceso descentralizador en el periodo 2001-2007 y la persistencia del deterioro de los principales indicadores macroeconómicos, pese a las políticas de choque, propiciadas por el Acto Legislativo 01 de 2001 y a sus correspondientes leyes reglamentarias, y en atención a que la fórmula vigente consagrada en el precitado Acto Legislativo 01, tenía vigencia hasta el 2008, año en que se retornaría a la fórmula original de la carta de 1991, con los inevitables y previsibles efectos fiscales, en el 2006 obligaron al gobierno nacional a presentar ante el Congreso de la República un nuevo proyecto de reforma al Sistema General de Participaciones (SGP) o régimen de transferencias territoriales, que después de un trámite legislativo particularmente accidentado se convirtió en el Acto Legislativo 04 del 11 de julio de 2007, cuya nueva fórmula fiscal se fundamenta en los parágrafos transitorios 1, 2 y 3 del artículo constitucional 357 así:

PAR. TRANS. 1° El monto del sistema general de participaciones, SGP, de los departamentos, distritos y municipios se incrementará tomando como base el monto liquidado en la vigencia anterior. Durante los años 2008 y 2009 el SGP se incrementará un porcentaje igual al de la tasa de inflación causada, más una tasa de crecimiento real de 4% Durante el año 2010 el incremento será igual a la tasa de inflación causada, más una tasa de crecimiento real de 3.5%. Entre el año 2011 y el año 2016 el incremento será igual a la tasa de inflación causada, más una crecimiento real del 3%. PAR. TRANS, 2° Si la tasa de crecimiento real de la economía (producto interno bruto, PIB) certificada por el DANE para el año respectivo es superior al 4%, el incremento de SGP será igual a la tasa de inflación causada, más la tasa de crecimiento real señalada en el parágrafo transitorio 1° del presente artículo, más los puntos porcentuales de diferencia resultantes de comparar la tasa de crecimiento real de la economía (producto interno bruto, PIB) certificada por el DANE para el año respectivo es superior al 4%, el incremento de SGP será igual a la tasa de inflación causada, más la tasa de crecimiento real señalada en el parágrafo transitorio 1° del presente artículo, más los puntos porcentuales de diferencia resultantes de comparar la tasa de crecimiento real de la economía certificada por DANE y el 4% Estos recursos adicionales se destinarán a la atención integral de la primera infancia, El aumento del SGP por mayor crecimiento económico, de que trata el presente parágrafo, no generará base para la liquidación del SGP en años posteriores.

Sin embargo, la nueva fórmula constitucional aprobada, no satisfizo a analistas y actores de la vida pública, en tanto que, nuevamente se argumentó que, después de la entrada en vigencia del precitado Acto Legislativo 04 de 2007, la principal preocupación del gobierno nacional se centraría, en como mantener un ritmo de crecimiento superior al 4% promedio anual para garantizar transferencias crecientes a las

regiones, máxime en un momento histórico, en el que el comportamiento y las proyecciones macroeconómicas se presentaban sombrías por el recalentamiento de las economías nacional y global en los finales de la primera década del siglo XXI -en el 2009 el crecimiento del PIB fue de 0,8%-. En la misma línea, la nueva fórmula consagrada en el 2007, siendo de carácter transitorio hasta el 2016, permite prever que, quien gane el poder en el período 2014-2018, tendrá que decidir nuevamente, entre volver a fórmula original de la Constitución de 1991, -atar las transferencias a los ingresos corrientes de la nación-o presentar un nuevo proyecto de reforma al régimen de participaciones, que sin duda, podrá estar acompañada, tanto de incertidumbres financieras para las regiones como de una definitiva consolidación del centralismo.

CONCLUSIONES

Es evidente que en el periodo de aplicación del modelo descentralizador (1991-2007) se identifican ligeros y coyunturales avances, en la ampliación de las coberturas de los servicios de educación, salud, agua potable y alcantarillado para los habitantes de departamentos y municipios, aunque sin alcanzar el nivel de universalidad, reiterativamente propuesta por los sucesivos gobiernos. En la misma dirección y sólo durante el periodo 2002-2006 es significativa la materialización de algunos logros en el proceso de saneamiento fiscal de los entes territoriales. Sin embargo, desde las perspectivas macroeconómica, administrativa y política, el modelo adolece de notorias falencias estructurales; en tanto que la vinculación de la cuantía de las transferencias territoriales, inicialmente al comportamiento de los ingresos corrientes de la nación; luego al de la inflación más unos puntos adicionales; no le han permitido al gobierno central disponer libremente de los recursos tributarios adicionales, para el financiamiento de su creciente déficit fiscal. Complementariamente, la vinculación de las transferencias a los ingresos corrientes de la nación, en el periodo 1991-2001 inexorablemente condujo a un sistema de rentas de destinación especial, el cual, desde el punto de vista de eficiencia económica generó un sobrefinanciamiento territorial y por ende un sobre-gasto.

De otra parte, durante el periodo, las dos reformas a la fórmula inicial de financiación de la descentralización administrativa y la autonomía regional, no garantizaron ni la reducción del déficit ni la eficiencia fiscal del Estado central, pese a que desde finales de los años noventa, y por lo menos hasta el 2006, los entes territoriales afrontaron con relativo éxito una etapa de saneamiento, situación que agudizó el debate, aún hoy vigente, sobre si verdaderamente la financiación del modelo descentralizador, fue causa de los descalabros de las finanzas públicas del orden nacional durante los años noventa, o si contrariamente fue victima del proceso de ajuste de las finanzas nacionales par abrirle paso a la recentralización del país.

La definición, sobre cuál debe ser en el futuro la cuantía posible de las transferencias a los entes territoriales, debe responderse con base en tres criterios. El primero y fundamental, gira en torno a la escasez de recursos que enfrenta y continuará enfrentando el gobierno central. El segundo es la posibilidad de una reforma integral a la estructura impositiva de los niveles nacional, departamental y municipal, con una mayor armonización de las bases. Y el tercero, se fundamenta en la reforma al sistema de transferencias, sin duda, el núcleo del brazo fiscal del proceso descentralizador. En este orden de ideas, desde lo económico y fiscal, las tendencias mayoritarias coinciden en desligar definitivamente las transferencias territoriales de los ingresos corrientes de la nación dada su alta pro-ciclicidad.

Igualmente, desde lo jurídico se reclama que, de una parte, la fórmula del cálculo de la cuantía de las transferencias, sea un mandato por ley, en tanto que, su continuidad como principio constitucional, en caso de futuras modificaciones, generará -como en efecto ha ocurrido hasta hoy- innecesarios y prolongados debates con el consecuente desgaste político para los gobiernos, y de otra, se reclama simplificar el marco legal como condición para alcanzar las necesarias fluidez y claridad normativas, que a su vez, permitan establecer un sistema operativo del modelo descentralizador, con criterios de

eficiencia, eficacia y transparencia, enmarcado dentro de un proceso de profundización de la participación ciudadana, que le imponga a las administraciones regionales y locales, la necesaria disciplina fiscal, y que igualmente obligue a los gobernantes a la transparente rendición de cuentas ante sus gobernados.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Mary Luz Ordoñez Santos es profesora de tiempo completo en la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas de la Universidad de Pamplona en Colombia y se puede contactar al correo: maryluz@unipamplona.edu.co

Juan Carlos Vergara Schmalbach, Universidad de Cartagena José Morelos Gómez, Universidad de Cartagena Tomás José Fontalvo Herrera, Universidad de Cartagena

RESUMEN

La asociatividad empresarial es una estrategia para enfrentar los mercados globalizados y la creciente competencia proveniente de otras empresas tanto del país como del exterior. Es considerada hoy día como un mecanismo para el logro de la competitividad partiendo de la premisa de que, a mayor nivel de organización y cooperación, mayor efectividad en el logro de los objetivos comunes. El presente artículo tiene como principal finalidad mostrar cómo, mediante la aplicación del método Mactor y con el apoyo de una encuesta estructurada aplicada a potenciales asociados, es posible develar los objetivos comunes que se constituirán en la base de una asociación para la cooperación empresarial. Como ejemplo se toma el sector de hoteles, en particular un grupo de 20 empresas ubicadas en la zona histórica de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias, Colombia.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Asociaciones, Asociatividad, competitividad, cooperación, Método Mactor.

ABSTRACT

The managerial associativity is a strategy to face the included global markets and increased competition from other companies both at home and abroad. It is considered today as a mechanism for achieving competitiveness, based on the premise that a higher level of organization and cooperation, more effective in achieving common objectives. This article primarily aims to show how, using the MACTOR's method and with the support of a simple survey applied to potential members of the association, it is possible to discover common goals to be established on the basis of partnership for business cooperation. As an example, take the hostelry industry, including a group of 20 companies, located in the historic zone of the city of Cartagena de Indias, Colombia.

KEYWORDS: Associations, Associative, competitiveness, cooperation, Method MACTOR.

JEL: D70, C02

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las características geográficas, sus atractivos naturales y culturales, su riqueza histórica, instalaciones hoteleras, sus vías y puertos, entre otros, convierten a Cartagena de Indias D.T. y C. en uno de los destinos principales de veraneo y negocios en el mar Caribe. En el diagnóstico situacional del sector turístico realizado por Alcaldía Mayor de Cartagena (2004), se enfatiza en la vocación turística de la ciudad como generadora de ingresos, fuentes de empleo y promotora de su desarrollo, pero a su vez, plantea varios retos de sostenimiento y mejora competitiva frente a destinos similares, que cuentan con mayor inversión en infraestructura y promoción.

Mucho se viene hablando de asociatividad, en círculos académicos, gubernamentales y hasta entre los empresarios mismos. Y no es para menos, el concepto seduce, por su simplicidad y atractivo, como un medio de supervivencia empresarial (Liendo y Martínez, 2001). Para nadie es un secreto que la

competencia que enfrentará el empresario colombiano será cada vez más fuerte, tanto a nivel doméstico como del comercio internacional facilitado, en parte, por los tratados de libre comercio suscritos y por suscribir con algunos países y regiones; de suerte que la competencia internacional que se avecina ya no será exclusivamente contra el competidor doméstico, sino contra el competidor externo. Ante este panorama, en Colombia la asociatividad debería ser una fuente vital de auge empresarial, pero se ha convertido en un proceso bastante complejo, debido a que las empresas muy poco quieren dar a conocer información interna de sus diseños, procesos y procedimientos (Victoria, León y Vergara, 2005).

El presente artículo propone la utilización del método Mactor para medir las motivaciones, conflictos y las posibles alianzas estratégicas entre un grupo de hoteles representativos del sector turísticos en el centro histórico de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias D. T. y C. (Colombia). Como resultados de la aplicación del método Mactor, se pudo afirmar que el conjunto de los 20 hoteles involucrados en el estudio presenta un potencial de asociatividad del 60%, a pesar de reconocer, sus directivas, el poco conocimiento que tienen respecto a las ventajas de una asociación en los términos contemplados en el estudio, lo que invita a un trabajo de socialización de tales mecanismos de asociación para llegar a resultados concretos. Es probable que por esta vía se reduzca la reticencia a compartir información gerencial, y mejore la disponibilidad a emprender conjuntamente el análisis para la mejora de los métodos y procedimientos actuales.

Ma. Guadalupe Diaz Diaz, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Sandra Patricia de la Garza Cienfuegos, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Herlim Judith Aguirre García, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

ABSTRACT

La importancia del capital intelectual es uno de los determinantes básicos para crear organizaciones competitivas y, para ello, se requiere producir un clima laboral satisfactorio. Dicho propósito puede lograrse a través de ejercicio del liderazgo, considerando las características de la empresa y el personal. Este estudio tiene como finalidad examinar aspectos cualitativos de estilos de liderazgo gerencial en un clima laboral satisfactorio La metodología utilizada es de carácter documental efectuada mediante una revisión literaria, analizando contenidos de revistas científicas, investigaciones, libros de texto, tesis de maestría y doctorales así como las diferentes teorías tradicionales y contemporáneas relacionadas con el liderazgo y clima laboral.El resultado de este estudio es conocer la importancia del ejercicio adecuado de liderazgo y su relación con factores tales como la Productividad, Políticas, Roles y Comunicación en las PYMES.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Liderazgo, Liderazgo Gerencial, Clima Laboral.

INTRODUCCCÓN

El escenario al que se enfrentan las organizaciones hoy en día, es de cambios constantes, tras la búsqueda de la competitividad que las lleve a lograr su permanencia en el mercado. Uno de los pilares clave para el logro de sus objetivos organizaciones, es el desempeño de su capital intelectual, para ello es de interés Para los directivos de las empresas el conocer el estilo de Liderazgo adecuado que en función al clima organizacional que prevalece en sus instituciones, de cómo resultado el rendimiento optimo hacia el logro de los objetivos de la organización. Es decir al saber persuadir al personal, en combinación con diferentes factores que componen el clima de la organización, pueda diseñar algún plan estratégico logrando el favorable rendimiento y calidad en el desempeño del personal que conforma la organización. A continuación se presenta la revisión literaria de interés para efecto de este estudio.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Uno de los temas de más interés generado en los últimos años, entre los estudiosos de la empresa moderna es en relación al clima organizacional que se vive en el interior de la organización y que de alguna manera contribuye a darle cierto rasgo de personalidad a las instituciones. De acuerdo a la definición de clima organizacional que presenta (Mendez Alvarez & Universidad del Rosario (Bogota), 2006) la describe como "El ambiente propio de la organización, producido y percibido por el individuo de acuerdo a las condiciones que encuentra en su proceso de interacción social y en la estructura organizacional que se expresa por variables (objetivos, motivación, liderazgo, control, toma de decisiones, relaciones interpersonales y cooperación) que orientan su creencia, percepción, grado de participación y actitud determinando su comportamiento, satisfacción y nivel de eficiencia en el trabajo". Dicha definición implica dos aspectos fundamentales de las organizaciones humanas. Primero, su estructura física, que abarca características como control, tamaño, niveles jerárquicos, centralización, departamentalización entre otros. Y como segundo aspecto, sus procesos organizacionales o humanos, tales como el liderazgo, la comunicación, control, por mencionar los de mayor relevancia.

Por su parte Peraza Y. (et.al) publican que el clima organizacional presupone el análisis del ambiente humano y físico en el que se desarrolla el trabajo y por ende, es la resultante de la interacción de una serie de factores que se muestran en la figura 1 el cual explica que la combinación de el saber hacer del directivo, comunicación adecuada y etilos de trabajo, oportunidades de participación y superación profesional, condiciones de trabajo y comportamiento de las personas que interactúan en la organización, dan vida al clima organizacional.

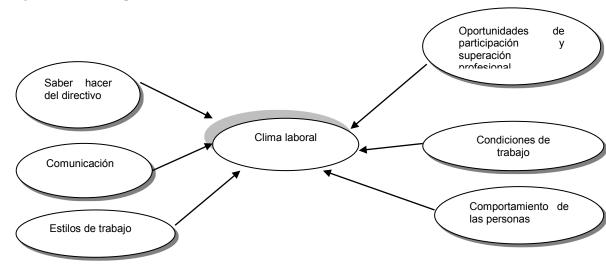
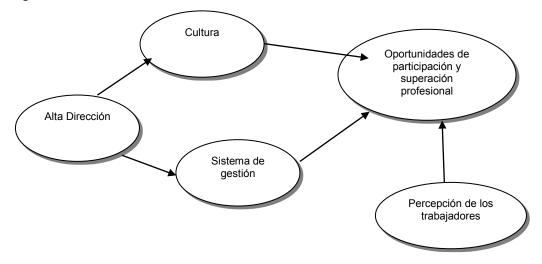


Figura 1: Factores que intervienen en el clima laboral

Es la alta dirección, con su cultura y sistemas de gestión, la que propicia o no el terreno adecuado para un buen clima y forma parte de las políticas de recursos humanos la mejora de ese ambiente, con el uso de técnicas precisas. Ver figura 2. Es por ello que el equipo directivo deberá conocer las percepciones de los trabajadores, en función de encontrar las vías más adecuadas para desarrollar un ambiente favorable en la entidad.

Figura 2: Rol de la Dirección



Como se puede observar, son muchas las definiciones que existen de Clima organizacional, según Dessler "*Organización y Administración*." (1993: 181) plantea que no hay un consenso en cuanto al significado del término, las definiciones giran alrededor de factores organizacionales puramente objetivos como estructura, políticas y reglas, hasta tributos percibidos tan subjetivos como la cordialidad y el apoyo

El enfoque más reciente sobre la descripción del término de clima es desde el punto de vista estructural y subjetivo,Dada la importancia de medir el clima organizacional y sus componentes para realizar un diagnostico que sea de utilidad a los dirigentes de las organizaciones, Likert en el año de 1964 desarrollo un instrumento a través del cual se miden 8 dimensiones claves que influyen en el comportamiento del individuo y que a continuación se mencionan:

- 1. Los métodos de mando: La forma en que se utiliza el liderazgo para influir en los empleados.
- 2. Las características de las fuerzas motivacionales: Los procedimientos que se instrumentan para motivar a los empleados y responder a sus necesidades.
- 3. Las características de los procesos de comunicación: La naturaleza de los tipos de comunicación en la empresa, así como la manera de ejercerlos.
- 4. Las características de los procesos de influencia: La importancia de la interacción superior/subordinado para establecer los objetivos de la organización.
- 5. Las características de los procesos de toma de decisiones: La pertinencia de las informaciones en que se basan las decisiones así como el reparto de funciones.
- 6. Las características de los procesos de planificación: La forma en que se establece el sistema de fijación de objetivos o directrices.
- 7. Las características de los procesos de control: El ejercicio y la distribución del control entre las instancias organizacionales.
- 8. Los objetivos de rendimiento y de perfeccionamiento: La planificación así como la formación deseada

Todas las dimensiones mencionadas por *Likert*, tienen cierto grado de relación o dependencia entre ellas mismas. En el desarrollo del presente trabajo tiene como finalidad examinar aspectos cualitativos de estilos de liderazgo, analizar la relación existente entre los métodos de mando, Es decir la forma en que se utiliza el liderazgo para influir en los empleados para que prevalezca un clima laboral satisfactorio que lleve al personal a ser competitivo en el desempeño de sus funciones. Para ello es importante conocer y analizar el concepto así como las distintas teorías de liderazgo, hasta los más conocidos y/o aplicadas en esta época.Robles V. (2008) denota el concepto de liderazgo como al proceso social de influir en un grupo para alcanzar ciertos objetivos y ha sido estudiado sin llegar a un consenso entre los investigadores sobre su conceptualización. En diversas definiciones del término *liderazgo* encontramos conceptos como proceso, interrelación, comportamiento, dirección, orientación hacia las metas, uso del poder, influencia, seguidores, entre otros Kouzes, J.et.al. (1990: 24-28). Para los fines de este estudio, el concepto de liderazgo se define como la capacidad que tiene un individuo de influenciar, motivar y permitir a otros contribuir a la eficacia y el éxito de la organización publicado por House R. et.al (1997).

Una de las tipologías mas aceptadas a través de las últimas décadas es el enfoque de liderazgo *Transformacional y el transaccional*. Bass (1985) identifica la diferencia entre un estilo transaccional y uno transformacional, ya que radica en que es lo que los líderes y seguidores ofrecen unos a otros. Los líderes Transformacionales ofrecen una visión y se enfocan en necesidades internas de orden mayor, por ello inspira carisma, estimación intelectual sobre todo porque proporciona a sus seguidores atención personalizada para instruir y aconsejar individualmente a los miembros de su equipo. . En contraste con los líderes transaccionales se focalizan en el adecuado intercambio de recursos, en el que el punto clave es la relación de influencia mutua.. Si bien los dos estilos tienen características distintivas, no representan los

extremos, sino que son enfoques complementarios, por lo que se destila a la fecha, es la conjugación de los dos. Otro tipo de estilo de liderazgo es el denominado *Laissez Faire* o no liderazgo conocido también como *Política de no Intervención* pues hay ausencia de liderazgo, es decir son reacios a tomar decisiones, a actuar cuando lo necesitan.

Existen otros etilos de liderazgo los etiquetados como los clásicos, los dos más conocidos son basados en las dimensiones de *orientación a las personas o consideración* y de *orientación a la tarea o iniciación de estructura. La iniciación a la Tarea* cita Robbins S (1987: 247) en el que el líder tiende a definir y estructurar su rol y los de los subordinados en miras del logro de las metas, incluyendo estándares definidos de ejecución, además de confirmar que los subordinados comprendan órdenes y tareas, que sigan los procedimientos operativos, asignando tareas concretas y enfatizan su cumplimiento en plazos determinados. *La consideración* es el grado en que una persona suele tener sus relaciones laborales con cierto grado de confianza, respeto y hasta aprecio por sus sentimientos. Por su parte cita (Llano, 2004) que el trabajo en equipo es hoy una condición imprescindible para que la empresa logre sacar adelante su misión y visión, por ello se requiere la intervención de los líderes. Dicho autor expone que para lograr un estilo de liderazgo en equipo o en sentido conjunto se requiere sacrificar el estilo de liderazgo *Dominante Autoritario.* Por lo que hoy en día los modelos de liderazgo pasan a ser modelos de participación del líder (humildad del líder) los cuales se resumen en la siguiente tabla 3:

Tabla 3: Modelos de participación del líder en relación a su nivel de humildad expuesto por Llano C.

Titulo	Descripción
Autocrático II	Usted mismo soluciona el problema o toma una decisión valiéndose de los hechos que tiene la mano
Consultivo 1	Comparte de manera individual el problema con los subordinados y a partir de ella decide la solución al problema.
Consultivo 2	Comparte el problema con los subordinados como un grupo, obteniendo colectivamente sus ideas y sugerencias, después el líder solo toma la decisión pudiendo o no reflejar las sugerencias realizadas.
Grupal 11	Comparte el problema con los subordinados como un grupo, la meta es ayudarlos a coincidir en una decisión. Sus ideas como líder, no tienen mayor peso que la de lo demás del grupo.

Finalmente es importante mencionar que el estilo de liderazgo seleccionado dependerá de la firmeza de la humildad, la participación, el desarrollo y confianza que ejerza el líder gerencial en su gente.

METODOLOGÍA

La metodología utilizada es de carácter documental efectuada mediante una revisión literaria, analizando contenidos de revistas científicas, investigaciones, libros de texto, tesis de maestría y doctorales así como las diferentes teorías tradicionales y contemporáneas relacionadas con el liderazgo y clima laboral. El presente estudio forma parte del proyecto de investigación en proceso titulado "Satisfacción laboral del personal de Pymes de Monclova, Frontera y Castaños, Coahuila, México. Que se realizara a través de la selección de una muestra de pequeñas y medianas empresas de la industria metal mecánica del directorio de CANACINTRA, Monclova, México.

RESULTADOS ESPERADOS

El resultado de este estudio es conocer la importancia del ejercicio adecuado de liderazgo y su relación con factores tales como la Productividad, Políticas, Roles y Comunicación, sentido de pertenencia, que conforman parte del clima organizacional. Por lo que este estudio constituye la parte correspondiente de la formación del marco teórico del proyecto de investigación ya mencionado.

CONCLUSIONES

Estudiar el liderazgo como parte del Clima organizacional que se vive en las empresas, brinda la posibilidad de desentrañar, los problemas que se sucitan en el interior de la intitucón y que pueden ser fuentes de oportunidad para incrementar su productividad. Un nuevo enfoque de los directivos, se traduce a mayor calidad en el servicio y mayor satisfacción del capital intelectual de la empresa. Existe una gran variedad de estilos y enfoques de liderazgo de los cuales no existe uno mejor que otro, todo depende de las circunstancias y características de las empresas ademas de que sus líderes inspiren a realizar un verdadero trabajo en equipo en el que prevalezca la humidad de sus diregentes.

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Ma. Guadalupe Díaz Díaz, es catedrático investigador de la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, México, y las vías disponibles para hacer contacto en temas de investigación o alianzas para realizar investigaciones en conjunto es: 8666496067 oficina, móvil: 866 1371428, mail: guadalupe49live.com.mx Mis líneas de investigación son: Clima organizacional, satisfacción laboral, Organismos de la Sociedad Civil.

Sandra Patricia De la Garza Cienfuegos: es catedrático investigador de la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, México. Vías disponibles para hacer contacto en temas de investigación o alianzas para realizar investigaciones en conjunto es: cienfuegoss2005@yahoo.com.mx Lieas de investigación: Clima organizacional, satisfacción labora l y Triple Hélice.

Irán Josué Rosas Ramírez, Instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba, México (ITO) María Cristina Sánchez Romero, Instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba (ITO)

RESUMEN

En todo proceso de desarrollo y crecimiento de una empresa, los requerimientos, necesidades y deseos de los consumidores/usuarios son aspectos estratégicos que cada vez más incrementan su importancia, ya que las empresas deben generar valores que sean apreciados por el mercado meta y en consecuencia influenciar la decisión de preferencia a su favor. La investigación propone la aplicación del QFD (Quality Function Deployment) como herramienta de diagnóstico para la evaluación de la calidad de un servicio existente, ya que lo que se pretende es establecer las prioridades de los requerimientos técnicos y del cliente, los cuales son utilizados para decidir donde concentrar los esfuerzos; es decir, los resultados del QFD muestran las áreas en las cuales se puede implementar alguna alternativa o estrategia, con el propósito de mejorar y de brindar un servicio de calidad.

PALABRAS CLAVE: QFD, calidad, servicio, cliente.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La actual economía global y la total internacionalización de los mercados obligan a las empresas a efectuar un continuo esfuerzo por mantener sus niveles de competitividad. Las empresas deben afrontar estrategias focalizadas en la innovación y mejora, especialmente en factores responsables de la generación de atributos diferenciadores que permiten generar ventajas competitivas en el mercado. Hoy en día, los elementos básicos y primordiales para la permanencia de las empresas, son brindar un servicio con calidad y lograr la mayor satisfacción del cliente, aspectos que deben irradiarse dentro de toda la empresa y ser parte de la visión de la misma. La calidad y la satisfacción del cliente externo no se pueden lograr, si dentro de las mismas empresas no se producen subservicios de calidad, así como lograr la satisfacción del cliente interno, lográndose mediante la mejora continua de los mismos procesos, y teniendo como punto básico, que los clientes se involucren en los procesos de desarrollo del servicio, esto es el despliegue de la función de la calidad o QFD (Quality Function Deployment). El despliegue de la función de la calidad o QFD (Quality Function Deployment). El despliegue de la función de la calidad, es una práctica para diseñar los procesos, en respuesta a las necesidades de los clientes, tanto internos como externos. El despliegue de la función de la calidad o QFD, es la herramienta que traduce lo que el cliente quiere que la organización produzca, práctica que conduce a mejoras del proceso que le permiten a una organización sobrepasar las expectativas del cliente.

Cuando la Calidad se define como la capacidad de cubrir las expectativas de los clientes, por medio de la maximización de la satisfacción y la minimización de la insatisfacción, QFD es una metodología que se integra con fuerza en la Gestión de la Calidad.En la actualidad, la calidad se ha definido como una herramienta estratégica para la supervivencia de las organizaciones que brindan servicios, pero la mayoría de estas organizaciones carecen de procedimientos prácticos para implementar de forma eficaz la gestión de calidad.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El QFD es un sistema que tiene como objetivo interpretar e incorporar la "Voz del Consumidor" en las características de calidad de productos, procesos y servicios que permitan alcanzar la satisfacción de las necesidades del cliente. QFD se ha sido definido como método, teoría, modelo, sistema, entre otras clasificaciones, pero ante todo, QFD se considera una filosofía de trabajo al interior de la empresa, que busca proyectar los conceptos de calidad, basados en la satisfacción del cliente, por medio de la selección ponderada de atributos y especificaciones, tanto del producto como del proceso de producción o bien de un determinado servicio. En este proceso, QFD permite que los desarrolladores vayan conduciendo sus decisiones en correlación con las expectativas de los consumidores que se han expresado en un listado ponderado de requerimientos (Akao Y., 2004).

Sucesivamente, se van correlacionando las especificaciones de calidad para el producto o servicio, así como para el proceso en cada una de las fases de definición (conceptualización de producto o servicio, especificaciones de componentes, procesos de producción y control de calidad), teniendo en consideración la voz del cliente, a través de matrices de doble entrada donde se ponderan las relaciones a partir del peso relativo de cada uno de los requerimientos. Cuando la competitividad avanza rápidamente de la mano de las tecnologías, muchas empresas pueden perder el norte respecto a la validación de sus productos o servicios en el mercado. La globalización derriba las barreras de los mercados, abriendo una amplia gama de soluciones para un campo de necesidades que evoluciona día a día, y donde los consumidores encuentran respuestas cada vez más específicas a sus necesidades. En este contexto, las empresas no pueden permitir que la brecha que separa su oferta de la demanda, en términos de valor agregado, limite sus capacidades competitivas.

Es por ello, que metodologías como QFD se valoran actualmente, como sistemas de calidad de cara a las necesidades del mercado. El QFD no es sólo una herramienta de calidad, es también un importante instrumento de planificación, que permite incorporar la "Voz del Consumidor" en el proceso de desarrollo de un servicio antes de ser lanzado al mercado (Akao Y., 1988). Para llevar a cabo el desarrollo de un servicio, teniendo en cuenta estos requerimientos, es necesario convertir estos requerimientos difusos o poco claros en "requerimientos cuantitativos de diseño". QFD hace posible esta conversión.

Según (Ealey, 1988) el desarrollo o diseño de servicio a diferencia de un producto, se realiza mediante la integración de diferentes componentes. Son las características de estos componentes las que proveen la funcionalidad del servicio y que en última instancia son las que satisfacen los requerimientos del cliente. Hay otro factor fundamental que afecta los procesos de desarrollo de un servicio: la organización de la empresa. Desafortunadamente, la importancia de estos procesos es conocida por todos los empleados y, por ende, el establecimiento de un apropiado sistema de comunicación cobra gran importancia. Este sistema debe permitir mantener los requerimientos del cliente durante todo el proceso de desarrollo del servicio. El principal beneficio del QFD es que este promueve el desarrollo de un servicio de una manera preventiva. Cuando se aplica QFD, el 90% de las modificaciones en el diseño del servicio se realizan antes de su lanzamiento al mercado. Estas modificaciones son menos costosas dado que primero son realizadas en papel. Esto hace posible prevenir los problemas en vez de reaccionar a ellos.

La aplicación de QFD permite reducir a la mitad los costos y el tiempo requeridos para el lanzamiento de un nuevo servicio al mercado. QFD está orientado a la "Voz del Consumidor" y no a los pensamientos del equipo de ingenieros que desarrolla el servicio. Todas las decisiones tomadas durante la etapa de diseño apuntan a satisfacer las necesidades del cliente.

METODOLOGÍA

Para el desarrollo de esta investigación, se llevaron a cabo a las siguientes etapas:

1. *Recolección de datos:* La recolección de datos abarcó la utilización de técnicas y herramientas necesarias para desarrollar los sistemas de información. En el caso de esta investigación, mediante la observación del funcionamiento del servicio actual que se brinda y la aplicación de cuestionarios a los clientes de la empresa se conocieron las principales necesidades de estos últimos con respecto al servicio que se oferta. La observación del servicio permitió identificar tanto los beneficios como las deficiencias del servicio actual, estos resultados sirvieron como base para tener una idea más concreta de hacia dónde direccionar esta investigación. Así mismo mediante la aplicación de un cuestionario a una muestra determinada de clientes, se conocieron y establecieron sus principales necesidades, mismas que se tomaron en cuenta para la evaluación del servicio actual. También se aplico otro cuestionario necesario para elaborar el QFD, el cual comparó la prestación del servicio de la empresa con el de sus principales competidores. Para realizar esta la comparación, el cuestionario incluyo preguntas que permitieron evaluar el servicio brindado por otras organizaciones con el mismo giro.Estos instrumentos se aplicaron en un momento en particular, con la finalidad de buscar información que sería de utilidad para el desarrollo del diagnóstico mediante la herramienta del QFD.

2. Aplicación del QFD como herramienta de diagnóstico: Una vez recolectados los datos necesarios, se realizó la matriz de relaciones para transformar las demandas exigidas en parámetros de diseño. La simbología empleada en la matriz de relaciones se utilizó para representar relaciones positivas o negativas. Para ello se empleo una escala que determino el grado de relación existente: relación fuerte, media, débil y por supuesto en el caso de que no se hallara relación alguna. La figura 2 muestra parte de la matriz elaborada para esta investigación. Posteriormente se elaboró el benchmarking técnico con la finalidad de aplicar las medidas de desempeño del servicio brindado por la empresa contra el ofertado por sus competidores. Con la información recabada se determinaron las especificaciones de diseño, además de asignar prioridades a los esfuerzos de desarrollo del servicio existente. En seguida se construyó la matriz de correlaciones con el objetivo de identificar qué requerimientos se apoyan entre sí y entre cuales existe conflicto. Las correlaciones positivas favorecieron el desarrollo del servicio existente, ya que evitaron la duplicidad de esfuerzos. Las correlaciones negativas resultaron importantes ya que en ellas se pudo identificar cuáles son las características de diseño más importantes para el servicio y descartar las que no lo son.

				Requerimientos de diseño								_
				Solicitud				Distribución		Personal		
			e e			sonal	0	B.o	sonal		ы	fe
	Requerimientos Cliente	Import.	Trato personalizado	Medios de pago	As es oría elección productos	Suministro de personal	Entrega a domicilio	Capacidad de carga equipos de reparto	Velocidad del personal	Disponibilidad del personal	Cultura de trabajo en equipo	Inventario suficiente
	Elección de días de entrega	3								9		0
P	Elección de horas de entrega	2								•		
Solicitud	Pedido hecho sin interrupciones	20	0						0	•	0	
ŝ	Todas las preguntas respondidas	10	0		0					0		
	Sin alteraciones de precios	7										
	Pedido entregado en fecha y hora acordadas	20					0		0	0	0	0
	Pedidos completos	3					١	0				0
iốn	Buena atención de repartidores	3	١				١			0	0	
Distribución	Cumplimiento de las ordenes de pedidos	10					0	0	١	0		0
0.8	Horarios de distribución	5					0					

Figura 2: Matriz (Casa de la calidad)

Esta figura muestra parte de la matriz elaborada para la empresa, que conforma la casa de la calidad.

3. *Valoración de los resultados*: Una vez terminada la casa de la calidad se procedió a analizar y valorizar los resultados obtenidos con el fin de identificar áreas críticas y de oportunidad para determinar los aspectos sobre los que se quiere actuar y enfocar esfuerzos. Para esto fue necesario observar y analizar profundamente la casa de la calidad para determinar puntos críticos y los elementos que de alguna manera los causan, para posteriormente contrarrestarlos con estrategias que mejoren esta situación.

4. *Diseño e implementación de alternativas de mejora:* Realizada la valoración de los resultados del proceso de diagnóstico (casa de calidad), se contó con una base de información robusta, que permitió estructurar un conocimiento más acabado acerca de los puntos críticos de la empresa, y además dio la opción de traspasar este conocimiento a la mejora de su servicio y a la generación de nuevas opciones de innovación.

RESULTADOS

Mediante el QFD se pudieron establecer parámetros necesarios que permiten determinar los puntos críticos, así como los factores que los provocan. Esto facilita de manera gradual el análisis posterior, necesario para direccionar las acciones que contrarresten los requerimientos del cliente, es decir, permite canalizar todas las alternativas de solución hacia un camino correcto, reduciendo aspectos de costo y tiempo. Se elaboró un diagrama de Pareto correspondiente a la ponderación obtenida de cada uno de los requerimientos del cliente, con el fin de conocer cuáles son las principales necesidades sobre las que debemos concentrar nuestros esfuerzos. Utilizando este mismo principio de Pareto (80-20), las principales necesidades requeridas por el cliente y sobre las cuales se enfocarán los esfuerzos por diseñar alternativas que las contrarresten se muestran a continuación en la tabla 1.

Tabla 1: Resultados del Pareto

Nombre	Valor	Frecuencia Relativa	Frecuencia Acumulada
Pedido entregado en fecha y hora acordadas	26.6	21.7	21.7
Pedidos surtidos en poco tiempo	23.3	19	40.7
Pedido hecho sin interrupciones	20.0	16.31	57.01
Cumplimiento de las órdenes de pedidos	13.3	10.85	67.86
Todas las preguntas respondidas	10.0	8.16	76.02
Sin alteraciones de precios	7.0	5.71	81.73
Horarios de distribución adecuados	6.6	5.38	87.11
Buena atención de repartidores	3.9	3.18	90.29
Pedidos completos	3.9	3.18	93.47
Pedidos extemporáneos	3.0	2.45	95.92
Elección de días de entrega	3.0	2.45	98.37
Elección de horas de entrega	2.0	1.63	100
SUM	122.6		

Esta tabla presenta todas y cada una de las necesidades del cliente en orden de prioridad, conforme al diagnóstico realizado mediante el QFD. Se han seleccionado, de acuerdo al principio de Pareto, las necesidades sobre las que se enfocarán los esfuerzos.

A continuación se muestran las necesidades del cliente sobre las cuales se identificaron los elementos causantes de las mismas. Estos elementos son producto del diagnóstico aplicado mediante la herramienta QFD, lo que predispone apropiadamente las actividades que darán solución y contrarrestaran los requerimientos del cliente.

Pedido entregado en fecha y hora acordadas.:Siendo este uno de los principales requerimientos del cliente, es necesario mejorar aspectos relacionados con el diseño del servicio como son la velocidad y disponibilidad del personal, así como la tenencia de un inventario suficiente.

Pedidos surtidos en poco tiempo: Para este requerimiento es preciso mejorar los elementos relacionados con el diseño del servicio como son la capacidad de carga de los equipos de reparto, la velocidad y disponibilidad del personal, así como la tenencia de un inventario suficiente.

Cumplimiento de las órdenes de pedidos: Con el objeto de mejorar esta situación, los factores identificados y que provocan esta problemática son los relacionados con el diseño del servicio como son la capacidad de carga de los equipos de reparto, la disponibilidad del personal, así como la tenencia de un inventario suficiente.

Todas las preguntas respondidas: Este requerimiento tampoco será tomado en cuenta para la implementación de alguna alternativa de mejora puesto que en el benchmarking la empresa obtuvo la mejor ponderación, así que no es necesario algún cambio al respecto.

Sin alteraciones de precios: Observando el benchmarking se aprecia que para este requerimiento la empresa obtuvo una de las ponderaciones más altas, por lo que se tomó la decisión de no realizar ningún cambio sobre este aspecto. En resumen, con este análisis de los principales requerimientos del cliente, se puede observar que los requerimientos del diseño sobre los cuales se enfocan los esfuerzos son:

- Velocidad del personal
- Disponibilidad del personal
- Inventario suficiente
- Capacidad de carga en equipos de reparto

CONCLUSIONES

La importancia de utilizar la metodología del QFD es que permitió evaluar los requerimientos que el cliente tiene con respecto a los requerimientos técnicos que se necsitan tomar en cuenta como punto de referencia en el proceso de análisis y diseño del servicio existente. Al valorar los resultados de la matriz terminada, se concluyó que para lograr un servicio exitoso se debe poner mayor atención a los elementos mejor ponderados por cliente, ya que son los que él considera primordiales para que exista un servicio de calidad.En general, en este caso las alternativas de mejora se enfocaran en cumplir con la entrega de pedidos en fecha y hora acordadas, al igual que disminuir los tiempos de surtido de pedidos solicitados por los clientes, la cual incluye sólo aspectos relacionados con el método, es por tal motivo que las alternativas que se desarrollarán para contrarrestar esta situación, incluirán aspectos relacionados con el personal y el proceso de solicitud de pedido. Por otra parte dentro de los problemas identificados y que presentan una incidencia considerable se encuentran: realizar un pedido sin interrupciones y el incumplimiento de las órdenes de pedido, por lo que se explorarán estas áreas de oportunidad.

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BIOGRAFÍA

El ISC. Irán Josué Rosas Ramírez graduado de la carrera de Ingeniero en Sistemas Computacionales del Instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba, Veracruz, México. Actualmente lleva a cabo estudios de posgrado en el Instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba, cursando la Maestría en Ingeniería Administrativa, correo electrónico: iranjosue1@hotmail.com

La M.C. María Cristina Sánchez Romero, es Maestro en Ciencias en Ingeniería Industrial por el Instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba, Maestro en Gestión de la Calidad por la Universidad Veracruzana, actualmente jefe de proyectos de investigación y docente en el instituto Tecnológico de Orizaba. Ha participado como ponente en eventos académicos nacionales e internacionales y ha publicado artículos en revistas, correo electrónico: sancristy@yahoo.com.mx

Carmela Montiel Cabrera, Universidad Autónoma del Carmen

RESUMEN

El análisis de los factores que han condicionado el desarrollo económico en Ciudad del Carmen y su influencia e inequidad en la satisfacción de necesidades básicas. Existe un contraste entre riqueza natural y la pobreza en un porcentaje alto de la población que vive con dos salarios mínimos. Lo cual se ha registrado en los últimos diez años como consecuencia de la marginación y los altos niveles de vida, que ha registrado la industria petrolera. En contraste, se obtiene un alto costo social como: crecimiento demográfico, asentamientos irregulares, hacinamiento. Aunado a la prostitución, drogadicción, alcoholismo, inseguridad pública y el aumento en la violencia social , familiar, laboral, y comunitaria. Esta diferencia de clases como: pobreza urbana y pérdida de capacidad de coordinación social del Estado, es lo que ha fragmentado a la sociedad carmelita, por una parte sectores de población, estratificada y acompañados de todos los servicios urbanos, en contraste la población no integrada, marginada, excluida, que adolece de lo mas indispensable para la sobrevivencia, como el servicio de agua potable, energía eléctrica, pavimentación, escuelas, etc Esto nos permite ver la realidad de la clase

PALABRAS CLAVE Desarrollo social, Desarrollo económico, reactivación

INTRODUCCIÓN

de vida de los nativos de Ciudad del Carmen.

Se analiza el desarrollo social desde una perspectiva económica en Ciudad del Carmen Campeche, en donde a través de los años se ha obtenido riqueza de recursos naturales como el palo de tinte, maderas preciosas, el coco, la pesca de camarón y últimamente el petróleo, sin embargo éstos no han sido administrados y explotados debidamente ya que su riqueza no se refleja en el desarrollo social de nuestra época. SALES (1990) Esta historia incide en un puerto exportador (Carmen) quien nos señala sobre las causas y consecuencias de otros virajes y redefiniciones de política económica. Ante la dificultad socio-productiva provocada por la crisis del comercio exterior, la intervención estatal ha jugado un papel definitivo en las circunstancias históricas en el desarrollo del municipio.

Bajo la misma dinámica de explotación se encuentran las actividades extractivas del petróleo, que por un lado impactan positivamente en la economía nacional y por otro lado la población marginada o pobre carente de los servicios más indispensables para la salud que viven en condiciones precarias.

METODOLOGÍA

La metodología de investigación será mediante un estudio cuantitativo no probabilístico una reconstrucción del proceso histórico de conformación con los sectores sociales y medioambientales locales, de tal forma que permita delinear una imagen real y general del ser de hoy en el cambio producido por la extracción petrolera y su responsabilidad con el medio ambiente.

Antecedentes

Carmen se encuentra dentro de la Laguna de Términos, Área Natural Protegida. Cuenta con una extensión aproximada de 16500 kilómetros cuadrados, la cual a la fecha se reduce a 13134.9.kilómetros.

Hace aproximadamente 30 años, cuando se inició la explotación de los ricos yacimientos petroleros en estos mares, Carmen era una pequeña población de no más de 35 mil habitantes. Hoy vivimos en una ciudad de cerca de 200 mil habitantes, de los cuales el 50 por ciento son personas que vienen de diferentes estados de la república como Chiapas, Tabasco, Yucatán y Veracruz, y del extranjero.

Para 1971 se dan inicios a los trabajos de exploración del recurso no renovable llamado petróleo. En "1979, con el descubrimiento del campo "Cantarell", se demostró la riqueza de los yacimientos de la Sonda de Campeche y se inició la explotación a gran escala" El resultado inevitable de la intensidad de la actividad de extracción petrolera en la zona, se da desde los años de 1975-1980, viene a consolidarse como territorio de explotación petrolera en los años de 1987; siendo el agua el material líquido que recubre al fondo marino ribereño en donde se encuentra hundido en profundas cavidades subterráneas, el oro negro.Muchas de las veces el problema del desarrollo económico, visto en forma simplificada, consiste en el proceso de transformación de una sociedad que posee una tecnología sencilla hacia una sociedad de más amplio desarrollo; la cual se ve reflejada en la situación económica de la isla que pasa de barcos simples a plataformas con una tecnología sofisticada que tiene mayor impacto en la biodiversidad del entorno, es por ello que urgen cambios profundos en la economía del estado sobre todo de Ciudad del Carmen hay que tomar en cuenta que economía y medio ambiente no son compatibles con el crecimiento económico de una sociedad.

Sin embargo es indiscutible que existe una interrelación de los hechos económicos y de los fenómenos de la vida social; pero el aspecto social en su conjunto es el más complicado de todos, porque no sólo comprende los hechos económicos, sino también los políticos, tecnológicos y otros de carácter institucional, cuyos diferentes aspectos forman científicamente una unidad inseparable.

DESARROLLO

El desarrollo económico de Ciudad del Carmen, Campeche, ha sido importante en las últimas décadas, sin embargo, no se refleja en la calidad de vida de la población, sobre todo en la nativa. Históricamente el petróleo ha ocasionado impactos negativos sobre la estructura socio productiva de la región donde se ubican los más significativos que son: la desordenada urbanización, las migraciones masivas buscando fuentes de empleo por un lado y por otro el desempleo de ciertos sectores sociales que no pueden incursionar en la industria del ramo, la inflación en los precios de bienes y servicios. Todo esto sin tomar en cuenta el grave deterioro ecológico que siempre padecen las regiones que acogen a PEMEX.

Como consecuencia de la crisis social registrada se hace mal uso de los recursos naturales del entorno (humedales, cuerpos de agua, flora, fauna e hidrocarburos), omitiendo el marco legal que regula la preservación, conservación y restauración del medio ambiente. los cuales se encuentran normados por instrumentos jurídicos de competencia municipal, estatal, federal e internacional.

Los desajustes provocados por la caída de los precios en 1980 hizo impostergable la reestructuración global de la industria. Un año después las cooperativas, el Gobierno federal y un buen número de empresarios, acordaron el proceso para transferir la totalidad de las embarcaciones camaroneras en manos de la iniciativa privada a las cooperativas. A pesar de las complicaciones en las etapas de valuación de las embarcaciones y de adjudicación a las cooperativas, en julio de 1982, la transferencia estaba concluida.

Sin embargo, las demás fases de la reestructuración de la industria seguían en proceso de negociación. Entre las tareas pendientes que se habían considerado indispensables, estaba la adquisición de las plantas procesadoras, el establecimiento de una central de asesoría financiera y contable para respaldar a las cooperativas, y los apoyos crediticios para optimizar la operación de la flota adquirida.

Aunque se dieron los desajustes antes mencionados en esas décadas con un puerto pesquero de tres dársenas, muelles, astilleros y varaderos, fábricas de hielo, congeladoras y empacadoras que constituían

grandes fuentes de empleo, pero al transferirse la flota camaronera a las sociedades cooperativas de producción pesquera, así con el inicio de instalaciones de plataformas de petróleo, se prohibió el acercamiento de los pescadores para tirar sus redes al mar llevando a cabo un proceso de crisis socioeconómica. La actividad petrolera vino a reactivar las industrias colaterales como la metal-mecánica y el comercio. Su presencia impulsó la actividad socioeconómica pero también generó alteraciones en las condiciones sociales de la comunidad carmelita.

En relación a lo que se le podría determinar como un esquema de regionalización Carmen presenta un grado medio de desarrollo económico, porque se enfrenta al escaso dinamismo de las actividades primarias, incremento progresivo en la demanda de infraestructura, equipamiento urbano, el alto costo de nivel de vida, desigualdad interregional en el desarrollo y en la distribución del ingreso, es fuerte centro de atracción de corrientes migratorias y cuenta con una población flotante, incremento de fenómenos relacionados con las conductas antisociales; estos retos son los que deberá enfrentar la sociedad y gobierno así como buscar las estrategias debidas para combatirlas.

"Ciudad del Carmen cuenta con una población de 199,988 habitantes (INEGI, 2005), considerada como uno de los municipios de mayor población en el Estado, debido a las actividades productivas que en ellas se han realizado (explotación de palo de tinte, chicle, camarón, coco y petróleo) y que la han convertido en eje de desarrollo regional por su incalculable riqueza en recursos naturales" Es necesario reactivar las actividades económicas del municipio, elevar niveles de vida y bienestar de la población, reordenar el desarrollo y reorientar el proceso de urbanización municipal, fortalecer la participación del municipio de Carmen en el constante mejoramiento económico, social y político del estado. Esto tiene un doble carácter, representa contar con un fondo de recursos del gobierno destinados a diversos proyectos de grupos organizados de la comunidad.

Por otra parte, constituye una nueva concepción de acercamiento e integración entre el gobierno y la comunidad. Tomamos como base el principio de la participación comunitaria y de la corresponsabilidad para enfrentar la solución de los problemas que se plantean a las comunidades de menores recursos económicos. Su esencia, radica en la participación compartida de responsabilidades y la concertación, donde cada parte aporta conforme a sus esferas los recursos, y se restituye a la comunidad su capacidad de decisión, su potencial organizativo y de realización, así como, su facultad de orientar y vigilar el correcto uso de los recursos, al establecerse una nueva forma de relación con las instituciones públicas.

Por una parte, la participación ciudadana regulada, se caracteriza porque se genera e induce desde las estructuras legales, normativas y administrativas de la autoridad local y que esta medida a través del Ayuntamiento de Carmen. La normatividad jurídica-administrativa existente menciona que uno de los fines del Ayuntamiento es "promover y organizar la participación ciudadana para cumplir con los planes y programas municipales", además de "interesar a la ciudadanía en la supervisión y autogestión de las tareas publicas municipales". Desde este marco legal institucional, las figuras que se identifican para la participación ciudadana ante las autoridades del municipio y que son coordinados por la Secretaría del Ayuntamiento y la Dirección de Desarrollo Social y Económico, son la creación de los Comités de Desarrollo Comunitario y los Comités Vecinales para funciones relacionadas con la Seguridad Pública, Protección Civil, Protección al Ambiente, Desarrollo Social, Servicios Públicos, Obras Públicas y Desarrollo Urbano En cuanto a las aportaciones de PEMEX para el desarrollo municipal, es necesario vincular las autoridades, empresas públicas y privadas, para encontrar formas con la finalidad de intensificar la coordinación entre ambas, concertar y desarrollar las acciones que repercutan en el mejoramiento general de las condiciones de vida y evitar la polarización extrema en la disponibilidad de bienes y servicios municipales básicos.

Sustentado en todo ello, la comunidad sabrá mantener una amplia disposición para conciliar el desarrollo del municipio con el de la industria petrolera. Conviene reiterar que la necesidad de equilibrar demanda

social de mejores servicios y ampliación de la oferta correspondiente, obliga a la creación de nuevos esquemas de participación y financiamiento.Por ello, se propone la apertura en este ramo a los inversionistas privados interesados en invertir en obras y servicios municipales concesionables, siempre y cuando otorguen las garantías para elevar al máximo la calidad y eficiencia del servicio de que se trate además de cumplir con la normatividad existente en la materia. En este sentido a la sociedad le correspondería el esfuerzo de pagar esos servicios a su costo real, en función de la calidad y oportunidad con que se presten. Avanzar en el fortalecimiento del municipio conforme lo establece el artículo 115 constitucional, significa además de sanear sus finanzas, plantearse la plena utilización de los esquemas financieros que ofrecen los gobiernos estatal y federal para apoyar proyectos con mezcla de recursos. Asimismo, de los recursos financieros que ofrece la banca de desarrollo, cuyos esquemas y paquetes de oferta son en la mayoría de los casos subutilizados, por desconocimiento de la capacidad o la insuficiencia de recursos propios. En resumen, avanzar en este sentido supone una planeación y administración financiera adecuada, objetivo que en nuestro caso es primordial.

En nuestra época, la metáfora de la mano invisible, reguladora del mercado a través de la oferta y demanda se ha erigido como paradigma conductor de las políticas de desarrollo económico. Los grupos que detectan el poder económico esquivan las supuestas bondades del mercado libre contra las regulaciones y el intervencionismo estatal, salvo que éste sea en su beneficio.

Carmen, hoy quizás se enfrenta a un mayor reto, hacer que la industria petrolera permanezca por muchos años más en nuestra tierra, desde siempre ha sido puerto de abrigo y con un calado natural, en donde actualmente debe modernizarse y crecer, pero esta vez como una visión de futuro, con la infraestructura adecuada que le permita estar a la altura de la importancia que representa para México la Sonda de Campeche, de la cual, se extrae el 84 por ciento de petróleo y el 34 por ciento del gas que produce el país, lo cual representa el 35 por ciento del ingreso nacional., como a continuación se muestra.

Producción de petróleo crudo por regiones (1994-2000) (Cifras en miles de barriles diarios)

Período	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Región marina	2,002	1,038	2,133	2,298	2,358	2,238	2,385
Región Sur	585	584	630	628	620	587	550
Región Norte	98	95	95	96	92	81	77

Fuente: elaborado por Dr. Luis Alberto Vásquez Meléndez a partir de las cifras contenidas en las memorias de labores de Petróleos Mexicanos.

En nuestro país existe una tendencia creciente en la extracción de petróleo crudo en cantidades considerables, que no ha logrado convertirse en una fuente adecuada para promover el desarrollo Petróleos Mexicanos deberá llevar a efecto el arranque del Programa Hábitat, que promueve la Secretaría de Desarrollo Social del Gobierno Federal, en su vertiente Ciudades Petroleras. Ya que en Ciudad del Carmen, como zona petrolera de mayor importancia para el país, en la que se ejemplifica perfectamente el objetivo del programa deberá impulsar el desarrollo social de las ciudades petroleras en condiciones de sustentabilidad, competitividad económica y cohesión social.

El esfuerzo de la Secretaría de Desarrollo Social, en el diseño de una vertiente que considera las características particulares de este tipo de zonas urbanas, aledañas a la industria de los hidrocarburos, es notable, innovador y necesario. PEMEX deberá asumir el reto.

En el ámbito urbano, Petróleos Mexicanos ha contribuido con la realización de importantes obras públicas que ha emprendido, tanto el gobierno del estado, como el municipio de Ciudad del Carmen, como son : la construcción de los malecones de la calle 20 y de la Caleta, la avenida periférica, la rehabilitación, modernización y mantenimiento del Acueducto Chicbul-Carmen, que abastece de agua potable a la ciudad.. PEMEX deberá ser generador de empleos para los habitantes de la localidad, pero, sobre todo, que se involucre en los cuidados del medio ambiente, de un buen desarrollo urbano y capaz de disminuir

la brecha de desigualdad. Se cuenta con la aplicación del Programa Hábitat teniendo el apoyo del Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo que ha dado el crédito más importante a un programa urbano de toda América Latina, lo cual se dice que dará la tranquilidad de que Hábitat podrá seguir adelante, que no depende de tiempos electorales y que es un programa que ha llegado para quedarse. Lamentablemente, el programa Hábitat como parte de su política de combate a la pobreza en esta ciudad, se ha centrado casi exclusivamente en acciones de mejoramiento a la imagen urbana y en general del entorno físico de los barrios donde viven los pobres, y, en menor medida en el mejoramiento de sus capacidades y oportunidades básicas.

La población del Carmen es una de las más importantes del Estado de Campeche, en contraste en el fondo de la pobreza encontramos la impotencia de la gente para resolver y salir de ese problema, por los bajos salarios, por el desempleo, por el subempleo y un creciente comercio ciudad. La pavimentación de calles en áreas urbanas y rurales, campos deportivos y espacios de recreación. "En cuatro años (2002-2006), en esta administración , Petróleos Mexicanos ha entregado donativos al Estado de Campeche, por un total de 687 millones de pesos, recursos en efectivo y bienes en especie, entre ellos: asfalto, combustible, tubería, equipo y materiales diversos, además de los recursos destinados a las obras de beneficio mutuo que realiza la empresa de manera directa, cuya inversión tan sólo en el municipio de Carmen asciende a 188 millones de pesos en el mismo período; esto nos da un total de 875 millones de pesos en su Administración" Informe del estado de Campeche (2006)

Por eso es tan importante, que hoy desde el Gobierno Federal se aborde como una visión renovadora la atención de los problemas sociales y urbanos, sobre todo en el combate a la marginación y a la pobreza. Como se concibe en este Programa Hábitat, es un programa que acompañará de aquí en adelante la tarea productiva de PEMEX, incrementando empleos y beneficios para el resurgimiento de diversas actividades alternas en apoyo a la industria marítima, la industria turística y la portuaria.

Actualmente se cuenta con programas de capacitación laboral, autoempleo y formación de grupos productivos con el trabajo coordinado de instituciones educativas y empresariales, del gobierno federal, estatal y municipal. Sin embargo no están diseñados a la realidad de la población. Se ha creado el Centro de Articulación Productiva con el fin de asesorar, capacitar, otorgar asistencia técnica y gestionar financiamiento para la micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas de la localidad. A la fecha se atienden 600 empresas y se destina 3 millones 631 mil pesos. Cada recurso nuevo, destinado a la solución de problemas populares, para abatir los grandes rezagos que trae la afluencia de población a estos lugares en que el petróleo es básico, simboliza un avance en nuestra larga lucha, para que Campeche reciba el trato justo que merece la Nación y simboliza un avance en la justicia que merece el Carmen.

Se debe seguir de pie, mientras Carmen, tenga un saldo a favor en la reparación de los daños ambientales, sociales, y como el alto costo de la vida económica que ha traído el petróleo. Hay que reconocer que la explotación petrolera trae consigo un desarrollo económico para la población, pero también graves problemas ambientales, ante esta situación y debido a las condiciones ecológicas y de ubicación de la Isla, así como a la toma de conciencia de mucha gente, dio como resultado la declaratoria como Área Natural Protegida (ANP) a la Laguna de Términos incluida Ciudad del Carmen.

Constituyó a la vez el reconocimiento en los más amplios sectores sociales de su importancia, así como el hecho de que el equilibrio ecológico del área determinado por la interacción del hombre con la naturaleza y la sociedad, que por ende es necesario establecer las normas que permitan los procesos ambientales en beneficio de un desarrollo sustentable con miras a controlar las diversas anomalías que traen consigo el establecimiento de las zonas, aún cuando existen normas que no son aplicadas adecuadamente y las mismas son insuficientes para resolver los problemas económicos ambientales.

CONCLUSIONES

La apertura de espacios para la participación que se han generado en la comunidad, en los programas de gobierno, uniendo esfuerzos y voluntades en la toma de decisiones, ha contribuido al despegue de programas para el desarrollo integral. Programas donde instituciones educativas como la Universidad Autónoma del Carmen participa en concordancia con el Consejo Coordinador Empresarial y los tres niveles de gobierno, se creó una "Incubadora de Empresas" que centra sus servicios en la realización de planes de negocios, la capacitación y la vinculación con financiamiento. Así surgieron 60 empresas y se generaron 120 empleos. Instalándose el Sistema de Apertura Rápida de Empresas en la Presidencia Municipal y a 4 meses de funcionamiento se facilito la inversión productiva de pequeñas empresas"

La Universidad Autónoma del Carmen para contribuir a la economía de Ciudad del Carmen, en colaboración con la Universidad Tecnológica de Campeche y la Universidad Autónoma de Campeche, "se llevará a efecto un proyecto de PEMEX con la explotación de trece pozos ubicados en la Área Natural Protegida de Atasta, Campeche. Que dio inicio en el mes de octubre de 2006, consistirá en que las instituciones educativas serán valuadores sociales llevando efecto estudios cada seis meses salvaguardando el hábitat que repercutirá como resultado de un impacto socio-económico involucrando a profesores y jóvenes universitarios contratados o recibiendo una beca La población carmelita están cada vez más conscientes de que su participación en los programas de gobierno y comunitarios es fundamental para mejorar su calidad de vida, económica, social, y ambiental. Seria importante revisar los mecanismos de origen sociológico de las acciones colectivas y de participación social que promueven las instancias que regulan el ordenamiento territorial de ciudades con acelerado crecimiento urbano.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Carmela Montiel Cabrera es profesor de tiempo completo de la Universidad Autónoma del Carmen, cuenta con Maestría en Derecho Fiscal y actualmente esta cursando el segundo año de doctorado en Economía Administrativa por la Universidad de Granada España. Es titular de la asignatura de Auditoría en el programa educativo de Licenciatura en Contaduría por la Universidad Autónoma del Carmen Campeche, México

PERCEPCIÓN MULTINIVEL DE LA CALIDAD DEL SERVICIO EDUCATIVO UNIVERSITARIO

Oscar Reyes Sánchez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Marcela Reyes Pazos, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California-Guadalupe Victoria

RESUMEN

El propósito de esta investigación es analizar las dimensiones clave que en mayor medida se relacionan con el éxito en la percepción de alumnos y profesores de la calidad del servicio educativo en la Universidad . Del examen conjunto de las diferentes partes del estudio y de la evidencia empírica obtenida se espera obtener conclusiones relevantes que contribuyan a diseñar e implementar líneas de mejora en las actuales estrategias de calidad en el nivel de educación universitaria. Se ajustarán los conocimientos previos como la adaptación de la escala SERVQUAL y SERVQUALing. Se utilizará el método estadístico multivariable: regresión múltiple y reducción factorial, complementado con pruebas de validez y fiabilidad, apoyado en el software SPSS, así mismo se utilizarán las técnicas de grupo focal, entrevista a profundidad y se apoyará en el software ATLAS.TI, con el fin de categorizar y describir las relaciones conceptuales desde la perspectiva cualitativa, cruzando la información tanto cuantitativa como cualitativa para elaborar un diagnóstico final. Una de las aportaciones más importantes de esta investigación son crear por un conjunto de instrumentos cuantitativos y complementar con métodos y técnicas cualitativas con el fin de apoyar a la planeación estratégica institucional y la mejora continua del servicio educativo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Servqual, Servqualing, satisfacción del cliente.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to analyze the key dimensions which largely relate to success in the perception of students and teachers of the quality of education at the university. The joint review of the different parts of the study and the empirical evidence is expected to contribute significant conclusions to design and implement areas for improvement in current strategies of quality college education. Background will be adjusted as the adaptation of the SERVQUAL scale and SERVQUALing. Will use the multivariate statistical method: multiple regression and factor reduction, supplemented by evidence of validity and reliability, supported by the SPSS software and same techniques used focus groups, depth interviews and will rely on the software ATLAS.ti to categorize and describe the conceptual relationships from the qualitative perspective, crossing the quantitative and qualitative information to make a final diagnosis. One of the most important contributions of this research is to create a set of quantitative tools and complemented by qualitative methods and techniques to support corporate strategic planning and c9ontinuous improvement of educational services.

KEY WORDS: Servqual, Servqualing, customer satisfaction.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Uno de los enfoques que ha emprendido el sector universitario para hacer frente a los inminentes cambios que le exige la sociedad, es la adopción de modelos de gestión de comprobado éxito en el sector empresarial. Modelos de sistemas de gestión como ISO 9000, y el premio Malcolm Baldrige, así como los requerimientos gubernamentales específicos del sector universitario, plantean la medición de la calidad del servicio como herramienta de soporte al control y a la toma de decisiones. Con la Evaluación de la calidad en una

organización. En este trabajo de investigación será necesario adaptar y desarrollar un instrumento para medir la calidad percibida del servicio en el sector universitario. En este modelo propuesto, se plantea una visión global del proceso de medición de la calidad del servicio e incluirá el mejoramiento continuo de dicho proceso.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

En el caso de las instituciones públicas existen razones distintas a la competitividad para ocuparse de la calidad. La más importante es la responsabilidad social y ética que asume el sector público hacia los ciudadanos. Otras razones radican en la necesidad de asegurar las eficiencia y por tanto, del correcto uso de los fondos públicos, del incremento de las prestaciones, y de su efectividad. En el caso de la educación es evidente este grado de responsabilidad y, por tanto, los métodos de aseguramiento y mejora de la calidad educativa se convierten en una responsabilidad compartida para el conjunto de profesionales que intervienen en el proceso educativo. (Santos, 2004, p.223).

Sin embargo vivimos en un mundo globalizado, donde en el mercado actual existen requerimientos de competitividad y universalidad los cuales han transformado a los sistemas de gestión de calidad, en algo obligatorio partiendo de un punto confiable y seguro para los clientes quienes son los que requieren de este. Para mejorar la calidad en las instituciones de educación superior, enfocadas como empresas de servicios, es necesario cumplir con las peticiones de la sociedad, por que ella es la que decide ingresar a la mejor escuela para recibir una educación de calidad. Es por ello que hay muchas universidades privadas, quienes de manera personalizada satisfacen las necesidades de los estudiantes, como horarios flexibles, atención personalizada, carreras cortas para personas que trabajan, etc. entonces es un desafío para las universidades públicas poder competir en este nivel, con una visión más empresarial, donde cumplan con las peticiones de los clientes, compitiendo en cuestión de calidad del servicio.

Según Garbanzo (2007) en los años ochentas y noventas, el tópico de calidad educativa cobra auge en los debates de las instituciones universitarias en América Latina, como consecuencia de las inquietudes y necesidades expresadas por la sociedad, y la demanda que exigían en la actualidad. Se dice mucho sobre calidad de universidades en todo el mundo, y es así como revistas ó periódicos, han realizado publicaciones anuales acerca del ranking que ocupan las instituciones de educación superior a nivel nacional e internacional, tal como The times World University Ranking en Estados Unidos donde aparecen las mejores universidades a nivel mundial, los criterios de evaluación se basan en número de publicaciones en revistas arbitradas de circulación internacional, número de citas a los trabajos publicados de sus académicos, número de publicaciones en revistas de alto factor de impacto, número de ex-alumnos galardonados con premios internacionales, premio nobell, medalla fiellds, número de académicos galardonados con premios internacionales, número y volumen de contenidos de tipo académico en internet. En México existe la revista guía universitaria de readers digest, donde se dan a conocer las mejores universidades a nivel nacional. Sin embargo estos rankings no muestran la percepción de calidad por el servicio recibido que tiene los estudiantes de la universidad, durante el periodo escolar, y si ellos están de acuerdo con el servicio que están recibiendo.

A partir de todo este movimiento de la gestión de la calidad en las organizaciones empresariales las universidades han comenzado a hablar de calidad, y lo están haciendo debido a situaciones como las siguientes: 1) aumento de la critica social a la falta de pertinencia de sus programas, 2)escala de investigación, y falta de relevancia de la investigación para resolver los problemas sociales y empresariales, 3)alto grado de ineficiencia y de ineficacia, que lleva a un mal empleo de los recursos que aporta el estado, las empresas y las mismas personas; 4) alto desempleo de sus egresados por la poca pertinencia de los estudios realizados, 5) aumento significativo de la oferta de estudios en educación superior, que genera la posibilidad de que una universidad vea disminuido de forma significativa el número de estudiantes, 6)llegada de universidades extranjeras de gran prestigio, y 7) progresivo aumento

de los países en los cuales la financiación estatal esta sujeta a la demostración de impacto de las universidades. (Tobón, et al., 2006, p.60) En sus trabajos, Arenas & Jaimes (2008) hacen referencia a Cesar Cañón (2007) en las características más importantes en la calidad de la escuela que son: "el liderazgo y orientación por parte del profesor, prácticas de seguimiento, evaluación integral, recursos físicos, bibliográficos, mobiliario y dotación, tecnología, coherencia en las etapas del docente, satisfacción de los estudiantes, vinculación de los egresados, y la publicación y divulgación de los resultados"."La gestión de la calidad en las universidades implica diseñar, estandarizar, e implementar todas las tareas y procedimientos que garanticen el desarrollo efectivo de las funciones básicas de la institución, teniendo como referente su misión, y las necesidades de la región de acción desde una visión prospectiva enmarcada en las tendencias nacionales e internacionales". (Arenas & Jaimes, 2008, p.17) Para la institución educativa es de suma importancia tener satisfechos a los clientes, llamados estudiantes porque ellos son quienes retribuirán al crecimiento de la universidad, para que a su vez estos la recomienden a futuros interesados con el fin de que cursen sus estudios en ésta. La escuela está preocupada por que los usuarios sean fieles a la institución, el desarrollo de la organización, y optimizar los costos. Los estudiantes, tendrán una percepción positiva del servicio, si la institución educativa satisface todas las necesidades del alumno, cubriendo sus exigencias antes, durante y después del servicio.

La percepción de la calidad del servicio por parte del estudiante es de gran interés para las instituciones de educación superior, porque en la actualidad existen más universidades tanto públicas como privadas que compiten por estar certificadas con las normas ISO9000, y ofrecer el mejor servicio de educación pero no saben que es lo que piensan los usuarios al respecto.

En cuestión de calidad educativa, hay distintos rubros que evaluar, ya que inmiscuye a todos los elementos que rodean a la institución, como los maestros, el personal administrativo, personal operativo, las instalaciones, la atención, el servicio inmediato, la documentación, los empleadores, los estudiantes, etc. Para la universidad, la opinión y percepción del estudiante acerca del servicio que esta recibiendo es sumamente importante, por que él es el cliente quien juzga el servicio. La evaluación de la calidad del servicio en las universidades, es fundamental, para ejercer un control en los procedimientos que se llevan a cabo, y se puedan mejorar o perfeccionar funciones que se realizan mal, debe ser constante, llevar un seguimiento y ser automática.

Entendida de este modo, la calidad requiere un juicio valorativo que viene dado por la evaluación. De esta manera, la palabra calidad adquiere un sentido descriptivo. Por lo tanto, es importante hacer la distinción entre calidad y evaluación, pues mientras la calidad de la educación implica un proceso de mejora continuo sobre sus elementos, también requiere necesariamente de la evaluación. (Garduño, 1999, p.5). En la escuela, la evaluación de la calidad del servicio se realiza de distintas maneras, como puede ser por medio de encuestas de satisfacción de estudiantes, evaluación de los docentes, número de usuarios atendidos por día, encuesta de percepción de la calidad del servicio, buzón de sugerencias, acreditación de los programas de licenciatura, documentación, número de egresados, etc.

Cabe mencionar que no todas las instituciones de educación superior en México públicas ó privadas, cumplen con los requerimientos de calidad, y ningún tipo de certificación por algún organismo acreditador u organización como lo son CONACYT (Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología), ISO9000, CIEES (Comités Interinstitucionales para la Evaluación de la Educación Superior A.C.), COPAES (Consejo para la acreditación de la Educación Superior A.C.), COPAES (Consejo para la acreditación de la Educación Superior A.C.), COPAES (Consejo para la acreditación de la Educación Superior A.C.), CONAET (Consejo Nacional para la Calidad de la Educación Turística A.C.), CACECA (Consejo de Acreditación en la Enseñanza de la Contaduría y Administración) entre otros.

"La evaluación educativa se considera un pilar de las políticas actuales de la educación superior, ya que forma parte de los procesos de planeación impulsados por los programas de los organismos del gobierno

federal vinculados al sector educativo, con el sesgo mencionado anteriormente derivado de su asociación con aspectos financieros." (Rueda, 2006, p.3.).

Actualmente parece que la influencia de las expectativas del alumnado sobre el profesorado y el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje va en aumento. Ello se deriva de las acciones que las universidades están realizando para establecer un sistema de evaluación de la calidad del servicio que ofrecen. Entre los aspectos evaluados se encuentra la labor docente y en ésta, una de las fuentes de información de más peso son los alumnos. Teniendo en cuenta esto, podemos decir que el profesorado está más condicionado por lo que el alumnado percibe de él y su actuación, y considera más las percepciones y expectativas de él. (Pichardo, M. et al. 2007, p. 3.).

En el trabajo de Rueda (2006) indica que los cuestionarios de opinión para los estudiantes acerca de la evaluación de la docencia, se han usado en los últimos años en México ya que es una estrategia para conocer si realmente el estudiante está satisfecho con el servicio prestado por parte del docente. Es importante reiterar que las instituciones de educación superior realizan certificaciones por organismos u organizaciones mencionadas anteriormente, en cuestión de evaluación de requisiciones de documentación de la escuela, de los maestros, o del personal administrativo, sin embargo las universidades públicas se han despreocupado en el aspecto de evaluar la percepción de la calidad del servicio por parte de los estudiantes. Una estrategia para incrementar la calidad en estas instituciones es satisfacer la demanda de servicio de los alumnos, con el fin de cumplir con esa parte donde la empresa tiene que satisfacer a su cliente, y haciendo hincapié al mundo cambiante que se vive en la actualidad con la globalización, para que el día de mañana la universidad pública sea reconocida como una institución de buena calidad recomendada por los estudiantes, como clientes satisfechos.

El *Modelo de Gestión de la Calidad Educativa* [GECE*ing*] fue desarrollado por Mejías (2006) como parte de los trabajos llevados a cabo en el Grupo de Investigación en Gestión de la Calidad, en la Universidad de Carabobo de Venezuela. El modelo GECE*ing* para la Gestión de la Calidad Educativa Universitaria constituye una generalización del modelo SERVQUAL*ing* planteado inicialmente por Mejías (2005^a) para evaluar la calidad de los servicios en los estudios universitarios de licenciatura.

Objetivo General De Investigación

Analizar la relación que existe entre las dimensiones clave de la percepción de la calidad del servicio educativo y la importancia atribuida a las dimensiones por parte de estudiantes, profesores y administrativos en la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas (FCH), campus Mexicali, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (UABC) durante el periodo escolar 2010- 2011.

METODOLOGÍA

La presente investigación se delimita al estudio de caso del universo de la FCH de la UABC utilizando muestras a conveniencia del investigador por lo que los resultados obtenidos serán de carácter descriptivo correlacional cuya aplicación a otros contextos será mediante el uso de analogías y no con el rigor científico de paradigma epistemológico cuantitativo. El proyecto presentado, catalogado como Factible, comprende las etapas generales de diagnóstico, planteamiento y fundamento teórico de la propuesta; procedimiento metodológico, actividades y recursos necesarios para su ejecución; análisis y conclusiones sobre viabilidad y realización del proyecto; así como su desarrollo, ejecución y evaluación tanto del proceso como de sus resultados. Por otro lado, se requerirá adicionalmente de la Investigación de campo, para el análisis del problema presentado, con el propósito de describirlo, interpretarlo, entender su naturaleza y factores constituyentes, explicando sus causas y efectos, haciendo uso de enfoques de investigación conocidos.

*Univers:*La población total de alumnos de la Facultad de Ciencias humanas, de la UABC, campus Mexicali, es de 2258 estudiantes de las distintas carreras como son Ciencias de la Comunicación, Psicología, Sociología, y Ciencias de la Educación. Cuenta con una Planta Docente de Profesores de Tiempo Completo de 49 quiénes tienen labores académicas y administrativo-académicas, además de 98 maestros por asignaturas.

Muestra: Aún cuando se trata de un estudio de caso, por cuanto se está analizando un sistema de gestión, en este caso de los Programas de Licenciatura de la FCH-UABC, no se puede hablar de manera general al plantear el modelo, de población y muestra ya que esta constituye precisamente el estudio de caso. Con respecto a la fase cualitativa se identificarán los casos "tipo" a criterio del investigador para recopilar la información. Se presentan las características de las muestras a utilizar. Ver tabla 1. Vale la pena destacar que dado las condiciones del estudio se utilizarían un muestreo de tipo no probabilística por conveniencia del investigador. Los instrumentos a aplicar forman parte del modelo propuesto, adaptados a las condiciones particulares de la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. Se incluye una encuesta escala tipo Likerty una guía de entrevista a profundidad y para Grupo Focal, los cuales permitirían el análisis de los datos generados mediante el uso de métodos estadísticos multivariantes y el análisis de contenido y construcción de conceptos con apoyo del Software Atlas.ti utilizados en la investigación cualitativa. Se mencionan los criterios de inclusión, exclusión y eliminación de la muestra, ver tabla 2. Se operacionalizan las variables, con su definición conceptual y operacional de cada una de ellas, ver tabla 3.

Tabla 1: Características de la muestra estudiantil y Docente.

Variable			Población	Muestra
Calidad	Percibida	de	Estudiantes de los programas de estudio (N= 2258	n=473 estudiantes.
Servicio)	
			Docentes $N = 147$	
			Docentes Tiempo Completo 54	n = 24 docentes de T.C.

Tabla 2. Criterios de la muestra estudiantil y Docente.

1. Criterios de inclusión	2. Criterios de exclusión	3. Criterios de eliminación
 Alumnos de las licenciaturas de educación, psicología, sociología, y comunicación. Docentes T.C. 	6. 7.	8. Sujetos que entregaron encuestas incompletas

Tabla 3: Operacionalización de las variables de Percepción de la Calidad de Servicio Educativo Universitario (Dimensiones Teóricas).

VARIABLE	ELEMENTOS TANGIBLES			
Definición conceptual	Apariencia de las instalaciones Físicas, Equipos, Personal y Materiales de Comunicación.			
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opciones de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni en desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo			
Indicador	1 La institución cuenta con los equipos (cómputo, talleres, etc.) actualizados.			
	2 Las instalaciones físicas de la Institución son visualmente atractivas.			
	3 El personal de la Institución tiene apariencia limpia y alineada.			
	4 Los elementos materiales (folletos, reportes y similares) son visualmente atractivos.			

Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
VARIABLE	CONFIABILIDAD
Definición conceptual	Habilidad para ejecutar el Servicio Prometido de Forma Fiable y Cuidadosa.
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo
Indicador	5Cuando el personal de la Institución promete hacer algo en cierto tiempo, lo hace.
	6 Cuando tengo un problema en la Institución muestran interés en solucionármelo.
	 7 El personal de la Institución realiza bien el servicio desde la primera vez. 8 El personal de la Institución concluye el servicio en el tiempo prometido. 9 El personal de la Institución mantiene sus expedientes sin errores.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
VARIABLE	CAPACIDAD DE RESPUESTA.
Definición conceptual	Disposición y Voluntad del Personal de la Institución para ayudar al Estudiante Proporcionar el Servicio. Indicador: Institución comunica la conclusión del servicio
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo
Indicador	10 El personal de la Institución te comunica cuando concluirá el servicio ofrecido.
	11 El personal de la Institución te ofrece servicio puntual.
	12 El personal de la Institución esta dispuesto a ayudarte.
	13 El personal de la Institución se encuentra disponible para atenderte.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
VARIABLE	SEGURIDAD.
Definición conceptual	Conocimientos y atención Mostrados por el Personal de la Institución y sus Habilidade para inspirar Credibilidad y Confianza.
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo
Indicador	14 El comportamiento del personal de la Institución te inspira confianza.
	15 Te sientes seguro en los trámites realizados con la Institución
	16 El personal de la Institución es amable contigo.
	17 El personal tiene conocimientos suficientes para responder tus preguntas.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
VARIABLE	EMPATÍA
Definición conceptual	Atención individualizada que Ofrece la Institución a los Estudiantes.
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo

Indicador	18 El personal de la Institución te da una atención individualizada.
	19 La Institución tiene horarios de trabajo adecuados para todos sus estudiantes.
	20 La Institución cuenta con el personal que le ofrece una atención personalizada.
	21 El personal de la Institución se preocupa por los intereses de los estudiantes.
	22 El personal de la Institución comprende las necesidades de sus estudiantes.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
DIMENSIONES EMPÍRICAS	SUBYACENTES O LATENTES
VARIABLE	SERVICIO EFICAZ
Definición conceptual	Conocimientos, habilidades, disposición y atención Mostrados por el Personal de la Institución para inspirar Credibilidad, y Confianza
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo
Indicador	12 El personal de la Institución esta dispuesto a ayudarte.
	13 El personal de la Institución se encuentra disponible para atenderte.
	14 El comportamiento del personal de la Institución te inspira confianza.
	15 Te sientes seguro en los tramites realizados con la Institución
	16 El personal de la Institución es amable contigo.
	17 El personal tiene conocimientos suficientes para responder tus preguntas.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos
VARIABLE	COMPROMISO CON LA EFICIENCIA
Definición conceptual	Habilidad y disposición para ejecutar el Servicio Prometido de Forma Fiable Cuidadosa.
Definición operacional	Se medirá la percepción de esta variable con una escala de Likert que tiene 5 opcione de respuesta. 5=Totalmente de acuerdo, 4=De acuerdo, 3=Ni de acuerdo Ni e desacuerdo, 2=De acuerdo, 1=Totalmente en desacuerdo
Indicador	5 Cuando el personal de la Institución promete hacer algo en cierto tiempo, lo hace.
	6Cuando tengo un problema en la Institución muestran interés en solucionármelo.
	7 El personal de la Institución realiza bien el servicio desde la primera vez.
	8 El personal de la Institución concluye el servicio en el tiempo prometido.
	9 El personal de la Institución mantiene sus expedientes sin errores.
	10 El personal de la Institución te comunica cuando concluirá el servicio ofrecido.
	11 El personal de la Institución te ofrece servicio puntual.
Escala de medición	De intervalo
Fuente	Encuesta respondida por los alumnos

MÉTODO CUALITATIVO

Se utilizarán las técnicas de entrevistas a profundidad y Grupos Focales "Focus Group", se obtendrán los Documentos Primarios respectivos y se procesarán en el Software Atlas.ti , creando citas, códigos y memorándums, redes conceptuales o "networks" y a partir de ellos se generarán reportes que lleven a la creación y/o confirmación de categorías conceptuales de la percepción de la calidad del servicio educativo universitario. Como punto de partida se utilizarán las categorías teóricas del servqual y el servqualing como categorías a priori, pero con la posibilidad de construir categorías a posteriori producto de la experiencia particular de esta investigación.

RESULTADOS PARCIALES

Se obtuvieron resultados confiables en la definición de la relación entre las percepciones de los estudiantes de licenciatura de la calidad del servicio educativo universitario recibido y la importancia atribuida a las dimensiones que integran la calidad del mismo, en la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas (FCH), campus Mexicali, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (UABC) durante el periodo escolar 2010-1. Una vez obtenido el procesamiento de los resultados, por medio de las medidas estadísticas se detectaron los puntos de mejora para la facultad, con el fin de aumentar la calidad del servicio, y lograr que mejore el nivel de satisfacción de los estudiantes.

Se obtuvieron las dimensiones latentes de la percepción de la calidad del servicio, utilizando la técnica de estadística multivariable de análisis factorial, reducción de factores, apoyados en el modelo de regresión múltiple, análisis de componentes principales y con la técnica de rotación VARIMAX. El instrumento utilizado SERVQUALING, conservó las 22 ítems, con una confiabilidad de 0.935 alpha de cronbach, pero reorganizándose en las dimensiones subyacentes. Se confirmaron las dimensiones teóricas de Elementos Tangibles, y empatía, se obtuvieron las dimensiones subyacentes que son servicio eficaz y compromiso con la eficiencia. El análisis factorial es una técnica de reducción de datos que sirve para encontrar grupos homogéneos de variables a partir de un conjunto numeroso de variables. Este análisis, parte de la Matriz de Correlaciones, la cual presenta los coeficientes de correlación entre cada par de variables, y es generada por el SPSS a partir de los datos obtenidos por la encuesta; para que el mismo sea pertinente es conveniente que la matriz de correlación contenga grupos de variables que correlacionen fuertemente entre si; una matriz próxima a una matriz identidad indica que el análisis de factores de factores de factores conducirá a una solución deficiente.

El valor del determinante, estadístico presentado por el SPSS adjunto a esta matriz, es de 1.07E-005, el cual es un excelente dato desde el punto de vista de la idoneidad del análisis, ya que cuando las variables de una matriz están linealmente relacionadas, el valor del determinante se aproxima a cero, lo que significa que el análisis de factores es una técnica adecuada para analizar esas variables. Se calcularon para cada caso, las *medidas de adecuación muestral de Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin*, o KMO, y las *medidas de esfericidad de Bartlett*. El estadístico KMO compara los coeficientes de correlación parcial entre variables; si estos son muy pequeños, la relación entre cada par de variables se debe o puede ser explicada por el resto y por tanto sería adecuado llevar a cabo un análisis de factores de los datos. Por su parte la medida de Bartlett, se utiliza para verificar si la matriz de correlación es una matriz identidad, y cuanto mayor sea y por lo tanto menor el grado de significación, es mejor la adecuación de los datos para el análisis. El estadístico KMO arrojó un valor de 0,948, lo que quiere decir que hay factores que relacionan a los datos y que puede utilizarse el análisis de factores. El valor arrojado para las prueba de Bartlett fue de 5124.624, con un nivel de significación de 0.000, por lo que fue una evidencia de que el modelo de factores era adecuado para explicar los datos.

Tabla 4: Correlación de calidad del servicio con cada una de las dimensiones empíricas.

Dimensión	r de Pearson	Significancia- 2 colas	
Elementos Tangibles	0.697	0.000	
Empatía	0.860	0.000	
Servicio Eficaz	0.894	0.000	
Compromiso con la Eficiencia	0.865	0.000	

CONCLUSIONES PARCIALES

1.- El propósito de esta parte la investigación fue analizar la relación que existe entre la percepción de la calidad del servicio educativo y la importancia de la asociación de cada una de las dimensiones que integran la calidad del mismo: Se partió de las dimensiones teóricas (a priori) de Parasuraman y Mejías (Elementos tangibles, Confiabilidad, Capacidad de Respuesta, Seguridad y Empatía), se obtuvieron a través de el análisis de factores las dimensiones empíricas (a posteriori) de: Servicio eficaz, compromiso con la eficiencia, empatía y elementos tangibles, de los estudiantes de licenciatura en la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas (FCH), de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (UABC) campus Mexicali, durante el periodo escolar 2010-1. Los indicadores de las cinco dimensiones teóricas se reorganizaron en cuatro dimensiones empíricas, los indicadores 5,6,7,8 y 9 de la dimensión de Confiabilidad más el 10 y 11 de Capacidad de Respuesta se reorganizaron en la dimensión empírica subyacente denominada "Compromiso con la Eficacia". Los indicadores12 y 13 de Capacidad de Respuesta y los indicadores 14,15,16, y 17 de Seguridad (dimensiones teóricas) se reorganizaron en la dimensión empírica subyacente de "Servicio Eficaz", las dimensiones teóricas de Empatía (indicadores 1,2,3, y 4) y Empatía (18,19,20,21 y 22) se confirmaron empíricamente.

2.- Se analizó la correlación de cada una de las dimensiones con la media general de la calidad del servicio, obteniéndose los siguientes coeficientes de correlación de Pearson y su significancia. Servicio Eficaz, r=0.894, p=0.000; compromiso con la eficiencia r=0.865, p=0.000, empatía r=0.860, p=0.000, y elementos tangibles r= 0.697, p=0.000. Ver tabla 4.

3.- Para ello se aplicó el instrumento SERVQUALING del cual se obtuvo una confiabilidad alpha de Cronbach de 0.935. Con los datos obtenidos se realizó un análisis factorial, rotación de factores VARIMAX con el fin de obtener las dimensiones subyacentes, empíricas, de la percepción de la calidad del servicio educativo de los estudiantes, confirmándose 2 dimensiones teóricas: Elementos tangibles, y Empatía, propuestas por Parasuraman y MejÍas, obteniéndose 2 dimensiones subyacentes: Servicio Eficaz, y compromiso con la eficiencia. Ver tabla 3.

4.- Se establece la afirmación en este estudio que existe una correlación de la media general en la Percepción de la Calidad del Servicio Educativo, con las dimensiones empíricas que son: Servicio eficaz, compromiso con la eficiencia, empatía y elementos tangibles.

5.- La percepción de la calidad del servicio educativo de los estudiantes, obtuvo una media de 3.13 la cual significa que el estudiante no esta ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo con la percepción general de la calidad de dicho servicio.

6.- La misma interpretación se da a la medición de cada una de sus dimensiones empíricas.

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Oscar Reyes Sánchez, Ph.D. Profesor – Investigador de Tiempo Completo Titular C, Facultad de Ciencias Humanas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Áreas de Investigación: Administración de la Educación Superior, Calidad del Servicio Educativo Universitario.

Marcela Reyes Pazos, M.C. Profesora de Tiempo Completo Asociada C, Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Campus Guadalupe Victoria, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Áreas de Investigación: Administración de Empresas, Calidad del Servicio.

LA ADMINISTRACION DE ASPECTOS FINANCIEROS Y LA INTERNACIONALIZACION DE LAS PYMES COMO BASE DE SU DESARROLLO EN AGUASCALIENTES MEXICO

Jesús Salvador Vivanco Florido, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Luis Aguilera Enríquez, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Martha González Adame, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las Pymes representan la plataforma económica de nuestro país en virtud de que actualmente emplean el 62% de la población económicamente activa y aportan el 41% del PIB Nacional y representan el 99% del número de empresas en operación, es por esta razón nuestra preocupación en buscar herramientas de su desarrollo y permanencia; la función financiera implica un factor fundamental para su operación efectiva y en esta investigación abordaremos el tema de las finanzas y la Internacionalización como medios o estrategias para el desarrollo de las Pymes, iniciando por presentar algunos datos informativos de la perspectiva que representan las Pymes en México.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Aspectos Financieros a Ser Considerados en el Desarrollo o Rendimiento de las Pymes.

Liquidez:La liquidez es un término que demuestra la capacidad de pago que las empresas tienen para hacer frente a sus obligaciones a corto plazo y frecuentemente se mide a través del capital de trabajo que según Gitman (1996),

Se considera que en la medida en que las Pymes puedan controlar, los elementos clave que propician la liquidez como la rotación de inventarios y de cuentas por cobrar, así como el mantener capital de trabajo positivo y generar un margen de utilidad significativo sobre el costo, tendrán mayor posibilidad de contar con liquidez para realizar sus operaciones, aumentando su rendimiento y por ende la posibilidad de subsistencia.

Apalancamiento: El endeudamiento mejor conocido como apalancamiento lo define Weston et..al,(1987), como la proporción de fondos que han proporcionado los acreedores bancarios o comerciales y se mide Deuda Total / Actico Total y se recomienda que la proporción no rebase el 33%, ya que de lo contrario el negocio comienza a ser propiedad de terceros.

Sandoval (2008) al respecto comenta que las Pymes participan de una manera muy significativa en la producción económica y en el empleo, pero tienen un alto índice de mortalidad y realiza un estudio en el área metropolitana de Cali Colombia del 2000 al 2004 sobre las principales causas de su muerte prematura que pueden ser; el tamaño de la empresa inicial, falta de utilidades y el endeudamiento, así como factores externos como el crecimiento económico del sector en el que se desempeñan, o por la localización geográfica de esta, el estudio revelo que el tamaño inicial, su rendimiento financiero, la actividad del sector económico, tienen un impacto positivo, pero hay una relación inversa entre el endeudamiento y la supervivencia del negocio, lo que implica que el endeudamiento es el factor mas riesgoso para la supervivencia de las Pymes.

La Internacionalización de las Pymes

Mc.Mahon et..al, (1994) realizan un estudio en el que analiza factores asociados a la adopción de estrategias de internacionalización y sus efectos en le rendimiento y los compara con las empresas que no exportan y concluye que la internacionalización esta asociada con el incremento del retorno de las ventas, propiciando el desarrollo de la pequeñas empresas.

Sin embargo se considera que la internacionalización de las Pymes, no es una labor fácil que se pueda llevara a cabo de la noche a la mañana pero es importante saber que es una alternativa probada que puede promover el desarrollo de las Pymes en México

Rendimiento:Factores de rendimiento de la pymes Se han identificado diferentes formas de medir el rendimiento en las Pymes y a continuación e presentan diferentes factores de éxito que redundan en rendimiento de las Pymes planteadas por diversos investigadores. Aragón Sánchez Antonio y Alicia Rubio Bañón (2005) en su investigación denominada "Factores explicativos del éxito competitivo el caso de las Pymes del estado de Veracruz México", establecieron en su análisis como variables dependientes para analizar el éxito de las Pymes, las siguientes: la cifra media de utilidades antes de intereses e impuestos, calidad de los productos o servicios, introducción de innovaciones, productividad de la mano de obra, satisfacción de los clientes con los productos o servicios, conocimiento y experiencia en el negocio, motivación/satisfacción de los empleados y reputación e imagen de la empresa, y encontraron como variables mas relevantes en le caso de Veracruz, las capacidades financieras, la posición tecnológica, la innovación, las capacidades de marketing, dirección de los recursos humanos y las tecnologías de la información y comunicación.

METODOLOGIA

Hipótesis: Las hipótesis planteadas en la presente investigación, son las siguientes:

Hipótesis 1.- A mayor administración financiera de la liquidez y apalancamiento, mayor rendimiento de las Pymes. Como lo plantea Dromms (1979), en su investigación, que demostró que el soporte financiero en la propia operación es mas redituable que al apalancamiento financiero y genera mayor liquidez, para lograr mayores utilidades.

Hipótesis 2.- A mayor nivel de internacionalización de las Pymes, mayor rendimiento de estas y según Mc.Mahon et..al, (1994) derivado de su investigación, concluyen que la internacionalización esta asociada con el incremento del retorno de las ventas, propiciando el desarrollo de la pequeñas empresas.

Objetivo de la investigación

Como objetivo de la presente investigación se han planteado las siguientes metas; Identificar la influencia de la administración de aspectos financieros como la liquidez y el apalancamiento así como la internacionalización de las Pymes en el rendimiento de estas.

Objetivos específicos

a).-Identificar que aspectos financieros si la liquidez o el apalancamiento, tienen mayor influencia para el incremento del rendimiento de las Pymes

 b).-Identificar si la internacionalización de las Pymes incide en el mejoramiento del rendimiento de las Pymes.
 Metodología de la Investigación

RESULTADOS DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Como primer resultado derivado de la investigación realizada, se presenta la tabla No.2, que indica la media de los diferentes aspectos medidos como rendimiento aplicados en una escala de Likert, donde 1 es el menos importante y el 5 es el mas importante, en el que destacan como los factores de rendimiento de mayor impacto observado por los empresarios; la satisfacción de los clientes y la calidad de los productos y servicios.

Tabla No1: Media del Rendimiento empresarial

VARIABLES DEPENDIENTES	MEDIA	
1 Calidad del producto /servicio	4.02	
2 Satisfacción de los Clientes	4.02	
3 Imagen de la empresa y de sus productos y servicios	3.96	
4 Reducción del Ausentismo Laboral	3.94	
5 Rapidez en la adaptación a las necesidades de los mercados	3.93	
6 Eficiencia en los procesos operativos internos	3.89	
7 Organización de las tares del personal	3.89	
8 Reducción de la Rotación del Personal	3.82	
9 Incremento de la Productividad	3.74	
10 Incremento de la cuota de Mercado	3.66	
11 Motivación y Satisfacción de los Trabajadores	3.63	
12 Incremento de la Rentabilidad	3.54	

Esta tabla muestra la media del rendimiento calificada por los empresarios encuestados en una escala de likert en donde 1 = Nada importante y 5 = Muy importante.

Tabla No2: Cuadro de Significancia de Variables (Administración de las finanzas vs rendimiento.

Variable Independiente	R	R cuadrado	t	Sig.
Administración de las Finanzas	.436	.190	21,741	.000***

Esta tabla muestra las Diferencias estadísticas significativas: (*): p < 0.1; (**):p < 0.05; (***):p < 0.01, en donde se aprecia la significancia Al 99% de nivel de confianza con tres estrellas ya que esta por debajo del .000 de significancia.

Variable Dependiente: Rendimiento.

La tabla No.2 anterior, nos indica la existencia de una elevada relación positiva, entre la Administración de las Finanzas y el Rendimiento de las Pymes ya que el R cuadrado esta por encima del .160 que marcan Cohen y Cohen (1983) para 5 variables independientes y una muestra de 125 encuestas y el nivel de significancia esta por debajo de .01, al 95 % de nivel de confianza, por lo que se puede explicar el incremento del rendimiento empresarial de las Pymes, a través de la adopción de administración de las Finanzas como forma de gestión.

En la tabla No. 3, se aprecia que la introducción de cada una de las variables dependientes (Rendimiento), van demostrado mayor relación con la variable Independiente Administración de las Finanzas, lo que indica que existe una alta influencia entre la Administración de las Finanzas y el incremento del rendimiento en cada uno de los factores identificados como Rendimiento en las Pymes de Aguascalientes México, ya que se puede apreciar que la significancia esta indicada menor a .05 en la introducción de cada una de las variables probadas lo cual es significante a un nivel de confianza del 95% explicando la relación de cada una de las variables dependientes con la variable independiente "Administración de las Finanzas", exceptuando la variable dependiente identificada como 3302, "Eficiencia en los procesos operativos internos" que no guarda relación con el la Administración de las finanzas ya que no quedo incluida en la prueba de paso por paso presentada en el cuadro que precede.

Tabla No.3: Tabla de Sig. De Variables Paso por paso. Rendimiento y Administración de las Finanzas

Variables Dependientes	R cu	adrado	Sig.
1 (3305)		.208	.000 ***
2 (3305,3303)		.673	.000***
3 (3305,3303,3308)		.797	.000***
4 (3305,3303,3308,3310)		.885	.000***
5 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306)		.926	.000***
6 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312)		.946	.000***
7 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312)		.968	.000***
8 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312,3301)		.981	.011**
9 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312,3301,3309)		.985	.016**
10.(3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312,3301,3309,3311)		.990	.002***
11(3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312,3301,3309,3311,3307)		.993	.004***
12 (3305,3303,3308,3310,3306,3312,3301,3309,3311,3307,3304)	.997	.166	

Esta tabla muestra la significancia de las variables dependientes con las independientes paso por paso. Las Diferencias estadísticas significativa son: (*): p<0.1; (**):p<0.05; (***):p<0.01Variables Predictoras : Administración de las Finanzas.

Variables Dependientes:

3305.- Satisfacción de los clientes.

3303.- Organización de las Tareas del Personal.

3308.- Incremento en la Rentabilidad.

3310.- Motivación /Satisfacción del Personal

3306.- Imagen de la empresa y de sus productos/servicios

3312.- Reducción del Ausentismo

3301.- Calidad del producto/servicio.

3309.- Incremento en la productividad

3311.- Reducción de la rotación de personal

3307.- Incremento de la cuota de mercado

3304.- Satisfacción de los Clientes.

Tabla No.4: Significancia de ANOVAS de mercados Internacionales y Rendimiento

Variables Dependientes	F	Sig.	
1 Calidad del producto /servicio	1.243	.267	
2 Satisfacción de los Clientes	4.496	.036**	
 Imagen de la empresa y de sus productos y servicios 	2.293	.133	
 Reducción del Ausentismo Laboral 	1.868	.174	
5 Rapidez en la adaptación a las necesidades de los mercados	0.817	.368	
6 Eficiencia en los procesos operativos internos	6.537	.012**	
7 Organización de las tares del personal	4.484	.036**	
8 Reducción de la Rotación del Personal	3.236	.074	
9 Incremento de la Productividad	.799	.373	
10 Incremento de la cuota de Mercado	1.607	.207	
 Motivación y Satisfacción de los Trabajadores 	2.502	.116	
12 Incremento de la Rentabilidad	4.795	.030**	

Esta tabla muestra la significancia de la relación entre el rendimiento de las Pymes y la internacionalización de sus mercados. Diferencias estadísticas significativas: (*): p<0.1; (**):p<0.05; (***):p<0.01

Variable Predictora: Apertura de Nuevos Mercados Internacionales.

En la tabla No. 4 anterior, se aprecia que los factores de rentabilidad que tienen mayor influencia por la internacionalización, son Eficiencia en los procesos operativos internos, Incremento en la rentabilidad, y la organización de las tareas del personal, así como la satisfacción de los clientes, lo que nos indica que la Internacionalización de las Pymes impacta de manera positiva, el incremento de la eficiencia en los proceso operativos internos, en el incremento de la Organización de las Tareas y en el Incremento de la Rentabilidad de las Pymes, al haberse tenido resultados de significancia menores a .05 ya que el nivel de confianza esta indicado el 95% quedando ampliamente demostrada la relación de variables.

DISCUSIÓN Y CONCLUSIÓN

Como se ha mostrado en el presente estudio, a través de la aplicación de los modelos estadísticos univaribles, queda demostrado la alta influencia positiva entre la administración de los aspectos financieros como el apalancamiento y la liquidez con el incremento del rendimiento de las Pymes, por ende queda demostrada la hipótesis H1, planteada en la presente investigación, concluyendo que es recomendable como practica empresarial, apoyarse en los recursos generados por la propia operación y evitar el endeudamiento excesivo, lo que impacta en pérdida de liquidez por el pago de los intereses derivados de los prestamos adquiridos; así mismo ha quedado demostrado, a través de modelos estadísticos multivariables aplicados, que la adopción de la internacionalización como práctica empresarial permite el desarrollo de la calidad en la fabricación de los productos de las Pymes, dado el alto nivel de calidad exigido por las empresas a nivel internacional, propiciando el incremento en la rentabilidad de los negocios y la posibilidad de permanencia empresarial, por lo que queda demostrada la segunda hipótesis H2, que plantea la relación de la Internacionalización con el incremento del rendimiento de las Pymes y esta practica representa una alternativa viable para mejorar el rendimiento de las Pymes propiciando su desarrollo y permanencia, alcanzándose los objetivos planteados en la investigación al quedar demostradas las hipótesis antes citadas. En futuras investigaciones es posible profundizar en temas relacionados a factores financieros y fiscales que tienen relación con el incremento de la rentabilidad de las Pymes.

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Jesús Salvador Vivanco Florido; Doctorado en Administración, obtenido en el programa Interinstitucional en Administración, sede en la Cd. De San Luis Potosí México, en el año 2007; línea de Investigación ; La Cultura Organizacional en las Pyme's, Profesor de tiempo completo en la Universidad A. de Aguascalientes México, desde el año de 1999 a la fecha, , Miembro del Cuerpo Académico Consolidado denominado "Gestión de la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa".

ANÁLISIS DE LOS SISTEMAS DE COLAS EN ENTIDADES FINANCIERAS MEDIANTE DINÁMICA DE SISTEMAS

Juan Carlos Vergara Schmalbach, Universidad de Cartagena Víctor Quesada Ibargüen, Universidad de Cartagena

RESUMEN

El objetivo de esta ponencia es presentar un esquema general para la modelación y simulación de sistemas de colas aplicables a entidades financieras, empleando Dinámica de Sistemas (DS). Los beneficios inherentes a la DS permiten la realización de simulaciones de forma ágil y transparente, centrándose la atención sobre la visual completa del sistema. La construcción del esquema propuesto se esbozó desde los referentes teóricos existentes que relacionan la simulación de sistemas de colas basado en la Simulación de Eventos Discretos (SED) y su posible articulación con las DS. Para la validación del modelo del sistema propuesto se dispuso de un ejemplo analizado desde el punto de vista de la SED y DS, concluyendo en una similitud en los resultados alcanzados en ambas simulaciones. Las conclusiones a que se llega validan el uso de la DS para modelar y simular sistemas de colas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Métodos de simulación, Dinámica de Sistemas, Simulación de Eventos Discretos, Sistemas de Colas, Entidades Financieras.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to present a general framework for modeling and simulation of queuing systems applicable to financial institutions, using System Dynamics (SD). The rewards of SD simulations allow the realization of a flexible and transparent, with the focus on the complete visual system. The construction of the proposed scheme was outlined from the existing theoretical framework relating the simulation of queuing systems based on Discrete Event Simulation (DES) and its possible linkage to the SD. To validate the proposed system model was available a sample analyzed from the point of view from the DES and SD, concluding in a similarity of the results achieved in both simulations. The conclusions reached in this paper validate the use of the SD to model and simulate systems of queues.

KEYWORDS: Simulation methods, System Dynamics, Discrete Event Simulation, Queueing Systems, Financial Institutions.

CLASIFICACIÓN JEL: C15, G2

INTRODUCCIÓN

La presente ponencia corresponde a los resultados preliminares de la investigación concerniente al desarrollo de aplicaciones prácticas de la Dinámica de Sistemas (DS) en el ámbito empresarial; proyecto llevado a cabo por los docentes pertenecientes al grupo Métodos Cuantitativos de Gestión del programa de Administración Industrial de la Universidad de Cartagena.

En este caso se expone una aproximación a la simulación de un sistema de colas real en una entidad financiera, empleando la DS, a partir de la integración de los conceptos abarcados por ambas áreas y con una propuesta metodológica para el modelado estructural, basado en los elementos de un diagrama Forrester simulable en el software STELLA[®].

La DS es considerada como un método de simulación flexible, con un campo de aplicación que trasciende a cualquier disciplina. La flexibilidad de la DS para modelar cualquier tipo de condición real (sin requerir conocimientos elevados en matemáticas), la convierte en una herramienta ideal para el aprendizaje y análisis de líneas de espera, permitiendo construir mejoras que pueden ser simuladas en un ambiente virtual. Los elementos genéricos que componen los diagramas Forrester, son adaptados a los elementos propios que utiliza la teórica de colas, posibilitando la aplicación y el uso de la DS. La visión holística y la transparencia de los modelos, son puntos adicionales que se suman a las ventajas ofrecidas por la DS.

Debido a su origen reciente y paulatino auge en la de década de los 90, existen todavía muchos campos de aplicación inexplorados de la DS, entre ellos, los sistemas de colas que tradicionalmente han sido simulados empleando el concepto de Simulación de Eventos Discretos (SED).

Esta preocupación es evidenciada por diversos autores que han dado como resultado algunas aproximaciones tratando de dar respuesta a la pregunta ¿cuál es el mejor método de simulación?, sin llegar a concluir en una metodología definitiva que relacione la DS con los sistemas de colas y los demás métodos de simulación.

En este proyecto quedan evidenciadas las similitudes entre los resultados de la simulación discreta y la simulación continua aplicada a los sistemas de colas, razón que valida empíricamente el uso de la DS para modelar casos de líneas de esperas a pesar de su naturaleza discreta. Con la aplicación de la DS en las entidades financieras se podrán modelar y simular los sistemas de colas de forma ágil y, proponiendo un esquema dinámico donde se podrán plantear nuevos escenarios o alternativas orientados a disminuir el tiempo de espera del cliente en el sistema.

EL MARKETING AGROINDUSTRIAL EN MÉXICO

Ana Laura Priego Pérez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Leisy Balencia Lázaro, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Vasti Dariana Izquierdo Alejandro, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco

RESUMEN

El sector agroindustrial es parte fundamental del sector primario como potencial en la transformación de los productos del campo. En México se ha incrementado la variedad de productos agroindustriales, lo que ha generado el estudio de este nuevo mercado potencial, en donde aún no se han aplicado las herramientas eficientes del mercadeo. A raíz de esta necesidad se vuelve relevante el uso del Marketing Agroindustrial.El objetivo principal de esta ponencia es dar a conocer los resultados de una investigación que tuvo como objetivo conocer y analizar las estrategias de Mercadotecnia desarrolladas e implantadas en la empresa Salsas Chilibili, la cual se dedica a la producción de salsas picantes 100% naturales dentro del segmento gourmet. El tipo de metodología que se aplicó fue cualitativa, ya que permitió mayor flexibilidad en el desarrollo de la investigación con un enfoque de estudio de caso; a través de la aplicación de encuestas y la realización de un grupo de enfoque que nos dió como resultado la propuesta de estrategias de mercadotecnia para los productos Salsas Chilibili.

PALABRAS CLAVE: mercadotecnia, agroindustria, Chilibili.

RANDOM WALK ESTRATEGIA DIDÁCTICA APLICABLE EN LA ENSEÑANZA DE LAS FINANZAS

Gloria Alicia Nieves Bernal, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Rafael Cruz Casanova, Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali María Belén Murillo Pedraza, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Claudia Viviana Álvarez Vega, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ernesto Alonso Pérez Maldonado, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

En la actualidad es un reto la enseñanza de las finanzas, concretamente el tema de la operación en el mercado de capitales. Lo esencial para los inversionistas es tener el menor riesgo para lo montos que operan. Académicamente debe enseñarse estrategias que trasmitan la competencia profesional de asesorar a éstos sobre los valores siendo por una parte lo mas productivo posible y por la otra al menor riesgo posible. Un modelo actualmente utilizado es un paradigma de mercado llamado Random Walk - caminata aleatoria- aplicado en la academia es posible instrumentar actividades que lleven al alumnado a considerarlo como modelo para pronosticar futuros comportamientos de los valores financieros, incrementando incertidumbre en la operación. Prácticamente consiste en considerar que las variaciones de precios de las acciones determinado por la oferta y la demanda van captando y absorbiendo los cambios económicos, políticos y sociales del entorno y tendiendo estas variables históricas, se pueden procesar en un simulador, como puede ser el modelo Montecarlo y pronosticar el comportamiento a futuro para toma de decisiones. Este trabajo pretender concluir con recomendaciones para la práctica docente, con algunas actividades a incluir en la instrumentación didáctica.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Mercado de Capitales - Modelo Montecarlo - Instrumentación didáctica

INTRODUCCIÓN

Es un reto en la actualidad la enseñanza de las finanzas el tema de la operación en el mercado de capitales, ya que en la práctica el manejo de la información es vital para la toma de decisiones y esta información proviene de múltiples factores. La instrumentación didáctica tiene un verdadero reto de como incentivar al alumno para que desarrolle diferentes cualidades como creatividad, imaginación y utilizarla en la solución de problemas. Concretamente y de manera fundamental la operación del mercado de capitales se da en las Bolsas de Valores. Los conceptos inversión y la especulación que en este tema son fundamentales están íntimamente ligados, ambos relacionados con el factor de la incertidumbre en consecuencia con el riesgo, y lo que buscan los inversionistas que éste sea el menor posible.

Por otra parte, especular en el sentido estricto de la palabra implica una toma de riesgo mayor que la correspondiente a una inversión en igualdad de circunstancias; esta toma de mayor riesgos y se pretende estar balanceada de alguna manera, con una recompensa proporcionalmente mayor, en caso de éxito, a la que se obtendría de no incurrir en riesgos adicionales y más grandes. (Marmolejo, M; Inversiones; IMEF: p25). La forma de medir el éxito o el fracaso de la actividad de valores en las contraprestaciones son los índices de precios que es el resumen diario de las variaciones de los precios en la compra y venta de acciones. La enseñanza de las finanzas deben de ser aplicadas mediante el acompañamiento de las nuevas tecnologías de la información y de la comunicación, básicamente con el uso de simuladores que como herramientas tienen un gran potencial en los procesos educativos, es elemental reconocer que la educación está participando activamente en las transformaciones tecnológicas que se están dando en el mundo entero , modificando los procesos de enseñanza aprendizaje, en donde se tejen nuevas formas de producción y adquisición del conocimiento, distintos modos de comunicarse, sin límite de espacio y

tiempo, en donde intervienen comunidades virtuales paralelas a las que se hallan en la sociedad, entre otras características, que redimensionan lo tradicional y resignifican el panorama educativo.

Tradicionalmente en la academia se ha buscado enseñar la operación del mercado de capitales con modelos de bajo riesgo y de control de la incertidumbre, para poder comprender el modelo de Random Walk es necesario mencionar el concepto del valor de las acciones en tres acepciones diferentes.

El valor de las acciones

Al momento de leer la información de los mercados de capitales un gran número de inversionistas tienden a confundir los términos valor nominal, en libros y de mercado de las acciones.Valor nominal. Es el valor unitario del capital social que corresponde al valor de aportación por acción por parte de los accionistas fundadores de una sociedad. Se determina dividiendo el capital social, en un determinado momento, entre el número de acciones en circulación. Valor en libros. También conocido como valor contable, se determina dividiendo el capital contable entre el número de acciones en circulación a la fecha deseada.

Valor de mercado. Este es el precio que tratándose de empresas cuyas acciones se cotizan en bolsa, la oferta y demanda fijen en un determinado momento. El valor de mercado de la empresa, consecuentemente, será el que resulte de multiplicar el precio de mercado de la acción por el número de acciones en circulación en el momento deseado. Este último valor de una acción puede sufrir grandes fluctuaciones en precio, en ambas direcciones, dependiendo de la situación de la economía, del ramo de que se trate y de la situación particular de la sociedad en cuestión. Además de existir las percepciones publicas respecto a la situación futura, la liquidez en los mercados, algunos cambios legislativos, entre otros, las fluctuaciones en el precio de referencia, en algunos casos, pueden ser violentas y además sustanciales.

El Paradigma De Random Walk

Thomas Khun, define un Paradigma como un conjunto de experimentos basados en modelos, sensibles de ser copiados o emulados. En el tema que nos ocupa Random Walk se ajusta al concepto de paradigma. Revisemos un poco el paradigma de mercado conocido como "Random Walk"; También se traduce como Carrera Aleatoria, se refiere a la analogía realizada por algunos estudiosos de las finanzas, al relacionar el comportamiento de una partícula de polen flotando en el agua, (estudiado por Robert Brown y definida por él como Movimiento Browniano) con el comportamiento de los precios de los activos en el mercado bursátil. ¿Como es esto? Pues, Brown dijo que por más que observáramos el movimiento de la mencionada partícula en el agua, tomando nota de la dirección que esta tomó en cada segundo, aun así, no nos será posible predecir hacia donde se moverá en el futuro inmediato.

Parece obvio, verdad. Claro, la partícula esta describiendo un movimiento aleatorio. Bachelier asoció esto con el comportamiento de los precios en la Bolsa y dijo que tampoco es posible predecir como será el comportamiento del precio de un título en el futuro. En otras palabras, en el juego entre la oferta y la demanda de las acciones las variaciones en los precios de las acciones automáticamente absorbe los cambios que suceden en el entorno, entonces esto es lo que debe servir de referencias como variables para tratar de tener información del comportamiento hacia el futuro, es decir pronósticos con alto grado de certidumbre. ¿Como lograr esto?, A continuación se describen las siguientes recomendaciones que serán útiles al docente para ser implementadas en la enseñanza de las operaciones en el mercado de capitales.

Tema	Instrumento	Actividad	Resultado o Producto
Interpretación de Información Periodística.	Análisis de Contenido (Técnica Periodística).	Leer artículos periodísticos y extraer la información que subyace detrás de los datos expresos.	Informe que contenga las implicaciones de las noticias en el terreno financiero. Calificando el estudiante
Ubicación de la principales Bolsas de Valores a Nivel Mundial	Análisis Geopolítico (Régimen Político, Religión, Cultura, Economía etc.)	Investigación Bibliográfica de los países donde se ubican las bolsas de valores	Particularidades Geopolíticas que puedan influir en la operación de la bolsa de valores.
Investigación de los precios y variaciones de un periodo por ejemplo de 12 meses	Detección de información de las variaciones de los precios de los títulos financieros	Investigación en el Internet de las operaciones de los instrumentos financieros seleccionados, precios y sus variaciones	Obtener datos de variables con precisión para utilizarlas como insumo de entrada en un modelo de simulación.
Obtener un pronóstico del comportamiento de las variaciones de los precios utilizando una herramienta de simulación electrónica.	Modelo de Simulación Montecarlo	Alimentar los simulados con los precios que han mostrado las acciones de ajustados del activo durante cierto periodo por ejemplo de 12 meses.	El resultado que se obtiene es que se puede obtener un pronostico de que en determinado tiempo cual Serra el valor que probablemente tendrá el instrumento financiero de inversión.

Tabla 1: Recomendaciones para incluir en la Instrumentación Didáctica

Se pretende que con esta instrumentación didáctica se facilite el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje de la asignatura Finanzas aplicables en las operaciones del mercado de capitales que puede ser utilizados tanto en la bolsa de valores en México como en las del extranjero, recomendable como estrategias en las que en un mundo virtual el alumno se tendrá que enfrentar con problemas que les deberá de dar solución y a la vez pueda corregir en dado caso de resultar errónea ésta, con el apoyo del docente puede crecer profesionalmente y así lograr ser competitivo, se sugiere que alternamente se documente el impacto de su aplicación y se recaben las opiniones por parte de los alumnos para mantener actualizada esta actividad docente.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Gloria Alicia Nieves Bernal, profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California campus Mexicali de las asignaturas de Administración de Capital de Trabajo, Análisis Financiero, Finanzas Internacionales, Contabilidad de Sociedades y Derecho Fiscal, Maestría en Contaduría, con especialidades en Fiscal y Administración Financiera, se puede contactar en Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo, en Mexicali, Baja California, CP 21100 email: ganbfiscal@hotmail.com

Rafael Cruz Casanova, profesor de tiempo completo en el Tecnológico de Mexicali de las asignaturas Finanzas, Evaluación, Análisis Financiero, Administración de Capital de Trabajo y Formulación de Proyectos de Inversión, Maestría en Administración Financiera, se puede contactar en Av. Tecnológico s/n en Mexicali, Baja California, email: rcruzcasanova@hotmail.com María Belén Murillo Pedraza, profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California campus Mexicali de las asignaturas Sistemas de Información, Base de Datos y Derecho Informático, Maestría en Ciencias Computacionales, se puede contactar en Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo, en Mexicali, Baja California, CP 21100 email: belen49@uabc.edu.mx

Claudia Viviana Álvarez Vega, profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California campus Mexicali de las asignaturas Sistemas de Información, Arquitectura de computadoras y Derecho Informático, Maestría en Ciencias Computacionales, se puede contactar en Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo, en Mexicali, Baja California, CP 21100 email: claudia@uabc.edu.mx

Ernesto Alonso Pérez Maldonado, profesor de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California campus Mexicali de las asignaturas Desarrollo Organizacional, Metodología de la Investigación es Subdirector Académico con Maestría en Administración, se puede contactar en Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo, en Mexicali, Baja California, CP 21100 email: ernestoperez@uabc.edu.mx

ANÁLISIS DEL IMPACTO ACADÉMICO DE LA IMPLEMENTACIÓN DE LA PLATAFORMA MOODLE EN EL CESUES

Lilián Ivetthe Salado Rodríguez, CESUES Reyna Isabel Ochoa Landín, CESUES Erika Patricia Álvarez Flores, CESUES

RESUMEN

Esta investigación tiene como objetivo determinar el impacto académico de la implementación de la plataforma Moodle en CESUES y conocer cuál ha sido la contribución para sus usuarios, tanto profesores como estudiantes de sus diferentes programas educativos. El estudio se realizó de noviembre de 2010 a febrero del 2011 en una universidad pública del noroeste de México, con la participación de 26 profesores y 125 alumnos. El estudio se basa en el diseño descriptivo donde se utiliza el cuestionario como técnica para la recolección de datos. Los resultados obtenidos indican que el acceso fácil a la información por medio de la interface amigable de la plataforma Moodle ha contribuido a que los estudiantes sean más autónomos o independientes durante el aprendizaje, siendo ésta además un apoyo sumamente favorable para un mejor desarrollo de las actividades de sus asignaturas. Permitiendo además que la multiplicidad de elementos y recursos con los que cuenta Moodle sean no sólo un apoyo relevante para los estudiantes sino también para los profesores durante el proceso de impartición de los cursos presenciales en el marco del modelo educativo ENFACE del CESUES.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Los retos que enfrentamos como sociedad hoy en día han sido determinados por la globalización y los avances tecnológicos. Las tecnologías de información y comunicación (TICs) han venido a modificar progresivamente la percepción y la representación de la realidad, transformando los modos privilegiados por una cultura y una sociedad para relacionarse con el saber y acceder a nuevas formas de conocimiento (Quesada, 2003).Una de las herramientas tecnológica utilizadas hoy en día es la plataforma *e-learning*. Esta funciona como un soporte para la enseñanza virtual. Con un *software* de este tipo es posible gestionar todas las fases de un curso académico. Ejemplo de plataforma *e-learning* es la denominada plataforma Moodle.

El objetivo principal de la presente investigación es determinar el impacto académico de la utilización de la plataforma educativa Moodle en la Institución y conocer cuál ha sido su contribución, tanto para los profesores como para los estudiantes en el marco del modelo educativo ENFACE del CESUES, particularmente en la unidad académica Hermosillo. El contenido del trabajo de investigación está organizado de la siguiente manera: En la revisión literaria se muestra información relacionada con la plataforma Moodle. Además, se describe el proceso de implementación de la herramienta educacional en CESUES. El apartado de la metodología plantea el tipo de estudio, participantes y su entorno, así como los instrumentos utilizados para la medición. En los resultados se muestra el efecto que genera la plataforma en el desarrollo académico de profesores y estudiantes. Finalmente, en las conclusiones se presenta un análisis más profundo de los resultados obtenidos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Plataforma Educativa Moodle

Por sus características, Moodle participa de los cinco sistemas de gestión de contenido (CMS) educativo definido por Baumgartner (2005). Es decir:

- 1. Sistema CMS puro, caracterizado por un flujo de trabajo que se reparte jerárquicamente en Internet.
- 2. Sistema de gestión de contenido *weblog*: páginas formadas por varios post o distintos fragmentos de información, normalmente organizados por orden cronológico.
- 3. Sistemas CMS orientados a la colaboración (C-CMS o *Groupware*): desarrollo y administración conjunta de los recursos compartidos en forma sencilla en estos sistemas.
- 4. Sistemas de gestión de contenidos comunitarios y colaborativos (C3MS), que utilizan mecanismos colaborativos y numerosos módulos especializados, orientados a la comunidad.
- 5. Sistemas wiki. Cuyo principio básico podría expresarse con la siguiente frase: cualquiera puede cambiar cualquier cosa. Un sistema CMS wiki es un grupo de aplicaciones (*Wikiwebs*) que utiliza un lenguaje de marcado especial (*Wikiwords*) en su sistema de edición. Definiéndose como un software colaborativo.

Moodle es una herramienta capaz de posibilitar los cinco tipos de gestión de contenidos además de favorecer un amplio abanico de posibilidades de comunicación didáctica. Otra de las grandes ventajas de Moodle es que se distribuye bajo licencia *Open Source* y está basado en el constructivismo social.

Modelo Educativo ENFACE: El Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora ha implementado el modelo educativo ENFACE (CESUES, 2006), el cual se organiza en torno a tres ejes fundamentales y estrechamente articulados: 1. El enfoque centrado en el estudiante y el aprendizaje, 2. El enfoque educativo basado en competencias profesionales y 3. La flexibilidad curricular y académico - administrativa. Para lograr los objetivos que se plantean en el modelo educativo ENFACE se debe trabajar con estrategias docentes coherentes con la intención de favorecer la construcción de los aprendizajes. Por lo anterior, se considera que la plataforma educativa Moodle es una alternativa valiosa que puede contribuir a lograr los objetivos planteados. Sin embargo, se debe asegurar que cuando se utilice la tecnología para propósitos educativos se haga de una manera eficiente. De ahí que sea oportuno el análisis del impacto del uso de la plataforma Moodle para observar la contribución de las competencias tecnológicas en el proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje del modelo educativo ENFACE.

Plataforma Moodle En CESUES

Un grupo de profesores, de las cinco distintas unidades académicas del CESUES, implementan la plataforma Moodle en el desarrollo de sus cursos. Para el caso específico de la unidad académica Hermosillo, la iniciativa surge en el seno de la academia de tecnologías de la información al inicio del semestre escolar 2009-2. En el mes de diciembre de 2009 se otorga una capacitación a varios profesores que incluía, entre otros, el uso de la plataforma Moodle, por lo que para el período escolar 2010-1 ya se contaba en la plataforma de la unidad Hermosillo con 20 cursos establecidos en ella. En agosto de ese mismo año la institución ofrece el diplomado "Competencias para la facilitación de los procesos de aprendizaje", que incluye el uso de la plataforma Moodle de ahí que, en el período escolar 2010-2 la plataforma, específicamente para la unidad Hermosillo, alberga 38 cursos. Actualmente, hay más de 2000

usuarios registrados y son, alrededor de 78 cursos impartidos con el apoyo de la plataforma. La URL del sitio es uah.cesues.com.mx/moodle.

METODOLOGÍA

El estudio se basa en el diseño descriptivo ya que como indica Hernández, *et al* (2006), el objetivo del investigador es describir situaciones, eventos y hechos; decir cómo es y cómo se manifiesta determinado fenómeno.

Recolección de Datos: Se realizó un diseño descriptivo para analizar el impacto académico de la plataforma Moodle, en la práctica docente y en los procesos de aprendizaje del estudiante. Se utilizaron dos cuestionarios buscando que estos aportaran evidencia relacionada con el objetivo de investigación. Estos fueron aplicados a profesores y alumnos de ocho programas educativos y de distintos semestres de la unidad académica Hermosillo.

Marco Contextual: El CESUES es una institución de educación superior pública. Actualmente se cuenta con cinco unidades académicas distribuidas en diferentes ciudades del Estado de Sonora. Sin embargo, el estudio se realizó de manera específica en la unidad académica Hermosillo. Esta unidad académica ofrece nueve programas académicos a nivel Licenciatura y el postgrado en Administración de la Calidad.

Participantes: Se contó con la participación de 26 profesores y 125 alumnos quienes están distribuidos en diferentes programas educativos y semestres.

RESULTADOS

En Relación A Profesores

Los resultados de la encuesta revelan que la implementación de la plataforma Moodle fue de gran apoyo para el desarrollo de los cursos académicos ya que el 100% de los profesores encuestados están de acuerdo en que el desarrollo de su materia se ha visto favorecido. El fácil acceso a la información, aunado con una interface agradable y la estructura de la plataforma, aumentó el interés por las temáticas propuestas en la asignatura por parte de los alumnos, logrando con ello un mayor entendimiento en los temas tratados en clase. Y que los alumnos sean más autónomos e independientes en su aprendizaje, reflejándose principalmente en un incremento del rendimiento académico de los alumnos. Para lograr esto, el 65% de los profesores se apoyaron en un grado mínimo del 70% en plataforma para el desarrollo de su curso presencial, utilizando la multiplicidad de actividades y recursos con los que cuenta Moodle.

Con respecto al proceso de comunicación, al 92% de los profesores consideraron que la utilización de la plataforma institucional ha facilitado el contacto con los alumnos. Sin embargo, el 35% de los encuestados manifiestan que no les ha facilitado el contacto con los otros profesores.

Por otro lado el 95% de los profesores desarrollaron por primera vez un curso en plataforma; el 84% de ellos indicaron que trabajar en la plataforma les ha implicado mayor dedicación de preparación de la clase, de ahí que el 43% de los docentes opine que el trabajo en plataforma genera ansiedad o estrés.

El hecho de haber trabajado mínimamente con un curso en la plataforma Moodle, les ha otorgado a los profesores un panorama más amplio de posibilidades para el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje, por lo que el 100% de los profesores encuestados afirman que la seguirán utilizando. Aún así, sólo el 15% cree posible que, mediante su uso, el curso que imparte podría emigrar a una modalidad virtual.

En Relación A Estudiantes

La frecuencia del acceso a la plataforma por parte del 67% de ellos es diaria, saliendo a la luz que sólo el 4% accede a ella una vez a la semana o una vez al mes.

Los resultados de la encuesta revelan que la implementación de la plataforma Moodle permite que al menos al 90% de los estudiantes muestreados les facilite el acceso a la información de la asignatura al desarrollar habilidades en el manejo de recursos tecnológicos, generando en ellos una actitud positiva para el desarrollo de un trabajo académico, a la vez que los hace que sean más autónomos o independientes durante el aprendizaje.

Otros de los aspectos favorables es que al menos el 80% de los estudiantes consideran que les ha permitido aumentar el interés por las temáticas de la asignatura y les ha permitido expresar mejor sus ideas al afinar su redacción y comprensión de los conceptos tratados en la clase. Teniendo como consecuencia que el 77% de los alumnos lograra incrementar sus calificaciones satisfactoriamente para acreditar las asignaturas correspondientes. Con respecto al proceso de comunicación, el 84% de los estudiantes ha especificado que la implementación de ésta tiende a favorecer efectivamente a un mejor contacto con los docentes. Sin embargo, un 16% no está de acuerdo en que sea tan efectiva dicha comunicación ya que consideran que a través de la plataforma se presentan inconformidades con algunos docentes que no logran establecer instrucciones claras para ellos, propiciando a que se genere una mayor necesidad de interacción directa con ellos. Por otro lado, el 34% de los usuarios no están de acuerdo en que la plataforma atenúe una mejor comunicación con sus compañeros.

Se refleja también un impacto negativo en el 64% de los estudiantes que indican como principal desventaja que ésta les genera ansiedad o estrés. Al 28% de ellos, por el hecho de no poder subir en forma adecuada y oportuna las evidencias solicitadas, mientras que al 24% les inquieta no poder cumplir con el plazo de envío solicitado. Por otra parte, el 12% restante se sienten limitados para el desarrollo de actividades al no tener interacción directa con el docente y no poder consultarlos inmediatamente cuando se presentan problemas de entendimiento en relación a las instrucciones proporcionadas en la plataforma.

No obstante que el 94% de los alumnos manifiestan que la plataforma Moodle ha implicado un apoyo sumamente favorable durante el desarrollo de la asignatura, sólo al 84% les gustaría seguir utilizándola en otros cursos durante su trayectoria académica, ya que el 16% restante ve como gran inconveniente el no contar con Internet en su hogar para obtener acceso a la plataforma. Si bien un 24% de los estudiantes considera que ésta influye favorablemente a la reducción de gastos por el hecho de evitar imprimir o fotocopiar material de trabajo, además de considerar un beneficio a la ecología, la necesidad del uso continuo de la plataforma les ha provocado un incremento en sus gastos por el hecho de tener que pagar el acceso a internet en lugares externos a la institución y cercanos a su hogar. Aunque el 76% considera que la plataforma puede ser utilizada para todo tipo de asignaturas y que ésta les facilita verificar el material de clase de la asignatura a la que no pudieron asistir, el 65% de los muestreados aseguran que representa sólo un apoyo y no creen que sea viable que ésta pueda sustituir totalmente al docente.

CONCLUSIONES

La investigación se ha realizado con el fin de conocer el grado del impacto académico que tiene la implementación de la plataforma Moodle en el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora (CESUES). Desde su implementación en el ciclo escolar 2009-2 hasta la fecha se observa un incremento en el número de cursos en la plataforma. Logrando hasta el momento, que estén establecidos un 25% de cursos en relación a la oferta educativa de la institución. El análisis efectuado ha demostrado que el incremento en el grado de aceptación por parte de docentes y alumnos, ha sido fruto de las diferentes actividades, herramientas y servicios con los que cuenta la plataforma educativa Moodle. Esto ha permitido el aumento de la interacción social entre los diferentes involucrados en el proceso educativo y ha contribuido al aprendizaje colaborativo, siendo éste una de las herramientas recomendadas en el modelo educativo ENFACE de la institución.

Un gran porcentaje de participantes ha manifestado que el uso de plataforma ha contribuido al aumento del interés por las temáticas de la asignatura permitiendo que los estudiantes entiendan los temas con mayor claridad, lo que contribuye al desarrollo de sus capacidades cognitivas, como lo establece el modelo ENFACE. Además, el fácil acceso por parte de los alumnos a la información requerida para el desarrollo de las actividades de las asignaturas, ha contribuido a fomentar su autonomía, teniendo impacto favorable en el desarrollo de las competencias, uno de los ejes rectores del modelo educativo.

En definitiva, la implementación de la plataforma Moodle en CESUES ha sido sumamente favorable, logrando articular efectivamente una modalidad educativa tradicional con las nuevas herramientas tecnológicas, vislumbrándose como una parte fundamental para la implementación de nuevas modalidades educativas en la institución.

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Erika Patricia Alvarez Flores.-Posee el título de Ingeniero Industrial en Electrónica por el Instituto Tecnológico de Hermosillo y el grado de Doctor en Tecnologías Multimedia por la Universidad de Granada, España. Correo: erika.alvarez@cesues.edu.mx.

Reyna Ochoa Landín.- Se gradúa como Ingeniera Industrial y de Sistemas por la Universidad de Sonora. Correo: reyna.ochoa@cesues.edu.mx.

Lilián Ivetthe Salado Rodríguez.- Realizó estudios profesionales de Ingeniería en Sistemas Computacionales en el Instituto Tecnológico de Hermosillo y el grado de Maestra en Tecnología Educativa por el Instituto Tecnológico y de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey. Correo: lilian.salado@cesues.edu.mx.

Actualmente son profesoras investigadoras de tiempo completo en CESUES, Unidad Académica Hermosillo, Ley Federal del Trabajo S/N Col. Apolo. Sonora, México.

LA VOLATILIDAD DEL PESO MEXICANO Y SU EFECTO EN LOS RENDIMIENTOS Y RIESGO DE LA BOLSA MEXICANA DE VALORES

Raúl de Jesús Gutiérrez, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México

RESUMEN

El efecto de las colas pesadas originado por eventos extremos y los diferentes niveles de asimetría asociados a la alta volatilidad en aglomeraciones en las economías emergentes requieren de modelos más sofisticados para su modelación. El objetivo de esta investigación es aplicar la teoría de valores extremos (TVE) para la cuantificación del riesgo de la cola de los rendimientos diarios de la Bolsa Mexicana de Valores bajo la agregación del riesgo del tipo de cambio durante el periodo de enero de 1971 a diciembre de 2010. Este análisis sugiere el uso de la distribución de valor extremo generalizada y la técnica de bloques máximos para explicar el comportamiento asintótico de los rendimientos extremos. Los resultados empíricos muestran el potencial de la medida VaR basada en la TVE para capturar las propiedades de colas pesadas en los rendimientos de los mercados accionarios altamente volátiles a diferencia de los modelos VaR convencionales. Además, la evidencia empírica demuestra que los inversionistas internacionales con posiciones largas están más propensos a experimentar pérdidas más grandes que los que toman posiciones cortas en el mercado accionario mexicano durante periodos de crisis financieras y depreciaciones de la moneda local.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Devaluaciones, Crisis financieras, Mercados financieros emergentes, Valor en riesgo, Teoría de valores extremos.

APLICACIÓN DE VARIABLES DE LA MERCADOTECNIA DE SERVICIOS PARA VIÑEDOS CON POTENCIAL TURÍSTICO

Jorge Antonio Valderrama Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ricardo Verján Quiñones, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California José Gabriel Ruiz Andrade, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

El documento plantea la integración de variables que pueden ser incorporadas a planes de trabajo en viñedos que sean considerados como empresas de tipo turístico y no solo como proveedoras de insumos para casas productoras de vinos, las cuales pueden generar valor agregado a sus productos por medio de la utilización de una metodología basada en la mercadotecnia de servicios que podría sentar las bases de una diferenciación más profunda y duradera en términos de posicionamiento de la viña, sus servicios y marcas; lo anterior apoyado en la actividad turística y el turismo como alternativas económicas complementarias para los productores de uva para vino.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Mercadotecnia de servicios, variables, viñedos, turismo

INTRODUCCIÓN

Una conceptualización de la mercadotecnia de servicios puede ser adaptada a la actividad vitivinícola, específicamente a los viñedos y su entorno, tanto social como natural, a través de evidencias tangibles que hagan de la experiencia de la visita a un sitio rural desarrollado por la empresa del vino y sus insumos sean un producto reconocido y que se complemente de manera tal que el modelo vino-viñedo se vuelva parte de la marca que representa un producto final en el mercado, donde no solo el vino es apreciado sino que también lo es su marca y la cuna de donde se obtiene la materia prima; base misma del producto y que le da sabor y características que poco a poco el consumidor valora y valida a través de la identificación de origen.

Potencial De Los Viñedos

Con respecto a la importancia del potencial de los viñedos como producto turístico, Pinuer, Valenzuela y Winkler (2006) consideran que hay un interés por parte de la demanda turística por practicar el turismo enológico y que además de las altas exigencias que tienen dichos turistas se ha generado la necesidad de contar con una metodología pertinente de evaluación del potencial turístico de las viñas, para poder así entregar un producto turístico adecuado a dichas necesidades. En un primer momento establecen que para obtener tal resultado se requiere de un instrumento que evalúe el potencial turístico de una viña o viñedo por parte de los profesionales del ámbito turístico.

Al establecer la diferencia entre las marcas reconocidas y las productoras locales, Taylor (2004) señala que las casas productoras de vino reconocidas en las zonas productoras importantes tienen dos productos diferenciados, es decir, la comercialización del vino y el turismo de vino. En contraste los productores pequeños se encuentran dispersos, no ubicados dentro de las zonas conocidas y por lo tanto atraen una menor cantidad de visitantes. Con respecto a marcas de vino consideradas como prestigiadas, Gimeno (2007) considera que no siempre su fama permite posicionar un producto frente a la competencia del mercado de manera exitosa y que se vuelve necesario detectar las necesidades de los consumidores de vino para que sus expectativas sean satisfechas.

En este sentido se considera como parte de la mezcla de mercadotecnia al producto y su marca pero respaldado por la identificación de origen que es establecida a partir de los viñedos, su ubicación geográfica y las condiciones del suelo y climáticas que van a complementarlo como parte de la diferenciación de la marca. En tanto que para que un viñedo sea reconocido como un producto turístico requiere de contar además del viñedo propiamente dicho con un conjunto de elementos que le den soporte turístico. Con respecto a la definición del turismo enológico Valderrama, Verján y Velázquez (2010) citando a Szmulewics (2006) coinciden en que "es una actividad que se relaciona principalmente con el conocimiento in-situ del proceso de la elaboración del vino y de su territorio cercano, donde el turista visita las instalaciones de las bodegas y los viñedos, además de poder degustar cada uno de los vinos y realizar la compra de los mismos, la experiencia se complementa con visitas a museos y casas típicas de la región, restaurantes campestres y temáticos, propiciando el contacto con los pobladores que le permitan conocer su historia, las tradiciones y costumbres locales entre otras actividades de esparcimiento y recreo que demandan la prestación de servicios turísticos".

Con respecto a los beneficios que obtienen los viñedos al fomentar el turismo de vino, por lo que Pinuer, Valenzuela y Winkler (2006) consideran que los empresarios de estas organizaciones pueden entregar un valor agregado a sus productos, lo cual puede aumentar su venta en las bodegas, tiende a contribuir en el fortalecimiento de nuevas marcas, logra un importante impacto comunicacional en los vinos, permite que se dé un intercambio cultural, científico, tecnológico y económico entre las diversas instituciones y empresas relacionadas con la producción y comercialización vitivinícola; con respecto a las localidades sostienen que permite diversificar la oferta turística que existe en un área determinada, permite la realización de inventarios, la protección y rehabilitación del patrimonio vitivinícola, así como los usos y conocimientos de los valles que cuentan con tradición agrícola, particularmente de vid; genera una fuente de trabajo que involucra a una cantidad importante de personas.

La Mercadotecnia De Servicios

La mezcla ampliada de mercadotecnia para servicios propone que además del producto, precio, plaza y promoción ha de incorporarse al modelo estratégico el personal de contacto, los procesos y las evidencias físicas como se muestra en la Tabla No. 1; en este sentido han de incorporarse las nuevas tendencias relacionadas con la experiencia; dentro de éstas está la mercadotecnia que se apoya en las sensaciones, como lo considera Marquet (2008) donde define que el consumidor de vinos con denominación de origen siempre va a buscar una experiencia única en la compra del producto y que por consecuencia, las actividades de mercadotecnia las que están encaminadas a hacer sentir, oler, catar o vivir nuestro vino tienen las máximas garantías de éxito y resultan ser muy rentables para la compañía; el mismo autor establece que la incorporación de las sensaciones es fundamental para cualquier detallista o empresa productora de vinos con denominación de origen, puesto que esto forma parte de la esencia de un punto de venta a la que se refiere como la atmósfera de compra.

En lo que respecta al producto turístico y su mezcla ampliada Pinuer *et al* (2006) establecen que el contacto con el entorno y la comunidad local implica la vivencia y participación de la cultura y tradiciones generadas en esa localidad que, bajo formas de ocio, fomentan su conocimiento y comprensión; aseveran las autoras que el enoturismo es otra asociación de ocio y cultura del vino que, habitualmente se desarrolla en el área rural y que aporta al turista experiencias y sensaciones, así como entendimiento del lugar visitado, de su historia, la gente y sus costumbres. Por lo tanto, todas aquellas actividades y servicios relacionados con la enología constituyen el núcleo básico del producto turístico y responden a la adecuación de la industria del vino al sector de los servicios turísticos y garantizan la experiencia turística enológica como un factor de diferenciación de cara a otros modelos turísticos. Las facilidades que son parte de la experiencia son las bodegas, museos, centros de interpretación, tiendas o comercios especializados, ofertas de ocio y cursos de cata.

		PERCEPCIONES		
Е				С
X P	Producto/servicio	Precio	Plaza	O N
E	r rouucio/servicio	rrecio	r iaza	0
R			~	C
E	Evidencia Física	VIÑEDOS	Promoción	I M
N				I
C	Proceso	Persor	nal de contacto	E
A				T
S		SENSACIONES		0
				S

Tabla No. 1: Mezcla ampliada de mercadotecnia de servicios

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de Zeithaml, Bitner y Gremler (2009)

Verján y Ruiz (2010) argumentan que mercadotecnia de servicios tiene como primer elemento de la mezcla extendida a las personas o personal de contacto, que se entienden como todos los seres humanos que realizan una parte de la entrega del servicio en un momento determinado dentro de una organización y que pueden influir en las percepciones del cliente, consumidor o comprador; tiene que ver con el personal de la empresa, el cliente y otros clientes.

Todos los que participan en la entrega de un servicio generan señales con respecto al servicio, es relevante ver con sus actitudes y comportamientos, además la forma en que están vestidas las personas transmite percepciones tangibles para el cliente; dependiendo de las situaciones de servicio, los clientes o usuarios mismos pueden influir en la forma en que se entrega el mismo, ya que en algunos casos son ellos quienes deben de responsabilizarse del proceso que es parte de esta acción y dependerá de que lo lleven a cabo como fue establecido que el resultado sea lo esperado y la experiencia la adecuada. En términos de plaza con respecto a los viñedos, los autores Ciardullo, Gennari y Winter (2010) establecen que la zona geográfica va a determinar en gran medida las estrategias competitivas al mencionar que "las empresas y la unidad de negocio en que las mismas se han diversificado incluye a la zona geográfica como una determinante agregando además que la actividad enoturística en las bodegas logra un efecto de sinergia para la actividad esencial de producción y posterior comercialización de estos productos, ya que colabora en la difusión de sus marcas y fidelizan clientes".

En lo que respecta a la experiencia en un viñedo, Valderrama, Verján y Velázquez (2010) consideran que ésta inicia desde la conceptualización misma de enoturismo que tiene cada individuo, pasando por un proceso de planeación y evaluación posteriores a la visita, donde el protagonista principal de esta actividad valora la situación y el conocimiento adquirido en torno a su motivación principal, donde valora las cualidades únicas de la región y el estilo de vida que se lleva en éstas; los mismos autores continúan explicando que la experiencia incluye la visita a una bodega productora de vino y un programa de actividades específicas constituyen el foco de su atención los recursos socioculturales ligados a los servicios turísticos que son demandados y que son parte importante de la percepción a través de la interacción física con los mismos.

METODOLOGÍA

Los resultados preliminares que plantea la presente investigación está enmarcada en las de tipo transversal exploratorio y plantea una primera fase en la que se debe de hacer una investigación documental para determinar el marco conceptual de la temática planteada; posteriormente se considera la etapa de campo

en la que se deberá valorar la correlación existente entre las variables de la mercadotecnia de servicios y los viñedos que cuenten con elementos que les permitan ser potencialmente desarrollados como atractivos turísticos. La región de estudio estaría determinada por la denominada Ruta del Vino en Baja California, la cual incluye al Valle de Guadalupe, Santo Tomás y San Vicente, lugares donde se encuentran los viñedos más representativos de la entidad. El propósito es identificar qué variables de la mercadotecnia de servicios tienen mayor incidencia en la experiencia de la visita a un viñedo.

DISCUSION

Las posibilidades de generar experiencias a través de las visitas a viñedos y profundizar el conocimiento de nuevos lugares o determinar el gusto de un vino a partir de la visita o contacto con elementos característicos de una región pueden hacer que al resaltar las variables que son más significativas en términos del tipo de productos que venden u obtienen a partir de la actividad enológica, donde se identifique el tipo de producto y sus características que lo van a diferenciar del resto de la misma categoría de vinos.Conocer o preferir empresas pequeñas en lugar de los grandes productores y sus marcas, pudiera identificar a un nuevo nicho de mercado que busca originalidad más que producción masiva y altamente estandarizada, donde la visita al viñedo productor sea el referente para una futura compra o recomendación; en esa búsqueda la valorización de la producción artesanal de vino pudiera identificar una oportunidad para los pequeños productores que bajo marcas menos comercializadas pero con alto valor agregado debido a la limitación de producción y al conocimiento de las zonas productoras pudiera al mismo tiempo generar un posicionamiento más fuerte al incorporar elementos que hicieran memorable la cata, el maridaje y el contacto con el personal que hace posible el producto y que genera servicios que complementan la interacción entre visitantes-vino-viñedos-servicios-comunidad obteniendo como resultado: percepciones, conocimientos, sensaciones y experiencias.

El sector vitivinícola ha ido cambiando en los últimos años, ya que se ha evidenciado el desarrollo de la oferta de productos vitivinícolas que en principio estaban más enfocados en los mercados de tipo masivo a uno donde los productos diferenciados adquieren mayor valor tanto de marca como de identificación del origen asociado a una experiencia de conocimiento de éste último, la utilización de una metodología basada en la mercadotecnia de servicios podría sentar las bases de una diferenciación más profunda y duradera en términos de posicionamiento de la viña, sus productos y marcas.

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Jorge Antonio Valderrama Martínez, coautor de la Investigación , Licenciado en Economía, Maestro en Mercadotecnia Internacional con Doctorado en Educación y Profesor-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC. Colaborador del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su Entorno".

Ricardo Verján Quiñones, coautor de la Investigación, Licenciado en Turismo, Maestro en Mercadotecnia y Profesor-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC. Miembro del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su Entorno".

José Gabriel Ruiz Andrade, coautor de la investigación. Licenciado en Informática, Maestro en Administración con Doctorado en Ciencias Administrativas y Profesor-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC, Líder del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su entorno".

PROPUESTA DE UN ESQUEMA ANALÍTICO PARA EL ESTUDIO DE LA COOPERACIÓN INTEREMPRESARIAL

Ma. Zóchitl Araiza Garza, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Carmen Estela Carlos Ornelas, Instituto Tecnológico de Aguascalientes Nidia Hernández Castro, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Ma. de los Ángeles Silva Olvera, Instituto Tecnológico de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

En esta propuesta se conjuntan la teoría de los costos de transacción, la teoría de recursos y capacidades, la teoría de redes y la perspectiva de la administración de operaciones para proporcionar un sólido soporte explicativo al estudio de la cooperación interempresarial (CI). En el esquema analítico que se presenta, se utiliza la teoría costos de transacción para explicar la existencia de acuerdos de cooperación; la teoría de recursos y capacidades fundamentará el análisis de los recursos poseídos y requeridos en las empresas que sostienen relaciones interempresariales, así como la valoración y apropiación de los recursos comprometidos en el acuerdo; mientras que la teoría de redes se aplicará a la evaluación de la satisfacción de las empresa participantes. Además se integra la tipología de cooperación sugerida por Araiza et al. (2010) con algunos elementos del modelo de gestión de la cadena de suministro Supply-Chain Operations Reference (SCOR) en un sólo esquema que permitirá superar las limitaciones de ambos en cuanto a su potencial para analizar la CI. El esquema propuesto tiene como elementos medulares a los procesos principales de las empresas que son posibles objetos de CI como: la planeación, el suministro, la producción, distribución, apoyo postventa, innovación y soporte.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Esquema analítico, Cooperación interempresarial (CI), Gestión de la cadena de suministro.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las alianzas entre empresas constituyen una relación interempresarial que va desde la operación casi aislada de las empresas que mantienen solamente los contactos indispensables para su operación con las empresas que son sus clientes, proveedoras o competidoras, hasta la integración vertical u horizontal. La integración horizontal busca aumentar la rentabilidad de las empresas a través de: las economías de escala; el aumento del alcance de su operación; el aumento de la capacidad de negociación con proveedores y clientes; el aumento al valor generado; y la reducción de los costos (Hill y Gareth, 2005), mientras que la integración vertical permite el control de las etapas de creación de valor de Porter (1990).

En el contexto del centro norte de México, algunos estudios han abordado de manera directa o tangencial las relaciones de cooperación interempresariales formales o informales, aunque hay en ellas una diversidad conceptual con la que aluden a las actividades de cooperación interempresarial. Araiza, *el al.* (2010) estudiaron las relaciones de cooperación interempresariales en la industria metalmecánica del centro del estado de Coahuila, clasificando a las empresas que realizan acuerdos de cooperación, según los objetivos de las mismas, con base en cuatro categorías predeterminadas: para producir, para innovar, para el mercado y para administrar, encontrando una relación estrecha entre las necesidades de cooperación y los acuerdos de cooperación efectuados, con excepción de la cooperación para innovar.

Por otro lado, Díaz (2008), Luna (2009), Ortiz (2009) y Cervantes (2010) analizaron los conglomerados geográficos de las empresas transportistas, muebleras, informáticas y alimentarias respectivamente en el territorio del estado de Aguascalientes, en cuanto a la orientación, individual, y en el conjunto de los

c*lusters* de los que forman parte, hacia la competitividad y la innovación. Los resultados revelaron un bajo grado de articulación tanto entre las empresas como entre las empresas y los organismos públicos y privados de su entorno. En otro estudio, Carlos (2008) analizó las prácticas de las empresas manufactureras de Aguascalientes de dos sectores, en cuanto a sus relaciones con sus clientes y sus proveedores, desde la perspectiva de la administración de la calidad, aportando evidencia de la influencia positiva que ejercen sobre el desempeño competitivo de las empresas.

Los diferentes esquemas analíticos que se han utilizado para el estudio de la CI proceden de diferentes teorías: la teoría de los costos de transacción; la teoría de los recursos y capacidades; la teoría de la firma y la teoría de redes entre otras. El objetivo del presente estudio es el de desarrollar un cuerpo conceptual y modelo explicativo de la cooperación interempresarial en las PyMES, para analizar el proceso de su desarrollo y su asociación con el desempeño competitivo de las empresas.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Aportaciones De La Teoría De Los Costos De Transacción

Desde la visión de Coase (1937, citado por Taboada, 2006), la empresa y el mercado son medios alternativos de organización económica de las transacciones que una empresa realiza. La propia empresa es quien determina qué actividades realizar internamente y cuáles encargar a otras empresas a través del mercado. La elección entre las alternativas interna o externa, se convierte en una cuestión de integración vertical, lo cual permite abordar el problema desde un punto de vista económico a través de los costos de transacción. Frente a las dos opciones la CI es una tercera alternativa de modalidad intermedia o híbrida de organización, que encaja en situaciones donde ni la completa internalización de la tarea, ni la plena externalización de la tarea hacia el mercado constituyen alternativas eficientes en relación a las economías de escala y economías de alcance.

Aportaciones de la Teoría de Recursos y Capacidades

Bae y Gargiulo (2004) sostienen que aunque las firmas se beneficien de alianzas al compartir recursos, los costos de asociarse sólo se justifican si son compensados por el uso de recursos valiosos. La teoría de recursos y capacidades sugiere que las empresas seleccionan a sus socios en función de la interdependencia existente entre los recursos poseídos por cada uno de ellos (Gulati, 1998). Esta teoría sólo considera lo relativo al interior de la empresa (Barney, 1991, 2001) y excluye la influencia de los recursos externos a las empresas que se encuentran disponibles a través de la cooperación estratégica (Zaheer y Bell, 2005).

Aportaciones de la Teoría de Redes y Estructura Social

Esta teoría propone que el comportamiento y los resultados de la empresa, son influenciados por la posición que ocupa en las redes interorganizacionales. Eisenhardt y Schoonhoven (1996) señalan que las empresas recurren a las alianzas de cooperación estratégica y de cooperación social en el primer caso, cuando la empresa es vulnerable en su posición por la carencia de recursos y en el segundo cuando las oportunidades de negocio se crean a través de relaciones de confianza y compromiso. Desde una perspectiva social, Albagli (2001), considera que un elemento central del desenvolvimiento de una red es la creación de confianza y reciprocidades necesarias para el buen funcionamiento de la misma, por medio de un proceso empírico y gradual donde las relaciones sociales, basada en la profundidad de interdependencia productiva y social proveen la base para una organización de trabajo caracterizada por la cohesión social y por principios de colaboración y participación.

Aportaciones de la Gestión de la Cadena de Suministros

La cadena de suministro consiste en un grupo de tres o más entidades, organizaciones o individuos, directamente involucrados en los flujos de productos, servicios, recursos financieros, información, de un origen a un cliente (Mentzer *et al.*, 2001). Aporta al estudio de la CI, esquemas para el estudio de la cooperación horizontal: como los sistemas de manufactura extendida; la gestión conjunta de inventarios; el análisis del "efecto látigo"; tópicos de los campos del transporte y la logística; tópicos de la mercadotecnia de canales de distribución; las decisiones estratégicas de producir o comprar; la modularidad organizacional, las fronteras de la empresa, las redes, las alianzas y la gestión de relaciones (Grimm, 2004).

La gestión la cadena de suministro ha sido estudiada utilizando el Modelo de referencia de Operaciones (Supply Chain Council, 2009), en la Cadena de Suministro conocido como SCOR por sus siglas en inglés (*Supply Chain Operation Reference*). El modelo simplifica la complejidad de la gestión de la cadena de suministro (Borade y Bansod, 2008) mediante la identificación de cinco procesos clave de la operación de las cadenas de suministro (SCOR, 2009) -planeación, suministro, producción, distribución y devolución-que requieren ser optimizados para que las empresas participantes logren sus objetivos comunes.

Desempeño Competitivo: Las empresas pueden considerarse competitivas, si los resultados o desempeño de las operaciones que realizan permiten satisfacer a sus clientes, con mayor eficiencia y efectividad que sus competidores. Entendiendo por efectividad al grado en que se satisfacen los requerimientos del cliente, mientras que la eficiencia se refiere a la manera en que los recursos son utilizados para brindar cierto nivel de satisfacción al cliente (Neely *et al.*, 2005). El propósito de medir el desempeño será el de analizar sus vínculos con la CI, identificar los logros obtenidos; contribuir a la comprensión de los procesos de las empresas y las redes de empresas. Por ello, la medición del desempeño debe tener en cuenta los objetivos comunes de las empresas que realizan la cooperación interempresarial y representar los resultados de los procesos empresariales principales, así como el nivel de logro de los objetivos de mayor alcance, de rentabilidad y permanencia y la evaluación individual y colectiva de la cooperación interempresarial.

PROPUESTA DE UN ESQUEMA ANALÍTICO PARA LA COOPERACIÓN INTEREMPRESARIAL (EACI)

Con fundamento en la literatura revisada, se propone un esquema para analizar la cooperación interempresarial en los niveles estratégico y operativo, así como el papel que juega en el desempeño competitivo de las empresas. En el esquema analítico, se utiliza la teoría costos de transacción para explicar la existencia de acuerdos de cooperación, la teoría de recursos y capacidades fundamenta el análisis de los recursos poseídos y requeridos en las empresas que sostienen relaciones de CI, así como la valoración y apropiación de los recursos comprometidos en el acuerdo, mientras que la teoría de redes se aplica a la evaluación de la satisfacción de las empresa participantes. Además el esquema combina la tipología que Araiza *et al.*, (2010) y Araiza y Velarde (2011) construyeron y confirmaron empíricamente, y son cuatro basados en las necesidades de la empresa que determinan el objetivo de la cooperación para administrar. Por su parte, el modelo de SCOR considera como procesos clave de la cooperación interempresarial en la cadena de suministros, a: la planeación, el suministro, la producción, la distribución y la devolución. La integración de la tipología mencionada y las referencias al modelo SCOR en el mismo esquema, permitirá superar las limitaciones de ambos. Los constructos y sus dimensiones se presentan en la Tabla 1.

Dimensión	Subdimensión	Indicadores
	Cooperación para la planeación	Incluye actividades de compartir información sobre necesidades inmediatas y futuras de cambios, el establecimiento de objetivos comunes, el desarrollo de métricas de desempeño comunes, la toma de decisiones conjunta para responder a las necesidades de los clientes y el desarrollo conjunto de
	Cooperación para el suministro	políticas de inventarios. Incluye la definición conjunta del origen de componentes, la evaluación de proveedores mediante auditorías periódicas; la integración de funciones de logística y la compra de materia prima en forma conjunta.
	Cooperación	Tiene como objetivo la obtención de economías de escala y mejorar la calidad, la productividad y la entrega de las empresas. Incluye el desarrollo común de procesos de fabricación y de logística de materiales; la operación de equipos inter-organizacionales para la integración de procesos
	para producir	productivos; la integración de procesos de fabricación; la integración de la función de logística en producción; las iniciativas de la empresa para reducir los costos, así como la compartición de capacidades de diseño, negociaciones colectivas para la compra de materias primas; y el apoyo para obtener certificaciones.
Community	Cooperación	Se realiza para la búsqueda y acceso a mercados sobre todo a los que tienen mayores niveles de globalización, turbulencia e incertidumbre; para disminuir los costos en el acceso a los mercados, la difusión, promoción y distribución de sus productos. Incluye la compartición del transporte; la asesoría a clientes; la venta conjunto de productos, la planeación táctico-estratégica de canales de
Cooperación interempresarial	Cooperación para la distribución	distribución, la asistencia post-venta a clientes; gestión conjunto de productos, la praneación factico-estrategica de canales de distribución, la asistencia post-venta a clientes; gestión conjunta de las relaciones con los clientes; señalización y eliminación conjunta de ineficiencias en la cadena de suministros; mediante "respuesta eficiente al cliente" (ECR); el uso conjunto de sistema informático de respuesta rápida al cliente (QRC); la evaluación conjunta de la satisfacción del cliente; uso de sistema informático para compartir información de inventarios; y el uso de sistema de Intercambio Electrónico de Datos con clientes (EDI).
	Cooperación para el apoyo postventa	Incluye la devolución de productos defectuosos, el mantenimiento, la devolución de productos excedentes y la generación de datos sobre transporte, rotación de inventarios, programas de recibo, quejas y riesgos de devoluciones.
	Cooperación para la innovación	Incluye la compartición de capocial para nuevos proyectos; intercambio información técnica sobre nuevos productos o procesos, apoyo conjunto de incorporación de tecnologías nuevas; proyectos conjuntos de innovación; negociaciones colectivas para la compra de equipo. Incluye la compartición de la asesoría de negocios; la gestión conjunta de financiamientos; la
	Cooperación para actividades de soporte	gestión conjunta de acceso a estímulos fiscales; la gestión de apoyos gubernamentales en forma conjunta; la compartición de sistemas administrativos, esfuerzos de capacitación del personal y asesoría técnica; el diseño conjunto de sistemas de calidad e información, métodos de pago,
		embarque o entrega; la integración de sistemas informáticos; el acceso a información estratégica o táctica de la empresa; y uso conjunto de sistemas de planificación de recursos empresariales. Se refiere al grado en que las operaciones y resultados satisfacen a los clientes, con mayor eficiencia
Desempeño competitivo		y efectividad que sus competidores. Incluye el nivel de logro de los objetivos de mayor alcance, de rentabilidad y permanencia y del objetivo individual y colectivo de la cooperación interempresarial.

En esta tabla se muestran los constructos elaborados para el estudio de la cooperación interempresarial y el desempeño competitivo

CONCLUSIONES

En este documento se revisan aportaciones teóricas sobre el fenómeno de la cooperación interempresarial, cuya complejidad sugiere la necesidad de un enfoque ecléctico. Por ello, se propone un esquema analítico (EACI) que combina a la teoría costos de transacción, la teoría de recursos y capacidades y la teoría de redes, integrando una tipología de cooperación que tiene como elementos medulares a los procesos principales de las empresas que son posibles objetos de cooperación interempresarial y la medición del desempeño competitivo vinculado con la misma. El constructo de cooperación interempresarial y sus dimensiones fueron descritos de manera que pueden ser utilizadas en el diseño de técnicas de recolección de datos como encuestas, cuestionarios estructurados entrevistas u otras. También se propone un diseño metodológico para realizar el estudio empírico que permita validar la pertinencia del EACI así como las hipótesis y/o preposiciones del estudio.

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BIOGRAFIA

Zochitl Araiza Garza puede ser contactada en la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila. Carretera 57 km. 4.5, Monclova, Coah., México. Correo Electrónico: araizagarza@yahoo.com.mx

Carmen Estela Carlos Ornelas puede ser contactada en el Instituto Tecnológico de Aguascalientes. Av. Tecnológico 1801. Fracc. Bona Gens. Aguascalientes, Ags. México. Correo Electrónico: carmenestela@yahoo.com

Nidia Hernández Castro, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila. Carretera 57 km. 4.5, Monclova, Coah., México. Correo Electrónico: nehc59mex@yahoo.com.mx

Ma. De los Ángeles Silva Olvera puede ser contactada en el Instituto Tecnológico de Aguascalientes. Av. Tecnológico 1801. Fracc. Bona Gens. Aguascalientes, Ags. México. Correo Electrónico:

LA PRODUCCION Y EL MARKETING DEL VINO: ANALISIS DE LAS TENDENCIAS MUNDIALES Y SUS POSIBILIDADES DE APLICACIÓN A CONTEXTOS LOCALES

Jorge Antonio Valderrama Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ricardo Verján Quiñones, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Margarita Ramírez Torres, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

El documento plantea la importancia de conocer, reflexionar y proponer la aplicación de escenarios mundiales de elevada significación, consecuencia y perspectiva a contextos más cercanos que sirvan de apoyo a la toma de decisiones empresariales, de atención a los mercados, de estrategias productivas y de marketing asociadas, todo ello con la finalidad de fortalecer la condición competitiva de los participantes que si bien se realizan en diferentes latitudes, proporciones y escenarios, conforman todos el mercado global.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Producción, marketing, tendencias

INTRODUCCIÓN

Bajo la integración de actividades económicas resulta importante, estratégico y proyectivo el identificar las tendencias mundiales de los mercados a efecto de aplicarlas a contextos locales, toda vez que su evidencia y creciente significación influirán sin lugar a duda, en la evolución de la actividad específica. Así, al presentar y avanzar en el análisis de estos tópicos se ofrece entre otros recursos analíticos, apoyo a la toma de decisiones empresariales, perspectiva general conectada a condiciones próximas, acercando retos, dificultades y requerimientos. Por lo tanto, el conocimiento de las tendencias internacionales si bien pondera las necesidades, motivaciones y los intereses de la demanda, anticipa reacciones por parte de la oferta, toda vez que se comparten en proporciones probablemente distintas pero coincidentes y relacionadas por contexto económico, de tal manera que el planteamiento estratégico de situaciones puede generar razonamientos y perspectivas favorables para los participantes del mercado mundial.

La Produccion Mundial De Vino

La producción mundial de vino ha experimentado profundos cambios que han afectado los principios tradicionales de la viticultura, modificando y estableciendo nuevos esquemas empresariales que se asocian a emprendimientos alternativos que son impactadas positivamente por el desarrollo tecnológico y la conformación de los mercados y de manera negativa por la condición de presión sobre los recursos naturales, que hoy muestran fragilidad, agotamiento y resultados de producción decrecientes asociado a estos cambios se presentan de manera ampliada y aun más próximas, nuevas estrategias de marketing más modernas y efectivas por lo que se han replanteado nuevos razonamientos económicos que se vinculan entre otras áreas con la mayor competitividad de los países productores.

Entre los puntos que se asocian a los cambios realizados se encuentra "el protagonismo de los países del Nuevo Mundo (Australia, Estados Unidos, Chile y Sudáfrica, especialmente), que con unos enfoques más pragmáticos y modernos han obligado al replanteamiento de la filosofía establecida en la vieja Europa mediterránea (Francia, Italia, Portugal y España) que se ufanaba en la posesión exclusiva del saber y del mercado mundial." (Sotés: 2004: pp. 176) La existencia de dos modelos vitivinícolas competitivos y

diferentes entre sí, uno tradicional y el otro industrial, expresa al menos dos conceptos empresariales diferenciados, el primero de ellos representa a un sector muy atomizado, fuertemente impactado por un marco legal restrictivo que a lo largo del tiempo ha registrado presiones de rentabilidad, se trata de un sector productivo poco preparado para adaptarse y trasladarse hacia un sistema moderno, mayormente tecnificado que busque mejorar la condición competitiva de sus vinos, a lo largo de las diferentes fases asociadas a la producción- elaboración- promoción de sus productos.

Al respecto se advierte que "resulta difícil, sino imposible, continuar indefinidamente con un cultivo puramente tradicional, tanto por problemas de adaptación al mercado, como a las modernas orientaciones de la enología, apoyado por criterios económicos de costes de producción" (Sotés: 2004: pp. 177), por lo anterior se hace necesario emprender una transformación de la viticultura tradicional hacia un sistema más racional e intensivo, que impacte en la reducción de costos y que soporte una sana rentabilidad en línea, se identifica de esta manera la propuesta empresarial de carácter industrial comercial, perfilando dos sistemas vitícolas diferentes.

Como caracterización tipo asociado a los países productores tradicionales, el consumidor mundial de vino demanda cada vez más calidad y es más exigente en sus preferencias, lo que lo hace un conocedor, el proceso de conocimiento presenta varias vías alternativas y algunas de ellas complementarias para tal fin, con esta motivación, gusta de saber lo que compra y de participar de manera activa en todo lo relacionado con el proceso de adquisición y consumo.Relacionado con los nuevos países productores, el nuevo consumidor es generalmente inexperto en temas vitivinícolas, compra en la gran distribución moderna y tiene elevado/medio poder de adquisición y una amplia gama de bebidas a su alcance. Al mismo tiempo, el consumidor quiere novedad y variedad y en este sentido, el vino con Denominación de Origen empieza a ser algo maduro y no necesariamente presenta la más adecuada relación precio/calidad.

Tendencias Mundiales Del Mercado Del Vino

Debido al permanente estímulo al mercado y a la atención de los actuales compradores, la actividad de promoción de la producción se ha alineado en forma inteligente y razonada con la distribución, en subdivisiones tantas como ha sido necesario hasta identificar el mercado preciso que es y será atendido en el corto y largo plazo, precisando la caracterización de los productos y programas de marketing específicos. Las tendencias mundiales del mercado del vino advierten "un desplazamiento del vino de mesa al vino de calidad. Del vino blanco al vino tinto. Del tradicional en la Unión Europea, ligado a Denominaciones de Origen al vino nuevo, tecnológicamente innovador y varietal producido en Australia, Sudáfrica, Estados Unidos y Chile entre otros países. Por lo que se refiere a las tendencias a corto plazo se orientan hacia un cambio de preferencias sobre determinadas variedades. En los mercados tradicionales desciende el vino de mesa consumido como bebida diaria y se incrementan las oportunidades de exportación." (Agio, 2000: pp.7).

Al mismo tiempo se hace necesario, cada vez con mayor precisión, el realizar actividades promocionales dirigidas a los segmentos específicos, la razón de tal situación es producto del escenario actual en el que opera el mercado del vino que "hace mucho tiempo que dejo de ser solo para el mercado local, regional o nacional a pesar de la importancia que puedan tener todavía cada uno de estos mercados en el destino de la producción" (Barco, 2002: pp.22). Es así como los mercados externos cobran relevancia frente a los mercados internos, aumentando la significación de la producción, los costes y el marketing. El mismo autor pondera la necesidad de mejorar la calidad del producto y de su identificación como alimento saludable que lo proteja de los malos aires que corren para las bebidas alcohólicas apoyándose en la imagen del producto y en las marcas, lo que sin duda plantea importantes retos a corto plazo a todas las partes que integran este sector, poniendo a prueba su capacidad de relación y de negociación para ver más allá de los intereses particulares. La clave estará en la producción de valor. Se confirma que el valor del bien es igual a la calidad intrínseca del vino multiplicada por la imagen y dividida por el precio.

Otro ejemplo refiere que Australia ha jugado un papel destacado en el mercado mundial del vino logrando un alto posicionamiento y endureciendo aun más la competencia. De hecho, este país ha desarrollado estrategias que apuntan a convertirlo en un líder global indiscutible en producción vitivinícola, por su capacidad de atención a los mercados externos, favoreciendo para ello: una fuerte afinidad cultural con Canadá, Reino Unido y Nueva Zelanda, todos ellos importantes destinos comerciales, sustentado en un efectivo posicionamiento de marca y un esfuerzo coordinado para desarrollar marketing en toda la industria. Los factores de éxito según el documento elaborado por (ProChile Australia, 2008: pp.14) son: 1) una clara especificación del nivel de variedad, el cual representa un excelente valor agregado para el producto, 2) una imagen positiva acerca del vino australiano, 3) un compromiso con la innovación 4) fuertes inversiones en investigación y desarrollo; y 5) consolidación de la industria a nivel de producción y sistema de ventas. Además se advierte que el objetivo más importante que tiene la industria australiana será el de mejorar la reputación de su producto para ganar nuevos segmentos de mercado, toda vez que el consumidor internacional prefiere el vino australiano pensando en términos de costo/beneficio, optando así por comprar vinos cuando existan precios competitivos.

Escenario De Aplicacion

México ocupa el lugar número 65 entre los países consumidores de vino a nivel mundial, este resultado da evidencia de que el consumo nacional es relativamente bajo, aun considerando los esfuerzos continuados de los productores agrupados dentro de la ANV (Asociación Nacional de Vitivinicultores), así también, las políticas de estímulo a la demanda son aplicables al mercado externo. Las diferentes bodegas vitivinícolas nacionales exportan sus productos a más de 30 países destacando entre ellos varios de Europa y de Norteamérica. La meta a corto plazo, es posicionarse en el mercado nacional e internacional, considerando para ello un crecimiento del 12 por ciento para el periodo 2010-2012

Además de aumentar el consumo per cápita nacional frente a otras bebidas alternativas y relacionadas, el vino mexicano y su vitivinícola están experimentado cambios en su estructura productiva y de comercialización en general, se trata de posicionar mejor a los vinos mexicanos tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero, equilibrando en parte la fuerte competencia de vinos provenientes de todo el mundo que representan el 60% del consumo nacional así como el continuar el proceso iniciado años atrás, de participación en competencias internacionales en donde los vinos producidos en México han obtenido reconocimientos a su calidad en una frecuencia y significación creciente. Específicamente la industria del vino en Baja California, México está conformada por 40 empresas vitivinícolas, la mayor parte de ellas son pequeñas y su organización es fundamentalmente familiar, existen al menos cuatro empresas grandes y en conjunto son responsables del 85 al 90% de la producción nacional de ahí su importancia. Pese a contar con antecedentes históricos que se remontan a la época colonial, hubo que esperar condiciones de mercado, visualizadas por productores audaces e innovadores como "L.A.Cetto para que introdujera las cubas de acero inoxidable, la fermentación en frío así como nociones tales como vino afrutado y refrescante, que tanta fama han dado a los caldos de este país.

Diversas bodegas como Casa Pedro Domecq, Santo Tomás y Monte Xanic, han aportado al panorama vinícola mexicano una gran diversidad de estilos" (Clarke: 2000:pp.52). Además Baja California ha aportado también, una amplia gama de vinos de tipo artesanal que son ampliamente apreciados por consumidores nacionales e internacionales. De acuerdo a las tendencias mundiales el marketing digital a través de variadas aplicaciones de las tecnologías de la información utilizadas para atención del mercado del vino han establecido nuevas estrategias para la promoción de bienes y servicios, es así como "basado en la web, el internet y sus recursos asociados están haciendo más eficientes los medios de información y propiciando mas y nuevos mensajes promocionales, rápidos, dirigidos y con posibilidad de interconectividad, de ahí que particulares, y empresas valoren la acción de buscadores". (Valderrama 2010: pp. 53). Fortaleciendo el argumento anterior, se validan experiencias internacionales al considerar

que "en los últimos años se ha producido una gran evolución en el uso de nuevas estrategias comerciales y de marketing en todo el mundo, pero la que ha tomado mayor relevancia ha sido la aparición del que podríamos denominar cibermarketing, caracterizado por su enorme desarrollo en los últimos años y por la cantidad creciente de empresas que han incorporado esta forma de aplicar sus estrategias comerciales" (Gómez, San Martín y Peña 2001: pp. 1).

Particularmente la actividad que despliegan las empresas vitivinícolas localizadas en el Valle de Guadalupe en Baja California, México, fuertemente influenciadas por la globalización, advierten que un 60% de ellas aceptan contar con páginas de internet dinámicas así como el aperturar el uso de tecnologías de información y comunicación para realizar desde promociones hasta compras electrónicas, por su parte refieren que no están utilizando en niveles relativamente aceptables las redes sociales para posicionamiento y producción efectiva de sus productos y servicios. Para Weber (2010), dirigir el mercado hacia las redes sociales constituye una nueva forma de comunicarse con la audiencia en un ambiente digital. "En lugar de hablar para los clientes deben hablar con los clientes".

Es precisamente a través de las redes sociales que se conforma el medio actual, más eficaz y a gran escala para realizar dicha actividad. Efectivamente hoy en día las personas están usando la web para encontrar a personas con intereses similares, para comprar de una manera más eficiente y para enterarse acerca de productos y servicios. Por lo anterior y en actitud proyectiva totalmente influenciado por el contexto mundial se han identificado entre los empresarios vitivinícolas bajacalifornianos algunos proyectos e iniciativas a partir de las nuevas formas de promoción entre los que se encuentran, la elaboración de un Blog de comentarios donde se describe el testimonio de vivencias y experiencias de viajes, visitas o eventos a lugares vitivinícolas utilizando como herramienta tecnológica el internet ejemplos de ellos son el Blog El mundo de Rafa Ibarra y el club de los amantes del vino entre muchos otros.

Con la utilización de la plataforma Web y medios multimedia desarrollados en ella, algunas empresas vitivinícolas mexicanas están utilizando herramientas tecnológicas para describir sus principales atractivos, identificar las características propias de cada lugar y sus productos relacionados, un ejemplo de ello es la página de internet de la Vitivinícola Santo Tomás donde se presentan videos de su fundación, alineación y recomendaciones entre gastronomía y su acompañamiento con excelentes vinos, además de la atractiva presentación de sus productos y servicios entre los que destacan los eventos organizados y festivales, destacando los conciertos al aire libre que reúnen grandes cantidades de visitantes..

En estos sitios web, generalmente los servicios digitales que ofrecen al público son compras por internet "on line", comunicación por medio de mensajería instantánea, correo electrónico, redes social (facebook, twitter) entre otros, y utilizan los medios digitales (retroalimentación inmediata) y los medios tradicionales (retroalimentación tardía), con el objetivo de establecer y mantener vínculos con los clientes, a través de estos canales y generar retroalimentación casi instantánea respecto a sus ventas, servicio al cliente, adaptaciones sugeridas, nuevas aplicaciones entre otras, generando con estas facilitaciones una oportunidad de ir adaptando los productos y servicios, de una forma más rápida y especialmente acorde a las necesidades y expectativas de los visitantes-consumidores del vino.

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Jorge Antonio Valderrama Martínez, coautor de la investigación , Licenciado en Economía, Maestro en Economía Internacional Doctor en Educación y Docente-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC. Integrante del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su Entorno".

Ricardo Verján Quiñones, coutor de la investigación, Licenciado en Turismo, Maestro en Mercadotecnia y Docente-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC. Miembro del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su Entorno".

Margarita Ramírez Torres, coautora de la investigación, Licenciado en Informática, Maestro en Ciencias Computacionales y Docente-Investigador de la Facultad de Turismo y Mercadotecnia en la UABC. Integrante del Cuerpo Académico "Las Organizaciones y su Entorno".

Rafael Albertti González Neri, Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río Jovita Georgina Neri Vega, Universidad Autónoma de Querétaro Rafael González Zarza, Universidad Autónoma de Querétaro Áaron Iván González Neri, Universidad Autónoma de Querétaro

RESUMEN

En este trabajo se presenta la percepción de alumnos y profesores de la Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río (UTSJR), específicamente en el departamento de Tecnologías de la información (TI), sobre la importancia de los estudios universitarios. En el departamento de TI, se trabaja coordinando alumnos de servicio social y estadías, de la carrera Técnico Superior Universitario en TIC. En ocasiones los alumnos no terminan el servicio social, las estadías o algunas materias, por lo que se les da de baja temporal. Esto conlleva problemas de seguridad y motivación en los alumnos. El principal motivo de tener practicantes en el departamento de TI, es seguirlos preparando en la misma institución, y que se enfrenten a problemas reales como los que se manejan en este departamento, ya que de esta manera podrán interactuar mejor cuando comiencen con su vida laboral y profesional. Por lo cual el presente trabajo pretende mostrar la opinión que tienen los alumnos sobre la importancia de los estudios Universitarios. Incluir las experiencias vividas, con los alumnos de la carrera TSU en TIC. Hacer un análisis de las mismas opiniones de los alumnos. Considerar los aspectos básicos para fomentar la importancia del estudio universitario.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Estudios, Universitarios, Tecnología, Información

ABSTRACT

In this paper, is introduced the perception of students and teachers from the Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río (UTSJR), specifically of the Department of Information Technology (IT) about the importance of college. The IT department is working in coordinate social service students and stay in the CIT Superior Technical career. Sometimes students do not complete the social service stays or certain subjects, so they are given temporary leave. This leads to problems of security and motivation in students. The main reason to have practitioners in the IT department is preparing them for continue in the same institution, and face them to real problems that are handled in this department, in this way they can interact better when they will start their working and professional life. Therefore this paper aims to present the opinion of students about the importance of university studies. Including experiences with students at SUT career in CIT. An analysis of the opinions of the students. Consider the basics to promote the importance of university education.

KEYWORDS: Studies, University, Technology, Information

Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río La Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río, es una Institución de Educación Superior creada en Agosto de 1998, que ofrece a los jóvenes egresados del bachillerato, carreras universitarias estrechamente vinculadas con el sector productivo para que en un corto plazo se incorporen al trabajo profesional de la región. (UTSJR, 2010). Actualmente se ofrecen las siguientes carreras como TSU (Tecnico Superior Universitario):

- 1) Desarrollo de Negocios. (Área Mercadotecnia).
- 2) Mecatrónica.
- 3) Mantenimiento Industrial.
- 4) Procesos Industriales. (Área Manufactura).
- 5) Procesos Industriales. (Área Sistemas de Gestión de la Calidad).
- 6) Química Industrial.
- 7) TIC. (Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación).
- 8) Turismo.

Por parte de las Ingenierías se ofrecen las siguientes:

- 1) Negocios y Gestión Empresarial.
- 2) Mecatrónica.
- 3) Mantenimiento Industrial.
- 4) Sistemas Productivos.
- 5) Química.
- 6) TIC. (Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación).

Objetivos

- Dar a conocer la opinión que tienen los alumnos sobre la importancia del estudio Universitario.
- Incluir las experiencias vividas, con los alumnos de la carrera TSU en TIC.
- Hacer un análisis de las mismas opiniones de los alumnos.
- Realizar entrevistas y cuestionarios a profesores y alumnos.
- Aspectos básicos para fomentar la importancia del estudio universitario.

La Importancia Del Estudio: El estudio es una necesidad que va ligada al aprendizaje, desde que nacemos empezamos a tener experiencias en diferentes cosas y vamos aprendiendo "La finalidad del estudio es que descubramos la verdad. La verdad de la vida, de las cosas, del mundo y de la sociedad que nos rodea. A medida que vamos descubriendo la verdad, vamos potenciando nuestra inteligencia, desarrollando habilidades, destrezas, capacidades, nuestra inteligencia." En la publicación (Artículos Informativos, 2007).

CONCLUSIONES

La idea de esta Universidad (UTSJR), es dejar un tiempo libre para que el alumno estudie y trabaje al mismo tiempo, quitando un poco de espacio a lo que llamamos "Ser Universitario", la convivencia entre alumnos en los ratos libres que también tiene su importancia. Seguramente una manera de contrarrestar esto, será buscar la manera de que los alumnos hagan sus tareas y proyectos en la Universidad, y así se logre el proceso de convivencia. La importancia de los estudios no solo conlleva lo académico, sino también un conjunto de valores y vivencias que se obtienen interactuando a diario con los compañeros y profesores, a pesar de que para muchos la importancia de los estudios es solo preparación para poder encontrar trabajo algún día, para otros tiene más valor la parte social y piensan que lo realmente importante no es "conseguir el papel".

Una vez que se empieza a laborar, se aprende a utilizar herramientas, procedimientos o el mismo ingenio para resolver problemas y tareas que exige el trabajo a diario, mientras que ya obtener un título en la

Universidad, nos ayudó a ganar el puesto de trabajo o la oportunidad vacante. El haber interactuado con la gente que estudia nuestra misma carrera, nos proporciona lo necesario para poder asistir a una entrevista de trabajo y conseguir una plaza.

En general, tanto los alumnos como profesores, saben de la alta importancia de los estudios Universitarios, solo que cada quien aplica su criterio para saber en qué medida darle prioridad al estudio, así como muchos tratan de aprender los conceptos principales de su carrera o las competencias más necesarias, otros solo tratan de terminar los estudios como sea. Finalmente se puede concluir que mientras se tenga un interés en estudiar sea cual sea la manera, seguramente tendremos un mundo con menos nivel de violencia, drogas y cosas negativas. No cabe duda que entre más grado de estudio se tenga, más alejados podemos estar de conseguir las cosas de maneras equivocadas y seguir creciendo como una sociedad del conocimiento.

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Rafael Albertti González Neri: Ingeniero en Sistemas Computacionales, egresado del Instituto Tecnológico de San Juan del Río, Estudiante de la Maestría en Tecnologías Educativas, Jefe de Oficina del área de Desarrollo Web en la Universidad Tecnológica de San Juan del Río, Área de investigación: Innovación y Competitividad en las Organizaciones.

Jovita Georgina Neri Vega: Contador Público, egresada de la Universidad Autónoma de Querétaro, Maestría en Administración, con especialidad en Finanzas y Comercio Internacional, Doctorado en Administración, docente de tiempo completo en la UAQ, socia en Despacho Contable. Área de investigación: Innovación y Competitividad en las Organizaciones.

Rafael González Zarza: Contador Público, egresado del Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Maestría en Administración con especialidad en Mercadotecnia, estudiante de Doctorado en Administración, docente de tiempo libre en la UAQ, socio en Despacho Contable. Área de investigación: Innovación y Competitividad en las Organizaciones.

Aarón Iván González Neri: Ingeniero en Sistemas Computacionales, egresado del Instituto Tecnológico de San Juan del Río, Estudiante de la Maestría en Tecnologías Educativas, docente de tiempo libre en la UAQ. Asesor independiente en el área de Informática, Área de investigación: Innovación y Competitividad en las Organizaciones.

INDUSTRIA AUTOMOTRIZ Y LOS AUTOS VERDES

Ricardo Melgoza Ramos, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez Julián Alberto Álvarez Hernández, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez Lydia Nesbitt Valenzuela, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez Gabriela Velasco, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez

RESUMEN

La presente investigación es del tipo exploratorio, en la cual se pretende conocer la situación actual de la industria automotriz, con los vehículos nuevos propulsados con motores que no dependen al 100% del uso de los derivados del petróleo, las nuevas tecnologías al respecto, los combustibles del que se usarán en este siglo XXI, las baterías de los motores eléctricos que son un factor clave para el desarrollo de los futuros vehículos, así mismo una revisión rápida a los diferentes estímulos que los algunos gobiernos han creado para poder desarrollar las nuevas tecnologías o fomentar su uso, la industria automotriz es uno de los ejes más importantes de la economía mundial de ahí la importancia de analizar la evolución que forzosamente tendrá en los próximos años.

INTRODUCCION

Las crisis del petróleo, provocadas por diferentes eventos principalmente en el medio oriente, generan la reflexión sobre la dependencia que tiene la sociedad actual sobre este recurso no renovable, algunos paises desarrollados tienen reservas estratégicas para poder usarlas en caso de una crisis aun mayor.(Hakes, 2008) La industria automotriz es uno de los principales dependientes del petróleo, los casi 1000 millones de vehículos que se han producido en el mundo desde el inicio de su producción (Sperling, 2009), son motores que consumen gasolina o diesel, esto ha contribuido a la gran contaminación de la atmosfera terrestre, que ha provocado cambios climáticos que preocupan a los gobiernos de diferentes paises y ha ganado terreno y espacio en las agendas de las cumbres internacionales.

El presidente Estadounidense Barack Obama ha prometido más de 11,000 millones de dólares para apoyar el desarrollo de las tecnologías alternas al petróleo y poner en las carreteras estadounidenses un millon de vehículos eléctricos para el año 2015. Esto muestra la preocupación mundial, y la intención de disminuir y si es posible eliminar la dependencia masiva de la industria automotriz del petróleo y sus derivados como elemento clave de la industria automotriz, y así como Obama, otros gobiernos están estimulando el desarrollo de tecnologías alternas, la unión europea ha otorgado a través de la ECTF (European Clean Transport Facility), aportó 4000 millones de euros anuales, hasta el 2012 para proyectos que disminuyan o eliminen la huella contaminante de carbono. (Milmo, 2009).

Las opciones son diversas, por un lado se encuentran los vehículos híbridos que combinan motores eléctricos con motores de gasolina o diesel, en las carreteras europeas circulan vehículos que utilizan para moverse el biodiesel, material que disminuye las emisiones tradicionales en más de un 60% y sobre todo que es un recurso renovable, en tercer lugar se encuentran los vehículos que utilizan etanol al 100% o una mezcla con gasolina y finalmente los autos totalmente eléctricos que son la tecnología más antigua y se espera sea el futuro para la industria automotriz en los próximos 50 años.

Un elemento clave para los vehículos eléctricos es la batería, la capacidad de almacenaje de la energía eléctrica le permitirá al vehículo mayo autonomía, la mejor batería se convertirá en factor clave de éxito para las empresas armadoras de automotores, las de iones de litio son las más avanzadas a la fecha, sin embargo no es el único la celda de hidrogeno es otro elemento que puede ayudar al desarrollo de estos vehículos alimentando directamente al motor eléctrico con la electricidad que ella misma produce.

Las fuentes de energía alterna, como el etanol y el biodiesel, son también tecnologías presentes en la actualidad y conforman elementos clave de los autos verdes, que pese a ser la mejor alternativa las ventas de estos vehículos son ínfimas comparada con los automotores de gasolina o diesel, encontrar la ruta más rápida para popularizar estos autos verdes y las diversas tecnologías cada día es más urgente, pese a la inercia y los intereses de las poderosas compañías petroleras que entienden que el mundo está por girar en una dirección contraria a sus intereses,

REVISION LITERARIA

Muchos artículos en la actualidad están retomando este tema debido a la importancia que el mismo reviste, se han escrito y se seguirán escribiendo libros al respecto, pues estas tecnologías están en desarrollo embrionario y a diferencia del motor de combustión interna aun no alcanzan su punto óptimo de madurez.

Los Vehiculos Verdes: A pesar de que algunas de las tecnologías "verdes" existen desde hace muchos años, es en este inicio del siglo XXI que se ha despertado nuevamente el interés por producir vehículos de este tipo, en el siglo XIX se le atribuye a Robert Anderson hombre de negocios escocés alrededor de 1839 la construcción del primer vehículo eléctrico cuando se han desarrollado más opciones, con el ascenso de los vehículos de combustión interna producido por Henry Ford se descartó esta tecnología, sin embargo para el año de 1993 Ford Motor Company creó la Range EV (1993-2001), Toyota la RAV 4 eléctrica (1997-2003) y GM el EV-1 vehículos eléctricos que solo se arrendaban y que al final de su contrato de 3 años fueron destruidos de manera inexplicable, para el ano de 2003. A continuación se mencionan los diferentes tipos de vehículos con energía alternativa, los híbridos, los de biodiesel, los de etanol y los eléctricos.

Los Vehículos Híbridos: Los vehículos híbridos lideran sin duda alguna los autos verdes, a pesar de que se inicio su desarrollo hace más de dos décadas, la producción en masa de un vehículo de estos se inicio con el Prius de Toyota vendiéndose el primer vehículo en 1997 llevando a la fecha más de 1 millón de vehículos vendidos, actualmente se encuentra en el mercado la tercera generación de este vehículo hibrido. Los vehículos híbridos es una combinación de un motor de gasolina o de diesel, junto con un motor eléctrico el cual es utilizado a velocidades bajas en donde el motor de combustión interna es ineficiente, cambiando al motor de gasolina o diesel. Las baterías del vehículo normalmente son recargadas automáticamente a través de la inercia, energía creada al frenar o bajar la velocidad, lo cual evita que el carro necesite conectarse a la red eléctrica, lo que le da autonomía a este tipo de vehículos.

En sus inicios en los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica el principal apoyo financiero para desarrollarlos provino del Departamento de Energía quien le asignó un programa de 5 años y le dio a General Motors 138 millones para el desarrollo de estos vehículos y 122 millones a Ford Motor Company, para desarrollar y fabricar prototipos de los vehículos híbridos.(Sperling, 1994). La mayoría de las principales marcas tienen varios modelos híbridos, Toyota con el Prius y el Camry, Lexus la Highlander, General Motors con la Yukón y la Tahoe, Ford desarrollo híbridos al Escape y el Fusión , Honda lanzo al Civic sedan, el Insight y el deportivo CR-Z y Nissan el Altima y la lista continua creciendo año con año.

Uno de los principales atractivos de los vehículos híbridos es que pueden extender la duración de las pilas eléctricas, más de lo que pueden dar las baterías por si mismas, una de las críticas que se le hace a estos vehículos es que la complejidad de los vehículos híbridos es mayor que los mismos vehículos el de solo gasolina y el solo eléctrico.(Sperling, 1994)

Vehículos Flex-fuel con Etanol: La marca General Motors y Brasil son los pioneros en este tipo de vehículos, los cuales pueden funcionar tanto con etanol, como con gasolina o cualquier mezcla de ambos. La mezcla más popular es la E85 en la cual se pone 85 % de Etanol y 15% de Gasolina. (Rundles, 2007),

mezcla que contamina menos que la de gasolina 100% y sobre todo que el etanol proviene de un material renovable. Chrysler también incluye en su línea de vehículos, carros y camionetas todo terreno, Jeep y Dodge varias minivans, Nissan tiene en la Armada y la Pick up Titán sus modelos que funcionan con Etanol, Mercedes tiene su sedan C320. En Brasil más del 80 % de los vehículos se mueven con el Etanol, el mundo está volteando a ver lo que pasa en Brasil, y en los próximos años en varios países se comenzará a usar vehículos que funcionen con Etanol.

La versatilidad de este tipo de vehículos es que se comienza a utilizar un combustible diferente a la gasolina o el diesel, disminuyendo con esto la dependencia del petróleo, contaminando menos y sobre todo con la flexibilidad de poder usar los vehículos actuales que consumen gasolina, lo único necesario es adaptar el dispositivo que permite realizar la mezcla de etanol con gasolina llamado Flex-fuel, el reto es crear una red de productores de etanol que no provenga de alimentos como el maíz y una red de distribuidores del combustible; actualmente Minnesota es el estado con la mayor cantidad de estaciones de etanol en la Unión Americana y en donde se consume el etanol E-85 (Soren, 2006), con un precio menor por galón que el de gasolina.

Vehículos que Consumen Biodiesel

En tercer lugar se encuentran los vehículos que consumen biodiesel, la palabra diesel siempre estuvo asociada con altos niveles de contaminación y suciedad, pero eso está a punto de quedar en el pasado, ya que este diesel es un diesel con niveles muy bajos de contaminación. El biodiesel resulta muy bajo en sulfuros de ahí el acrónimo en inglés de ULSD (Ultra Low Sulphurus Diesel). En Europa más de la mitad de vehículos consumen diesel (Rundles, 2009), la lista la encabeza Mercedes-Benz con su E320, del cual asegura que es capaz de recorrer 780 millas con un solo tanque lleno. Volkswagen es otra de las empresas con un amplio repertorio en la producción de automotores que consumen diesel, así mismo marcas estadounidenses tales como Jeep Liberty, Grand Cherokee, GMC Silverado, Dodge Ram y las Ford 250, 350 y 450 son de la oferta de camionetas con motores que consumen Diesel y que son susceptibles de utilizar este nuevo biocombustible. Es común escuchar que estos nuevos biocombustibles al no tener el octanaje de los hidrocarburos que componen las gasolinas o los petro-diesels no tengan un buen funcionamiento, sin embargo la experiencia indica lo contrario, el oxigeno que contiene el biodiesel que es equivalente al 10% de su total, mejora y ayuda al proceso de combustión (Demirbas citado por Atadashi, 2010), este oxigeno ayuda a uniformar la mezcla de oxigeno permitiendo una combustión más eficiente en este tipo de vehículos. Las principales ventajas que ofrecen estos vehículos son las siguientes: Primero son combustibles biodegradables es decir no dañan el medio ambiente, segundo pueden ser usados en los motores existentes y tercero sobre todo que reduce dramáticamente la emisión de contaminantes como el oxido de sulfuro en un 78% comparado con el Petro-diesel, además de tener un alto nivel de combustión. (Atadashi et al., 2010).

Además de todo esto son motores que economizan combustible, la cual es una de las principales razones por las que los dueños de los mismos, se decidieron a comprarlos, cuando se hizo una comparación entre los dos tipos de motores de gasolina y diesel del mismo tamaño el motor de diesel resulto un 30% más económico que el de gasolina.(Kaho, 2010).

Los Carros Eléctricos: Finalmente los vehículos eléctricos terminan de cerrar la lista de los vehículos verdes, y aquí se tiene que señalar los dos tipos de vehículos eléctricos, los que tienen que conectarse a la línea de electricidad para poder cargar sus baterías y segundo, aquellos que son alimentados básicamente por un dispositivo que les permita extraer electricidad sin necesidad de conectarse a la red de energía eléctrica.

Estos vehículos se podría decir que son los ideales para el futuro, ya que son motores poderosos, tienen muy pocas partes que se mueven en su interior y además sus emisiones contaminantes son eliminadas por completo.

Son vehículos con cero emisiones contaminantes, son vehículos silenciosos, el consumo de su combustible (electricidad) es más económico que los vehículos de gasolina, es por eso que se habla que esta será la tecnología que prevalecerá en el futuro. Las principales firmas automotrices tienen ya sus versiones de vehículos eléctricos ya sea autónomos con la celda de combustible o conectándose a la red pública, por ejemplo GM con el lanzamiento del Volt y FORD con su sedan Fiesta. Sin embargo no solo las marcas de prestigio tienen sus vehículos eléctricos, también pequeñas firmas como Tesla Motors, la cual fabrica el Tesla Roadster, vehículo eléctrico, de bello y atractivo diseño, se alimenta con 7000 baterías de litio similar a las que usan las computadoras portátiles, puede ir de 0 a 100 Kms en cuatro segundos, con un rango de 140 millas, mas de 200 Kms con una sola carga de conexión a una toma de 110 volts en casa, su precio 100,000 Dlls. (Rundles, 2007).

Es claro que el precio del vehículo es inaccesible para la mayoría de las familias de clase media, sin embargo Tesla Motors ha prometido un vehículo menos caro para la mayoría de las familias. Uno de los factores que encarece este tipo de tecnología es el costo de las baterías, ya que algunas de ellas de gran capacidad pueden llegar a costar lo mismo que un vehículo pequeño (LIM, 2010).

La opción de los vehículos eléctricos toma más fuerza cuanto más grandes son los problemas relacionados con el petróleo, y son varios los paises que están haciendo grandes esfuerzos para estimular su fabricación y uso,España por ejemplo tiene entre sus planes colocar en sus carreteras un millón de vehículos eléctricos para el 2014, meta que ha emulado Obama prometiendo 1 millón de vehículos en las carreteras estadounidenses para el 2015; el alcalde de Londres quiere en su ciudad 100,000 vehículos eléctricos.(Evans-Pughe, 2009). El gobierno chino está estimulando su capacidad de producción y de investigación y desarrollo de estos vehículos eléctricos ya que quiere convertirse en el líder mundial de manufactura de los carros eléctricos en tres años aumentando su producción de 2100 vehículos en el 2008 a 500,000 a finales de 2011, para el consumo interno y para exportar. (Milmo, 2009)

Situacion Del Petroleo: Cuando surgió la crisis de 1973, los pueblos productores de petróleo se dieron cuenta del poder estratégico que tenía el petróleo y por supuesto para el desarrollo de sus pueblos y economías. (Rutledge, 2005), esto provocó que los estadounidenses acostumbrados a los carros grandes y con un alto consumo de petróleo voltearan a ver a los vehículos más pequeños y que consumían menos gasolina, sin embargo esos vehículos no los producían las empresas norteamericanas, sino las europeas y las asiáticas, lo que comenzó a revolucionar la industria automotriz. En esa década se inicio la historia del alto costo del petróleo, el cual ha llegado a niveles de más de 150 Dlls el barril del crudo. Iniciando el 2011 y debido a los problemas suscitados en el medio oriente con países como Egipto y Libia su precio alcanzó los 120 Dlls por barril, eso como consecuencia encarece de manera automática el precio de los combustibles derivado de los hidrocarburos, esto nos lleva a recordar dos cosas.

- a) La dependencia tan grande de la industria automotriz, de los derivados del petróleo, en unos años más, se alcanzará el record de 1000 millones de vehículos de combustión interna producidos en el mundo (Hakes, 2008).
- b) Que el petróleo al ser un recurso no renovable tiende a llegar a su fin, la siguiente pregunta es, ¿Cuál será el siguiente tipo de vehículo que sustituirá al motor de combustión interna?

Con una producción de más 70 millones de vehículos por año en los últimos cinco años de acuerdo con los datos de la OICA, (Asociación de fabricantes de automotores), la humanidad se perfila a la producción de 2,000 millones de vehículos en el mundo, y la pregunta que surge de inmediato es, ¿Puede el planeta

soportar la contaminación de 2,000 millones de vehículos?, porque a un ritmo de 70 millones de vehículos por año en 14 años podremos producir 1,000 millones.

Cuando eso ocurra ¿de donde surgirá el petróleo para poder mantenerlos funcionando? ¿Cuántas guerras más se libraran para poder obtenerlo? ¿Cuál será el impacto ambiental que provocaran estos vehículos? ¿Es la única opción los autos que consuman gasolina? ¿Se acelerara el cambio climático? (Sperling, 2009). Es claro que la alternativa más viable es comenzar a producir vehículos que no utilicen el petróleo como combustible, y comenzar a explorar otros combustibles alternos, otras tecnologías diferentes u otros tipos de automóviles como los eléctricos, de otra manera se toma el riesgo de acelerar el cambio climático de manera irreversible y poner en riesgo el mundo como se conoce.

Necesidades De Un Cambio De Energia: El motor de combustión interna, es una tecnología muy vieja, inventado en el siglo XIX, y perfeccionado durante el siglo XX, se convirtió en el principal motor usado por los automóviles. Pero también se convirtió en uno de los principales contribuyentes a la contaminación de la atmosfera y factor clave del cambio climático uno de los principales mercados de automóviles es el mercado norteamericano, pero no es el único, ya que una encuesta realizada en el 2004 por AC Nielsen, indica que 6 de cada 10 habitantes de las 9 economías emergentes en el mundo, desea poseer un automóvil (Sperling, 2009).

Varias de las grandes empresas automotrices han iniciado desde hace varios años investigaciones que los conduzcan a patentar un vehículo que no dependa del petróleo para poder desplazarse de manera independiente y prolongada. (Evans- Pughe, 2009) GM desarrollo en la década de los 90's un vehículo eléctrico, que tuvo éxito, y fue bien recibido por aquellos que lo utilizaron el automóvil no se vendía, solo se rentaba, al final de todos los contratos GM, recogió todos los autos e inexplicablemente los destruyo.

Antes de pasar al vehículo totalmente eléctrico, hacía falta un puente que uniera los dos extremos, fue así que surgió el vehículo hibrido; el vehículo hibrido es movido por un motor eléctrico y uno de gasolina, alimentados por una serie de baterías y gasolina cuando las pilas pierden carga son recargados con la inercia generada con el frenado o la baja logrando con eso una reducción importante del consumo de gasolina. (Melgoza, 2010) El ahorro se logra usando el motor eléctrico en las velocidades bajas en donde el motor de combustión interna es ineficiente y activando este cuando la velocidad aumente. (Rundles, 2010). Pero, estos automóviles aun consumen gasolina o diesel proveniente del petróleo, lo que al final de cuentas no soluciona el problema de fondo y se continúa con la adicción de la industria automotriz al petróleo. En la actualidad existen varias opciones que pueden sustituir al petróleo y su gasolina o diesel, el primero de ellos es el ETANOL, el segundo es el BIODIESEL, estos dos combustibles pueden reemplazar a la gasolina y el petródiesel.

Por otro lado tenemos la celda de combustible, principalmente de hidrogeno, que en un futuro alimentará a los vehículos eléctricos y que se convierte en una opción cada vez mas solida para eliminar el consumo de petróleo en los vehículos del mundo. Un análisis comparativo reflejo que el costo por milla en un Honda Accord es de 11 centavos, en cambio en el VW Jetta con motor de diesel es de 9 centavos por milla, el Toyota Hibrido Prius cuesta 6 centavos por milla y el Nissan LEAF eléctrico cuesta solo 2 centavos por milla (Anderson, 2010).

Fuentes De Energia Automotriz

Etanol:Una de las opciones más reales en cuanto a la sustitución de la gasolina como combustión de los automóviles es el etanol, un alcohol que puede venir de diferentes Fuentes y que puede funcionar por si solo o puede ir mezclado con gasolina en el tanque del vehículo. El etanol es un alcohol derivado de materiales orgánicos, puede ser generado de diferentes fuentes, actualmente Brasil que es uno los países que más lo usan, lo producen de la caña de azúcar, en Estados Unidos se comenzó a generar del Maíz y algunas empresas comenzaron a experimentar con el alcohol proveniente de la soya. Sin embargo esto

provocó el aumento de este tipo de alimentos, lo que disuadió a los productores del etanol de continuar con esas fuentes y buscar fuentes alternas que no sean alimentos para el ser humano. El principal productor y consumidor del etanol es Brasil con el 70%, después sigue Estados Unidos con el 23%, principalmente por el empuje en algunos estados como Minnesota en donde la legislación está apoyando y estimulando el consumo del Etanol (Mytelka et al, 2008).

En los Estados Unidos el estado de Minnesota se ha distinguido por tomar acciones concretas respecto al uso de energías alternas, exigió por ley que todas las gasolinas deberían de contener al menos 10 por ciento de etanol y para el 2013 será el 20%, además estimulo la producción y distribución del etanol a través de créditos blandos, reducción de impuestos al etanol y a las fabricas que lo produzcan. Para el año 2015 se espera que el 25% del etanol que se produce en Minnesota provenga de Celulosa (Koshel & McCallister, 2010).

Biodiesel:El biodiesel es un combustible que no contamina, que es amigable con el medio ambiente, que ayuda al reciclaje de varios desperdicios y el uso de materias primas que no impactan al precio de los alimentos de los seres humanos, proviene de diversas fuentes, grasas y aceites vegetales y animales. Este combustible no solo se puede conseguir de elementos reciclados, existen varias investigaciones que están tratando de crear biodiesel de varios componentes vegetales.

Un ejemplo de lo anterior es el biodiesel obtenido del aceite de las micro algas está en su etapa de desarrollo más completa, lo que hace pensar que será el biodiesel de tercera generación, ya que no será producido a partir de aceites reciclados, sino que las algas se cultivaran especialmente para este propósito (Scragg, 2009). La compañía finlandesa Neste Oil, anuncio que invertirá 800 millones de dólares en Singapur para iniciar la planta más grande a nivel mundial de biocombustible, la ubicación es estratégica, ya que el área se caracteriza por ser el principal productor de aceite de palma de Malasia e Indonesia y también utilizara grasa animal, el Mercado que se surtirá será el estadounidense y el europeo principalmente, la planta podrá producir 800 mil toneladas anuales de biodiesel.

Estimulos Gubernamentales: Uno de los principales obstáculos para que los vehículos no consumidores de gasolina, ya sean eléctrico, pero sobretodo híbridos o con energía producida con la celda de hidrogeno, se vuelvan populares y su uso sea masivo es el alto costo de producción y por ende del alto precio de venta. Los gobiernos de algunos países, han creado varios estímulos fiscales o de otro tipo, que ayudan al consumidor final a tomar la decisión de adquirir este tipo de vehículos o a las empresas fabricantes a desarrollarlos. (Milmo, 2009) General Motors y Chrysler, recibieron 17,400 millones Dlls, de ayuda del gobierno federal de los Estados Unidos de América a finales de 2008 para investigar y desarrollar "autos mas verdes" (Evans- Pughe, 2009)

Además la unión europea ha establecido un fondo para la investigación y desarrollo llamado ECTF European Clean Transport Facility, con recursos de 4000 millones de euros anuales, hasta el 2012 para proyectos que disminuyan o eliminen la huella contaminante de carbono. (Milmo, 2009)

El Estado de Minnesota ha realizado reducción del pago de impuestos a las empresas productoras y comercializadoras de Etanol, para poder promover el uso de vehículos E85, 15% de gasolina y 85% de gasolina.

Las Baterias Factor Clave De Los Autos Verdes

El futuro de los vehículos eléctricos está cifrado en las baterías que se utilicen, ya que estas marcaran la capacidad de autonomía de los automotores eléctricos. Las baterías recargables son aquellas que pueden ser utilizadas varias veces, recibiendo y acumulando energía eléctrica para después ser reutilizada, las baterías de Litio son las baterías que han recibido los reflectores últimamente, estas baterías son utilizadas

en los teléfonos celulares y computadoras portátiles y ahora comienzan a ser utilizadas en los automóviles eléctricos. Por ejemplo el vehículo Volt de GM utiliza el equivalente a 4,000 o 5,000 baterías de teléfonos celulares para almacenar la energía eléctrica que demanda el vehículo (LIM, 2010). Las características de las baterías que requerirán los vehículos verdes del siglo XXI son: Que sean más baratas, que sean más pequeñas, que puedan recargarse más rápidamente y que tengan una gran capacidad de acumular la energía por un buen tiempo. Bajo esta premisa las baterías de Oxido de Litio-Titanato, que utilizan nanotecnología, son las que pueden ser recargadas de manera más rápida que las baterías comunes.(Pool, 2008)Por lo tanto se perfilan como las baterías que marcarán la pauta en los autos híbridos y eléctricos.

METODOLOGIA

La metodología que se uso para el desarrollo del presente artículo fue una revisión de la literatura existente al temas de los vehículos alternos, así como los combustibles, y los diferentes tecnologías que se han y están desarrollando, para ello se revisaron los artículos científicos de las bases de datos de artículos científicos, así mismo se revisó la literatura al respecto y se visitaron las páginas electrónicas de las principales armadoras de vehículos, que permitiera obtener una visión amplia de la situación que guarda la investigación, desarrollo y producción de este tipo de vehículos y tecnologías.

RESULTADOS

Los motores de combustión interna en la industria automotriz, no son la única opción, ya existen opciones reales y concretas para poder sustituirlos. El alto costo del petróleo y su impacto ambiental, mueve a pensar que es urgente la necesidad de cambiar la tecnología automotriz que use los derivados del petróleo, debido principalmente al impacto ambiental que este tiene sobre el equilibrio ecológico mundial. Bien se podría iniciar con un cambio gradual sustituyendo la gasolina y el petrodiesel, usando el etanol y el biodiesel, países como Brasil y estados como Minessota en Estados Unidos, son un ejemplo claro de lo que se puede hacer a nivel mundial. Los vehículos híbridos, pueden ser una ayuda temporal o de transición a los vehículos eléctricos siempre y cuando comiencen a utilizar el Etanol o el Biodiesel.Los vehículos eléctricos son sin duda alguna los vehículos que se deben desarrollar, ya que no contaminan, su costo de mantenimiento es bajo y su costo de operación debe ser inferior a cualquier otra opción.

CONCLUSIONES

Al final de esta investigación es claro que las tecnologías para poder sustituir el consumo de petróleo como combustible de los automóviles, puede ser algo del pasado si así se quisiera, sin embargo no se ven decisiones de gran alcance en los líderes del mundo para obligar a las empresas a cambiar de la vieja tecnología a las nuevas. Y surgen las preguntas: ¿Por qué no se han impulsado más estas nuevas tecnologías? Si desde la década de los 90's existían vehículos eléctricos, ¿Por qué no se continuo con esa tecnología, por parte de las principales marcas fabricantes de autos? ¿Fue realmente un problema de tecnología? Se especula mucho respecto a si existen intereses con las grandes compañías petroleras y que eso es un impedimento para que las empresas fabricantes de autos, desarrollen masivamente estos vehículos. Por otro lado se encuentra el alto costo del desarrollo de estas tecnologías que colocan a precios altos a los nuevos vehículos, además de la falta de redes de distribución de los nuevos combustibles tales como el etanol o el biodiesel.

En cuanto a los nuevos combustibles, el reto que se presenta es buscar producirlos de materias primas que no sean comestibles por el hombre, para no desequilibrar el precio de algunos alimentos como el maíz o el frijol de soya. La industria fabricante de las baterías para los carros eléctricos jugara un rol preponderante en la industria automotriz, pues el reto es hacer una batería de alta capacidad de almacenamiento, ligera, pequeña y a un costo menor que el actual. Al cambiar la tecnología a los autos eléctricos es una buena oportunidad para pensar en una reingeniería de los modelos para modernizar los

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EL MÉTODO DE CASOS EN LOS POSGRADOS DE MÉXICO

Manuela del Socorro Camacho Gómez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Candelaria Guzmán Fernández, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Jenner Priego Padrón, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco

RESUMEN

El objetivo de esta investigación fue generar una base de datos con Estudios de Casos que contextualizaran la realidad local y regional de las empresas y coadyuvar a que los estudiantes del posgrado en ciencias económico administrativas desarrollen o fortalezcan sus competencias directivas y gerenciales. De acuerdo al proceso de investigación, se confirma la utilidad de los estudios de caso en la formación del estudiante de posgrado en ciencias económico administrativas, en el desarrollo o fortalecimiento de sus competencias directivas y gerenciales, para el logro de una dirección empresarial eficaz y eficiente en un contexto local pero con visión global.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Método de Caso, Escuelas de Negocios, Metodología, posgrados en México.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Con las tendencias globales las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES) deberían diseñar y ejecutar acciones estratégicas para enlazarse de manera práctica con los sectores productivos, asumiendo los escenarios para el aprendizaje activo y tomando en cuenta la incertidumbre de los entornos universidadempresa (Organización Internacional del Trabajo, 2009). En este sentido, los Modelos Educativos demandados por la Economía basada en el conocimiento (EBC) priorizan la formación de competencias, donde las técnicas didácticas como el aprendizaje basado en problemas (ABP) y los Estudios de Caso (EC) juegan un papel preponderante, con cuyo uso se fomenta el desarrollo de habilidades estratégicas de los estudiantes. Bajo estas condiciones, los EC constituyen un ente didáctico actual, relevante y de utilidad en los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje, ya que fomentan el desarrollo de las competencias específicas de los egresados.

De esta manera, los EC como método de enseñanza se erigen como un vínculo empresa-academiaempresa, es decir, para la generación de casos se requiere de la investigación fundamentada en hechos reales de las organizaciones, cuyas historias se conviertan en un compendio de análisis, reflexión y toma de decisiones para quienes los estudian y resuelven desde la perspectiva de aprendizaje significativo, lo que a su vez genera capital humano competente para prestar sus servicios en el mundo empresarial. Para escribir los Estudios de Caso, se requiere además de un proceso de investigación, la disponibilidad del empresariado para conocer algún periodo de éxito o una situación crítica que ilustre un pasaje del negocio, cuyo enfoque puede ser especializado (mercadotecnia estratégica, administración de personal, procesos de producción) o bien, abordarse como un hecho integral que involucre todas las áreas funcionales de la empresa y sus entornos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Método De Caso

Los métodos de casos consideran dos propósitos: el de la investigación y el de la enseñanza o instrucción. Desde esta última postura, un caso describe una situación real de una organización empresarial, institución o personas, en un contexto y en un periodo dado. Para que exista un estudio de caso se requiere de elementos que se mueven al menos en dos ambientes: el empresarial y el académico. En el primero se necesita de una historia empresarial que contar, alguien que la describa y otro que la escriba. Una vez concluido el caso, la academia contará con un "simulador de negocios escrito", el cual podrá ser seleccionado por algún profesor o facilitador para alcanzar objetivos didácticos en sus asignaturas, cursos o seminarios. Estos beneficios serán aprovechados por los estudiantes o ejecutivos formados bajo este método. El caso trata de una situación real que un directivo ha enfrentado en algún momento.

Es una forma práctica y muy atractiva de acercarse a la realidad empresarial para adquirir rigor intelectual y ético en el planteamiento de problemas y soluciones. Los alumnos se colocan en la situación de quienes tienen la responsabilidad de decidir, realizando un análisis y diagnóstico del problema y elaborando un plan de acción, lo que contribuye a formar el juicio del ejecutivo en el proceso de toma de decisiones. Los participantes desarrollan habilidades interfuncionales y adquieren una visión integradora aplicada a la gestión, fortaleciendo la toma de decisiones en un ambiente complejo, mejora la capacidad y estilo de dirección así como la adquisición de la disciplina intelectual para formular problemas y alternativas de solución (ESE n/d). De acuerdo con Naumes (2006), un caso es una forma de enseñanza en la que los estudiantes deben involucrarse para aprender. El caso desencadena un proceso de pensamiento, de análisis, de solución de problemas o inclusive de evaluación y juicio. Bajo este supuesto, se trata de una práctica en una situación "real", el caso; esto crea las habilidades del pensamiento que serán necesarias cuando se encuentren en situaciones reales de toma de decisiones. Es decir, se trata de la descripción de una determinada situación en la vida real ó una situación que atraviesa una persona u organización en un momento dado de su historia (Ogliastri, 1999, NACRA, n/d), CIC n/d).

Un caso representa una situación compleja de la vida real planteada por el profesor de forma narrativa, a partir de datos que resultan esenciales para el proceso de análisis. Casi siempre se trata de hechos problemáticos reales a los que una empresa (real y concreta), un profesional o un equipo de profesionales ha tenido que enfrentarse (Corrales y Villalba, n/d). Los hechos empresariales que se describen en un caso pueden encontrarse en ambientes locales, nacionales o internacionales. De tal manera que el profesor será quien determine, de acuerdo a los requerimientos y nivel de formación de sus estudiantes, la elección de un caso ya escrito u optar por escribir el suyo. Es decir, los estudios de casos son historias acerca de situaciones en las cuales individuos o grupos pueden tomar decisiones o resolver un problema. Los casos proveen a los estudiantes con información, pero el análisis lo hacen ellos. The Higher Education Academy (n/d).

Elección De Un Estudio De Caso

La clave en la elección o escritura del caso, además de un plan que lo contemple, es la atractividad y complejidad del mismo, ya que eso permitirá la aplicación de conocimientos especializados y retará al estudiante en su proceso de análisis, reflexión y toma de decisiones. Para seleccionar o escribir un caso, se debe contemplar el desarrollo del equilibrio de juicio o firmeza de criterio para ensanchar la capacidad de manejar con flexibilidad esquemas mentales, fortalecer la capacidad de discernir detalles tales como los elementos más significativos para identificar el problema, y por supuesto, se deben considerar elementos de ayuda para el desarrollo de la inteligencia, abordar situaciones reales de la organización, aumentar la capacidad de tomar decisiones y a trabajar en equipo (Llano,2005).

Desde esta perspectiva, la elección de un Estudio de Caso, asume una planeación previa del profesor, quien al utilizar esta técnica, considera el cumplimiento de ciertas características, tales como la contribución a los objetivos del curso, su relación con el tema de estudio, fortalecimiento del desarrollo de habilidades, consideración del nivel de dificultad de acuerdo al perfil de los estudiantes a quienes se aplicará. Asimismo, será conveniente considerar los requerimientos de los recursos de apoyo (notas de enseñanza) y el contexto que presenta el caso (CIC, n/d). Además de una apropiada elección del caso; la dirección del profesor o facilitador, el objetivo didáctico a alcanzar, el tamaño del grupo, el tiempo de

dedicación y el ambiente físico donde se analiza y discuten los Estudios de Caso fundamentan el buen éxito en su utilización y en el desarrollo o fortalecimiento de competencias de los participantes.

Clasificación De Los Casos

La disciplina, el formato, la metodología y la intención de los casos, orientan los pasajes empresariales que se retratan en un caso, los cuales usualmente son planteados de forma fluida y ricos en datos, el estilo en cómo se escriban éstos pueden provocar un grado de entusiasmo diferente. Esto también dependerá de lo amplio que pueda ser el documento y del área funcional de la empresa analizada.

Los casos se clasifican según su enfoque y su magnitud. En cuanto al enfoque, se localizan casos descriptivos, analítico-evaluativo, enfocado a toma de decisiones, predictivos y también puede darse el caso mezclado que considera diversos elementos de los anteriores. Por su extensión, se pueden encontrar mini casos (de dos párrafos a 1 página) y Casos en extenso (de dos hasta 30 páginas), esta característica dependerá en gran medida del encausamiento metodológico que sigan los escritos. Si bien, la descripción de datos en un caso puede ser vasta, también es conveniente considerar que los desafíos que estos planteen, harán del mismo un potente generador de conocimientos, sin importar su extensión y enfoque.

Enseñar con Casos: El método de caso como sistema formal de aprendizaje fue propuesto por la Universidad de Harvard para la enseñanza del Derecho, y posteriormente fue llevado a otras disciplinas, aunque originalmente surgió en la enseñanza de la Medicina a través de las historias clínicas (Powell y García, 2006). Los casos son un proceso pedagógico activo en comparación con el proceso pasivo que resulta de las explicaciones en clase, con esta técnica, los estudiantes aprenden a través del análisis y actividades que realizan, esto implica que aprender haciendo provee un mayor y duradero aprendizaje. El método es más eficaz en grupos poco numerosos (Naumes, 2006).

Esto quiere decir que, al tratarse de un método dinámico, se exigen algunas condiciones mínimas para su buen uso y utilidad. Entre otros elementos, destacan los supuestos previos en el profesor, tales como creatividad, metodología activa, preocupación por una formación integral, habilidades para el manejo de grupos, buena comunicación con el alumnado y una definida vocación docente. De acuerdo con Ainciburu (2004), una forma de validar la eficacia y los beneficios del uso de Estudios de Caso en la instrucción, se puede reflejar en al menos cuatro hechos principales:

1.- Los estudiantes evalúan situaciones reales y aplican conceptos a partir de ejemplos prácticos de la vida real,

2.- Los estudiantes aprenden a desarrollar conceptos nuevos y a aplicar aquellos ya establecidos a situaciones novedosas

3.- Los estudiantes asimilan mejor las ideas y conceptos que utilizan ellos mismos, el trabajo en grupo y

4.- La interacción con otros estudiantes constituye una preparación eficaz en los aspectos humanos de la gestión.

En consecuencia, las condiciones que debe cumplir un estudio de caso para ser pedagógicamente útil desde el punto de vista económico son autenticidad, situación concreta sacada de la realidad, urgencia, ser una situación problemática que provoca un diagnóstico o una decisión. Debe ser por tanto, una situación que puede proporcionar información y formación en un dominio del conocimiento o de la acción del tema que se aborda a través del caso (Ainciburu, 2004). Por su parte, Ogliastri (1999), explicó que para utilizar el Método de Casos en la enseñanza, se debe tomar en cuenta sus componentes y actores:

- 1. Alumnos
- 2. Casos
- 3. Profesor
- 4. Materia

Con los casos se pueden evaluar conductas, actitudes, valores y conocimiento, ya que se espera que el estudiante revise el caso con detenimiento, hago su análisis, formule sus conclusiones y recomendaciones, tome un papel activo en su propio proceso de aprendizaje. Por lo tanto, el escenario de dinamismo esperado, hace necesario tener presente otros factores clave de éxito, como: a) Lugar donde se desarrolla la sesión; b) Distribución física de los alumnos en clase y c) Hora en que tiene lugar.

Dentro de las actividades áulicas, el caso debe contemplar al menos tres momentos: Trabajo individual que consiste en dejarle al estudiante la lectura del caso y actividades detonantes, en clases, trabajar en grupos pequeño y concluir en grupo plenario. Esto equivale a realizar acciones donde se privilegia además del análisis, la reflexión y la visión crítica-propositiva, el trabajo en equipo, donde se proveen diferentes puntos de vista, opiniones y participación que genera discusiones y toma de decisiones conjuntas. En este orden de ideas, la última fase es la discusión general, el cual es provisto por el profesor, quien guía el debate (CIC, n/d).

Tenemos muy claro, que los Casos deben ser aplicables a grupos, temas, momentos y objetivos precisos. Según Ainciburu (2004). los casos pueden usarse al menos bajo tres opciones;

a) como una actividad, o sea que una cadena de casos constituyen una unidad didáctica
b) como una tarea final, cuando las actividades preceden el caso preparan fase de desarrollo del caso
c) como tarea de recopilación de varias unidades, o del total de las unidades programadas

Escritura de Casos

Si la elección y aplicación de Casos requiere de competencias del profesor o facilitador, la escritura de los mismos, hace necesaria condiciones especiales para su desarrollo, lo cual recae en las capacidades del escritor de casos, quien a su vez debe ser un investigador. Es decir, se exige un auténtico trinomio de profesor-investigador-escritor, cuyos productos serán definidos por sus propios estilos (ver figura 2).

Dentro de las metodologías más conocidas para escribir casos se encuentran las de Harvard, CIC-ITESM, INCAE, ANFECA, todas estas formas de redactar, narrar y plantear los casos tienen directrices propias de acuerdo a la institución de origen, sin embargo, la convergencia metodológica que existe entre ellas tienen que ver con la descripción de una situación dada en cualquiera de las áreas funcionales de la empresa en un momento preciso, a ciertos directivos en particular. Los hechos que se describen en un caso pueden representar factores claves de éxito o factores críticos a considerar como parte del análisis de la lectura, la discusión en clases y el debate en la sesión plenaria sobre algunos temas específicos en una asignatura determinada.

Otra organización participante en el fomento del uso y escritura de Estudios de Caso es la Asociación Nacional de Facultades y Escuelas de Contabilidad y Administración (ANFECA) quien durante cinco años consecutivos a convocado a escribir casos sobre la disciplina. Para ello propone su propia metodología que incluye:

- 1. Resumen
- 2. Antecedentes
- 3. Planteamiento del Problema
- 4. Revisión de Literatura

- 5. Descripción del Caso
- 6. Retos actuales que se enfrentan
- 7. Referencia bibliográfica
- 8. Anexos

Además de los puntos anteriores, la ANFECA requiere de una Guía para el Profesor, que debe contar con los siguientes puntos:

- Objetivo pedagógico del caso
- Método de análisis de clase
- Preguntas de discusión
- Alternativas de solución probable

METODOLOGÍA

Objetivo

El objetivo general de la investigación fue generar una base de datos con Estudios de Casos que contextualizaran la realidad local y regional de las empresas y coadyuvar a que los estudiantes del posgrado en ciencias económico administrativas desarrollen o fortalezcan sus competencias directivas y gerenciales.

Diseño de la Investigación: El diseño del estudio se definió como cualitativo, ya que se partió de reconstruir la realidad, a través de los actores directos de un sistema social determinado, así como también porque a través del mismo se partió de un proceso inductivo, se exploraron y describieron situaciones para luego generar perspectivas teóricas. Así también se partió de un tipo de estudio descriptivo-explicativo, bajo una interpretación de la realidad de forma múltiple, holística, divergente y construida. Todo ello con apego a la fenomenología, donde la relación objeto-sujeto se encuentra interrelacionado pero a su vez influenciado por factores subjetivos del fenómeno estudiado. Los pasajes empresariales que dieron pie a la narración de los casos, en el plano ontológico, a todas luces resultó en un complejo múltiple, dinámico, global, divergente y construido en un proceso de interacción con la misma realidad (Sandín, 2003).

Población: El universo bajo estudio lo constituyeron 24 empresas ubicadas en la Ciudad de Villahermosa, Tabasco, México, las cuales fueron elegidas por su representatividad en la localidad y por su posicionamiento corporativo. En esta investigación se tomaron en cuenta todos los sectores, aunque en términos generales el trabajo se orientó hacia empresas del sector agroindustrial y de servicios.

Diseño del Instrumento:El instrumento utilizado fue una guía de entrevista de elaboración propia conformado por 15 preguntas orientadoras que se fueron enriqueciendo y adecuando en la medida que se aplicaba el instrumento. El período de aplicación de las entrevistas, por la disponibilidad y disposición que los empresarios mostraron abarcó cerca de un 10 meses, los primeros cuatro para aplicar las primeras entrevistas y los otros 6 para la aplicación de las entrevistas complementarias.

RESULTADOS

Bajo este enfoque metodológico fue posible la escritura de casos orientados al área funcional de mercadotecnia y negociaciones debido a que las historias empresariales investigadas las orientaban de esa manera, es decir, los acontecimientos narrados por los entrevistados indicaban hechos relacionados con sus estrategias de mercadotecnia, mercados internacionales y negociaciones. La ventaja de esos casos escritos, es su familiarización con el contexto local y regional, lo cual genera muchos beneficios al

proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje porque son detonadores del conocimiento en ambientes conocidos por los usuarios de los casos, en esta investigación, los estudiantes de posgrado en administración.La disposición de los empresarios fue en todo momento oportuna y con gran apertura por compartir sus historias empresariales. Con la metodología ANFECA se escribieron los diez casos producto de la investigación empresarial "Construcción de una base de datos con Casos Prácticos Empresariales aplicables a la Maestría en Administración de la DACEA-UJAT en Villahermosa, Tabasco, México", la cual se realizó de agosto 2008 a julio 2010. Los casos escritos fueron los siguientes:

Caso 1 Wolter "50 años de exquisito chocolate" Caso 2 Velas Aromáticas "Fuente de Luz" Caso 3 Salmi Caso 4 Farmacias Unión "franquicias" Caso 5 Delit "lo natural del helado" Caso 6 Ecomecatrónica Caso 7 Café la cabaña Caso 8 Capitán Beuló Caso 9 Café la Parroquia Caso 10 Chilibili "lo gourmet del habanero"

CONCLUSIONES

Una forma de enlazar a los alumnos con los sectores productivos es el análisis o resolución de Estudios de Casos empresariales, ya que las universidades reconocen que las exigencias del mercado de trabajo requieren de profesionistas competentes, capaces de tomar decisiones, enfrentar obstáculos, ejercer la crítica, expresar puntos de vista, escuchar a otros y que coadyuven con estrategias creativas al crecimiento y rentabilidad de las empresas y consolidación de instituciones.

El enfoque centrado en competencias trata de transformar los contextos no solo a las personas, ya que éstas se forman intersubjetivamente y propicia la formación centrada en la resolución de problemas como la vía idónea que posibilita el cuestionamiento y la problematización de los saberes, creencias y valores que se poseen y posibilitan asumir nuevas maneras de ver la realidad desde nuevas aristas al intervenir en ellas (Rodríguez, n/d). Bajo esta perspectiva, los Estudios de Caso tienen un objetivo didáctico para fortalecer las competencias directivas y gerenciales de los estudiantes. Aunque los casos no son transmisores de conocimiento, si estimulan su generación, por esa razón, responden cabalmente a las exigencias globales en pos de un aprendizaje significativo donde el ésta técnica es de gran relevancia.

Los Casos requieren de la aplicación de un proceso de investigación en un primer momento y en de una metodología probada para escribirlos. En este sentido, la contextualización de los Casos puede ser un componente clave para la formación de competencias en estudiantes de posgrado, así se ha podido confirmar con la aplicación de casos locales. Con los tres esquemas de escritura presentados, se puede apreciar un rigor metodológico en la narrativa de casos, lo que implica un compromiso y competencias muy claras de quien investiga y escribe las historias empresariales.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Manuela Camacho Gómez es Doctor en Educación Internacional. Ha hecho estudios especializados en la Universitá Commerciale Luigi Bocconi en Milán, Italia; en el Centro Internacional de Formación de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo en Turín, Italia, Centro de Estudios Empresariales en Zaragoza, España y en el INCAE Business School de Managua, Nicaragua. Es directora y colaboradora en diversos proyectos de investigación sobre Turismo, Mercadotecnia, Negociaciones y Educación Internacional.

Candelaria Guzmán Fernández es candidata a Doctor, Maestra en Finanzas por el Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey, Contador Púbico por la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Ha sido consultora de negocios y actualmente es Coordinadora de Posgrado y colaboradora en diversos proyectos de investigación.

Jenner Priego Padrón es Maestro en Administración, ha sido Coordinador de Docencia en la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, donde es profesor-investigador con participación en diversos proyectos de investigación relacionados con educación, empresas familiares y estudios de caso.

Javier Zepeda Miranda, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez Consuelo Catalina Fernández Gaxiola, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez Martha Anayacin Coronado Granados, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez María de los Ángeles López Martínez, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez José Luis Venegas Mendiola, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez Joaquín Godoy Mendoza, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez

RESUMEN

Los empleados o trabajadores dentro de una MIPYMES realizan el trabajo encomendado para lo que fueron contratados, pero existen variables como el compromiso laboral, el cual enrola características personales (sexo, edad, educación, estado civil), Motivación (Estrés, involucramiento en el trabajo), características de trabajo y experiencias en el mismo para las cuales permiten ofrecer mejores resultados, así como permanencia, ofrecer mejor rendimiento en el área laboral, desempeño en el trabajo (intención de búsqueda, rotación, retardos, alternativas de trabajo), entre otros aspectos. En el Presente trabajo de investigación se estudia a los responsables de área y empleados de dichas áreas de este tipo de empresas, las cuales muy pocas veces son revisadas y estudiadas, el presente estudio pretende demostrar la existencia de la relación entre las variables de compromiso laboral con el rendimiento y permanencia de los empleados de las MIPYMES dedicadas a la venta de insumos o que prestas servicios a la maquiladora exportadora en Ciudad Juárez, de la misma forma hace una comparación de variables como experiencia de la MIPYMES (edad de la empresa), tamaño, antigüedad del empleado y genero.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Compromiso Laboral, Aprendizaje Organizacional, Compromiso Actitudinal. INTRODUCCIÓN

El propósito principal del presente artículo es proporcionar una perspectiva del compromiso organizacional de los trabajadores de las MIPYMES de Ciudad Juárez. A nivel nacional las MIPYMES contribuyen aproximadamente un 64% al producto interno bruto del país, de ahí podemos deducir la importancia del estudio de las mismas y el clima organizacional es uno de los factores más importantes para poder comprender nuestro objeto de estudio a profundidad.

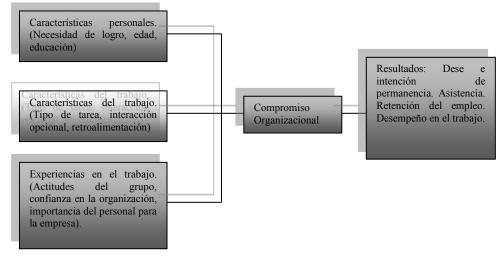
ANTECEDENTES

En los primeros trabajos sobre compromiso organizacional se inician en los años 60's con Becker (1960), pero en realidad empieza a fluir en la década de los 70's, dentro de la mitad de esta década y al finalizar la década de los 90's se pueden localizar alrededor de 550 trabajos de este tema, entre los años 2000 y 2005 se publicaron alrededor de 250 artículos sobre el tema (Fiorito, 2007), en donde se puede localizar como el compromiso hacia la empresa impacta los resultados de las empresas. En los años 70 se puede revisar literatura de Boulian en 1974 donde el compromiso laboral se refiere y define "la fuerza relativa de identificación e involucramiento de un individuo respecto de una organización en particular" (portes 1974), en donde el compromiso laboral se divide en tres factores: Fuerte creencia y aceptación de las metas, 2) la flexibilidad de invertir esfuerzo en la organización, 3) un deseo de permanecer dentro de la empresa.

En el año 1977 uno de los iniciadores del concepto Steers, el cual ha sido de gran utilidad para estudios posteriores, en donde introduce el concepto "work experiencie", en donde cabe recalcar que el concepto

se refiere a las percepciones del trabajador dentro de la empresa, en el estudio que realizo Steers en 1977 demostró que el compromiso está más estrechamente relacionado con las experiencias vivida en el trabaja que cualesquier característica personal o característica laboral.

Figura 1: Elaboración propia, Características que influyen en el compromiso laboral.



Esta figura muestra las diferentes características que impactan al Compromiso laboral y sus resultados.

En dichos estudios realización a finales de los 70's, se encuentra que el instrumento para la recolección de datos para medir el compromiso en el trabajo y hasta la fecha el más utilizado es el Organizational Commitment Questionarie (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers y Porter, 1979). Existen dos autores que estacan dos aspectos importantes, compromiso actitudinal y compromiso intencional, en donde el compromiso intencional es cuando se obtiene algo de la interacción entre el empleado y la empresa, al respecto de beneficios para el empleado, el compromiso actitudinal se puede observar a la disponibilidad que refleja el empleado hacia el centro de trabajo. También dentro de la revisión bibliográfica se puede encontrar un método alternativo de recolección de datos, desarrollado por Natalie Allen y John Meyer, en 1990 donde fueron agregadas dos subescalas al modelo original, la subescala afectiva y de continuidad, con el resultado del modelo de compromiso laboral con tres divisiones, Afectivo, Normativo y Continuidad. Para poder comprender de mejor manera este modelo se describir de manera resumida cada una de las divisiones dentro del compromiso laboral.

El compromiso de continuidad, esta división hace referencia en los costos percibidos, en donde se habla de los costos monetarios y los no monetarios, de por ejemplo dejar de laborar en la empresa (Becker, 1960; Hrebriniak y Alluto, 1972). Anteriormente las organizaciones "ataban" a sus empleados con contratos para que estos permanecieran en la empresa así como que fueran leales a ella, en donde renunciar a la organización perdía privilegios obtenidos, a esto se le llama compromiso de continuidad.

El Compromiso Normativo indica sobre algo que el autor Wiener (1982) realza como "experiencia de cultura" la cual se refiere a que un empleado no debe de realizar muchos cambios de trabajo en poco tiempo, ya que tiene la tendencia de ser un empleado con poca estabilidad y por lo tanto ser muy poco confiable, sobre todo en puestos claves o considerados como importantes, lo que en nuestro país es denominado en algunas empresas de Recursos Humanos como "estabilidad o confiablidad de curricular" que las empresas pueden observar los cambios de trabajo en periodos cortos de tiempo, esto encontrado en algunas investigaciones realizadas en México por Mercado en el año 2002.

En este compromiso también se toma en cuenta por algunas organizaciones para la posibilidad de prestaciones extras, en algunas ventajas o comisiones especiales, como cuando existe la posibilidad de realizar capacitaciones especiales o bien cuando algún empleado tiene la inquietud de realizar algún

estudio por ejemplo de Maestría, al apoyarlo la empresa puede contraer un compromiso con la misma, en algunos casos la empresa exige que se realice este compromiso por escrito con la condición de el empleado después de determinado el periodo en este caso de la maestría, permanezca un cierto tiempo trabajado para la organización.

Tiempo adelante por la décadas de 1980 y 1990 y después de varias modificaciones realizaras por ejemplo una de ellas en 1987 por McGee y Ford, en donde se revelaron cuatro factores del compromiso, en 1990 por Mayer y Allen donde se probaron que dos subescalas del compromiso no se repetían de forma constante entre las muestras tomadas y esto se debía a que posiblemente las preguntas eran poco ambiguas y la sub escala no era unitaria, después Riketta en el 2002 se observo que se habían trazado alrededor de 92 investigaciones serias al respecto del compromiso organizacional, donde también el compromiso en la organización se liga intensamente con la rotación del personal, en donde en el presente existen investigaciones con prácticas en los departamentos de Recursos Humanos(Meyes, Allen, 1993), entre el profesionalismo y el nivel real de compromiso en la empresa, y en existen evidencias de los estudios de Compromiso Organizacional directamente ligado con el apoyo de Gerentes (Stinglhamber y Vanderghe, 2003).

METODOLOGÍA

Para la recolección de datos se utilizo unas encuestas aplicadas así como el instrumento de recolección más utilizado a la fecha el Organizational Commitment Questionarie (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers y Porter, 1979). Para el análisis de la información recolectada en las encuestas, la cual se menciona que es de tipo cuantitativo, la cual es una investigación de campo, de alcance descriptivo y correlacional. En lo que respecta del instrumento de recolección se ha probado con una gran diversidad de culturas, por ejemplo en México se encuentra con una confiablidad de (.81), en donde ya se ha aplicado estudios similares se utilizo la traducción al español y se conservo una escala de Likert de cinco grados del instrumento propuesto.

A continuación se muestran algunos reactivos sobre el aprendizaje organizacional:

- Estaría feliz si para el resto de mi carrera en esta organización
- Realmente siento como si los problemas de la organización fueran míos.
- No experimento un fuerte sentimiento de pertenencia hacia mi organización.
- No me siento ligado emocionalmente a mi organización.
- Esta organización significa personalmente mucho para mí.

Todos los reactivos en la tabla mencionados se implementaron con la escala tipo Likert, con las opciones: 5 Totalmente de Acuerdo, 4 de Acuerdo, 3 no de acuerdo pero tampoco desacuerdo, 2 en desacuerdo, 1 totalmente Desacuerdo. Para validar esto fue elaborada la tabla con los Alpha de Cronbach Figura XXX.

Tabla 1: Resultados de los Compromisos.

Compromiso	Alpha de Cronbach
Compromiso Afectivo	.60
Compromiso Normativo	.53
Compromiso para la continuidad	.28

En esta tabla se muestra los resultados del alfa de Cronbach para cada uno de los compromisos expuestos.

CONCLUSIONES

En lo que respecta a datos estadísticos se pueden tomar los datos en los resultados, hombres 65% y Mujeres 35%, en edad de los empleados 20% cuenta con más de 50 años, 50% entre 35 y 49 y por ultimo menos de 35 años 30%, en donde 90% son técnicos o trabajadores y solo el 10% directivos o gerentes.

En los resultados se puede observar la "fuerte" relación entre compromiso laboral con el aprendizaje laboral, en donde se puede observar que con el compromiso normativo prácticamente se desliga de este estudio, y no tiene relevancia significativa. Pero en lo que respecta a aprendizaje dentro de la organización se puede clasificar como aprendizaje por imitación lo cual no es bueno para la percepción del aprendizaje organización. En lo que respecta a compromiso trasciende de manera muy significativa en lo que respecta con los resultados de la empresa, en donde existe una relación "muy fuerte" entre el compromiso y los resultados de la empresa, en donde se puede concluir que existe una correlación directa positiva entre los resultados de las Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas con la percepción de compromiso laboral (Afectivo y normativo), en donde los trabajadores se sienten mas parte de la empresa y algunas de ellas siente más obligación a corresponderle a la empresa y la empresa hacia ellos mismos, además de ellos tienen la percepción de mejorar los resultados de la empresa u organización a la que pertenecen.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Javier Zepeda Miranda, es profesor de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Clasificación Arancelaria, Impartiendo clases en la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez en el Instituto de Ingeniería y Tecnología, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez para la Ingeniería Industrial a Distancia, se puede contactar al correo: javier_zepeda@utcj.edu.mx

Consuelo Catalina Fernández Gaxiola, es profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Clasificación Arancelaria, se puede contactar al correo: consuelo_fernandez@utcj.edu.mx.

Martha Anayacin Coronado Granados, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, es profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Desarrollo de Negocios, se puede contactar al correo: anayancin_coronado@utcj.edu.mx.

María de los Ángeles López Martínez, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, es profesora de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Desarrollo de Negocios, se puede contactar al correo: angeles_lopez@utcj.edu.mx.

José Luis Venegas Mendiola, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, es profesor de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Clasificación Arancelaria, se puede contactar al correo: jose_venegas@utcj.edu.mx.

Joaquín Godoy Mendoza, Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez Javier Zepeda Miranda, es profesor de tiempo completo en la Universidad Tecnológica de Ciudad Juárez, en el área de Clasificación Arancelaria, Impartiendo clases en la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez en el Instituto de Ingeniería y Tecnología, se puede contactar al correo: joaquin_godoy@utcj.edu.mx.

Oscar Priego Hernandez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco

RESUMEN

Las finanzas Públicas son el instrumento que utilizan los gobiernos para alentar o desarrollar la economía, fomentar la actividad económica y buscar una adecuada redistribución del ingreso. La principal fuente de recursos de este país, proviene de los ingresos que genera la actividad petrolera que representa actualmente el 40% de de los ingresos tributarios. La problemática de la actividad petrolera en México afecta el desempeño de las finanzas públicas en la obtención y distribución de los recursos públicos y su impacto social en la población. La investigación tiene por objetivo mostrar como un país con abundantes recursos petroleros, hoy todavía muestra rezagos en materia de redistribución del gasto público que se reflejan en la calidad de vida. Se propone fortalecer las finanzas públicas como un instrumento de redistribución para combatir las desigualdades sociales del país, diversificar la economía para disminuir la dependencia de los recursos petroleros en los ingresos del Estado, establecer políticas públicas que permitan reorientar el gasto público con enfoque social, mejorar el sistema de operación de la renta petrolera de Pemex promoviendo una reforma fiscal integral con la finalidad de hacerla eficiente, autosuficiente y competitiva a nivel internacional,

PALABRAS CLAVE: finanzas públicas, petróleo desarrollo social, empresa

EVALUACIÓN DE LA COMPETITIVIDAD Y USO DE TIC EN LAS INSTITUCIONES EDUCACIÓN DEL VALLE DE TECOMÁN, COLIMA, MÉXICO

Oscar Mares Bañuelos, Universidad de Colima Jesús Martín Santos Virgen, Universidad de Colima Arquímedes Arcega Ponce, Universidad de Colima Alfredo Salvador Cárdenas Villalpando, Universidad de Colima Porfirio Rodríguez Espinosa, Universidad de Colima

RESUMEN

El propósito de esta trabajo es dar seguimiento a la evaluación de la competitividad en Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación (TIC) de las escuelas públicas del Valle de Tecomán, Colima, analizando la capacidad instalada en las instituciones educativas, de los niveles básico, medio superior y superior, durante el periodo 2009-2010, y evaluar su aprovechamiento educativo. La metodología consistió en la aplicación de un instrumento, recolección, diseño y análisis de datos estadísticos. Las conclusiones muestran que las TIC en la educación son un área de interés en las instituciones educativas, elevando la competitividad, sin embargo, la mayoría de ellas carece de planeación estratégica en el uso de TIC, preocupación primordial de esta investigación.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Competitividad Educativa, Eficiencia Docente, Tecnología Educativa, Actualización Tecnológica.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to assess competitiveness in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in public schools in Tecomán, Colima, analyzing the educational infrastructure, in basic, middle and higher during the period 2009-2010, and evaluate educational performance. Based on a theoretical framework and literature review, a consistent methodology was applied in the collection, design and data analysis supported by statistical research surveys and interviews with principals, selected by stratified simple random sampling to obtain representative segments of the municipality Tecomán. The results show that ICT in education is an area of interest in the educational institutions, raising the competitiveness, nevertheless, the majority of they lacks of strategic tactics.

KEYWORDS: Educational Competitiveness, Educational Efficiency, Educational Technology, Technological Update.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Antecedentes

Las demandas de calidad educativa exigen a las instituciones ubicarse en un contexto de gran competitividad, mejorar la gestión, reubicarse en un escenario globalizado, con los cambios que requiere esta situación, a saber: ejercicio de la interdisciplinariedad, dominio de lenguas extranjeras, movilidad de docentes y estudiantes, y sistemas compartidos de acreditación (Miguel Zabalza, 2002).

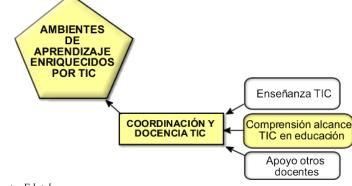
McLuhan (1967) ya hablaba del aula sin muros con la revolución de la comunicación, que en la actualidad es uno de los grandes retos del educador del siglo XXI. Las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación (TIC) globalizadas, tienen implicaciones para la competitividad en la educación y para una sociedad formada en un sentido cultural amplio, a manera de revolución educativa, tal como lo plantea

Brunner (2000), cuando se habla de revoluciones educativas el análisis se refiere precisamente a cambios de paradigma bajo el cual se organiza la tarea social de la educación. En la historia, dichos procesos han sido siempre producto de cambios en el entorno en que opera la educación, y son procesos que toman largo tiempo en producirse (pág. 45).

Contexto: El caso de estudio circunscribe en el Valle de Tecomán Colima, el cual se encuentra delimitado al sur por la costa del océano Pacífico, a 60 Kms., del puerto de Manzanillo –enlace a Asia y la Cuenca del Pacífico-, a 45 Kms de la capital, Colima. Cuenta con una población urbana aproximada de 110 000 hab. y sus tierras son ricas en la producción de limón, mango, papaya, sandia, melón, plátano y coco.

Objetivos específicos: Con esta investigación se pretende conocer, cuantificar y analizar la Competitividad Académica de las instituciones de educación de Tecomán en relación con las TIC. Primero, analizar y evaluar la Competitividad Académica de las IE, en función de las variables estratégicas de aprovechamiento escolar de los alumnos. Segundo, cuantificar y clasificar los resultados educativos que debe alcanzar las IE para ser consideradas de calidad de acuerdo al gobierno de México (lineamientos de la SESIC-SEP). Tercero, Proponer y dar seguimiento a un plan para mejorar la competitividad académica de las IE.

Figura 1: Los ambientes de aprendizaje en las TIC.



Fuente: Eduteka.org

La Población Objetivo

Esta revolución implica competitividad educativa, pues las TIC constituyen una herramienta para estos procesos. En esta investigación se hace una descripción del impacto de las TIC en el sector educativo en la región de Tecomán, Colima:

"El avance de la tecnología, ofrece la posibilidad de contar con una modalidad diferente de educación formal, ya que las TIC, se pueden utilizar como medios propicios para aprender".

La mayoría de las escuelas públicas del municipio de Tecomán cuentan con Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación (TIC) para agilizar el aprendizaje de sus alumnos, pero algunos de los profesores que ahí laboran no están lo suficientemente capacitados para enseñar a los estudiantes adecuadamente sobre el uso de estas, por lo tanto es importante analizar a profundidad la situación actual de la implementación o uso de las TIC. El presente estudio extrajo una muestra estratificada y significativa de la población del padrón SEP-USE (de 65 instituciones de educación pública del municipio de Tecomán) identificadas por la investigación.

REVISION LITERARIA

Las TIC En El Sector Educativo

TIC e innovación: Las TIC amplían los espacios y tiempos de contacto potencial de los alumnos con el conocimiento y aportan nuevas formas y contenidos culturales que convierten a la información en un factor de formación educativa. Por tanto, la revolución tecnológica da una oportunidad para una revolución si se pone al servicio de la educación y difusión del conocimiento. Castells (1998) señala las implicaciones sociales de la revolución tecnológica, y los fines educativos de la llamada sociedad del conocimiento (Bustamante, 2000) que afecta la educación.

Cambios de paradigmas: Para Cabero (2004) las TIC suponen un cambio de paradigma que altera las tradicionales relaciones entre el medio didáctico y la teoría del aprendizaje, así como la producción e investigación y formas de enseñanza que dominaron el campo de las funciones educativas, incrementando sus posibilidades de acción. Se ha sostenido que aprender a vivir y a trabajar con computadoras debe figurar entre los objetivos de rendimiento básico de cada uno de los curricula educativos contemporáneos (Littleton y Ligth, 2002).

Figura 2: Estados Unidos Mexicanos, división política.



Fuente: es.wikipedia.org/.

TIC y la actividad económica: El concepto de tecnologías de la información engloba todas aquellas actividades económicas y sociales que tienen que ver con el uso e intercambio de la información (Rojo, 2001).Por otra parte, la innovación es la función específica del emprendimiento, ya sea para una empresa existente, en una institución de servicio público o en una nueva empresa iniciada por un solo individuo en el medio familiar. El término emprendedor, por lo tanto, no alude al tamaño o la edad de una empresa, sino a cierto tipo de actividad. En el núcleo de esa actividad está la innovación: el esfuerzo de crear un cambio deliberado, concentrado en el potencial económico o social de una empresa (P. Drucker).

Adquisición de competencias en las TIC: Se considera que las TIC pueden provocar cambios positivos en los procesos y estrategias didácticas y pedagógicas implementadas por los docentes, promover experiencias de aprendizaje más creativas y diversas, y propiciar un aprendizaje independiente permanente de acuerdo a las necesidades de los individuos. Algunas razones del uso de las TIC son el que los alumnos adquieran competencias básicas en su manejo que les permitan aprovechar las ventajas que proporcionan las TIC y sobre todo para la innovación en las prácticas docentes: aprovechar las nuevas posibilidades didácticas que ofrecen las TIC. Nos encontramos frente a una expansión sin límites de las empresas que se dedican a la explotación de las llamadas TIC y conectividad... (Cortés de Cervantes,

2006, marzo, 89-92.), derivado de ello, nos encontramos con la sociedad red (Castells, 1999), entonces no hay alternativa, sino aprovechar los beneficios en la educación que nos ofrece la nueva estructura tecnológica.

La permeabilidad de las TIC: Es bien sabido que, poco a poco, las TIC van haciéndose un hueco en el entramado educativo, baste echar un vistazo a la gran cantidad de textos y estudios que sobre la temática se están produciendo. Gracias a algunos de ellos podemos conocer el amplio espectro de la implementación de las TIC a la práctica escolar (Pérez Gómez y Sola, 2007; Einsenberg y Berkowitz, 2005; Bosco, 2004; Hawkins, 2004; Hutchings y Standley, 2004; Moursund, 1999; Dodge, 1995).

TIC versus capacitación del profesorado: Centrándonos en el uso de las TIC, no podemos comparar el grado de utilización en labores meramente administrativas con su implementación en las prácticas curriculares, ya que la formación y la preparación del profesorado en la utilización de las herramientas digitales para las tareas puramente burocráticas es mucho más automática.

Predominio de la visión clásica de la enseñanza: En muchos aspectos se tiende a perpetuar la visión clásica de la educación pues, las estrategias didácticas, en bastantes ocasiones se limitan a desarrollar actividades en la pantalla, como si las estuvieran realizando en el libro de texto. Así pues, si caemos en este error, con los dispositivos digitales, estaríamos reforzando el modelo más tradicional. (Rodríguez, Paulapozuelos, 2009).

Figura 2: Índice de TIC, posicionamiento de México

PAÍS	ATRACTIVO FINANCIERO	RECURSOS HUMANOS	AMBIENTE DE NEGOCIOS	ÍNDICE
Chile	2.41	1.20	1.89	5.50
México	2.48	1.50	1.45	5.43
Brasil	2.18	1.83	1.37	5.38
Estados Unidos	0.47	2.71	2.15	5.33
Costa Rica	2.67	0.89	1.50	5.06
Jamaica	2.77	0.79	1.49	5.05
Argentina	2.47	1.34	1.21	5.02
Canadá	0.54	2.10	2.38	5.02
Uruguay	2.46	1.00	1.43	4.89
Panamá	2.48	0.70	1.40	4.58

Fuente: A.T. Kearney, 2009, México.

COMPETITIVIDAD EN TIC: UE y LATINOAMERICA

La introducción, consolidación y crecimiento de las TIC en la Unión Europea ha tenido como consecuencia implicaciones sociales y educativas, con perspectivas para el siglo XXI con una estrategia para enfrentar la acción conjunta de los estados miembros para coordinar su arribo a la Sociedad de la Información, con planes de acción y tareas a realizar por comisiones especiales creadas para facilitar la plena integración de las nuevas plataformas educativas de comunicación a la sociedad europea, con un abaratamiento a gran escala del proceso de producción, paralelo a la generación de una mayor variedad de productos, con sustitución de mano de obra por la automatización digital de medios de comunicación.

Los servicios de información digitales con un componente decisivo de una nueva economía de servicios, que apoye la integración europea. Con este propósito los sectores públicos y privados comenzaron a trabajar con la intención de convertir las oportunidades en beneficios reales, preparándose para reformular

sus estrategias y opciones ante las grandes ventajas que significa la sociedad de la información y se experimentaron profundos cambios con la convergencia tecnológica y el establecimiento de la infraestructura para brindar a la sociedad europea pleno acceso a la sociedad de la información con transmisión de banda ancha. En España, las autoras Marín y Romero (2009) hacen una llamada de atención sobre la posibilidad formativa que los sistemas tecnológicos prestan a los docentes universitarios. Para ellas, la formación de los docentes universitarios es una preocupación de los poderes políticos que gobiernan tanto el país como las Universidades.

En América Latina, Fishman y Ramírez (2008), realizaron entrevistas semiestructuradas a 75 informantes clave en Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador y México, para analizar la perspectiva asumida por los involucrados en los procesos de incorporación de las TIC en los sistemas educativos públicos, con numerosos problemas de eficiencia, acceso, equidad y justicia en comparación con la competitividad alcanzada por los países europeos al introducir las TIC (Demo, 2005, Tedesco, 2006).

Las TIC constituyen medios de comunicación de toda variedad y ganancia de información científica, a los cuales las personas pueden acceder por sus propios recursos, es decir potencian la educación, por lo cual es casi una necesidad del alumno contar con las TIC para poder llegar a toda la información posible (Gonzalez, Alfaro y Alfaro 2005).

- a. En México existen 23 clusters de TIs distribuidos en 20 estados. Más del 60 por ciento de los estados cuentan con capacidad productiva en TI.
- b. El gran tamaño de México permite que varias ciudades se constituyan en centros proveedores de servicios, lo cual le otorga a México una ventaja sobre otros países que dependen de la disponibilidad de fuerza laboral concentrada en una sola ciudad.
- c. El mercado de los Servicios de TI y Software en el país ha presentado un crecimiento sostenido en los últimos años. Business Monitor estima que el mercado del sector alcanzará 10 mil 195 millones de dólares en 2013. (AMITI, 2010).

Las TIC en los Curricula

Es plantea como fundamental, introducir la informática en la escuela como contenido curricular y como medio didáctico. Por lo tanto, los programas dirigidos a la formación de los profesores en el uso educativo de las nuevas TIC se proponen los siguientes objetivos:

- a. Contribuir a la actualización del Sistema Educativo que una sociedad fuertemente influida por las nuevas tecnologías demanda.
- b. Facilitar a los profesores la adquisición de bases teóricas y destrezas operativas que les permitan integrar, en su práctica docente, los medios didácticos en general y los basados en nuevas tecnologías en particular.
- c. Adquirir una visión global sobre la integración de las nuevas tecnologías en el currículum, analizando las modificaciones que sufren sus diferentes elementos: contenidos, metodología, evaluación, etc.
- d. Capacitar a los profesores para reflexionar sobre su propia práctica, evaluando el papel y la contribución de estos medios al proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje.
- e. Buscar las oportunidades de ayuda o de mejora en la educación explorando las posibilidades educativas de las TIC sobre el terreno, es decir, en todos los entornos y circunstancias que la realidad presenta.

METODOLOGÍA

El presente estudio en su carácter cuantitativo, requirió definir las técnicas de recolección de datos o instrumentos necesarios para obtener resultados de investigación representativos de la población (*J.* Neil Salkind, 1999, Cap. 7: Recopilación de datos y estadística descriptiva). Este proceso, implicó la selección de un instrumento de medición valido y confiable, que pudiera ser aplicado para obtener información de interés para el estudio y susceptibles de analizar.

Técnica: La técnica usada para la recolección de datos fue la encuesta estandarizada, caracterizada por una observación indirecta a través de lo manifestado por las personas encuestadas y complementada con la información recogida por los aplicadores y su observación.

Instrumento: La encuesta consta de 17 preguntas en escala de Likert, distribuidas en 3 secciones (una por variable), la cual se utilizo para poder obtener datos cuantificables, reales y confiables para su posterior análisis a través de gráficos, tablas y métodos estadísticos.

Población y muestra La población total de la investigación, es decir, el número total de escuelas públicas, tanto de nivel básico, medio superior y superior del Municipio de Tecomán se enlista a continuación:

Nivel de confiabilidad: El Nivel de Confianza que se tomó para la obtención de la muestra para el sector educativo primario, es de 95%, con un margen de error de 5% y con una población de 40, obteniendo una muestra total de 35 instituciones de esta categoría.

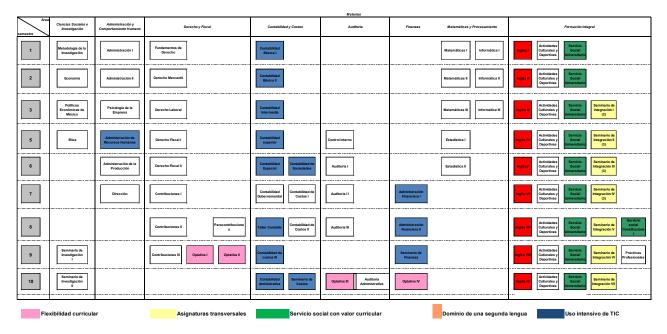


Figura 3: Mapa curricular de un programa educativo (PE de CP, FCAT)

Fuente: DES FCAT, Tecomán, Colima, México

Nótese como el porcentaje de uso de TIC es menor al 20% en las áreas disciplinares, aunque según entrevistas, la gestión educativa (proceso de acompañamiento, tutorías, y demás funciones administrativas) hacen uso de herramientas electrónicas y de conectividad.

El tamaño de muestra: La confianza y el margen de error son los mismos que se tomaron para obtener la muestra de los demás niveles. Por lo tanto la muestra total del nivel secundario fue de 14 instituciones, mientras para bachilleratos es de 5 y para el nivel superior se obtuvieron 3 instituciones.

Figura 4: Población del estudio de Competitividad

NIVEL EDUCATIVO	CANTIDAD
Primaria	40
Secundaria	16
Bachillerato	6
Nivel superior	3
Universo Total	65

Fuente: Elaboración FCAT-UCOL junio 2010.

Figura 4: Software para calculo estadístico

Resultado Tamaño de Muestra 49		 Datos Proporcionados por el Usuario Los renglones sin paloma son datos
Error Máximo:	5 %	considerados por el Sistema
🖌 Confianza:	90 %	Escriba alguna indicación que requiera que aparezca en l impresión
Tamaño Aproximado de la Proporción:	50 %	E State Stat
Efecto de Diseño	1	
Tasa de Respuesta:	100 %	
Tamaño de la Población:	61	
6	Q +	Definiciones

Fuente: Universidad de Aguascalientes

Software: Se eligieron los ítems (escuelas) al azar, las cuales se encuestarán. Para obtener la muestra del experimento se utilizó un software programación: Consulta Mitofsky; empresa mexicana dedicada a realizar análisis estadísticos.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados confirman que las TIC en la educación, fortalecen los procesos y mejoran los resultados educativos. En lo referente al impacto de las TIC, se encontró que el binomio (profesores actualizados, motivación del estudiante) obtienen más del 50% para toda la población.

Figura 5: Impacto de las TIC en la formación de recursos humanos-1.

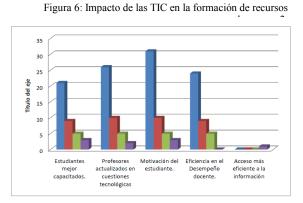
	Primaria	Secundaria	Bachillerato	Facultad
Estudiantes mejor capacitados.	21	9	5	3
Profesores actualizados	26	10	5	2
Motivación del estudiante	31	10	5	3
Eficiencia Docente.	24	9	5	0
Acceso a la información	0	0	0	1

Fuente: Elaboración propia, FCAT Tecomán, Colima, México.

Las plataformas educativas en más del 70% se distribuyen en educación básica (primaria, secundaria), puesto que estas plataformas están auspiciadas por el Gobierno Federal. En relación al uso de estas, se

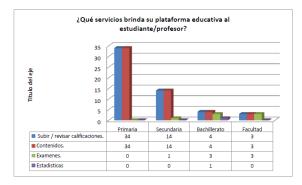
nota que más del 80% se usan en la gestión de contenidos educativos (de todos los niveles) y en administración educativa.

Un dato que nos revela de manera muy significativa, son los referentes a la planeación estratégica en relación a las TIC, puesto que la mayoría de las instituciones no planea la gestión, uso e impacto de estas en el ámbito educativo. Consideremos pues, que el problema en el uso y gestión de TIC, tiene que ver con el modelo de gestión administrativa o de planeación educativa de las instituciones, sean públicas o privadas.



Fuente: Elaboración propia, FCAT Tecomán, Colima, México.

Figura 7: Implementación de plataformas educativas-2.



Fuente: Elaboración propia, FCAT Tecomán, Colima, México.

Figura 7: Implementación de plataformas educativas-1.



Fuente: Elaboración propia, FCAT Tecomán, Colima, México.



Figura 8: Planeación estratégica educativas.

Fuente: Elaboración propia, FCAT Tecomán, Colima, México.

Bachillerato

3

2

Secundaria

8

6

Facultad

3

0

Nota: Las tres variables analizadas a las 65 instituciones de educación de los tres niveles en el Valle de Tecomán, fueron: infraestructura o capacidad instalada, capital humano y gestión administrativa en TIC. Planteadas en 17 ítems del instrumento aplicado a niveles medios y altos de la población objetivo.

0

SI

■N0

Primaria

15

20

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados de las investigaciones sobre el uso de estos nuevos sistemas, demuestran que la generalización de las TIC, por si solas, no garantizan el aprendizaje (Bustamante, 2001) y aun mas, Márquez (2006) señala que hay indefinición sobre los objetivos que se pretenden conseguir a través de las inversiones en TIC. Por otra parte, Olivar y Daza (2007) señala que un alto porcentaje de educadores (en España) no acceden de manera regular las TIC y los que las usan, no las utilizan para la enseñanza.

a. Las TIC en educación, deben potenciar las competencias, habilidades, actitudes y valores de los educandos, para incrementar el capital humano: Delors "aprender a aprender", (1997), (variable 2) y por ende la competitividad de las organizaciones.

- b. En las instituciones educativas, existe el interés casi intuitivo, de acceder a los recursos de TIC, es decir de la infraestructura (variable 1) sin embargo no se contemplan estudios claros de que se necesita para desarrollar las actividades educativas.
- c. Se nota una grave ausencia de planeación estratégica en materia de TIC, consideramos que sin una planeación estratégica (variable 3) no se puede avanzar con visión de futuro en los nuevos paradigmas educativos.

Consideramos que, la educación es un proceso de crecimiento integral de los individuos y en este sentido, la planeación educativa debe comprender un modelo integral en ella, es decir, debe incorporarse la voluntad de los tres niveles económico-político-social: gobierno-empresa-academia.

Por lo tanto, el nuevo paradigma implica crear momentos de aprendizaje con soporte de nuevas tecnologías lo cual significa usar las TIC de forma eficiente, pasando de la era de la información, a la era de la gestión del conocimiento.

Para investigaciones posteriores en materia de TIC, se ha propuesto una vertiente de trabajo sobre la materia en tres ramas: Agro Negocios, Salud y Educación, puesto que son áreas estratégicas en este polo de desarrollo del Estado de Colima. Recientemente, se espera la gestión para la creación de un Cluster de Desarrollo de Software para el Valle de Tecomán, en esfuerzo de los tres niveles de Gobierno, a lo cual, se espera la suma de todos los actores de influencia en el tema.

Un libro abierto es un cerebro que habla; cerrado un amigo que espera; olvidado, un alma que perdona; destruido, un corazón que llora.

Proverbio hindú.

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COMPROBACIÓN DE RANDOM WALK EN EL MERCADO BURSÁTIL DE COLOMBIA

Juan Benjamín Duarte Duarte, Universidad Industrial de Santander-Colombia Juan Manuel Mascareñas Pérez-Iñigo, Universidad Complutense de Madrid-España

RESUMEN

Uno de los supuestos básicos de los modelos de valoración de activos financieros, es el Random Walk [RW] de los precios de las acciones, es por ello que el presente trabajo busca comprobar este requisito, tanto al Índice General de la Bolsa de Valores de Colombia-IGBVC como a las acciones más representativas del mercado colombiano. Para tal fin se comprueba inicialmente y por diferentes métodos estadísticos que las series bursátiles no siguen el patrón de una distribución normal. Por otra parte al indagar sobre la RW, mediante los test de Rachas, Q_{LB} y Bartlett, se concluye que en términos generales las series bursátiles colombianas carecen de aleatoriedad total, presentando comportamientos autorregresivos de primero y/o segundo orden, sin embargo para el caso particular del IGBVC se comprueba un mejoramiento hacia la caminata aleatoria para los años 2008 al 2010.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Camina aleatoria, RW, autorregresión, series bursátiles, pruebas de rachas, Q_{LB} y Bartlett, Hipótesis de Eficiencia de Mercado.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La comprobación de la RW de un mercado, se fundamenta en determinar si los precios de los instrumentos se generan de forma impredecible y que por tal motivo no permite pronosticar sistemáticamente el precio futuro de los activos, imposibilitando el arbitramiento por parte de alguno de los participantes del mercado. La Hipótesis de caminata aleatoria parte del supuesto de que el mercado cuenta con muchos participantes que constantemente están valorando independientemente mediante análisis técnico y/o fundamental toda nueva información y que a su modo de ver es relevante en la formación de los precios, lo cual a su vez genera el movimiento "instantáneo" y aleatorio de los mismos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La caminata aleatoria se estructura en tres versiones diferentes RW1, RW2 y RW3. (Campbell, Lo, & Mackinley, 1997), definen la versión de RW1 como la hipótesis de caminata aleatoria en la cual los incrementos de precios (ó retornos) son independiente e idénticamente distribuidos [i.d.d.], la ecuación (2) describe este comportamiento. Entre los test usados para probar la RW1 se encuentran la prueba de secuencias y reversas, test de rachas, test de cociente de varianza de Campbell, Lo y Mackinlay (1997) y el test BDS. La RW2, a diferencia de la anterior exige que los incrementos sean independientes, mas no idénticamente distribuidos, es por ello que la RW2 permite heteroscedasticidad en los errores, lo cual es útil cuando se analizan series de tiempo financieras que generalmente presentan comportamientos variables en el tiempo, los filtro de Alexander y el análisis técnico son las metodologías usadas para probar este tipo de caminata aleatoria. Por último la RW3, permite incrementos con dependencia pero no correlacionados. Entre los test usados para comprobar este comportamiento se encuentran el test Q de Box-Piece y Q_{LB} de Ljung - Box, la prueba de Bartlett, las pruebas de Raíz unitaria de Dickey-Fuller - DF y DFA y el modelo Autorregresivo ARIMA (Box – Jenkins).

Entre los pioneros de la caminata aleatoria se tiene a (Bachelier, 1900), quien en su tesis doctoral *"Théorie de la Spéculation"* desarrolla la teoría matemática y estadística del movimiento browniano, explicando la eficiencia de los mercados en función del comportamiento de una martingala. Años más tarde fue (Cowles, 1933) y (Cowless, 1944), quien por primera vez estudia empíricamente el nivel de asertividad de las recomendaciones de los analistas de bolsa, llegando a la conclusión de que sus opiniones no prevén sistemáticamente el mercado, reforzando así para ese entonces, la teoría de que el mercado es eficiente.

Ya en la economía financiera moderna (Fama E., 1965), analiza la teoría de la caminata aleatoria a la luz de investigaciones empíricas sobre el uso de este modelo para describir los mercados bursátiles, resaltando el reto que enfrentan los *chartistas* al intentar predecir los precios de las acciones en presencia de aleatoriedad. La distinción entre eficiencia fuerte y débil fue propuesto por primera vez por (Roberts, 1967), sin embargo fue (Fama E., 1970) quien estructura los tres niveles de eficiencia en función del grado de información con que se cuenta (fully reflect).

En Latinoamérica durante la última década y media, se han destacado trabajos relacionados con la eficiencia de mercado, es así como uno de los primeros en comprobar la aleatoriedad de mercados bursátiles en Latinoamérica fue (Urrutia, 1995), en su trabajo testea los mercados de Argentina, Chile y México para el periodo 1975 y 1991, mediante pruebas de Corridas (rachas) y razón de varianzas, llegando a la conclusión de que estos mercados no cumplen con la caminata aleatoria. Años más tarde, (Harvey & Viscanta, 1997), rechaza la RW, para la Bolsa de Valores de Medellín de Colombia en el periodo 1987 a 1994. En 1999 (Ojah & Karemera, 1999), no rechazan la eficiencia en los mercados de Argentina, Brasil Chile y México, para el periodo 1987 a 1997.

Para el nuevo milenio, (Delfiner, 2002), comprueba para el periodo 1993 a 1998, la eficiencia relativa de los mercados de Argentina Vs Estados Unidos, concluyendo que efectivamente en el caso de Argentina se pueden tener rentabilidades extras, pero que al incluir las comisiones, estas se pierden. En su tesis, (Valdivieso, 2004) Analiza entre otros estudios, la eficiencia del mercado de México en el periodo 1994 a 1999, encontrando rechazo a la caminata aleatoria. En el 2004 (Maya & Torres, 2004), llevan a cabo un estudio similar al de Harvey y Visconta (1997), solo que para un periodo diferente, encontrando un resultado contrario, es decir de aceptación de la RW para el mercado colombiano. Por último (Guardia, 2005), estudia la eficiencia de los mercados de Argentina, Brasil, Chile, México y Perú, para el periodo 1990 al 2005, la conclusión es de aceptación del comportamiento aleatorio de los rendimientos.

METODOLOGÍA Y RESULTADOS

La Bolsa de valores de Colombia [BVC] en el año 2001, consolida en un índice los mercados bursátiles de Bogotá, Medellín y Cali, los cuales hasta ese entonces operaban por separado. Por tal razón se considera razonable el iniciar la presente investigación desde este año, con miras a analizar la evolución del mercado colombiano después de la consolidación. Mediante el principio de pareto, se determinan las empresas más representativas en el mercado bursátil colombiano, tomando como criterio la participación del activo en el índice general de la bolsa de valores de Colombia [IGBVC] durante lo corrido del 2010. Las empresas que representan el 71% del mercado son: ECOPETROL, PFBCOLOM, GRUPOSURA, CEMARGOS, ISAGEN, ETB..La variable que sistemáticamente se usa para el análisis de series bursátiles es la rentabilidad del activo financiero representada como:

$$R_i = Ln\left[\frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}\right] \tag{1}$$

*Estadísticas:*Con el fin de conocer el comportamiento de los datos, se hace necesario someterlos a un análisis estadístico que permita definir el ajuste o no de los datos a la distribución normal. De la tabla 1., se puede destacar que el sesgo y la curtosis de los diferentes instrumentos bursátiles, no corresponden a los característicos de una distribución normal, principalmente el momento cuatro, el cual en todos los casos es superior al de la distribución Normal de 3. Otra observación importante es el hecho de que los

máximos y mínimos de las series están por fuera de +/- 5 desviaciones estándar, reflejando colas largas en las distribuciones, comportamiento no típico en distribuciones normales. La media y mediana de los diferentes activos son próximas a cero, pero diferentes la una de la otra. En resumen, de las estadísticas básicas se observa: fuerte lectocurtosis en todos los activos; simetría diferente de cero especialmente en GRUPOSURA y CEMARGOS; distribuciones con colas largas, lo que lleva a prever que ninguna de las series analizadas se comporta como una distribución normal.

	Media	Median	Máx.	Mín.	Dev.	SW	К	Jarque	Р
Activo					Std.			Bera	
IGBVC	0.00118	0.00151	0.147	-0.11	0.015	-0.23	15.5	14,480	0.0
ECOPETROL	0.00068	0.00041	0.100	-0.13	0.018	-0.77	13.0	2,763	0.0
PFBCOLOM	0.00161	0.00041	0.103	-0.17	0.020	-0.64	11.5	5,732	0.0
GRUPOSURA	0.00155	0.00106	0.252	-0.43	0.023	-2.61	69.3	407,063	0.0
CEMARGOS	0.00037	0.00000	0.169	-1.59	0.039	-30.26	1216.8	140000	0.0
ISAGEN	0.00021	-0.0001	0.093	-0.10	0.014	0.47	15.4	4,283	0.0
ЕТВ	0.00040	-0.0003	0.109	-0.09	0.020	0.21	7.6	776	0.0

Tabla 1: Estadísticas de las Series Bursátiles

La tabla presenta los cuatro primeros momentos de las series bursátiles colombianas, así como también el estadístico de comprobación de normalidad de los datos. SW es la simetría, K es la curtosis y P es el "p_valor"

La presunción de no normalidad de las series, detectada mediante el análisis de los 4 primeros momentos, se corrobora mediante el test Jarque-Bera, tal como se deduce de los datos de la tabla 1., donde los diferentes activos financieros presentan un estadísticos *JB* muy superior a una $X_{2\,g.l.}^2$ y un p_valor igual a cero para todos los casos, por lo cual se rechaza la hipótesis de normalidad en las series bursátiles. A continuación se procede a realizar la inferencia estadística con miras a determinar si se cumple o no la hipótesis de caminata aleatoria en los activos financieros estudiados.

Pruebas de Hipótesis de RW: Como se ilustra en el marco teórico, existen diferentes pruebas para la caminata aleatoria en series de datos. En el presente estudio se procederá en primer lugar a aplicar el test no paramétrico de Rachas (teniendo en cuenta la no normalidad de los datos), el cual busca probar si los incrementos de los retornos son independiente e idénticamente distribuidos, es decir la versión RW1 del modelo de caminata aleatoria. Por otro lado para comprobar la versión RW3 se estima el test Q de Ljung-Box Q_{LB} , que junto con el respectivo análisis de las autocorrelaciones sugerido por (Bartlett, 1946), buscan determinar si los retornos están o no correlacionados [RW3].

Test de Rachas: La prueba no paramétrica de rachas ó prueba Wald y Wolfowitz (Wald & Wolfowitz, 1940), busca probar la hipótesis de mercado eficiente o RW1, valiéndose para ello del análisis del número total de rachas R que se presentan en la serie, de tal forma que cantidades muy pequeñas o muy grandes reflejan no aleatoriedad en la generación de los datos. El estadístico de decisión está determinado por la estandarización del R, mediante la siguiente ecuación:

$$Z_{Estimado} = \frac{R-\mu}{\sigma}$$
(2)

Al estimar el estadístico Z de la prueba de rachas, se comprueba que todos los activos financieros presentan un p_valor próximo a cero, por tal motivo se rechaza la hipótesis da caminata aleatoria RW1. Las empresas ISAGEN y ETB se destacan por contar con p_valor diferente de cero, como son 1.1% y 4.2% respectivamente.

Análisis De Autocorrelación

Con el fin de comprobar la autocorrelación en los activos bursátiles colombianos, se aplican a continuación varias pruebas: en primer lugar se estimara el test Q de Ljung-Box y simultáneamente se determina si los coeficientes de autocorrelación son de tipo ruido blanco, siguiendo el planteamiento de Bartlett (1946). Para la contrastación de las pruebas Q_{LB} y Bartlett, se procede de la siguiente forma: primero y con el fin de evaluar la evolución del IGBV en el tiempo, se aplican los test dividiendo el periodo de estudio en sub-periodos de 500 observaciones cada uno, los cuales van desde el 4 Julio de 2001 al 26 Julio 2010 y en segundo lugar se evalúan los datos para todo el periodo de análisis (2001-2010) a las 6 empresas objeto de estudio.

En primera instancia al estimar el test Q_{LB} , se encuentra que el p_valor es cero, tanto para el periodo total como para los diferentes sub-periodos, excepto para el último sub-periodo que va del 8 de abril de 2008 a 26 de julio de 2010, esto significa que se pasa de rechazar la hipótesis conjunta de que la autocorrelaciones para cinco días de rezago son estadísticamente iguales a cero para los sub-periodos del 2001 al 2008, a no rechazar esta misma hipótesis para el periodo 2008 a 2010. Por otro lado, de la prueba individual de Bartlett del IBVC, se extrae que la autocorrelación para el primer rezado (incluso para el segundo) de toda la serie (2001-2010) y los sub-periodos del 2001 al 2008 son diferentes de cero, puesto que su intervalo de confianza no incluye dicho valor, dejando entrever que el Índice podría presentar un modelo autorregresivo de primer y/o segundo orden, mientras que para el último periodo (2008-2010), todos los intervalos de confianza incluyen a cero, interpretándose que las autocorrelaciones son significativamente próximas a este valor, lo que llevaría al no rechazo de la RW3, evidenciándose así una mejora de la eficiencia de mercado colombiano en los dos últimos años.

En segunda instancia al analizar las series financieras de las empresas bajo estudio, se llega al rechazo de la hipótesis "*conjunta*" de que las autocorrelaciones sean cero para todos las empresas, exceptuándose los activos ECOPETROL e ISAGEN que presentan p_valores superiores al 5% en su primer rezago, lo cual denotaría que los precios de estos dos activos en un día determinado no se ven afectados por los precios del día inmediatamente anterior. Por otro lado para hipótesis "*individual*" de autocorrelación cero, se encuentra que los intervalos de confianza de los diferentes activos para los retardos 3, 4 y 5, incluyen a cero, queriendo decir que las series no presentan autocorrelaciones significativas para estos retardos. Sin embargo para la mayoría de los retardos 1 y 2 sucede lo contrario, es decir se rechaza la Hipótesis nula de que el verdadero valor ρ_k es cero y por tal razón se podría creer que los precios de los activos financieros son explicables en parte, por la cotización que presente el activo uno o dos días previos. Las empresas que mejor ilustran esta última apreciación son los activos Ecopetrol e ISAGEN, que presentan autocorrelaciones negativas en el segundo rezago del -0.16 y -0.14 respectivamente, similar situación presenta ETB, solo que con autocorrelación positiva de 0.15 en el primer rezago.

CONCLUSIONES

Por diferentes métodos estadísticos se comprueba que las series bursátiles no siguen el patrón de la una distribución normal. Al comprobar la RW mediante los test de Rachas, se deduce que en términos generales el mercado colombiano carece de eficiencia de mercado en su forma débil, sin embargo del estudio de las autocorrelaciones mediante los test Q_{LB} y Bartlett, para diferentes sub-periodos (2001 al 2010) se comprueba un mejoramiento en la HME en el IGBVC para los dos últimos años (2008-2010).

Como complemento del presente trabajo se podría pensar en estudiar anomalías de mercado tales como efecto fin de semana y efecto fin de mes, entre otras, con el fin de detectar si cabe la posibilidad de arbitraje por parte de algún inversor.

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Duarte Duarte, Juan Benjamín. Profesor Asociado Escuela de Estudios Ind. y Empresariales, Universidad Industrial Bucaramanga- Santander-Colombia, jduarte@uis.edu.co y jbduarted@hotmail.com

Dr. Mascareñas Pérez-Iñigo, Juan Manuel. Profesor Catedrático Economía Financiera, Universidad Complutense de Madrid Somosaguas- España, http://www.ucm.es/info/jmas/, Director Postgrado Oficial Interuniversitario UCM-UAM *Finanzas de Empresa* http://www.ucm.es/info/jmas/finemp/finemp.htm

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EL CICLO DE VIDA DEL CLÚSTER AUTOMOTRIZ EN AGUASCALIENTES

Bogar García Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Roberto González Acolt, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Felipe de Jesús Salvador Leal Medina, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

Con base en el estado del arte de la teoría del clúster, se construye un marco de referencia operacional, que sustenta un modelo de evaluación de ciclo de vida de clúster, con cinco niveles de desarrollo posibles (Waelbroeck-Rocha, 2004). El primero valor de 0 a 1 aglomeración, el segundo valor de 1.1 a 2 emergente, el tercero valor de 2.1 a 3 desarrollo, el cuarto valor de 3.1 a 4 madurez, y el quinto valor de 4.1 a 5 transformación. El modelo se integra con las dimensiones, estructura del clúster, gobierno del clúster, desempeño del clúster. El proyecto de investigación es cualitativo, con elementos cuantitativos, se desarrollo una guía de entrevista estructurada, que se aplico a 33 empresas del clúster automotriz de Aguascalientes, el valor obtenido es de 2.11, lo que coloca al clúster en un nivel de ciclo de vida de desarrollo, los principales hallazgos llevan a concluir que el paso a un nivel superior de desarrollo implicará toma de decisiones y acciones sobre el gobierno y estructura del clúster, que sobrepasan el nivel local, dichos resultados generan preguntas que abren espacios para investigaciones especificas en el clúster automotriz de Aguascalientes.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Se presenta un marco teórico del estado del arte en la teoría de clúster, considerando los diferentes autores, se propone un modelo, marco de referencia operativo, y se aplica al clúster automotriz de Aguascalientes, el estudio es cualitativo, con elementos cuantitativos, el instrumento de recolección de datos es una guía de entrevista estructurada, se aplica la entrevista a treinta y tres empresas del clúster automotriz de Aguascalientes, se analizan los resultados concluyendo en la determinación de un nivel de desarrollo en el ciclo de vida del clúster, se abren espacios para futuras investigaciones.

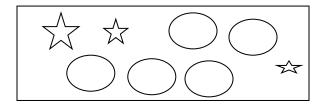
REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Elisabeth Waelbroeck crea un modelo de desarrollo de clúster, bajo un enfoque de un ciclo de vida, que consta de cinco grandes fases:

Clúster En Aglomeración

Una región tiene algunas compañías de un sector específico y otras de sectores de servicios complementarios a este sector.

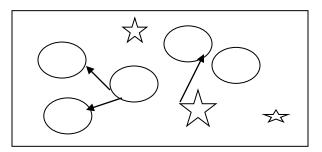
Figura 1: Aglomeración: Waelbroeck, E. (2004)



Clúster Emergente

A partir de la aglomeración Los actores del clúster empiezan a cooperar alrededor de un área de negocio específica. Generando y aprovechando oportunidades, iniciando, ligas de negocios. Desarrollando conectividad, preparándose la siguiente fase.

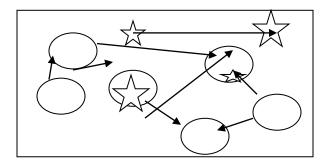
Figura 2: Clúster Emergente Waelbroeck, E. (2004)



Clúster en desarrollo

Nuevos actores se integran a la región en actividades similares desarrollando nuevas ligas de negocio, se desarrolla una imagen, etiqueta, con una connotación de la actividad de negocio que se desarrolla.

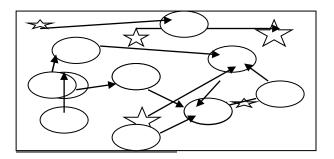
Figura 3: Clúster en desarrollo Waelbroeck, E. (2004)



Clúster Maduro

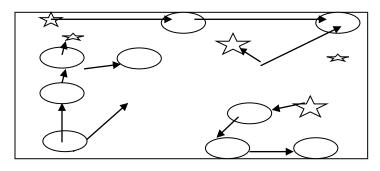
Una gran cantidad de actores sobre la misma área de negocios se ha integrado y se han establecido relaciones, ligas fuera de la región básica de influencia, con otros clusters, internamente se generan nuevas empresas, y asociaciones.

Figura 4: Maduro: Waelbroeck, E. (2004)



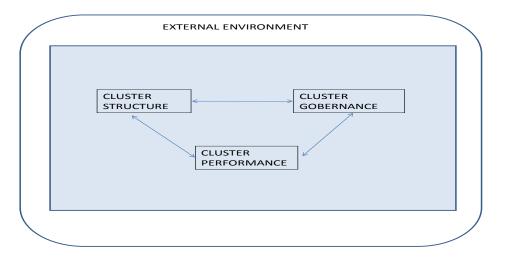
El tiempo transcurre los mercados, las tecnologías y los procesos cambian, para sobrevivir el clúster se transforma, pudiendo crearse nuevos clusters enfocándose en otras actividades, o bien simplemente adaptarse a las nuevas formas del mercado.

Figura 5: Clúster Transformación: Waelbroeck, E. (2004)



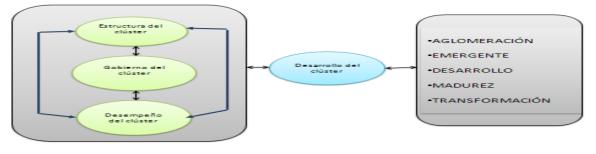
De Langen (2004). Propone el siguiente modelo para estudiar el desempeño de los clusters:

Figura 6: Modelo de desarrollo de clúster: De Langlen (2004)



La estructura del clúster, su gobierno y su desempeño son las variables que mide para explicar el clúster. Con base en el estado del arte de la teoría de clúster se desarrolla el modelo siguiente:

MARCO DE REFERENCIA OPERACIONAL



Fuente: Autor, adaptado, De Langen (2004), Waelbroeck S (2004)

El cuál se integra por las dimensiones de estructura del clúster, gobierno del clúster y desempeño del clúster, determinando un nivel de desarrollo del clúster basados en la teoría de ciclo de vida de Waaelbroeck S (2004) que determina cinco niveles, aglomeración, emergente, desarrollo , madurez, transformación.

METODOLOGÍA

Objetivos

Proponer un modelo de evaluación de ciclo de vida de clúster. Con base en el estado del arte de la teoría del clúster construir un marco de referencia operacional para determinar el ciclo de vida del clúster Con base en, el marco de referencia operacional propuesto, explicar el desarrollo del clúster automotriz en Aguascalientes. La unidad de análisis es el clúster. El enfoque es cualitativo con elementos cuantitativos, el método es deductivo y el instrumento de recolección de datos es una entrevista estructurada.Con base en la teoría de clusters se realiza la operacionalización de las variables y se construyen las preguntas que conforman una guía de entrevista estructurada, aplicándola a 33 empresas del clúster automotriz. Los valores obtenidos para cada dimensión, variable y constructo se muestran en la siguiente tabla..

RESULTADOS

- 1. Nivel de aglomeración de 0 a 1
- 2. Nivel emergente de 1.1 a 2
- 3. Nivel de desarrollo de 2.1 a 3
- 4. Nivel de madurez de 3.1 a 4
- 5. Nivel de transformación de 4.1 a 5

Valores obtenidos de las dimensiones

- Estructura Del Clúster 2.58
- Gobierno Del Clúster 2.24
- Desempeño Del Clúster 1.5

Valor integrado del nivel de desarrollo del clúster

• 2.11

Los resultados muestran que el clúster se encuentra en un nivel de desarrollo,

CONCLUSIONES

Hasta este momento el clúster automotriz se ha desarrollado en forma equilibrada, en lo que respecta a su gobierno y a su estructura, sin embargo en lo referente al desempeño muestra un nivel inferior el de emergente, debido al bajo crecimiento en miembros y a su contribución económica, la causa podría ser la crisis economica que atraviesa el sector.

En las entrevistas se observan los siguientes aspectos que pudieran ser investigados en especifico.

- 1. El clúster en más de un 90% son empresas transnacionales de todo los tamaños, y su crecimiento se da por inversión extranjera.
- 2. Los intentos de desarrollo de proveedores locales han fracasado
- 3. Las empresas líderes centralizan sus decisiones de crecimiento en su corporativo fuera de Aguascalientes
- 4. Las decisones de proveeduria estan en más de un 60% centralizadas en los corporativos
- 5. La investigación y desarrollo en la localidad es mínima y no existen planes de traerla a la entidad
- 6. En un 60 % las empresas solo producen en la entidad y las actividades de mercadeo se centralizan en otros países.

Estos puntos observados y considerados en los comentarios diversos en las entrevistas, deben ser estudiados, debido que para llegar a un nivel superior de desarrollo, habría que cambiar este escenario sobre todo en lo referente al desarrollo de empresas locales, y a la investigación y desarrollo.

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Bogar García Martínez es profesor investigador en la Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes y se puede contactar al correo bgarcia@hotamil.com, dirección, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Av. Universidad 940 Cd. Universitaria CP 20131 Aguascalientes Ags. al teléfono 52 449 910 84 73.

TURISMO SUSTENTABLE EN CUATRO CIENEGAS DE CARRANZA COAHUILA MEXICO UNA ALTERNATIVA DE DESARROLLO

Verónica de León Estavillo, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Fernando Agüeros Sánchez, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Verónica Mora de León, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

RESUMEN

La relevancia de los descubrimientos hechos por algunos científicos en sus pozas logró que en 1994 el valle de Cuatro Ciénegas, ubicado en el Gran Desierto de Chihuahua, fuera declarado por el Gobierno Federal de nuestro país, una parte de su territorio, área natural protegida. A partir de ese momento las actividades económicas, uso de recursos ambientales y en consecuencia el estilo de vida de sus habitantes se han visto impactados.¿Por qué es importante el estudio de estas pozas? ¿Cómo pueden vincularse el interés científico y las actividades socioeconómicas? ¿Puede esto último ser una alternativa para el desarrollo de la región? Estas interrogantes iniciales son las que han motivado esta investigación iniciada desde 2005.En este trabajo se presentan los avances y resultados logrados hasta hoy en el proceso de desarrollar esta región como un destino turístico modalidad pueblo mágico.La metodología utilizada es de carácter mixto descriptivo y se tomaron como marco de referencia los criterios establecidos por la Secretaria de Turismo para lograr la certificación como pueblo mágico basado en la concepción de un turismo sustentable.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Turismo sustentable, recursos ambientales, pueblo mágico

ABSTRACT

The relevancy of the discoveries done by some scientists in these ponds attained that in 1994 the Cuatro Ciénegas Valley located in Great Desert of Chihuahua, was declared by the Federal Government of our country natural protected area. Since the socioeconomic activities has been impacted by the use on environmental resources and in consequence of the lifestyle of its habitants too. Why is so important the study of these ponds? How can link the scientific interest to the socioeconomic activities? Can this be an alternative for the development of the region?. These initial questions are the motive of this research initiated since 2005. This work presents the research results until today, advances in the process of the development region as a magic town tourist destination. The methodology was descriptive and supported in a criteria established by the Tourism Secretary to achieve the certification as a Magic town based in a Sustainable Tourism.

KEY WORDS: Sustainable tourism, environmental resources, magic village

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las características del lugar y los hallazgos que científicos han encontrado en pozas de agua ubicadas en el municipio de Cuatro Ciénegas de Carranza Coahuila México, propiciaron que el Gobierno Federal del país declarara en 1994 una parte del territorio de este municipio, área natural protegida. Esto ha derivado que en el 2005 el Gobierno Estatal en coordinación con el Gobierno municipal, iniciaran un plan de actividades orientadas al desarrollo del turismo con la finalidad de crear otras alternativas de desarrollo económico para sus habitantes. Al contar con un área natural protegida como el atractivo que hace único a este lugar, el enfoque bajo el cual se tiene que desarrollar dicha actividad es el de un turismo sustentable. La Secretaría de Turismo (SECTUR) en nuestro país tiene implementado un programa denominado Pueblos Mágicos en el cual se pretende contribuir al rescate y conservación de las características propias de una comunidad. Para poder ser declarado pueblo mágico se deben cubrir los criterios que dicha dependencia ha establecido. En este documento se presentan los resultados y avances logrados hasta este año en el proceso que se ha dado en la comunidad para desarrollarla turísticamente.

La metodología de trabajo utilizada en las investigaciones ha sido de carácter mixto, ya que se ha utilizado tanto la investigación cuantitativa como la cualitativa y pretende describir el proceso de construcción de un pueblo mágico ubicado en el Gran Desierto de Chihuahua.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El turismo en el siglo XXI es considerada la actividad económica más importante del mundo, según lo señalan los diversos organismos que monitorean el crecimiento y desarrollo del mismo a nivel internacional.(OMT). El crecimiento manifestado a través de los viajes en los últimos años, aún en el 2008 y 2009 en los que hubo una disminución por los problemas de recesión económica y la pandemia de la influenza en el mundo, ha estado ligado a las formas de producción y uso del tiempo en el ocio turístico en las sociedades de los países tanto desarrollados como en vías de desarrollo, en las que se identifican por lo menos dos modelos , el primero, denominado industrial o fordista, de carácter masivo, mismo que prevalece de la segunda guerra mundial a nuestros días y que se caracteriza por la búsqueda de entretenimiento y descanso, preferencias de sol y playa, destinos turísticos masificados y de enclave, patrones de viaje de alto gasto para aumentar la captación de divisas, productos estandarizados, servicios oligopólicos, deterioro social y del ambiente (Redes 2000, Mazon 2001,Hiernaux 2003, citados por López Pachardo y Palomino Villavicencio 2007).

Por otro lado, a partir de los cambios socioeconómicos y tecnológicos que se han presentado en el mundo incluyendo la misma globalización, han inducido a la sociedad a la construcción de redes, la economía del conocimiento y el posmodernismo (Castelles 1999, Omahe 2005, Toffler 2006 y Harvey 1998, ibídem), así como cambios en el comportamiento del turista y en el patrón de viaje, lo que ha generado un segundo modelo en dicha actividad y al cual le han denominado post industrial o posfordista (López Pachardo y Palomino Villavicencio 2007) el cual busca responder a las siguientes expectativas, búsqueda de experiencias, diversificación de preferencias, interés en productos diferenciados, más cercanía a lo natural y la cultura propia de cada lugar, servicios y conexiones de calidad, así como una mayor conciencia de su impacto en el medio ambiente. Esto ha dado pauta al desarrollo de la actividad turística bajo un enfoque sustentable, lo cual implica una gran complejidad el poder equilibrar los diferentes aspectos comprendidos en lo que se denomina Turismo Sustentable.

Turismo Sustentable

Este último tipo de turismo se concibe como "Un proceso de desarrollo económico y de progreso social y cultural, que se produce en armonía con su ambiente o entorno (áreas urbanas o rurales), ajustándose a las necesidades presentes pero conservando los mismos recursos turísticos para el futuro" (1)

En consonancia se han definido como objetivos básicos del Turismo Sustentable los siguientes:

- 0.1 Una distribución más justa de los beneficios de la actividad turística en lo referente a la comunidad local.
- 0.2 La mejora sustancial en la calidad de vida de los residentes
- (1)Secretaría de Turismo.- Manual de planeación municipal pág. 21
- 0.3 El reforzamiento de los valores culturales y de identidad social
- 0.4 La conservación de los atractivos del lugar para las generaciones futuras
- 0.5 Una experiencia gratificante, de calidad e interés para el visitante
- 0.6 El equilibrio entre turismo, negocio y conservación

Para lograr estos objetivos se requiere asumir un compromiso entre los diferentes actores de ese destino turístico y atender los principios de un desarrollo sustentable, estos se mencionan como tres grandes rubros orientados a la conservación del entorno natural, que garantice que el desarrollo turístico sea compatible con el mantenimiento de los procesos ecológicos esenciales y con la diversidad biológica; la integración social y cultural que propicie que los principales beneficiarios de esta actividad sean los propios habitantes de la comunidad y cuidando que sea compatible a su cultura y tradiciones; la rentabilidad económica que asegure el equilibrio entre las inversiones y los ingresos por turismo para que se asegure la conservación de los atractivos, que permiten la generación de los ingresos. Los conceptos que subyacen en estos principios y que permitirán ese desarrollo turístico basado en la sustentabilidad tienen que ver con lo que se denomina capacidad de carga turística, calidad turística y los impactos esperados o generados. Ello implica el contar con parámetros de medición de la sustentabilidad y su instrumentación, así/ como la planeación de un programa de políticas y acciones tendientes a evitar que se rebasen dichos parámetros.

Pueblos Mágicos

A través de la Secretaría de Turismo se ha instrumentado un programa denominado Pueblos Mágicos, para lograr los propósitos antes mencionados, y en el que se establecen determinados criterios a lograr en una comunidad para que se le denomine o certifique como tal. Un pueblo mágico es una localidad que tiene atributos simbólicos, leyendas, historia, hechos trascendentes, cotidianidad , que le dan características particulares y que significan una oportunidad para el aprovechamiento turístico, para lo cual serán consideradas aquellas que cuenten con una población base de 20,000 habitantes conforme a los criterios establecidos por SECTUR, sin embargo para aquellas localidades que su número de pobladores está fuera de ese rango pero que por sus atributos ,riqueza cultural y natural, así como manifestaciones históricas, pueda ser considerada dentro del Programa, su solicitud se presentará al pleno del Comité Interinstitucional de Evaluación y Selección para que en su caso dictamine lo conducente.

La localidad en cuestión deberá encontrarse ubicada a una distancia no más allá de los 200 km. o bien el equivalente a dos horas de distancia por vía terrestre de un destino turístico consolidado o bien una población considerada como mercado emisor.Los objetivos que la Secretaría ha establecido para este programa son el estructurar una oferta turística complementaria y diversificada hacia el interior del país, basada fundamentalmente en los atributos histórico – culturales de localidades singulares, aprovechar la singularidad de las mismas para la generación de productos turísticos basados en las diferentes expresiones de la cultura local; artesanías, festividades, gastronomía y tradiciones entre otras, asimismo también se contempla la generación de otros productos tales como la aventura y el deporte extremo, el ecoturismo, la pesca deportiva y otros que signifiquen un alto grado de atractividad dentro del territorio de la localidad participante, fomentar los flujos turísticos que generen mayor gasto por parte de los visitantes en beneficio de la comunidad receptora, así como la creación y/o modernización de los negocios turísticos locales, para que esta actividad se constituya como una herramienta del desarrollo sustentable de las comunidades incorporadas a este programa y se convierta en una opción de negocio, de trabajo y de forma de vida.Los criterios de incorporación al programa de Pueblos Mágicos establecidos para que una comunidad pueda incorporarse a este programa y obtener los apoyos asignados a este rubro, deberán realizar una serie de trámites, empezando por una solicitud de incorporación por parte de las autoridades municipales y estatales a la Secretaría de Turismo y seguida posteriormente de una visita por parte de los funcionarios de la Dirección de Programas regionales en la que se evaluará el potencial de esa localidad para que pueda ser denominada pueblo mágico, si en esa primera visita se establece que si tiene esa "magia", entonces es cuando empieza en la comunidad solicitante el proceso de integración del expediente en consonancia con los objetivos antes mencionados.

Una vez integrado el expediente, este se remite a la dependencia establecida para este fin para su revisión, el cual será evaluado por el Comité Interinstitucional de Evaluación y Selección (CIES), en el caso de que este comité determine que la localidad cumple con los criterios de incorporación del programa, ésta contará con la pre factibilidad de ser reconocida y podrá obtener dicho nombramiento en un lapso no

mayor a tres años y en el cual se buscará que se consolide como destino turístico a través de inversiones públicas en infraestructura, equipamiento turístico, mejoramiento de la imagen urbana, implementación de programas de competitividad, capacitación, entre otros. En este lapso la comunidad aplicará los indicadores contenidos en el manual de la Secretaria para este programa, sin embargo una vez que sea otorgado definitivamente el nombramiento adquiere la responsabilidad de aplicar obligatoriamente dichos indicadores ya que el desempeño de un pueblo mágico es revisado anualmente.

METODOLOGÍA

En el año del 2005 se iniciaron en la comunidad de Cuatro Ciénegas de Carranza Coahuila de México, los trabajos correspondientes a realizar para que en este lugar se desarrollara la actividad turística como una estrategia de desarrollo económico y social para la región. Se convocaron a reuniones a diferentes actores de la comunidad para consensar acuerdos sobre la misión y visión del municipio en los siguientes 20 años, y se llegó a un acuerdo de plan de acciones a seguir plasmado en un documento en el que se establecieron cuatro ejes estratégicos.

Posterior a esto, siguieron juntas multidisciplinarias donde se incorporaron otros actores relacionados con las áreas de investigación y tecnologías pertinentes a este proyecto, así como organismos no gubernamentales de carácter ecologista. Sin embargo no se logró en dichas reuniones llegar a la construcción de acuerdos. ¿Qué pasó en el proceso de esos grupos que no permitió el consenso de los mismos? Sin embargo al mismo tiempo por otro lado seguía el impulso a actividades turísticas en la localidad mediante campañas promocionales en los diferentes medios de comunicación, aunado a ello una compañía televisora del país organiza un evento donde se trata de rescatar y denominar las 13 maravillas de México haciendo participar al público televisivo; Cuatro Ciénegas resulta seleccionado entre estas maravillas, lo que atrae un gran número de visitantes a este lugar originando en consecuencia un fuerte impacto ambiental en algunas de las pozas visitadas comprendidas éstas dentro del área natural protegida que obliga a las autoridades federales a través de la PROFEPA (Procuraduría Federal de Protección al Ambiente) a cerrar tales áreas a los visitantes, originándose un fuerte conflicto en la comunidad.

A partir de este momento se empezó a investigar con el propósito de llegar a encontrar elementos que pudiesen dar información sobre cuál era la percepción de la comunidad respecto a lo que estaba sucediendo en su región. Para ello se llevó a cabo una encuesta entre los habitantes de 18 años de edad en adelante, se utilizó un cuestionario de18 preguntas con una escala de Likert .Al mismo tiempo en los negocios establecidos relacionados con los servicios al turista , se llevaron a cabo entrevistas mediante cuestionario establecido para detectar necesidades de capacitación sobre si conocían los requisitos que debían cubrir en sus establecimientos con respecto al manejo de residuos, medidas de seguridad, ahorro de agua y energía.Una vez concluida esta parte de la investigación se presentaron los resultados de la misma a la comunidad y se les hizo una propuesta para coadyuvar en la solución de los aspectos encontrados que pudiesen frenar el proceso de certificación. Se empezó por revisar con las dependencias involucradas en este proceso (Municipio, CONANP, PROFEPA y PRONATURA) quienes debían participar y elaborar un mapa estratégico de participación, en qué y quienes podrían brindar apoyos para avanzar en el proceso de certificación.

Se cambiaron estrategias de trabajo y se decidió conformar un comité ciudadano encargado de revisar e impulsar las acciones tendientes a lograr un desarrollo sustentable en la región, al mismo tiempo se conformó otro comité de carácter técnico que atienda actividades prioritarias a realizar para la certificación. La metodología utilizada en el desarrollo de este proceso ha sido lo que se denomina investigación – acción, apoyándose en estudios de carácter técnico para dar solidez a la toma de decisiones y generar conciencia entre los diversos actores.

RESULTADOS

Con respecto a la encuesta aplicada a la comunidad sobre su percepción de lo que pasa en su comunidad se encontraron como puntos de conflicto, el manejo del agua como recurso, la conducta observada en los visitantes, el conocimiento de los atributos de su región, así como el beneficio que les ha reportado el tener un área natural protegida. En la entrevista a dueños y/o administradores de negocios se encontró que no habían recibido capacitación sobre los aspectos antes mencionados, solo han participado en programas relacionados a como incrementar sus ventas y mejorar la atención a visitantes. En lo concerniente al plan estratégico de participación, en el 2010 se retomó el curso de las reuniones de trabajo empezando con mesas de trabajo donde se han generado varios grupos de trabajo a su vez para atender en forma sistémica los aspectos incidentes como la normatividad, sistema de manejo integral de residuos y campañas de educación ambiental entre otras. La estrategia a seguir ha sido realizar acciones que den visibilidad de mejora y al mismo tiempo de ordenamiento de acciones.

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BENEFICIOS DEL USO DE LA MEZCLA PROMOCIONAL EN LAS MYPIMES DE LA INDUSTRIA DEL CALZADO DE LA CIUDAD DE TICUL, YUCATÁN

Arminda Patricia Vargas Tún, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax Luis Fernando Báez González, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax Roberto Joel Brito Villanueva, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax

RESUMEN

La importancia de esta investigación se basa en proporcionarle a las MYPIMES de la ciudad de Ticul los elementos que le permitan lograr el uso de la mezcla promocional de una manera adecuada para mejorar las ventas de estas empresas en el mercado. Por lo tanto, esta ayudará a conocer los beneficios que conlleva el uso de la mezcla promocional en la industria zapatera.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para efectos prácticos Pyme según Hernández (2007) es una fuerza que impulsa a la economía, basada en el desarrollo de pequeños grupos, de uno o varios empresarios, que busca un medio de subsistencia y desarrollo en el mercado, ocupando sus propios medios para lograrlo. Existe en México un 92% de empresas que pertenece a pequeñas y microempresas, 7% a las medianas empresas y sólo un punto porcentual a la gran industria. La mezcla total de comunicaciones de marketing de una empresa- también llamada mezcla de promoción- consiste en la combinación específica de herramientas de publicidad, promoción de ventas, relaciones públicas, ventas personales y marketing. En el presente trabajo se hará mención de las cinco principales herramientas de promoción que pueden ayudar a las Mypimes.

Según Hernández (2007), la importancia de las actividades de las PYMES en la economía mundial aporta, en algunos casos, más del 95% de las exportaciones. Además, las hace ser el sector clave del desarrollo económico y viga maestra de la solidez empresarial. La revista de análisis económico y social (abril, 2005) expresa que es difícil dar una definición exacta de PYMES ya que depende de varios factores y del criterio del país, como por ejemplo: el número de empleados, las ventas, el monto de los activos, los sectores, etcétera. En México, la PYME representa más del 90% de las organizaciones existentes y genera entre el 60% y el 70% de los nuevos empleos en la economía de acuerdo con la Organización Económica para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo (OECD, 2002).

Con una producción de 240 millones de pares de zapatos al año, poco más de dos pares, en promedio, por habitante, la industria de calzado mexicano ha logrado ubicarse dentro de las primeras 13 del mundo (revista virtual mundo ejecutivo). Como señala CNN expansión, 2007, hoy en día, la industria del calzado en México está compuesta por más de 4,800 empresas, y de acuerdo a la producción de calzado es superior a 18,000 mdp; de ese total, Guanajuato (en particular León, San Francisco y, Jalisco 18%; el DF y la zona conurbada 12%, y el resto de la República Mexicana 10%. El Financiero opina que la industria textil, prendas de vestir e industria del cuero (estas últimas relacionadas con el sector maquilador y la fabricación de calzado principalmente) aporta el 11.7 por ciento. Por su parte Myriam (2008) revista Contacto, mientras la producción nacional de cuero y calzado avanza a ritmo lento de 4 por ciento, según el INEGI, en Yucatán prácticamente se duplicó esta actividad en el 2007. Asimismo en la revista Contacto (2008), el sector, que se localiza agremiado en los municipios de Mérida, Hunucmá y Ticul, encuentra su mayor desarrollo en esta última localidad, ubicada a 40 minutos de la capital yucateca. Para la SEFOE (2007) la capacidad de producción del sector en la zona antes mencionada asciende a 700 mil pares de zapatos semanales. Es importante que las empresas sepan comunicarse con su público meta. Para ello deben desarrollarse mezclas promocionales. Los elementos de dicha mezcla deben seleccionarse

con cuidado y combinarse apropiadamente para propiciar un efectivo programa promocional. Según Soto y Dolan (2004, pág. 70), el objetivo más importante de la mercadotecnia se centra en dos aspiraciones:

1. Conocer y centrar la atención en el consumidor.

2. Lograr que el producto o servicio pueda ser desarrollado y ajustado a sus necesidades de tal forma que se venda por sí solo.

Así mismo Schoell y Guihinan (1991, pág. 519) La mezcla promocional, uno de los cuatro componentes principales de la mezcla de mercadotecnia, también implica una combinación cuidadosa de varios elementos para lograr los objetivos promocionales específicos de una organización. Dichos elementos son publicidad, venta personal, promoción de ventas y relaciones públicas. Por otro lado según Lamb, Hair, Mc Daniel (2007, pág. 470) menciona que la mezcla total de comunicaciones de marketing de una empresa- también llamada su mezcla de promoción consiste en "la combinación específica de herramientas de publicidad, promoción de ventas, relaciones públicas, ventas personales y marketing". Por tanto, ¿Qué beneficio obtiene la industria del calzado al utilizar la mezcla promocional?, ¿Cuál es el

elemento de la mezcla promocional más utilizado en las MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán?

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

Planteamiento del problema

En Ticul, una pequeña población ubicada a 40 minutos de la capital del estado, los zapateros reciben gustosos 100 pesos por un par de sus productos para el mercado escolar. Hoy existen más de 700 zapateros instalados en este pueblo. Las pequeñas y medianas empresas de la ciudad de Ticul no tienen los conocimientos adecuados en el manejo de los elementos de la mezcla promocional, y la utilizan de manera empírica para dar a conocer su negocio a los clientes de la zona. Ticul no sólo cuenta con un sistema diferente de fabricación de calzado, el cual incluye, "slogans", diseño de marcas y una novedosa presentación del producto, sino que también, ha incorporado a la mujer a una actividad considerada cien por ciento masculina.

Justificación: Podemos mencionar que la industria del calzado nacional, en opinión de la revista expansión, menciona que es uno de los sectores más sólidos del país, por lo tanto es importante conocer las estrategias de mercadotecnia que las pequeñas y medianas empresas que se dedican a esta actividad ponen en práctica para hacer llegar el producto al cliente. Es de reconocer que las pequeñas y medianas empresas desconocen de la utilización de la mezcla promocional para ofrecer el calzado en el mercado interno y externo que apoye al crecimiento de este sector tomando en cuenta la utilización de estas estrategias y los resultados de esta en el mercado.

La mayor parte de la empresas de la ciudad de Ticul Yucatán son pequeñas y medianas empresas que ofrecen sus productos de manera empírica, es decir, esperan a que los clientes se presenten en sus tiendas o fábricas para ofrecer el producto desaprovechando de esta manera las ventas que se derivan por el desconocimiento de que exista la empresa (publicidad), la venta de productos a instituciones, empresas y organizaciones a través de convenios (Relaciones publicas) y el ofrecimiento de los productos en diferentes precios o plazos de pago (Promoción), esto quiere decir, que las PYMES en la ciudad de Ticul están utilizando la venta personal por tal motivo se considera importante conocer como cada una de las empresas manejan estos elementos.

La industria mexicana del calzado es un sector abierto a la competencia del exterior, es importante el fortalecer a éste sector para así ocupar un lugar a nivel mundial. La gestión estratégica de la mercadotecnia en las PYMES se ha visto como una actividad de la gran empresa. El objetivo más

importante de la mercadotecnia es conocer y centrar la atención en el consumidor. Asimismo, se busca que el producto o servicio pueda ser desarrollado y ajustado a sus necesidades de tal forma que pueda venderse solo.

Impacto económico y social: Un elemento importante en la productividad del sector calzado es la experiencia, la cual en las industrias tradicionales se origina a partir del aprender haciendo y del aprendizaje interactivo; procesos en los cuales, los trabajadores aprenden durante el proceso de producción y/o a través del aprender con los mismos compañeros de trabajo. Esto es representativo en la zona de Ticul, pero creo es necesario la capacitación constante al trabajador para ser más competente. La industria mexicana posee ventajas que podrían permitirle permanecer entre los principales productores del mundo, una de ellas es: el calzado mexicano tiene prestigio en la mente del consumidor nacional y extranjero. Así mismo, si se requiere figurar en el mercado se requiere de reformas estructurales y la creación de una política industrial. La producción de calzado en el país es masiva, solo 5% se destina a la exportación, a pesar de contar con diseño, calidad y prestigio de talla internacional, los zapatos se topan con las limitaciones de costo-país (el precio de la energía eléctrica y las telecomunicaciones es tres mayor que en Brasil y cerca de cinco veces más alto que en China) que impiden figurar en aparadores de zapaterías extranjeras.

METODOLOGÍA

Objetivos generales: Conocer los beneficios que conlleva el uso de la mezcla promocional en las MYPIMES de la industria zapatera de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán.

Objetivos Específicos

- 1. Determinar la aplicación de los elementos de la mezcla promocional en la industria del calzado.
- 2. Determinar el beneficio que genera el uso de la mezcla promocional de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán.
- 3. Identificar el elemento más importante de la mezcla promocional en las MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán.

Palabras clave: mezcla promocional, MYPIMES, industria del calzado.

Preguntas De Investigación

¿Cuál es el beneficio real que obtienen las empresas de la industria del calzado al utilizar la mezcla promocional?, ¿Cuál es el elemento de la mezcla promocional más utilizado en las MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán? ¿Cuál es la herramienta de la mezcla promocional genera mayor beneficio en las MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán?

HIPÓTESIS

Hi: la industria del calzado de Ticul sí aplica los elementos de la mezcla promocional.

Hi: el beneficio obtenido al utilizar la mezcla promocional en la MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul es el incremento en el volumen de ventas.

Hi: la publicidad es el elemento más importante de la mezcla promocional en la industria del calzado de las pequeñas y medianas empresas de la ciudad de Ticul.

Definición De Variables

Las variables del estudio son:

Variable dependiente: MYPIMES de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul es la publicidad.

Variable independiente: mezcla promocional de la mercadotecnia.

Limitaciones De Estudio

Algunas limitaciones que se presentaron en el estudio fueron:

- Horario del profesor del tiempo completo.
- Disponibilidad de los empresarios
- Recursos económicos
- Distancia
- El desconocimiento sobre la mezcla promocional

Delimitaciones De Estudio

- De sujetos del estudio: MYPIMES de la Industria del Calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yucatán.
- De tiempo: septiembre de 2009 hasta agosto de 2010.
- De espacio: Ciudad de Ticul.

La presente investigación es un estudio con diseño no experimental. El tipo de estudio es descriptivo porque se busca especificar la mezcla promocional en las empresas que serán sometidos a análisis, es decir, cómo es y cómo se manifiestan.

Muestra:La muestra es definida por Gates Roger y Mc Daniel Carl (2005) como un subconjunto de todos los miembros de la población. Para obtener la información se encuestó a 66 pequeñas y medianas empresas (Mypimes). En este contexto se encuentran organizaciones dedicadas a la producción y comercialización de calzado en línea de damas, caballeros y niños.La muestra es probabilística estratificada. Las empresas se elegirán a través del procedimiento de la tómbola utilizando las listas que proporcionaron la cámara de la industria.La muestra se calculará con un 95% de confianza y un margen de error del 5%, se usará el listado que proporcionará la Cámara de la Industria del Calzado de Yucatán.

Población: La población para este estudio de investigación está conformada por 99 empresas de la ciudad de Ticul.

ANÁLISIS DE LA INFORMACIÓN

Se encuestó a 66 pequeñas y medianas empresas (Mypimes) de una población de 99 que conforman la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul, Yuc. En este contexto se encuentra organizaciones dedicadas a la producción y comercialización de calzado en línea de damas, caballeros y niños.

Datos descriptivos: En las siguientes tablas se puede observar la utilización de los elementos de la mezcla promocional.

Tabla 1: Giro de la empresa

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Fabricar	8	12,1
	Comercializar	8	12,1
	Ambas	50	75,8
	Total	66	100,0

Se clasificaron las empresas de acuerdo a la actividad que se dedican Fuente: Elaboración

En la tabla se muestra que 8 de ellas representan el 12.1% que fabrican, el 12.1% (8) que comercializan y el 75.8% se dedica a ambas actividades. (Ver tabla 4)

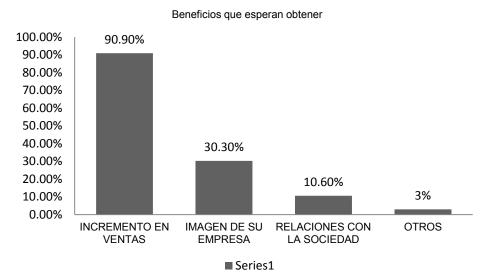
Tabla 2: Ha obtenido incremento ventas por uso de mezcla promocional

	-	Frequency	Percent	
Valid	no contestó		1	1,5
	si		51	77,3
	no		14	21,2
	Total		66	100,0

En la tabla se muestra el beneficio obtenido al utilizar la mezcla promocional, se puede observar que corresponde al incremento de ventas.

Esto corresponde a un 77.3% representando 51 empresas; solo 14 (21.2%) dijeron que no les ha beneficiado. Fuente: elaboración propia

D .	1 D C .		1 / 1		1 1	• 1
Hioura	1: Beneficios c	ille esneran	obtener al	l iifilizar	la mezcla	promocional
Ingula	1. Deneneros c	fue esperan	obtenet a	utilizar		promocional



De acuerdo a los elementos que las empresas esperan obtener se encontraron los siguientes beneficios Lafuente: Elaboración propia. En la figura 1 se obtuvieron los resultados siguientes: el 90.9% (60) esperan obtener beneficio al utilizar adecuadamente la mezcla promocional en relación al incremento de ventas, el 30.3% (20) en imagen de su empresa y el 10.6% (7) en relaciones con la sociedad. Prueba de hipótesis:

Hi: la industria del calzado de Ticul sí aplica los elementos de la mezcla promocional.

Hi: $x \neq 1$ (escala de medición intervalo donde 1 es siempre usan la publicidad)

Tipo de prueba a usar: Diferencia de una media (prueba de 2 colas) Regla de decisión:

Rechazar Ho1 si Z> 1.96 de otra forma no rechazar Ho $\alpha = 5\%$

Realizar la prueba
$$Z = \frac{x_{1} - x_{0}}{S_{x}}$$

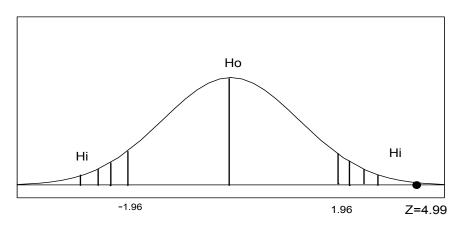
Datos estadísticos a utilizar en la prueba de hipótesis

Statist	ics	
usome	zcla	
Ν	Valid	66
	Missin	0
	g	
Mean		1.3939
Std. Ei	rror of	.07879
Mean		
Std. De	eviation	.64010

$$Z = \frac{1.39 - 1.0}{0.07879} = 4.99$$

Como Z=4.99>1.96 entonces sí se rechaza la Ho1, por lo que se puede concluir con 95 % de confianza que no siempre usan los elementos de la mezcla promocional las pequeñas y medianas empresas de la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul.

Figura 2: Prueba de primera hipótesis



Fuente (elaboración propia)

(1)

Hi: p>50% (la proporción de los empresarios que manifestaron obtener incremento en sus ventas es mayor al 50%)

Tipo de prueba: Diferencia de una proporción (Prueba de una cola) Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si Z>1.645 $\alpha = 5\%$ Realizar la prueba $Z = \frac{p1-p0}{Sx1}$

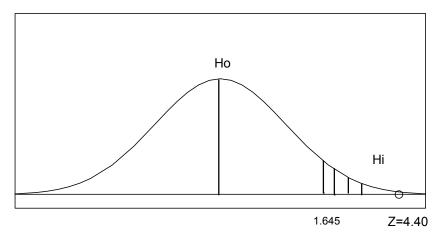
Ha obtenido incremento ventas por uso de mezcla promocional

		Frequency	Perce	nt
Valid	no contesto		1	1.5
	si		51	77.3
	no		14	21.2
	Total		66	100.0

$$Z = \frac{0.773 - 0.50}{0.0620} = 4.40$$

Como Z= 4.40>1.645 entonces se rechaza Ho por lo que puede concluir con 95% de confianza que más del 50% de los empresarios manifestaron haber tenido un incremento en sus ventas.

Figura 3: Prueba de segunda hipótesis



Fuente (Elaboración propia)

Hi: la publicidad es el elemento más importante de la mezcla promocional en las empresas pequeñas y medianas de Ticul

Hi: xp-xot<0

(2)

(La media de la importancia de la publicidad menos la media de los otros elementos de la mezcla promocional es menor a cero)

Tipo de prueba: Diferencia de dos medias (prueba de una cola) $Z = \frac{xpub-xotros}{Sxp-0}$ (3) Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho1 si Z<-1.645, de otra forma no rechazar Ho. $\alpha = 5\%$

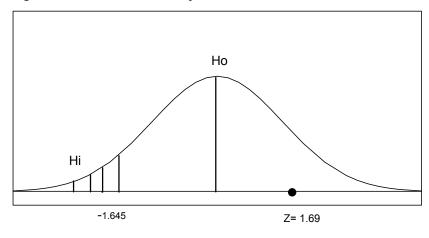
Estadísticos para la prueba de hipótesis

Statisti	ics			
		importancia	de la	
		publicidad		Otros elementos
Ν	Valid		66	66
	Missing		0	0
Mean			2.65	2.3990
Std. E	rror of Mean		.132	.05945
Std. D	Deviation		1.074	.48294

 $Z = \frac{(2.65 - 2.39) - 0}{0.1535} = 1.69$

Como Z= 1.69> -1.645 entonces no se rechaza la Ho, por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza que la publicidad no es el elemento más importante para los empresarios de la industria del calzado en Ticul, Yucatán.

Figura 4 : Prueba de tercera hipótesis



Fuente (elaboración propia)

CONCLUSIONES

El desarrollo de la investigación permitió llegar a las siguientes conclusiones:

- 1. Se determinó que las empresas pequeñas y medianas de la industria del calzado no siempre aplican la mezcla promocional.
- 2. El incremento en el volumen de ventas es el elemento que más ha beneficiado a la MYPIMES al utilizar la mezcla promocional.
- 3. El elemento de la mezcla promocional más importante en las MYPIMES de Ticul no es la publicidad.
- 4. El giro al que se dedican las empresas de la industria del calzado es que el 75.6% se dedica a fabricar y comercializar, se desprende del presente estudio que el 87.88% dirige sus productos al usuario final quedando de manifiesto que el 0% de las empresas no mandan sus productos al mercado internacional.
- 5. El 93.94% de las empresas producen líneas de calzado para damas, también se puede mencionar que la segunda línea de importancia es la de niños/niñas seguido de los caballeros. Solo un 4.55% se dedica a manejar todas las líneas.
- 6. Para lograr una buena imagen y éxito de la empresa el 97% de las empresas mantienen una relación con sus clientes, y con los proveedores existe una relación en un porcentaje de 30.3%.
- 7. Se encontró que las empresas MYPIMES utilizan en un 74.2% la participación en actividades promocionales para su negocio, seguido de un porcentaje del 28.8% para promociones económicas y promociones de producto, no restando que los concursos y fidelización representan nada más el 6.1%.
- 8. Las empresas manifestaron que las razones por las que no dan a conocer sus productos es por poca venta, están comenzando como empresa, sus ingresos son bajos, consideran que no es necesario y que no tiene caso realizarla, otros que no han probado, extremadamente pocos utilizan la publicidad móvil triciclos en la cual los dueños pagan a éstos una comisión del 10 al 20% sobre el volumen de ventas; por el costo y problemas económicos. También hay competencia desleal.
- 9. El 78.8% de las empresas venden de 1 a 300 pares de zapatos semanal, y el 10 % de 301 a 600 pares, y solo el 6.1% vende de 601 par a 900.
- 10. El 33.1% de las empresas mencionan que de manera regular pagan por la publicidad y que éste les beneficia, y el 30.3% siempre lo hace. Y solamente el 12.1% no pagan por ello.
- 11. Otro medio para dar a conocer el producto son las tarjetas que se les otorga a los clientes y algunas zapaterías utilizan patrocinadores deportivos.
- 12. Podríamos decir que Ticul está posicionada como una ciudad dedicada a la industria del calzado, es decir, "cuando se piensa en Ticul pensamos en calzado".
- 13. Las MYPIMES manifestaron que su publicidad es "de boca en boca" ya que por la calidad del calzado y su precio los mismos clientes lo recomiendan a otras personas. La publicidad como tal no siempre se utiliza en Ticul.
- 14. El elemento de la mezcla promocional " relaciones públicas" no genera mayor beneficio en la industria del calzado de la ciudad de Ticul.

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BIOGRAFÍA

AUTOR: (ponente) Arminda Patricia Vargas Tún, profesor de tiempo completo de la carrera de Desarrollo de negocios área Mercadotecnia de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax, Yucatán, México. Con dirección Tablaje Catastral número 792 Vía del Ferrocarril Mérida, Peto, Tekax, Yucatán México, C.P. 97970; Teléfono 01 997 97 4 09 47, Fax 997 4 09 48, correo electrónico: arminda550@hotmail.com

Coautor: (ponente) Luis Fernando Báez González, profesor de tiempo completo de la carrera de Desarrollo de negocios área Mercadotecnia de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax, Yucatán, México. Con dirección Tablaje Catastral número 792 Vía del Ferrocarril Mérida, Peto, Tekax, Yucatán México, C.P. 97970; Teléfono 01 997 97 4 09 47, Fax 997 4 09 48, correo electrónico: Luis fernando1979@hotmail.com

Coautor: (ponente) Roberto Joel Brito Villanueva, profesor de tiempo completo de la carrera de Desarrollo de negocios área Mercadotecnia de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur de Tekax, Yucatán, México. Con dirección Tablaje Catastral número 792 Vía del Ferrocarril Mérida, Peto, Tekax, Yucatán México, C.P. 97970; Teléfono 01 997 97 4 09 47, Fax 997 4 09 48, correo electrónico: caralampiux@hotmail.com

ADMINISTRACIÓN FISCAL PARA PRODUCTORES DE LIMÓN DE TECOMÁN, COLIMA, MÉXICO

Tobías Álvarez Luna, Universidad de Colima Jesús Martín Santos Virgen, Universidad de Colima Porfirio Rodríguez Espinosa, Universidad de Colima Alfredo Salvador Cárdenas Villalpando, Universidad de Colima Oscar Mares Bañuelos, Universidad de Colima

RESUMEN

Como estrategia fiscal y para captar apoyos federales, se investigó la Sociedad de Producción Rural (SPR), para determinar los beneficios a que puede acceder el importante sector limonero del Valle de Tecomán, Colima, México. A diferencia de algunas sociedades mercantiles, la SRP no se encuentra limitada en materia de extensión territorial y los productores tienen como beneficios: 1.- La exención en sus ingresos de 20 salarios mínimos del área geográfica del contribuyente por cada socio. 2.- La oportunidad de aplicar reducción al ISR determinado 3.- Solicitar la devolución del IVA acreditable 4.- Beneficios por la obtención de subsidios con instituciones gubernamentales como la Secretaría de Economía, SAGARPA, y la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social. 5.- Las operaciones en efectivo pueden ser hasta 30 mil pesos. 6.- Poder acreditar contra el ISR a cargo, la compra del diesel o solicitar trimestralmente la devolución del monto del IESPS que tenga derecho a acreditar. Como resultado se observa la ventaja comparativa de esta estrategia, ante otras formas de asociación, ya que quienes se dedican a la agricultura, si se organizan bajo esta figura legal, pueden optimizar su rentabilidad y obtener mayores beneficios federales.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Beneficios Fiscales, Apoyos Federales, Sector Agropecuario.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La administración agrícola es el esfuerzo que desarrolla el agricultor para decidir cómo han de combinarse y utilizarse en el proceso productivo los recursos tierra, mano de obra y capital. El problema del desarrollo rural integral, de la organización de la producción, no está ajeno a la tenencia de la tierra, y se relaciona con la estrategia fiscal. Con el encarecimiento de los productos agrícolas en el mundo, todo parece indicar que en México son el mercado y los productores como empresarios, quienes deberían asumir el relevo del papel que históricamente desempeñó el Estado. Como parte de la tendencia empresarial, el Estado ha iniciado un proceso de trasformación legal institucional que inicia en 1992 con cambios en la Constitución, respecto al derecho de tierra de campesinos y comunidades indígenas (Gerritsen y Morales, 2009).

En México uno de los sectores más asediados por las reformas fiscales a partir de 1991, es el sector Agrario, ganadero, pesquero y silvícola,(AGAPES) pues las modificaciones a la Ley del Impuesto Sobre la Renta (ISR), así como de la Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado (IVA), les han sido negativas porque el subsidio en los impuestos inicialmente en la tasa de ISR era del 50% y en IVA era considerado sujeto a la devolución el 100% del que fuera acreditable. Sin embargo, a partir de 2002, la modificación del artículo 32 II de la ley de ISR hace que los gastos e inversiones sean proporcionalmente deducibles por lo que diversas AGAPES perdió la liquidez por esa parte exenta de los ingresos.

Dentro de la Ley Agraria vigente en México, existen diversas formas en que se pueden constituir las empresas, incluso en la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles respetando el límite de extensión que establece el artículo 126 de la Ley Agraria y en otras formadas por decreto como son las sociedades

integradoras, por lo que las ventajas se deben reflejar en la facilidad administrativa, en los impuestos menores y en poca complejidad en su establecimiento.

El objetivo del estudio consiste en realizar un análisis de la regulación impositiva de la Sociedad de Producción Rural (SPR), para aplicarla como estrategia fiscal para el importante sector de productores de limón del Valle de Tecomán, Colima. La investigación comprende los apoyos gubernamentales que pueden obtener los contribuyentes mencionados. La pregunta de investigación sobre la que se centró el presente trabajo, es: ¿Cuáles son los beneficios fiscales de que gozan los productores que se constituyen como SPR?

El estudio utiliza un método analítico comparativo. Se hizo una proyección de la aplicación de las leyes fiscales, con ejemplos en diversas áreas impositivas, para determinar las posibles ventajas de tributar como SPR.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El antecedente de la Sociedad de Producción Rural (SPR) son las sociedades locales que fueron constituidas conforme a la Ley de Crédito Agrícola de 1955, la cual les daba un plazo de 24 meses para transformarse en SPR. De esta manera, hasta nuestros días, la sociedad de producción rural ha seguido siendo contemplada en la Ley General de Crédito Rural de 1976 y en la Ley Agraria de 1992 reglamentaria del artículo 27 de la Constitución de México. Figura jurídica que se plantea como estrategia Fiscal para los productores de Limón de Tecomán.

El municipio de Tecomán, Colima, México, es un importante productor de limón. Se encuentra limitado al este con el estado de Michoacán, al sur por la costa del océano pacifico a 60 Km. del puerto de Manzanillo - enlace a Asia y a la Cuenca del Pacifico -, a 45 Km de la capital del estado. Se localiza en la porción sureste del estado de Colima entre las coordenadas 103° 59' a 103° 73' de longitud oeste del Meridiano de Greenwich y 18° 41' 20" a 19° 06' de latitud norte. Está situado a 30 metros sobre el nivel del mar. (Ayuntamiento de Tecomán, 2010).

De acuerdo a los resultados del censo citrícola que llevó a cabo el Consejo Estatal de Productores de limón de Colima AC, hay plantadas en el Estado de Colima 26,798 hectáreas de cítricos, de los cuales 25,010 corresponden al limón mexicano, 1,303 al limón persa, 449 a la naranja valenciana, 26 a la lima chichona y 10 a la toronja roja (COEPLIM, 2009).

La Ley Agraria vigente establece como figuras organizativas: a) Uniones de ejidos o comunidades (UEC); b) Sociedades de producción rural (SPR), constituida con dos o más productores rurales; c) Uniones de sociedades de producción rural (USPR); d) Asociaciones rurales de interés colectivo (ARIC), constituidas con dos o más ejidos, comunidades, uniones de ejidos o comunidades, sociedades de producción rural o uniones de sociedades de producción rural.

Asimismo, la Ley Agraria dispone en su artículo 109 que los estatutos de las organizaciones deberán contener: Denominación; Domicilio; Duración; Objetivos; Capital; Régimen de responsabilidad; Lista de miembros y normas para su admisión, separación, exclusión, derechos y obligaciones; Órganos de autoridad y vigilancia; Normas de funcionamiento; Ejercicio y balance; Fondos, reservas y reparto de utilidades; Normas para su disolución y liquidación.

Por lo que respecta a la estructura que deben tener estas figuras asociativas, se establecen la Asamblea General como órgano máximo de la sociedad; el Consejo de Administración como órgano de dirección, nombrado por la asamblea general e integrado por: Presidente, Secretario; Tesorero; Vocales propietarios y suplentes, en el número que se determine en los estatutos, órgano que tiene la representación de la sociedad, siendo indispensable para tal efecto la firma mancomunada de por lo menos dos de sus miembros. Y por último el Consejo de Vigilancia, como órgano al tanto de las actividades del Consejo de Administración, integrado por presidente; secretario; vocales propietarios con sus respectivos suplentes. Los miembros del Consejo de Administración y de Vigilancia son designados por la Asamblea general por un periodo de tres años (Ley Agraria, 1992 Art. 109).

La Sociedad de Producción Rural

Las acciones de organización que emprendan las SPR, no culminan en un tiempo predeterminado, sino que generan cambios dentro de éstas, de manera que se posibilita el diseño, instrumentación, operación y evaluación de proyectos de inversión productiva y social de carácter regional. Con un mínimo de dos socios, los productores rurales pueden constituir sociedades de producción rural que tendrán personalidad jurídica propia. La razón social se formará libremente y al emplearse irá seguida de las palabras Sociedad de Producción Rural o de su abreviatura SPR así como del régimen de responsabilidad que hubiere adoptado, ya sea ilimitada, limitada o suplementada (artículo 111 de la Ley Agraria). Para la constitución de la SPR, se deberán cubrir los requisitos siguientes: a) Celebrar asamblea constitutiva, en el que se elige el Consejo de Administración, Consejo de Vigilancia y se aprueban los estatutos; b) Protocolizar el acta constitutiva ante un fedatario público; c) Inscripción del acta constitutiva en el Registro Agrario Nacional; d) Las asociaciones rurales de interés colectivo (ARIC), se deberán inscribir además en el Registro Público de Crédito Rural o de Comercio, cuando en ellas participen Sociedades de Producción Rural o uniones de éstas (artículo 110 de la Ley Agraria).

Se considera que las SPR, son instancias organizativas capaces de garantizar la eficiencia de los proyectos de desarrollo, ya que al combinar estrategias económico-sociales integrales, posibilitan una mayor integración del movimiento campesino. Los tres tipos de responsabilidad que puede asumir esta sociedad son: a) responsabilidad limitada, en la cual los socios responden de las obligaciones sociales, hasta por el monto de sus aportaciones al capital social; b) responsabilidad ilimitada, en la que los socios responden con su patrimonio propio, de manera solidaria ante todas las obligaciones de la sociedad; y c) responsabilidad suplementada, en la que los socios responden, además de su aportación al capital social, de todas las obligaciones sociales de manera subsidiaria, con su patrimonio propio, hasta por una cantidad determinada en el pacto social y que será su suplemento, que en ningún caso será menor de dos tantos de su mencionada aportación (Ley Agraria, 1992: Art. 111).

Existen tres distintas posibilidades para que las SPR constituyan su capital social mediante aportaciones de sus socios, como a continuación se menciona (artículo 112 de la ley Agraria): Sociedades de responsabilidad ilimitada: En este tipo de sociedad no se requiere aportación inicial.

Sociedades de responsabilidad limitada: En este tipo de sociedad la aportación inicial será la necesaria para formar un capital mínimo equivalente a 700 veces el salario mínimo diario general vigente en el Distrito Federal.

Sociedades de responsabilidad suplementada: En este tipo de sociedad la aportación inicial será la necesaria para formar un capital mínimo equivalente a 350 veces el salario mínimo diario general vigente en el Distrito Federal.

Las SPR, son instancias de planeación micro regional y regional, ya que tienen funciones de coordinación, concertación y negociación. Se requiere el consentimiento de la Asamblea para la transmisión de los derechos de los socios y para que la sociedad adquiera obligaciones con alguna institución financiera. La contabilidad de la SPR, será llevada por la persona propuesta por la junta o Consejo de Vigilancia, debiendo ser aprobada por la asamblea general de socios.

METODOLOGÍA

El presente trabajo tiene como base una investigación utilizando un método deductivo con apoyo de información documental relacionado con la sociedad de producción rural y el marco regulatorio del campo en materia fiscal para sustentar la operatividad de este tipo de organizaciones agrarias en México, y por la aplicación de un análisis comparativo, para determinar la ventaja de esta forma de sociedad, y posterior análisis de los resultados.

Para investigar la estrategia para aprovechar ventajas fiscales de los productores de limón del valle de Tecomán Colima, México, primero se analizan los antecedentes y aspectos evolutivos del campo en México y las figuras organizativas que pueden asumir los propietarios de terrenos rurales, así como su relación con los esquemas fiscales, para definir el problema agrario en México con base en la tenencia de la tierra, aspectos legales de las figuras en las cuales los campesinos se podían asociar y las Asociaciones Rurales de Interés Colectivo, así como las facilidades en su forma de constitución, buscando la que les permita la estrategia de comercializar directamente los productos. El estudio utiliza una proyección de la aplicación de la ley de ISR, con diversos ejemplos, para determinar las posibles ventajas de tributar como SPR. Se considera que este enfoque metodológico contribuye a valorar la importancia de la sociedad de producción rural en cuanto a beneficios fiscales y apoyos gubernamentales otorgados a este tipo de organizaciones que se asocian como estrategia para fomentar su desarrollo y atender sus propias necesidades de cumplir con los requisitos impositivos que les imponen las regulaciones federales sobre sus ingresos. En síntesis, esta metodología pretende determinar si la SRP es una alternativa viable para los productores de limón del municipio de Tecomán Col. para aprovechar los beneficios fiscales y apoyos gubernamentales.

Agrupaciones Concepto	Empresa Integradora	Uniones de Crédito	Sociedades de Responsabilidad Limitada de Interés Publico	Sociedades de Responsabilidad Limitada	Sociedad Cooperativa
Objetivo Principal	Prestación de servicios especializados a los socios que actúan por cuenta y orden de los integrados.	Acceso de los socios al financiamiento	Personalidad jurídica para realizar actividades en común.	Personalidad jurídica para realizar actividades mercantiles.	Conjuntar recursos y experiencias.
Actividades Productivas	Todas	Todas	Todas	Industria, comercio, servicios y artesanías.	Todas
Marco Jurídico específico	Programa Sectorial. Decreto específico.	Ley General de Organizaciones y Act. Auxiliares del Crédito.	Ley Específica.	Ley Federal para el Fomento de la Micro industria y la Actividad Artesanal.	Ley Específica.
Capital Social	50 mil pesos	Más de 2 millones de pesos. Monto que ajusta anualmente la CNBV.	3 mil pesos	2 mil pesos	No existe un mínimo.
Régimen Fiscal	Simplificado por 10 años sin tope de ingresos.	General	General	General	General
Tipos de socios	Personas Físicas y Morales.	Personas Físicas y Morales.	Productores de escasos recursos.	Personas Físicas	Trabajadores Asalariados.
Número de Socios Mínimo.	4	10	25	2	10

Tabla 1. Análisis Comparativo de Formas de Agrupación para el Campo Mexicano

Fuente: elaborado con base a lo estipulado en los diversos Ordenamientos que norman la actividad de cada una de las organizaciones empresariales.

Por lo anterior, la metodología también contempla investigar los apoyos gubernamentales que están al alcance de esta organización de productores, los requisitos a considerar al constituir una SPR, así como investigar la forma de organización de empresas integradoras con SPR con el objeto de prestar servicios calificados a sus asociados el realizar gestiones y promociones orientadas a modernizar y ampliar la participación de sus integradas.

Para determinar las ventajas de la estrategia que representa la SPR, se realiza un análisis comparativo de las características de cada tipo de figura jurídica, a efecto de en un solo plano tener una visión general de cada una de ellas y poder estudiar los beneficios de las formas de asociación para la planeación empresarial.

En México la variabilidad de las opciones para las empresas que producen se han instrumentado diversas alternativas de organización empresarial, considerando desde la capacidad y el tamaño de las empresas y/o productores, su capacidad económica, así como su estrategia productiva y comercial. Cabe indicar que algunas figuras se encuentran fuera de contexto e incluso algunas han perdido vigencia como una fórmula de asociación para las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, debido a la complejidad de requisitos que se deben cubrir para constituirlas.

Es por ello que como resultado de este trabajo de investigación se hace un comparativo para determinar las ventajas y seleccionar cuál es la mejor alternativa.

Concepto	Empresa Integradora	Sociedades de Solidaridad Social	Asociaciones Rurales de Interés Colectivo	Sociedades de Producción Rural
Objetivos	Prestación de servicios especializados de apoyo a la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa integrada.	 *Creación de fuentes de trabajo. *Conservación y mejoramiento del medio ambiente. *Explotación racional de los recursos naturales. *Producción, industrialización y comercialización de bienes y servicios que sean necesarios. *Educación a los socios y sus familias. 	La integración de los recursos humanos, naturales, técnicos y financieros para el establecimiento de industrias, aprovechamiento, sistemas de comercialización y cualesquiera otras actividades económicas.	La integración productiva a cualquier nivel.
Marco Legal	Decreto que promueve la organización de Empresas Integradoras (DOF del 7 de mayo de 1993) y sus modificaciones (DOF del 30 de mayo de 1995).	Ley de Sociedades de Solidaridad Social (DOF del 27 de mayo de 1976).	Ley Agraria (Modificaciones DOF del 9 de julio de 1993): Artículos 108, 109 y. 110.	Ley Agraria (Modificaciones DOF del 9 de julio de 1993): Artículos 108, 109, 111 y 112.
Estructura	 *Asamblea General de Socios. *Consejo de Administración. *Director General. *Gerencias acordes a los requerimientos de los socios. 	*Asamblea General de Socios (asistencia mínima del 65% de los socios o sus representantes). *Asamblea General de representantes (cada representante abarca un mínimo de 10 socios). *Comité Ejecutivo (administra la sociedad). *Comités obligatorios: *Financiero y de vigilancia. *Educación. *Patrimonio social y Fondo de Solidaridad Social. *Los demás que requieran los socios. *Pueden formar federaciones y, éstas a su vez, crear una Confederación.	*Asamblea General (2 representantes de cada una de las asambleas de los ejidos o comunidades miembros de la unión, 2 representantes designados de entre los miembros del comisariado y el consejo de vigilancia de los mismos). *Consejo de Vigilancia.	*Asamblea General (2 representantes de cada una de las asambleas de los ejidos o comunidades miembros de la unión, 2 representantes designados de entre los miembros del comisariado y el consejo de vigilancia de los mismos). *Consejo de
				*Consejo de Vigilancia.

Tabla 2. Investigación Comparativa de Formas Legales y Apoyos para el Campo Mexicano

Constitución	Tiene personalidad jurídica propia, que le permite realizar actividades mercantiles. Se constituye con un capital social mínimo de \$50,000. Cada socio no puede exceder del 30% del capital social. Pueden tener socios grandes, siempre que la suma de éstos no ostente más del 25% del capital social total. No puede participar directa o indirectamente en el capital social de las empresas integradas. Ingresos exclusivos por cuotas, comisiones y prestación de servicios. El 10% de sus ingresos totales, pueden ser de servicios a terceros. Presentar a la Secretaría de Economía a la siguiente documentación: Escrito libre solicitando su inscripción en el Registro Nacional de Empresas Integradoras Proyecto de acta constitutiva. Una vez autorizada por Secretaría de Economía, deberán protocolizar ante Notario Público. Proyecto de factibilidad económica-financiera que sustente integración.	 Patrimonio de carácter colectivo. Los socios son personas fisicas de nacionalidad mexicana (ejidatarios, comuneros, campesinos sin tierra, parvifundistas y personas que tengan derecho al trabajo). Con parte de las utilidades y donativos, se crea un Fondo de Solidaridad Social. Las "SSS" realizan actividades mercantiles. 15 socios como mínimo. Su funcionamiento requiere la autorización previa del Ejecutivo Federal, a través de la SRA (industrias rurales) y STPS (en los demás casos). Actas y bases se inscriben en los registros de la SRA y STPS. A partir de ese momento a la "SSS" tiene personalidad jurídica. 	Tienen personalidad jurídica propia, a partir de su inscripción en el Registro Agrario Nacional. Cuando se integren con Sociedades de Producción Rural o con uniones de éstas, se inscribirán además en los Registros Públicos de Crédito Rural o de Comercio. Pueden ser socios los ejidos, comunidades, sociedades de producción rural o uniones de sociedades de producción rural. 2 socios como mínimo. No hay límites de capital social. Los ejidos, comunidades y uniones de ejidos, podrán establecer empresas especializadas que apoyen el cumplimiento de su objetivo y les permita acceder de manera óptima a la integración de su cadena productiva, al aprovechamiento de sus recursos naturales o de cualquier índole, así como a la prestación de	2 socios como mínimo. Personalidad jurídica propia, utilizando el término SPR, así como del Régimen de Responsabilidad que adopten: Responsabilidad ilimitada, todos los socios responden por sí de las obligaciones solidarias. Responsabilidad limitada, los socios responden de las obligaciones hasta por el monto de sus aportaciones al capital social. Responsabilidad suplementada, los socios además del pago de su aportación al capital social, responden de todas las obligaciones sociales subsidiariamente, hasta por una cantidad determinada en el pacto social y que será su suplemento, el cual en ningún caso será menor de dos tantos de su mencionada aportación. El capital social se constituye por aportaciones: Libre si es de responsabilidad ilimitada. 700 salarios mínimos
4	Dásimon Simplificado do	El Eigentivo Esderal o través do que	la Ley.	700 salarios mínimos vigentes en el D.F., para las de responsabilidad limitada. 350 salarios mínimos vigentes en el D.F. para las de responsabilidad suplementada.
Ароуо	Régimen Simplificado de Tributación por 10 años sin tope de ingresos. (apoyo para la empresa integradora)	El Ejecutivo Federal a través de sus dependencias y medidas concretas, podrá otorgar estímulos, subsidios o franquicias necesarios para su eficaz funcionamiento, los cuales se	No se mencionan apoyos específicos.	No se mencionan apoyos específicos.
	Apoyos financieros (empresa integradora y sus asociados).	revocarán o cancelarán o juicio fundado de los otorgantes. Las autoridades federales y los organismos creados por la		
	Facilidades administrativas para acceder a los programas de fomento a las exportaciones.	Federación, deberán asesorar gratuitamente a las "SSS" para la promoción y fomento de la producción, industrialización y comercialización de bienes y		
	Acceso a los demás programas del Gobierno Federal.	servicios que sean necesarios. Las "SSS" serán sujetas de crédito de las instituciones nacionales de crédito y tendrán preferencia en el otorgamiento del mismo.		

Fuente: Elaboración propia con base en la Ley Agraria y la Ley de Sociedades de Solidaridad Social.

RESULTADOS

Como resultado de la presente investigación, se determinaron las ventajas de los beneficios fiscales a que pueden acceder, los productores de limón del valle de Tecomán, Colima, México, con la estrategia de organizarse como Sociedad de Producción Rural (SPR), bajo la premisa de que les permita contar con recursos financieros y aprovechar ventajas fiscales así como apoyos federales.

Entre los resultados más significativos de la estrategia investigada, se encontraron ventajas y beneficios fiscales importantes como la LISR que contempla exenciones sobre los ingresos, reducción sobre el ISR determinado, tasa del 0% en la Ley del IVA, así como los decretos que otorgan diversos beneficios de carácter fiscal cuya aplicación les permite como contribuyentes contar con más recursos y ver reducida su carga fiscal.

Ventajas en la Ley del Impuesto Sobre la Renta (LISR)

Las personas morales del régimen simplificado, en las que se incluyen a las sociedades de producción rural, tienen derecho a una reducción en el ejercicio fiscal de 2009, del 32.14% del ISR a cargo. Con base en el artículo 81 fracción V último párrafo de la LISR, cuentan además con una exención con relación a sus ingresos de 20 salarios mínimos del área geográfica del contribuyente elevado al año por cada socio, sin exceder de 200 salarios mínimos generales del DF elevados al año.

El ISR determinado, después de aplicar en su caso la reducción del 32.14%, será el que se acreditará contra el impuesto al activo del mismo ejercicio. Esta reducción en el ISR está condicionada a que este tipo de sociedad realice exclusivamente actividades primarias (agricultura, pesca, ganadería y silvicultura).

Las personas morales del régimen simplificado deberán calcular y enterar, por cada uno de sus integrantes, los pagos provisionales mensuales. Los contribuyentes que se dediquen a actividades agrícolas, ganaderas, pesqueras o silvícolas, podrán realizar pagos provisionales semestrales. Para calcular y enterar el impuesto del ejercicio de cada uno de sus integrantes, determinarán la utilidad gravable del ejercicio a la que se aplicará la tarifa para personas físicas, o la tasa para personas morales, según corresponda. Contra el impuesto que resulte a cargo, se podrán acreditar los pagos provisionales efectuados por la persona moral y cumplirán con sus propias obligaciones, el impuesto que determinen por cada uno de sus integrantes se enterará de manera conjunta en una sola declaración. Las personas morales sujetos del régimen simplificado no tendrán la obligación de determinar al cierre del ejercicio el ajuste anual por inflación (LISR).

Otra ventaja de la sociedad de producción rural, es la facilidad administrativa en materia de deducciones, de permitirles cuando se agrupen con el objeto de realizar en forma conjunta gastos necesarios para el desarrollo de sus actividades, puedan hacer deducible la parte proporcional del gasto en forma individual, aun cuando los comprobantes correspondientes estén a nombre de alguno de los otros integrantes, siempre que dichos comprobantes reúnan los demás requisitos que señalen las disposiciones fiscales (art. 81, fracción V, párrafo sexto de la LISR).

Las personas morales contribuyentes del régimen simplificado, cuyos ingresos en el ejercicio inmediato anterior no excedan de \$10'000,000.00, podrán aplicar el régimen intermedio de las personas físicas. Resulta importante para el régimen intermedio tener la posibilidad de aprovechar el límite de ingresos, considerando que el beneficio fiscal le impacta a su favor en materia de deducción inmediata de inversiones, ya que podrán deducir las erogaciones efectivamente realizadas en el ejercicio, para la adquisición de activos fijos, gastos o cargos diferidos, excepto tratándose de automóviles, camiones de carga, tractocamiones y remolques. (art. 136 de la LISR).

Además la LISR establece un beneficio fiscal para las personas físicas que realicen actividades agrícolas, ganaderas, silvícolas o pesqueras, consistente en no pagar el ISR por los ingresos hasta un límite de 40 veces el salario mínimo general del área geográfica del contribuyente elevado al año (art. 109 fracción XXVII de la LISR).

Las personas morales, podrán adicionar al saldo de su cuenta de utilidad fiscal neta del ejercicio, la utilidad que corresponda a los ingresos exentos, multiplicada por el coeficiente de utilidad del ejercicio para pagos provisionales mensuales (art. 14 de la LISR).

Es importante destacar como un beneficio fiscal la posibilidad que tienen los contribuyentes objeto de esta investigación que sufran una pérdida fiscal, el poderla amortizar adecuadamente contra futuras utilidades. El contribuyente debe de tener cuidado en aplicar las pérdidas en los ejercicios en que obtiene utilidades porque si no disminuye en un ejercicio la pérdida fiscal teniendo utilidades fiscales, perderá el derecho a hacerlo en ejercicios posteriores hasta por la cantidad en que pudo haberlo efectuado. La pérdida fiscal, se actualiza multiplicándola por el factor de actualización correspondiente al período comprendido del primer mes de la segunda mitad del ejercicio al último mes del mismo ejercicio. La parte de la pérdida fiscal de ejercicios anteriores ya actualizada pendiente de aplicar contra utilidades fiscales (saldo de pérdida) se actualiza multiplicándola por el factor de actualización correspondiente al periodo comprendido desde el mes en el que se actualizó por última vez y hasta el último mes de la primera mitad del ejercicio en el que se aplicará.

Los contribuyentes objeto de esta investigación, pueden solicitar la devolución del saldo a favor del ISR que les resulte en su declaración anual.

El beneficio fiscal al cual pueden acogerse los productores de limón del municipio de Tecomán, Colima, lo forma el acuerdo por el que se emiten las reglas para la condonación total o parcial de los créditos fiscales consistentes en contribuciones federales cuya administración corresponda al SAT, cuotas compensatorias, actualizaciones y accesorios, así como las multas por incumplimiento de las obligaciones fiscales federales distintas a las obligaciones de pago, a que se refiere la LISR. Los contribuyentes que decidan acogerse al beneficio se obligan a cumplir con los requisitos:

Presentación de las Solicitudes de Condonación.

1.- El contribuyente deberá contar con Firma Electrónica Avanzada (FIEL).

2.- Estar firmada por el representante legal, entendiéndose como tal al administrador único o al presidente del consejo de administración. Tratándose de personas físicas, la firma será la del deudor interesado. Se deberá señalar la dirección de correo electrónico y/o números telefónicos donde se le pueda informar al interesado respecto del trámite de su solicitud.

La solicitud de condonación señalará, tanto los créditos determinados y/o controlados por las autoridades fiscales como otros créditos fiscales, especificando la autoridad que los determinó y el número de control del crédito fiscal respectivo. La solicitud de condonación deberá incluir lo siguiente:

I.- Los créditos fiscales del contribuyente por los cuales está solicitando la condonación:

II. Tratándose de créditos auto determinados por el contribuyente cuyas declaraciones hayan sido presentadas con anterioridad a la fecha de la solicitud de condonación, se deberá manifestar el importe total por cada una de las contribuciones, desglosando el monto correspondiente a la contribución y en su caso, a las multas, recargos y actualización, anexando copia de la declaración correspondiente y/o el recibo bancario de pago de contribuciones, actualización, recargos, multas y/o cuotas compensatorias para determinar el monto a condonar de la parte insoluta del crédito fiscal de que se trate.

Las autoridades fiscales resolverán las solicitudes de condonación que presenten los contribuyentes en un plazo de tres meses contados a partir de la fecha de presentación de la solicitud respectiva. Si la resolución es favorable, la autoridad emitirá los formularios múltiples para el pago de los importes no condonados. El contribuyente deberá efectuar el pago de los importes no condonados en una sola exhibición dentro de los 10 días hábiles siguientes de la fecha en que surta efectos la notificación de la resolución emitida por la autoridad.

Deducción inmediata de inversiones

El beneficio fiscal a que pueden acogerse los contribuyentes objeto de esta investigación, por el que se otorga un estímulo fiscal en materia de deducción inmediata de bienes nuevos de activo fijo, deduciendo en el ejercicio en el que se efectúe la inversión de los bienes nuevos de activo fijo, en el que se inicie su utilización o en el ejercicio siguiente, la cantidad que resulte de aplicar al monto original de la inversión, (art. 220 y 221 de la LISR).

Los porcentajes serán en el caso de construcciones: 74% para inmuebles declarados como monumentos arqueológicos, artísticos, históricos o patrimoniales. 57% en los demás casos de construcciones; 87% para aviones dedicados a la aerofumigación agrícola; 88% para computadoras personales de escritorio y portátiles, servidores, impresoras, lectores ópticos, graficadores, lectores de códigos de barras, digitalizadores, unidades de almacenamiento externo y concentrador de redes de cómputo.

En cuanto a los porcentajes y para la maquinaria y equipo distintos a los señalados por tipo de bien, se aplicarán, de acuerdo a la actividad en la que sean utilizados, y en los porcentajes siguientes: 57% en la generación, conducción, transformación y distribución de electricidad; en la molienda de granos; en la producción de azúcar y sus derivados; en la fabricación de aceites comestibles; y en el transporte marítimo, fluvial y lacustre; 74% en el transporte eléctrico y en la fabricación de vehículos de motor y sus partes; 87% en la industria de la construcción; en actividades de agricultura, ganadería, silvicultura y pesca; 89% para los destinados directamente a la investigación de nuevos productos o desarrollo de tecnología en el país; 87% en la actividad del auto transporte público federal de carga o de pasajeros; 74% en otras actividades no especificadas en esta fracción.

En el caso de que el contribuyente se dedique a varias actividades, se aplicará el porcentaje de la deducción parcial o, en su caso, la deducción total que le corresponda a la actividad en la que hubiera obtenido mayores ingresos en el ejercicio inmediato anterior a aquel en el que realice la inversión. La opción no podrá ejercerse cuando se trate de mobiliario y equipo de oficina, automóviles, equipo de blindaje de automóviles, o cualquier bien de activo fijo no identificable ni tratándose de aviones distintos de los dedicados a la aerofumigación agrícola.

Es evidente que la deducción inmediata de activos beneficia a productores de limón del municipio de Tecomán, Col. que hagan inversiones en activos fijos nuevos que utilicen en su actividad agrícola, tales como tractores e implementos, aviones dedicados a la aerofumigación, etc.

Tasa 0% del IVA

La tasa del 0% que señala el artículo 2ª fracción I de la ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado (IVA), le permite a los productores recuperar mediante el mecanismo de la devolución, todo el IVA que pagaron al efectuar compras, inversiones en activos o gastos, lo que genera que el productor tenga la posibilidad de adquirir maquinaria y equipo de trabajo, tecnificar sus sistemas de riego, modernizar sistemas de calidad en el corte y recolección de la producción etc, con la seguridad de que aparte de contar con apoyos gubernamentales vía subsidios, podrá recuperar por medio de la solicitud de devolución, el IVA efectivamente pagado.

El artículo 6º del Reglamento de la Ley del IVA (RLIVA), hace una interesante precisión al señalar que para esta ley no se consideran industrializados los vegetales por el hecho de que sean sometidos a procesos de secado, limpiado, descascarado, despepitado o desgranado, situación que redunda en beneficio para los productores, al considerar el reglamento de la ley del IVA que estos procesos antes mencionados, no modifican el estado natural de los vegetales y en consecuencia siguen gozando del beneficio de la tasa del 0%.

No obligación de emitir cheques nominativos

La regla 1.12 de Facilidades Administrativas señala un beneficio fiscal para el sector primario, expresando que las personas físicas o morales que efectúen pagos a contribuyentes de dicho sector, cuyo monto no exceda de \$ 30,000.00 a una misma persona en un mismo mes de calendario, estarán relevadas de efectuarlos con cheque nominativo del contribuyente.

CONCLUSIONES

Al estudiar la regulación impositiva aplicable a la figura jurídica de la Sociedad de Producción Rural (SPR), se encontró que dicha estrategia para los agricultores del sector limonero del Valle de Tecomán, Colima, México, les proporciona como beneficios fiscales: ingresos exentos, reducciones de impuestos, condonación de créditos fiscales, devolución de saldos a favor, deducción inmediata de inversiones y otras obligaciones, las cuales constituyen una ventaja al analizar el sistema impositivo común para las empresas organizadas de acuerdo a las figuras de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles. Además son mayores los apoyos gubernamentales que pueden obtener los contribuyentes mencionados, incluyendo los que reciben las MiPyMEs.

Al contestar la pregunta de investigación sobre la que se centró el presente trabajo, ¿Cuáles son los beneficios fiscales en ISR e IVA así como los requisitos de la Ley de Ingresos para la obtención de subvenciones gubernamentales de que gozan los productores que se constituyen como SPR? se realizó una proyección de la aplicación de la ley de ISR, con diversos ejemplos, en los que se destacan las ventajas de tributar como SPR.

En conclusión, como estrategia fiscal para el importante sector del agro mexicano, a diferencia de algunas sociedades mercantiles, la SPR no se encuentra limitada en materia de extensión territorial y los productores tienen como beneficios: 1.- La exención en sus ingresos de 20 salarios mínimos del área geográfica del contribuyente por cada socio, sin exceder de 200 salarios mínimos generales del DF elevados al año. 2.- La oportunidad de aplicar reducción al ISR determinado 3.- Solicitar la devolución del IVA acreditable 4.- Las operaciones en efectivo pueden ser hasta 30 mil pesos. 5.- Poder acreditar contra el ISR a cargo, un monto equivalente a la cantidad que resulte de compra del diesel o solicitar trimestralmente la devolución del monto del IESPS que tenga derecho a acreditar. 6.- Beneficios por la obtención de subsidios con instituciones gubernamentales como son la Secretaría de Economía, SAGARPA, y la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social.

En síntesis con el análisis realizado se observa la ventaja comparativa de esta estrategia, ante otras formas de asociación, ya que quienes se dedican a la agricultura, si se organizan bajo esta figura legal, pueden optimizar su rentabilidad y obtener mayores beneficios federales que si se organizaran como MiPyMEs bajo alguna figura jurídica general de las contempladas en la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles.

Los apoyos gubernamentales a que los productores de limón del municipio de Tecomán, Col., tienen derecho, les permite tener mejor competitividad, además de poder aplicar los beneficios de la Ley de Ingresos de la Federación en materia de estímulos fiscales por el consumo de diesel en la actividad, y por

lo tanto solicitar los saldos a favor que se generen, cumpliendo con la normatividad específica, ya que la Ley de Ingresos de la Federación (LIF), ofrece un estímulo a las personas físicas o morales que utilicen diesel en las actividades agropecuarias o silvícolas, consistente en acreditar un monto equivalente a la cantidad que resulte de multiplicar el precio de adquisición del diesel en las estaciones de servicio y que conste en el comprobante correspondiente, incluido el IVA, por el factor de 0.355. Petróleos Mexicanos y organismos subsidiarios o sus agencias o distribuidores autorizados, deberán desglosar expresamente y por separado en el comprobante correspondiente el impuesto especial sobre producción y servicios que hubieran causado por la enajenación. El acreditamiento de referencia, podrá efectuarse contra el ISR que tenga el contribuyente a su cargo o contra las retenciones efectuadas a terceros por dicho impuesto. Las personas que adquieran diesel para su consumo final en las actividades agropecuarias, podrán solicitar la devolución del monto del impuesto especial sobre producción y servicios que tuvieran derecho acreditar.

Podrán solicitar la devolución, únicamente aquellas personas cuyos ingresos en el ejercicio inmediato anterior no hayan excedido de 20 veces el salario mínimo general correspondiente al área geográfica del contribuyente elevado al año. En ningún caso el monto de la devolución podrá ser superior a \$747.69 mensuales por cada persona física, salvo que se trate de personas físicas que cumplan sus obligaciones fiscales desarrollando actividades empresariales y profesionales, o que tributen en el régimen intermedio de las personas físicas con actividades empresariales de la LISR, en cuyo caso podrán solicitar la devolución de hasta \$1495.39 mensuales. La devolución correspondiente deberá ser solicitada trimestralmente en los meses de abril, julio, octubre y enero. Los contribuyentes deberán llevar un registro de control mensual de consumo de diesel, separando el consumido en las actividades agropecuarias o silvícolas, del utilizado para otros fines.

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IDENTIFICACIÓN DEL TIPO DE LIDERAZGO EN UN CENTRO AUTOMOTRIZ: UN DIAGNOSTICO Y UNA CRITICA

Eduardo F. Macias-Negrete, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. Esther A. Enríquez-Pérez, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Eduardo Zepeda, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez.

ABSTRACT

Este trabajo tiene dos objetivos fundamentales: uno es identificar los tipos de liderazgo que se ejercen en un centro de diseño automotriz y dos una crítica a ese tipo de liderazgo para concientizar a sus líderes y que posteriormente puedan tomar las mejores decisiones y transformar esta organización. Asimismo, se encontró que un líder debe de saber auto-dirigirse primero para dirigir a otros y lograr un verdadero dialogo con los demás para lograr influir en ellos. Se concluye que hay cinco tipos de liderazgo básicos y que de acuerdo al tipo de organización es el tipo de liderazgo que se debe emplear. Los tipos de liderazgo son: 1) el autocrático, 2) el paternalista, 3) el permisivo, 4) el democrático y 5) el situacional. Utilizando la prueba Chi cuadrada y un alfa de 0.05 se concluye primero que existe una diferencia significativa entre el perfil ideal de liderazgo que se ejerza, y tercero, que el liderazgo es dependiente del nivel académico de los que lo ejercen. Finalmente, se critica este tipo de análisis de liderazgo con el liderazgo crítico posmoderno.

PALABRAS CLAVE: liderazgo, democrático, dialogico.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El presente estudio aborda el problema del liderazgo que se ejerce en un centro técnico automotriz maquilador ubicado en el norte de México. El objetivo principal de esta investigación fue identificar el tipo de liderazgo que se ejerce en este centro técnico automotriz para ofrecer recomendaciones de estrategias de competitividad en el mercado global donde se encuentra inmerso. Se parte de que el verdadero líder es quien empieza a autodirigirse y a afinarse en la práctica de las virtudes humanas. El líder tendrá que poner el ejemplo y como resultado estará marcando la pauta para que sirva a otros como inspiración y a su vez busquen desarrollarse y desempeñarse de una manera integral. Se dice que el líder debe practicar las virtudes humanas porque el liderazgo es el arte de relacionarse adecuadamente con los demás. El problema de investigación de este proyecto es que a pesar de ser un centro técnico de diseño automotriz, la mezcla hibrida de liderazgo parece no ser la adecuada para este tipo de centros. Esperábamos encontrar un liderazgo más creativo y democrático por las características de las actividades que se desarrollan en este lugar. Al sistematizar el problema de investigación nos dimos cuenta que necesitábamos 1) tener un diagnostico fiel de la mezcla de liderazgo que se utiliza en esta organización y 2) también buscar que mezcla hibrida de liderazgo es mejor para que la empresa sea mas competitiva.

La importancia de realizar esta investigación estriba en el hecho de que esta empresa, al igual que otras, puede tomar consciencia de la mezcla hibrida de liderazgo que se ejerce dentro de la organización y visualizar la mezcla de liderazgo que debería de prevalecer de acuerdo con el tipo de actividades que se desarrollan dentro de la misma. El objetivo general de este proyecto de investigación es determinar la mezcla hibrida de liderazgo que utilizan los lideres que tienen personal a su cargo en este centro de diseño automotriz y ofrecer recomendaciones para transformar esa mezcla hibrida de liderazgo a una mas competitiva de acuerdo a las actividades propias de la organización.

La hipótesis de investigación tiene que ver con que la mezcla hibrida de liderazgo actual no es la adecuada para ser una empresa competitiva a nivel mundial de acuerdo a las actividades de diseño que lleva a cabo este centro técnico automotriz.

MARCO TEÓRICO DE REFERENCIA

Generalmente, los colaboradores individuales que buscan una promoción hacia posiciones de liderazgo, trabajan arduamente para conseguirlo, y cuando dicha oportunidad finalmente llega, se encuentran a la vista de la dirección, por lo que perciben la necesidad de producir resultados positivos para la empresa, reflejando así que se han integrado exitosamente a su nuevo rol. Es común que la dirección de las empresas solo se preocupa de promover a un buen elemento y en ese momento termine su proceso; sin embargo, muchas de las dificultades que el nuevo líder enfrenta tienen lugar durante la transición de colaborador individual a gerente o líder, en donde experimentan confusión y frustración al no tener claro las habilidades y aptitudes que requieren para adaptarse y desempeñarse exitosamente.

Lograr llevar a cabo un eficiente proceso de transición de roles es indispensable aunque no siempre es fácil. Desafortunadamente, muchas empresas no incorporan en sus planes este proceso de transición, por lo que pagan precios altos, aunado al pobre rendimiento del nuevo líder. Al parecer este es el caso del centro técnico automotriz que estamos estudiando, empresa internacional de la industria automotriz, con plantas y centros técnicos en más de 11 países. Debido a lo anterior, se ha detectado la necesidad de evaluar el proceso de transición a una posición de liderazgo en esta empresa, con el objetivo de llevar a cabo un diagnostico oportuno y verídico, para que la organización pueda analizar alternativas viables de cambio y emprender acciones acorde a sus estrategias de negocio que logren mejorar significativamente este proceso de transición, y de esa manera desarrollar verdaderos lideres que contribuyan positivamente al éxito de la empresa y de sus integrantes. Al final de este proyecto podremos verificar si el proceso de transición de liderazgo influye significativamente en el desempeño del nuevo líder.

Antecedentes Históricos

Conforme cambian las circunstancias organizacionales y las personas, también van cambiando los estilos de liderazgo. En la actualidad la gente anda en busca de líderes ejemplares que los auxilien a lograr sus objetivos organizacionales. A este respecto Quijano (2003) hace una muy interesante clasificación por periodos históricos de liderazgo:

- 1. Liderazgo de conquista. Durante este periodo la principal amenaza era la conquista. La gente buscaba al dirigente supremo; el mandatario despótico y dominante que prometiera a la gente seguridad a cambio de su honestidad e impuestos.
- 2. Liderazgo Comercial. A principios del periodo industrial, la seguridad ya no era la función primordial de liderazgo y la gente empezaba a indagar acerca de aquellos líderes que pudieran enseñarle sobre como mejorar su nivel de vida.
- 3. Liderazgo de organización. Durante este periodo los estándares de vida fueron más fáciles de lograr por lo que pudieron ser mejorados sustancialmente. La gente comenzó a buscar un lugar a donde "pertenecer". La medida del liderazgo se convirtió en la capacidad de organizarse.
- 4. Liderazgo de Innovación. Conforme se acrecentó el nivel de innovación, a menudo los productos y técnicas se volvían obsoletas antes de salir de los consejos de planeación. Los lideres del momento eran aquellos que eran extremadamente innovadores y conseguían manipular las dificultades de la creciente velocidad con la que se obsoletaban.

- 5. Liderazgo de la Información. Los tres últimos periodos se desarrollaron con extremada rapidez empezando en la década de los 20's. Se ha hecho indiscutible que ninguna sociedad puede sobrevivir sin líderes que entiendan y sepan como se maneja la información. El líder moderno de la información es aquel que mejor procesa, interpreta y manipula la información de una manera inteligente y creativa.
- 6. Liderazgo de la Nueva Edad. Los lideres requieren saber como se manejan las nuevas tecnologías, van a necesitar saber como pensar para poder estudiar y simplificar efectivamente la información que están recibiendo. A pesar de la nueva tecnología, su dedicación debe seguir enfocada en el individuo. Deberán saber que los líderes dirigen gente, no cosas, números, ni proyectos.

Quijano (2003) termina diciendo que los líderes tendrán que contar con la capacidad de proporcionar lo que la gente requiera con el fin de motivar a quienes están dirigiendo. Tendrán que desarrollar su capacidad de escuchar para describir lo que la gente quiere. Y deberán desarrollar su capacidad de planear, tanto en el corto como en el largo plazos, para mantener un margen de competencia.

Esta clasificación histórico-periódica de liderazgo peca de ser un poco clientelar donde los beneficios del liderazgo van a darse a costas de los subordinados y/o de los clientes externos de la organización y donde como siempre el líder quiere maximizar ganancias minimizando mano de obra. Una séptima clasificación la da Boje (2008) con lo que el llama el liderazgo dialogico.

7. Liderazgo Dialogico. Este es un periodo al que todavía no se llega en la práctica, quizás apenas estemos entrando en este nuevo tipo de liderazgo a nivel teórico. El liderazgo dialogico de acuerdo con Boje (2008) tiene que ver con la generatividad antenarrativa y no con el consenso o la linearidad del pensamiento. La antenarrativa es la forma en que una persona dice su historia sobre algún tema. La antenarrativa no contiene una dirección lógica, mas bien es compleja y sin niveles jerárquicos y más bien podría ser holográfica, es decir que se refleja hacia muchos lados.

Siguiendo a Bajtin (1984) y a Buber (1958) el líder dialogico tiene primeramente un dialogo tipo Yo-TU en sus relaciones con los demás como se ve en la Figura 1. Dice Buber que:

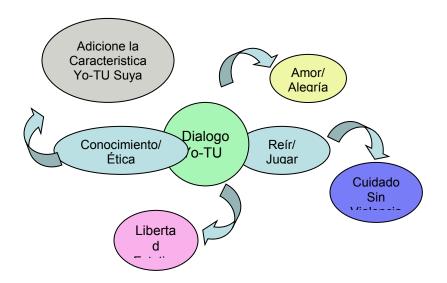
Hay tres esferas que emergen del mundo de las relaciones:

Primero nuestras relaciones con nuestra naturaleza. En esta esfera la relación oscila en la penumbra, por debajo del nivel del lenguaje. Las criaturas se mueven en contra de nosotros, pero no pueden venir hacia nosotros, y cuando nos dirigimos a ellas como TU nuestro mundo se aferra al umbral del lenguaje.

La segunda esfera es nuestra relación con el hombre. Allí la relación es abierta y en forma de lenguaje. En esta esfera nosotros podemos dar y recibir el TU como forma de relación.

La tercera con los seres espirituales. Aquí la relación no esta muy clara, aun así se devela así misma; no usa lenguaje, aun así se devela. Nosotros no percibimos el TU; pero sin embargo, sentimos que alguien se dirige hacia nosotros y contestamos – formando, pensando, actuando.

En cada esfera en su propia manera, a través de cada proceso de llegar a ser que se nos presenta, vemos hacia la frontera, el limite del TU eterno; en cada limite somos advertidos del suspiro del TU eterno; en cada TU nos dirigimos al TU eterno.



Esta figura muestra las características básicas del liderazgo dialogico. El dialogo Yo-TU es el fundamento de este tipo de liderazgo, el cual obviamente implica un tipo especial de dialogo con los demás. Dos aspectos importantes de ese fundamento son el conocimiento/ética y el reír/jugar en las relaciones con los demás. Las consecuencias de un liderazgo dialogico son: amor/alegría por los demás, el cuidado sin violencia, la libertad/estetica y adicione la característica que usted crea falte en este liderazgo dialogico.

Lo anterior significa que nuestras relaciones se pueden dividir en tres esferas: con la naturaleza, es decir con los animales, plantas y ecosistemas; con el hombre; y con los seres espirituales, solo hay dos -los valores del mercado que son inhumanos, tales como, el hacer dinero a costa de los demás y los valores que no son del mercado y que nos humanizan, tales como, el amor, el cuidado y el servicio a los demás (West, 1999). Cada vez que tenemos relaciones dentro de estas tres esferas, podemos hacerlo volteando hacia el TU eterno. Es decir, cada vez que nos relacionemos con alguien o con algo podemos hacerlo de acuerdo al TU eterno con los valores que nos humanizan (Buber, 1958).

Conceptualizacion De Liderazgo.

Después de analizar diversas definiciones de liderazgo (Diccionario de la lengua Española, 1986; Cordeiro, 1999; Kotter, 1999; Stephen, C. 1997; Garcia, 2006; Chiavenato 1993; Davis, 2003) la conceptualización de Stodgill (1959) fue la más robusta en cuanto a su profundidad y alcance. Stodgill (1959) resume en sus teorías de investigación del liderazgo, que hay tantas definiciones como personas que han intentado definir el concepto. El liderazgo gerencial es el proceso de dirigir las actividades laborales de los miembros de un grupo y de lograr ser una influencia en ellas. Esta definición tiene cuatro implicaciones importantes:

En primer termino, el liderazgo involucra a otras personas, los empleados y/o los subordinados. Los integrantes del grupo dado su carácter para acatar las indicaciones del líder auxilian a delimitar el enfoque del líder y permiten que suceda el proceso de liderazgo. Si no existiera a quien dirigir, las cualidades del liderazgo serian irrelevantes. En segundo término el liderazgo implica una distribución diversa del poder.

En tercer término el liderazgo es la aptitud para emplear los distintos métodos y poder influenciar el comportamiento de sus subordinados, de distintas maneras. En cuarto término el liderazgo es una mezcla de los anteriores, pero admite también que el liderazgo es un asunto de valores. El liderazgo moral se refiere a los valores y se necesita que se ofrezca a los subordinados la información moral necesaria en cualquier toma de decisiones del líder (Burns, 1985).

Estilos De Liderazgo

El estilo de liderazgo se refiere al patrón de conducta de un líder, según lo perciben los demás. El estilo se desarrolla a partir de experiencias, educación y capacitación. Existen diversas teorías sobre la conducta y el estilo de liderazgo; sin embargo, por motivos de importancia y espacio solo incluiremos el liderazgo de acuerdo al grado de autoridad ejercida. Se incluye solo este estilo porque es la base de dirección del presente estudio. Según diversos autores (Zaleznik, 1975; Granados, 1999; Perlman y Cozby, 1985; Cornejo, 1999) existen diferentes estilos de liderazgo de los cuales se aplica una mezcla hibrida para satisfacer los requisitos muy específicos de cada empresa:

- I. Liderazgo Autocrático. Individuo que sabe como dirigir, que es firme en sus convicciones, inicia las acciones, acepta sus responsabilidades de supervisión y la responsabilidad de sus decisiones. Lo que lo caracteriza es que sanciona, decreta, señala, dirige, motiva y controla a sus subalternos. La decisión y la guía se gira en torno a el. Se considera que solo el es competente y apto para tomar decisiones importantes, considera que sus subalternos son incapaces de guiarse de guiarse a si mismos o puede tener otras razones para asumir una sólida posición de fuerza y control. Ejemplos de este estilo de liderazgo son: las organizaciones militares, fabricantes de aviones, paracaídas, algunos servicios médicos.
- II. Liderazgo paternalista. Auxilia a sus subalternos y justifica su actuación. Es autoritario, pero escucha más que el autoritario, controla y domina, recompensando a quienes le obedecen y sanciona a los insubordinados. Lo que el espera es lealtad y obediencia totales, en momentos puede llegar a ser arrogante y autosuficiente, crea dependencia porque no permite el desarrollo de sus colaboradores quienes tienen que cumplir sus órdenes sin cuestionar. Normalmente esta interesado en los resultados y si las personas cumplen, les muestra simpatía y comprensión. Ejemplos de este estilo de liderazgo pudieran ser: sindicatos, partidos políticos y organismos públicos.
- III. Liderazgo permisivo. En este estilo de liderazgo el líder toma decisiones con rapidez y mezcla sus sentimientos y emociones. La manera en que se comunica es impulsiva, y la forma en que se expresa es muy agradable. Es muy extrovertido y le agrada estar en continua actividad. Le desagrada la monotonía y la vida cómoda, es flexible a la hora de cambiar las decisiones. Le gusta escuchar a la gente, pero tiende a interrumpir para ofrecer sus consejos o recomendaciones. Le encanta escuchar y compartir historias exitosas de personas. Ejemplos puros de este estilo de liderazgo podrían ser: compañías de teatro y cine, organizaciones artísticas y literarias.
- IV. Liderazgo democrático. Es aquel que impulsa la interacción entre el grupo, procura el funcionamiento armoniosos sin dominio, tiene confianza en su grupo, orienta, opina y también pide opiniones. Lo que caracteriza al estilo participativo es que utiliza la consulta para practicar el liderazgo. No confia su derecho a tomar decisiones finales en alguien más y señala directrices específicas a sus subalternos pero platica sobre sus ideas y opiniones y sobre muchas decisiones que les conciernen. SI desea ser un líder participativo eficaz, escucha y analiza seriamente las ideas de sus subalternos y acepta sus propuestas siempre y cuando sean posibles y practicas. Cultiva la toma de decisiones de sus subalternos para que sus ideas sean cada vez más útiles y maduras. Impulsa a sus subordinados a desarrollar su capacidad de auto control y les pide asumir más responsabilidad para guiar sus propios esfuerzos. Apoya a sus

subalternos y no asume una postura de tirano. Sin embargo, la autoridad final en asuntos de importancia sigue en sus manos. Ejemplos puros de este estilo de liderazgo podrían ser: centros de investigación, grupos parlamentarios, y otros.

V. Liderazgo situacional. Casi siempre se presenta sin líder fijo, es orientador, y lo que importa es que entienda que liderar significa formar e impulsar nuevos líderes para que respondan a las situaciones especiales que están viviendo. Es decir, formar a la gente que tiene a su alrededor, animar a la gente de su grupo, ayudarlos a reconocer que ser líder es fundamentalmente aprender a comunicarse sin desconfianza, a fortalecerse cada vez más a través de acciones coherentes con lo mejor que uno piensa y siente. Ejemplos de este estilo de liderazgo pueden ser: compañías de seguros, casas de bolsa, bancos, organizaciones policiacas, etcétera.

METODOLOGÍA

Para llevar a cabo la presente investigación utilizamos el método cuantitativo porque medimos el grado en que los líderes de esta organización utilizan determinado estilo de liderazgo y porque este enfoque se fundamenta en un esquema deductivo y lógico que busca formular preguntas de investigación e hipótesis para posteriormente probarlas (Sampieri, 2004). Debido a que solo tomamos una vez la información el proyecto es de naturaleza transeccional (Sampieri, 2004). La población con que trabajamos incluyo a todo el personal que tiene gente a su cargo del centro técnico automotriz. Se eligió este grupo de 260 lideres porque son ellos los que emplean un determinado estilo de liderazgo para con su gente a cargo. De los 260 líderes, 120 son mujeres y 140 hombres provenientes de 12 diferentes departamentos. Se obtuvo una muestra de 118 lo que represento el 45% de la población, utilizando la formula general para

$$n = [kNpq/e(N-1)+kpq]$$

Donde n es el tamaño de la muestra, k es una constante que depende del nivel de confianza asignado 3%, N es el tamaño de la población 260, p y q son las proporciones de individuos que poseen en la población la característica en estudio .50 que es la opción más segura porque nos da el tamaño de n máximo, y e es el error muestral deseado que en este caso fue de 0.25. Para tomar la muestra se utilizo el método aleatorio simple cuidando cubrir aproximadamente el 45% del personal de cada departamento.

La técnica de recolección de datos usada fue el cuestionario. El cuestionario fue diseñado por nosotros el cual incluyo 8 preguntas demográficas y 22 de los diferentes estilos de liderazgo sumando en total 30 preguntas. Se utilizo la escala de Likert con opciones del 1 al 5 siendo el 1 el menos importante o nunca se hace y el 5 el mas importante o siempre se hace Para validar el cuestionario se pidió a 10 maestros de administración que llenaran el cuestionario y nos dieran sus puntos de vista en cuanto al lenguaje y a la teoría. Este proceso de validación nos llevo a cambiar algunas preguntas que estaban demasiado directas, algunas confusas y otras no muy definidas en cuanto al estilo de liderazgo que querían representar (Tamayo y Tamayo, 1997).

La técnica de análisis de datos usada en esta investigación fue la prueba de bondad de ajuste multinomial. Esta técnica es considerada una prueba paramétrica que mide la discrepancia entre una frecuencia observada y una frecuencia teórica, indicando en qué medida las diferencias existentes, de haberlas, se deben al azar o a diferencias verdaderas. El procedimiento de prueba es un método analítico que requiere una muestra de tamaño n de la variable aleatoria x. Estas n observaciones se arreglan en grupos de frecuencias, teniendo k intervalos de clase f_{oi} la frecuencia observada en el i-esimo intervalo de clase. De la distribución de probabilidad hipotética, se calcula la frecuencia esperada en el i-esimo intervalo de clase, identificada como f_{ei} . La estadística de prueba es la siguiente:

$$X^2 = \sum \left[\left. f_{oi} \text{ - } f_{ei} \right. \right]^2 / \left. f_{ei} \right.$$

De esta manera podemos demostrar que X² sigue aproximadamente una distribución Chi cuadrada. Se rechaza la hipótesis de que x se ajusta a la distribución hipotética, si $X_c^2 > X_t^2$ donde c es el valor calculado y t es el valor de la tabla según el nivel de significancia escogido (Anderson, Sweeney, Williams, 2004).

ANÁLISIS DE DATOS

La primera hipótesis planteada en este estudio fue:

Tabla 1: Frecuencias Observadas y Esperadas.

H_o: Las proporciones de los estilos de liderazgo en el centro técnico automotriz se apegan a una distribución multinomial igual a la mejor empresa de la competencia o benchmarking.

H_a: Las proporciones de los estilos de liderazgo en el centro técnico automotriz se apegan a una distribución multinomial diferente de la mejor empresa de la competencia o benchmarking.

Para probar esta hipótesis se consideraron los puntos totales de las respuestas a las preguntas 8 a 30 de las cuales se obtuvieron un total de 2507 puntos distribuyéndose de la siguiente manera:

Tipo de liderazgo	Frecuencias Observadas	Probabilidades	Frecuencias E
Autocrático	06	3 8 3 0/2	100.28

Tipo de liderazgo	Frecuencias Observadas	Probabilidades	Frecuencias Esperadas	Probabilidades
Autocrático	96	3.83%	100.28	4%
Paternalista	231	9.21%	250.7	10%
Permisivo	133	5.31%	125.35	5%
Democrático	1819	72.56%	1754.9	70%
Situacional	228	9.09%	275.77	11%
Total	2507	100%	2507	100%

En esta tabla se muestran las frecuencias observadas de los estilos de liderazgo del centro técnico automotriz y esperadas de la mejor empresa de la competencia.

La frecuencia esperada se calculo de acuerdo a los datos históricos estimados del mejor centro técnico automotriz donde se realizan operaciones similares. A un alfa de 0.05 obtuvimos lo siguientes resultados:

 $X_c^2 = 12.81$ y $X_t^2 = 9.487$ Si $X_c^2 > X_t^2$

Entonces rechazamos H_0 probando que en verdad existen diferencias reales entre los estilos de liderazgo del centro técnico automotriz y el centro técnico de la competencia.

En cuanto a la segunda hipótesis tenemos que:

H_o: Los estilos de liderazgo de los empleados del centro técnico automotriz son independientes del género.

H_a: Los estilos de liderazgo de los empleados del centro técnico automotriz son dependientes del género.

En este caso se realizo una prueba de independencia para determinar si el liderazgo tiene que ver con el hecho de que sean hombres o mujeres los líderes, obteniendo las siguientes frecuencias:

Tabla 2: Frecuencias observadas para determinar independencia entre estilo y género.

Genero	Autocrático	Paternalista	Permisivo	Democrático	Situacional
Hombre	42	106	68	967	106
Mujer	52	118	61	869	118

Esta tabla muestra las frecuencias observadas de los estilos de liderazgo del centro técnico automotriz clasificados por género. Estos datos se obtuvieron del cuestionario contestado por los lideres de este centro.

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Tabla 3: Frecuencias	SUCLAUAS DALA		անուսան	ותנום כוונוכ כ	STHO V SCHULO

Genero	Autocrático	Paternalista	Permisivo	Democrático	Situacional
Hombre	48.3310	115.1719	66.3266	943.9984	115.1719
Mujer	45.6689	108.8280	62.6733	892.0015	108.8280

Esta tabla muestra las frecuencias esperadas de los estilos de liderazgo del centro técnico automotriz clasificados por género. Para el calculo de cada celda se tomo el total de hombres o mujeres entre el doble total entre cada uno de los estilos. Por ejemplo para obtener el valor esperado del Hombre autocrático se toma el total de hombres entre el doble total por el total autocrático.

Como $X_c^2 = 5.954 < X_t^2 = 9.487$ por lo tanto aceptamos H_o a un nivel de significancia de 0.05. Lo que significa que el estilo de liderazgo es independiente del género.

La tercera hipótesis planteada en este estudio fue saber si el nivel educativo tenía que ver con el estilo de liderazgo:

H_o: El estilo de liderazgo de los empleados del centro técnico automotriz es independiente del nivel académico.

H_a: El estilo de liderazgo de los empleados del centro técnico automotriz es dependiente del nivel académico.

Tabla 4: Frecuencias observadas para determinar independencia entre estilo de liderazgo y nivel educativo.

Nivel de Estudios	Autocrático	Paternalista	Permisivo	Democrático	Situacional
Licenciatura	57	76	63	768	220
Especialidad	11	61	41	551	81
Maestría	21	48	18	186	46
Doctorado	0	0	0	0	0
Técnico	14	30	26	156	33

Esta tabla muestra los estilos de liderazgo en relación al nivel educativo de los líderes del centro técnico automotriz. Estos datos fueron obtenidos a través del cuestionario que se pidió que llenaran en dicho centro.

Nivel de estudios	Autocrático	Paternalista	Permisivo	Democrático	Situacional
Licenciatura	48.64	10154	70	784.45	179.47
Especialidad	30.61	63.89	43.98	493.60	112.92
Maestría	13.11	27.36	18.83	211.35	48.35
Doctorado	0	0	0	0	0
Técnico	10.64	22.21	15.29	171.60	39.26

Tabla 5: Frecuencias esperadas para determinar independencia entre estilo de liderazgo y nivel educativo

Esta tabla muestra las frecuencias esperadas de los estilos de liderazgo en relación al nivel educativo de los líderes del centro técnico automotriz.

Como $X_c^2 = 83.866 > X_t^2 = 26.296$ rechazamos la hipótesis nula con un nivel de significancia de 0.05. Lo que significa que el nivel educativo y los estilos de liderazgo son dependientes uno del otro.

CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES

Primero, concluimos que para que mejore la mezcla organizacional del centro técnico automotriz y pueda competir contra el mejor de su ramo es necesario que baje el nivel del liderazgo democrático en casi 3% y suba el nivel del liderazgo situacional en casi 2%. Para ello recomendamos se capacite a los lideres del centro técnico automotriz en el liderazgo situacional.Segundo, Encontramos también que el estilo de liderazgo no tiene que ver con el género, contrario a lo que se piensa que la mujer sea diferente al ejercer su liderazgo. Tercero, se concluyo que el estilo de liderazgo depende del nivel educativo de los líderes. Es decir, que a mayor nivel educativo mejor será la mezcla de estilos de liderazgo. Esto nos lleva a

Finalmente, aunque la metodología utilizada en este estudio no incluyo al liderazgo dialogico, pensamos que sería de gran utilidad llevar a cabo un estudio cualitativo que incluyera este liderazgo por todas las ventajas teóricas que en la actualidad ofrece. Entre las más importantes estarían que se empezarían a reducir las empresas de armamento militar, casinos, bares, CO₂ que tanto daño hacen a la comunidad. Ello debido a la cuestión ética del liderazgo dialogico.

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BIOGRAFIA

Eduardo F. Macias-Negrete, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. edmacias@nmsu.edu

Esther A. Enríquez-Pérez, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. esthenri@nmsu.edu

Eduardo Zepeda, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. edie_zepe@hotmail.com

DESERCIÓN DE LOS ESTUDIOS DE POSTGRADO EN VENEZUELA: APROXIMACIONES A SUS FACTORES VINCULANTES

Gabriel Aguilar, Universidad del Zulia-Venezuela Rubén Araujo Cobarrubio, Universidad del Zulia-Venezuela Caterina Clemenza, Universidad del Zulia-Venezuela

RESUMEN

El propósito de esta ponencia es analizar los factores que promueven la deserción de los programas de postgrado en las universidades de Venezuela, tomando como referente empírico dos universidades de la región zuliana: La Universidad del Zulia (LUZ), la cual es pública y autónoma y la Universidad privada Rafael Belloso Chacín (URBE), especificamente la maestría gerencia de empresas y el doctorado de Ciencias Sociales y el doctorado en Ciencias Gerenciales respectivamente. La metodología empleada es de tipo documental y descriptiva. Los datos se obtuvieron de la revisión bibliográfica y hemerográfica, así como de la aplicación de la técnica de grupos focales para levantar la información empírica. Para ello, se consideraron 64 participantes que se encontraban en condición irregular, es decir, no iban al ritmo académico de su cohorte inicial. Esta muestra, se conglomeró en 8 grupos de 8 participantes cada uno. Los resultados teóricos obtenidos ponen de manifiesto que entre los factores relevantes de la deserción se encuentran, principalmente; aquellos de carácter psicológico y muy en especial los relacionados al elemento vocacional. Mientras que los resultados empíricos demostraron que los factores de carácter socioeconómico y familiares también son comunes al tema de la deserción. Ninguna de las fuentes bibliográficas analizadas, consideran la interrelación de factores que expliquen la migración de participantes de universidades públicas hacia universidades privadas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Deserción en los postgrados, Educación Universitaria, Factores de Deserción, Modelos de Deserción.

BIOGRAFIA

Gabriel Aguilar: Economista. Magíster en Gerencia de Operaciones. Profesor- Investigador del Instituto de Investigaciones de la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Sociales. Universidad del Zulia. Venezuela. Becario de la Fundación Carolina. gabriel.aguilar@cantv.net, fegaos@cantv.net

Rubén Araujo: Doctor en Ciencias Gerenciales. Magister en Gerencia de empresas. Economista, Comunicador Social. Profesor-Investigador Agregado del Núcleo Costa Oriental del Lago de la Universidad del Zulia. Acreditado al Programa de Promoción al Investigador (PPI-ONCTI). Tel. 04167604828 e-mail raraujove@yahoo.es

Caterina Clemenza, Doctora en Ciencias Gerenciales. Postdoctora en Ciencias de la Educación. Profesora – investigadora Titular adscrita al Instituto de Investigaciones de la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Sociales de la Universidad del Zulia. Acreditada al Programa de Promoción al Investigador (PPI-ONCTI). E-mail: caterinaclemenza@yahoo.es

CARACTERIZACIÓN METODOLÓGICA PARA EVALUAR EL IMPACTO DE LOS SISTEMAS DE GESTIÓN DE LA CALIDAD ISO 9001, EN LAS UTILIDADES OPERATIVAS DE LAS EMPRESAS DE LA ZONA INDUSTRIAL MAMONAL

Tomás José Fontalvo Herrera, Universidad de Cartagena José Morelos Gómez, Universidad de Cartagena Adel Alfonso Mendoza Mendoza, Universidad Libre de Barranquilla

RESUMEN

En el desarrollo de esta Investigación se presenta una caracterización metodológica que permite evaluar el impacto de los sistemas de Gestión de la Calidad ISO 9001 en el mejoramiento de las utilidades operativas de las Empresas de la Zona Industrial de Mamonal, para lo cual se elaboró una investigación en donde se desarrolló un proceso de análisis, contrastación, síntesis y proposición para la estructuración de un modelo, que permitiera evaluar el impacto referenciado previamente. Para lo cual, se propone diseñar, calcular y analizar indicadores de utilidad y liquidez en las empresas certificadas de la Zona Industrial de Mamonal en Cartagena en los últimos 5 años. Esto por medio de la aplicación del concepto de Análisis de Discriminante Multivariado (DMA).

PALABRAS CLAVES: Evaluación del impacto financiero, Análisis Discriminante, Sistemas de Gestión de la calidad

ABSTRACT

In the development of this Investigation one presents a methodological characterization that allows to evaluate the impact of the systems of Management of the ISO Quality 9001 in the improvement of the operative usefulness of the Companies of Mamonal's Industrial park, for which elaborated an investigation where a process of analysis developed, constrastación, synthesis and proposition for the structure of a model, who was allowing to evaluate the impact indexed before. For which, it proposes to design, to calculate and to analyze indicators of usefulness and liquidity in the certified companies of Mamonal's Industrial park in Cartagena in the last 5 years. This by means of the application of the concept of Discriminate Multivariate's Analysis (DMA)

KEY WORDS: Evaluation of the financial impact, Analysis Discriminante, Systems of Management of the quality

JEL: G33

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este artículo se presenta la caracterización metodológica para evaluar el impacto de los sistemas de gestión de la calidad ISO 9001, en el mejoramiento de las utilidades operativas de las empresas de la zona industrial Mamonal y los beneficios que genera la Implementación de éstos Sistemas en dichas empresas. Ésta es una Investigación, soportada en los métodos de recolección de datos cuantitativos, cualitativos. De igual manera se utiliza el análisis de discriminante , el cual permite analizar el impacto que los procesos de certificación generan en las utilidades operativas de las empresas objeto de estudio de esta investigación.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Para el desarrollo de este trabajo de Investigación se trabajó con los referentes conceptuales asociados con Evaluación de Sistemas Organizacionales, Estructura de la Norma ISO 9001:2008, Sistema de Gestión de la Calidad, Criterios para la evaluación del impacto de la Norma ISO 9001:2008 en la Utilidad Operativa en las empresas de la Zona Industrial de Mamonal, Modelos Multivariados y Conceptos de Análisis Discriminante.

MÉTODOLOGÍA

Esta es una investigación donde se utiliza un análisis cualititativo, descriptivo propositivo y cuantitativo, soportada en un análisis Discriminante Multivariado (DMA).para contrastar si en dos periodos distintos se puede evidenciar la evolución de los estado financieros como resultado de la implementación de los sistemas de gestión de la calidad con base en la Norma ISO 9001. Para lo que se estudian los rubros requeridos de los estados financieros que permitan evaluar los impactos generados en las empresas certificadas de la Zona Industrial de Mamonal de la ciudad de Cartagena. La población de esta Investigación son 120 empresas de la Zona Industrial de Mamonal, certificadas con base en la Norma ISO 9001:2000 y ISO 9001:2008 en los últimos cinco años comprendido entre el 2005 y el 2009. Por ser una población finita utilizaremos toda la población como muestra. Se trabajará con los estados financieros de estos años (2005 y 2009).

RESULTADOS

Análisis De La Evaluación Del Impacto De Los Sistemas De Gestión ISO 9001:2008 En Las Utilidades Operativas En Las Empresas Industriales De Mamonal.

Para la realización del presente estudio se seleccionaron 120 empresas del sector Industrial de Mamonal que alcanzaron la certificación en los últimos 5 años ubicadas en el departamento de Bolívar, la información financiera referente a estas empresas ha sido tomada de la Superintendencia de Sociedades. La información con que se trabajó fue obtenida de los boletines estadísticos de los años 2005 y 2009. Con la información anterior se procedió a calcular los índices financieros necesarios para al se utiliza el Análisis Discriminante Multivariado (DMA). Para la realización de este estudio se utilizaron indicadores de liquidez, y rentabilidad. A continuación se encuentra la relación de las razones financieras y el nombre que toman dentro de cada una de las metodologías:

Tabla 1: Variable e indicadores utilizados para realizar el análisis de discriminante

Variable	Indicador
X1	Razón Corriente
X2	Prueba Acida
X3	Prueba de Liquidez
X4	UAI
X5	Utilidades del Ejercicio

Esta tabla muestra la relación de variables e indicadores para realizar el análisis discrimínate en la zona industrial de Mamonal.

Modelo de evaluación del impacto en las utilidades en las empresa de la zona industrial de Mamonal. Cartagena - Colombia, como resultado de los procesos de certificación basado Análisis Discriminante Multivariado (DMA). Para la construcción del modelo se pueden utilizar diferentes metodologías cuando se utiliza análisis Discriminante, el autor Cesar Pérez (1) En su libro "Técnicas de Análisis Multivariante de Datos" señala que el análisis discriminante puede interpretar una o varias funciones (simultanea o paso a paso) para de esta manera validar un resultado. Para el presente estudio se procedió a utilizar la metodología de estimación por etapas para de esta manera ir seleccionando secuencialmente la variable que mejor discrimina en cada paso, de esta forma se identifica un conjunto reducido de variables y se eliminan las variables que no son útiles para discriminar entre los grupos. Como criterio de selección de variables que mejor discriminan se utilizó la distancia D2 de Mahalanobis que es una medida de distancia generalizada y se basa en la distancia euclidea al cuadrado generalizada que se adecúa a varianzas desiguales, la regla de selección en este procedimiento es maximizar la distancia D2 de Mahalanobis. La distancia multivariante entre los grupos a y b se define como:

$$H_{ab}^{2} = (n - g) \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} W_{ij} * \left(X_{i}^{(a)} - X_{i}^{(b)} \right) \left(X_{j}^{(a)} - X_{j}^{(b)} \right)$$
(1)

Donde n es el número de casos válidos, g es el número de grupos, $X_i^{(a)}$ es la media del grupo a en la iésima variable independiente, $X_i^{(b)}$ es la media del grupo b en la i-ésima variable independiente, y W_{ij} es un elemento de la inversa de la matriz de varianzas-covarianzas intra-grupos.

Del mismo modo el autor Cesar Pérez (1) en su libro "técnicas de Análisis Multivariante de Datos", señala que el análisis de varianza descompone la variabilidad del resultado de un experimento en componentes independientes (variación total descompuesta en variaciones particulares).Como cualquier otra técnica estadística la aplicación de la misma ha de ir precedida de una comprobación de los supuestos asumidos por el modelo. El análisis discriminante se apoya en los siguientes supuestos: 1) *Normalidad* Multivariante, 2) Igualdad de Matrices de Varianza-Covarianza, 3) Linealidad, 4) Ausencia de multicolinealidad y singularidad.

METODOLOGÍA PARA LA CONSTRUCCIÓN DEL MODELO

Con el fin de construir un modelo, se ha propuesto la siguiente metodología para el desarrollo del mismo: Criterios para clasificación de empresas, Verificación de los supuestos, Selección de las variables que mejor discriminan, Validación del modeloPara la prueba de Multinormalidad utilizando el Test de Mardia se puede determinar si se viola el supuesto de multinormalidad, esto no es preocupante ya que como lo han mencionado varios autores el modelo es robusto frente a la violación de este supuesto. Además Tabachnick y Fidel (2) sugieren un tamaño de muestra de al menos veinte individuos y tamaño de grupos similares para que el modelo sea robusto ante la violación del supuesto de multinormalidad. Lo cual se cumple en el estudio realizado al contar con más de 120 empresas.

Para el desarrollo del modelo se utilizarán los datos de las variables transformadas ya que éstos se distribuyen normalmente lo que aumenta la precisión de probabilidad de pertenencia a los grupos.Como se mencionó anteriormente el criterio de selección de las variables es el de la distancia D2 de Mahalanobis, las variables que mejor discriminan entre los dos grupos se utilizaran para calcular la función Discrimínate. El procedimiento que se realizó para discriminar entre el grupo de variables fue el siguiente:

- Observación de la significancia estadística de varias funciones alternativas, analizando también la contribución relativa de cada variable independiente.

- Evaluación de las ínter correlaciones entre las variables relevantes.
- Observación de la efectividad predictiva de varios grupos de ratios.
- Evaluación según el criterio del investigador.

Selección De Variables Discriminante

Los autores Alicia Sanchis, Jose A. Gil, Antonio Heras. (3), señalan que a la hora de llevar a cabo la selección de indicadores que mejor anticipen la selección de variables en una zona industrial, se parte de un conjunto amplio en donde se seleccionan los indicadores más significativos dentro del análisis de la situación financiera. Por lo que para el sector de Mamonal se tomaron los siguientes:

X1= Razón corriente, X2= Prueba acida, X3= Prueba de liquidez, X4= UAI, X5=Utilidades del ejercicio, Z= Índice general.

El resultado final del modelo para caracterización metodológica para evaluar el impacto de los sistemas de gestión de la calidad ISO 9001, en el mejoramiento de las utilidades operativas de las empresas de la zona industrial Mamonal viene dado por:

Z = A(Razón Cte) + B(Prueba acida) + C(Prueba de liquidez) + D(UAI) + E(Udel Eje) (2) Los valores de A, B, C, D y E corresponden a los factores que mejor discriminan los valores del universo analizado, correspondientes a las empresas del sector de Mamonal de la ciudad de Cartagena-Colombia.

CONCLUSIÓN

En este trabajo se elaboró un caracterización metodológica para evaluar el impacto de los sistemas de gestión de la calidad ISO 9001, en el mejoramiento de las utilidades operativas de las empresas de la zona industrial Mamonal ubicadas en el departamento de Bolívar como una herramienta de apoyo que puede ser utilizada por los gerentes de estas empresas para tomar decisiones referentes a la implementación de sistemas asociados con estas normas Internacionales.

De igual forma como resultado de este trabajo de Investigación, se aportó al sector industrial de Mamonal un estudio científico en donde se puede calcular la Incidencia de la implementación y certificación de los sistemas de Gestión de la Calidad con base en la Norma ISO 9001 en la utilidad operativa de las empresas que utilizan este modelo para mejorar sus procesos de calidad y Estandarización.

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Tomás José Fontalvo Herrera, Jefe de Departamento de Organización Industrial, Docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad de Cartagena, adscrito a la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas en el programa de Administración Industrial. Dirección Piedra de Bolívar. Avenida del Consulado Calle 30 No. 48-152 Apartado Aéreo No. 1382. Telefax 6754454. Cartagena-Colombia. Correo electrónico: tomasjosefontalvo@gmail.com.

José Morelos Gómez, Docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad de Cartagena, adscrito a la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas en el programa de Administración Industrial. Dirección Piedra de Bolívar. Avenida del Consulado Calle 30 No. 48-152 Apartado Aéreo No. 1382. Telefax 6754454. Cartagena-Colombia. Correo electrónico: jmgco@yahoo.com, josmorelos@unal.edu.co.

Adel Mendoza, Docente de tiempo completo en la Universidad Libre Barranquilla, adscrito a la Facultad de Ingenierías en el programa de Ingeniería Industrial. Dirección Carrera 46 No 48-170.

Alberto Cárdenas Valenzuela, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Oscar Alberto Cárdenas Morales, Empresa JPMorgan Chase Vastera, México Jorge Armando Cárdenas Morales, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez, Karen Paola de la Rosa Andazola, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez) Irma Leticia Morales González, Instituto Tecnológico de CD. Juárez

RESUMEN

Este estudio se llevo a cabo en una empresa internacional en el área de tecnología en CD. Juárez cuya actividad principal es el desarrollo de aplicaciones de software los cuales se encargan de proporcionar el soporte de la operación aduanera para empresas maquiladoras y para industrias automotrices. Es un estudio cuantitativo no experimental transeccional tipo descriptivo. En dicho estudio se analizaron los factores que afectan el compromiso del empleado, detectando los de mayor impacto, con el objeto de que la empresa se encuentre en posibilidad de convertirse en una Compañía más competitiva y con mayor posibilidad de éxito. Para esta investigación se tomo como muestra la totalidad de los empleados que laboraron entre los años 2003 al 2010 de la empresa de CD. Juárez siendo un total de 19.Para la recolección de los datos se empleo un cuestionario de 15 preguntas cerradas.Para el análisis de los datos se empleo una hoja de cálculo en el software Excel. En los resultados se observo que los factores que más afectan el compromiso de las personas son: El poco reconocimiento de su trabajo, falta de definición de los objetivos, deficiente comunicación y desconocimiento de la misión, visión, políticas y objetivos por gran parte de los empleados.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Compromiso, comunicación, definición de objetivos.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La empresa en la cual se llevo a cabo la investigación específicamente en la oficina de CD. Juárez, tiene como actividades principales el desarrollo de aplicaciones de software que ayudan al proceso electrónico del comercio exterior. La empresa cuenta con tres herramientas diferentes para soportar los requerimientos gubernamentales, así como de nuestros clientes (una para la industria maquiladora, otra para la industria automotriz y la otra para los requerimientos gubernamentales).En el periodo investigado se contaba con una cartera de 19 empleados encargados del desarrollo y administración de estas aplicaciones; de los cuales, 14 se encargan del desarrollo, análisis y soporte de la aplicación, una persona específica para el Análisis y Diseño, otra dedicada solamente al soporte, 2 gerentes y un supervisor.

La empresa para proporcionar servicio de calidad y mantener sus estándares de servicio requiere contar con personal que tenga amplio conocimiento en aspectos tales como atención al cliente, análisis, diseño y desarrollo de sistemas computacionales, y sobre todo experiencia en aspectos como trámites aduaneros o de comercio exterior, ya que a su vez se encargan de proporcionar el soporte de la operación del sistema. Es por esto que se genera una especial necesidad de mantener a este personal, ya que la recuperación de una baja de alguno de los empleados representa una espera de aproximadamente cuatro meses en lo que entran en la fase productiva, específicamente en el área de programación, porque tienen que conocer el lenguaje de programación además de que existen pocos profesionistas en el mercado de Sistemas Computacionales que cuente con conocimiento en trámites aduaneros, y para preparar una persona en aduanas para proporcionar soporte todavía lleva un poco más de tiempo. Por esta razón se estudiaron los factores que mas afectan el compromiso de los empleados.

Respecto al compromiso que el empleado tiene hacia la empresa se ha observado que algunos empleados al recibir una oferta de empleo similar deciden irse, no se sienten arraigados a la empresa. Esta falta de compromiso parece presentarse debido a que la empresa ha cambiado de giro y de dueño durante los últimos 7 años, en el 2001 era una empresa local, conocida, como "X" en el año 2002 surge el interés de la empresa conocida como "Y" de entrar en el negocio Mexicano de Comercio exterior, comprando así a "X". Fue un periodo de transición de un año en el que cambiaron radicalmente las políticas de la empresa, de pertenecer a una compañía local se pasó a ser una compañía internacional de tamaño medio, en el 2004 la empresa de ser privada pasó a ser una compañía pública y empezó a cotizar en la bolsa de valores por lo que se generó un nuevo cambio de políticas, así como de normas, misión, visión, etc.; prácticamente los empleados pasaron a ser parte de otra empresa con normas mas estrictas de seguridad, procedimientos y reglas internas.

En el año del 2006 una empresa multinacional de gran tamaño llamada "Z" compra a "Y", y aparte del cambio de empresa, así como políticas, cultura organizacional, reglas y procedimientos, entre otras muchas cosas, las actividades que desempeña la empreza "Z"es muy diferente ya que su actividad principal es la banca; es uno de los bancos mas importantes de Estados Unidos y del mundo; por otro lado la nueva adquisición que fue "Y" se convierte en una muy pequeña sección de la corporación que además se dedica a actividades diferentes a las de un banco. La empresa "Y" es un especialista en los servicios y sistemas computacionales para el comercio exterior, estas diferencias de actividades, además de las nuevas políticas establecidas a los empleados, las cuales fueron especificadas para un banco, genera en los empleados una pérdida de la visión y misión hacia la empresa "Z".

Estas transiciones han generando en los empleados una pérdida de sentido de pertenencia, se ha observado que los empleados se encuentran muy arraigados a la cultura organizacional de la empresa original y debido a la pobre comunicación de la nueva cultura hace que el empleado no se identifique con la empresa por lo que complica la generación de compromiso con la misma.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

Las organizaciones que fracasen en el monitoreo de su retención de empleados correrán el riesgo de perder su talento crítico clave. Los empleadores creen que van a tener trabajadores en abundancia, pero ese no es el caso. Con el pronóstico del cambio demográfico, la escasez de empleo y el descontento de los empleados, las organizaciones deberán afrontar el desafío de hacer de la retención de los empleados un imperativo empresarial estratégico. Los profesionales de R.H. deberán liderar esta prioridad comercial (Sánchez, 2005).

Una de las responsabilidades básicas de los gerentes en general, es proveer la motivación necesaria a sus equipos de trabajo de la organización, pues, considerando que su ausencia limita la consecución de los objetivos organizacionales, además de ser el elemento indispensable para la generación de un buen clima organizacional. El plan para proveer motivación requiere que sea desarrollada por un gerente con un estilo de liderazgo participativo, democrático que inspire el trabajo en equipo, que permita desarrollar en las personas una actitud positiva, además de incrementar el sentido de pertenencia, mejorar motivación hacia el trabajo y así obtener un compromiso real hacia la organización (Rojas, 2007).

Existen varios factores que contribuyen a la pérdida de orgullo por la labor. Por ejemplo, si los empleados no entienden la misión de la empresa, ni lo que se espera de ellos a fin de cumplir esa misión, entonces se sentirán confundidos e incapaces de identificarse con la organización. Esto ocasiona la perdida de orgullo y hace que los empleados actúen como autómatas incapaces de pensar o utilizar sus conocimientos y capacidades para contribuir al logro de la misión de la compañía.

Por otra parte, sentir el trabajo como fuente de orgullo y de realización personal, implica elementos muy positivos para la empresa, así como, para los individuos. La organización cosechará los beneficios de optimizar el potencial de su fuerza laboral al despertar lealtad, entusiasmo, interés y espíritu de equipo. La empresa podrá delegar la toma de decisiones al nivel más operativo posible, pues los trabajadores podrán aceptar sus nuevas responsabilidades. Los empleados se convertirán en embajadores de la organización, pues atraerán la atención de la colectividad por sus opiniones positivas acerca de su empleo y de la empresa. Los individuos se beneficiaran al realizar su potencial y al deshacerse de la frustración que aparece cuando no se les aprovecha en toda su capacidad (Gitlow, 1991).

El interés laboral, que se define como el grado en que una persona se identifica en términos psicológicos con su empleo y considera el grado de rendimiento que percibe, es importante para su autoestima. Los empleados que están muy interesados en su trabajo se identifican mucho con el tipo de actividad que realizan y, en verdad, se preocupan por ella. Se ha observado que cuando existe un gran interés laboral hay menos faltas y las tasas de renuncia disminuyen. Al contar con una entrega a la organización, el empleado se identifica con la empresa y con sus metas, y quiere seguir perteneciendo a ella. Por tanto, un gran interés laboral significa que hay identificación con el trabajo específico propio, mientras que la entrega hacia la organización genera como beneficio que el individuo se identifique con la compañía que lo contrata (Robbins, 1996).

Otro factor que contribuye al compromiso, generando un sentido de identidad del empleado, es la cultura de la organización ya que desempeña diversas funciones dentro de la misma. Una de esas funciones es que facilita la generación del compromiso con algo más grande que el interés personal del individuo y hace que exista un sentido de pertenencia con la empresa; sin una cultura no hay identificación. (Robbins 1997)

MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS

El diseño de la investigación es de tipo No Experimental- Transeccional o Transversal, ya que no se llevó a cabo una manipulación intencional de las variables, sino que se observó el fenómeno de la investigación tal y como se desenvuelve en su entorno natural y la recopilación de información se hizo en un momento determinado, es decir, que no se tomo como base de la investigación datos obtenidos a través del tiempo, de los años, sino que se realizó para conocer cuál o cuáles son los factores que afectan el compromiso de los empleados en una empresa de Cd. Juárez en un momento determinado, sin relacionarse con los acontecimientos acaecidos en el pasado. El diseño de la investigación fue transeccional descriptiva. Transeccional porque el levantamiento de la información solo se desarrolló en un tiempo especifico; descriptiva porque sólo se analizó una variable.

Población y Muestra

En este apartado se determinó cual es la población objeto de estudio, entendiéndose esta como un conjunto de elementos que concuerdan o comparten una serie de especificaciones y características tanto de contenido, lugar y tiempo. Por lo anterior, la población de esta investigación está compuesta por empleados operativos de la empresa que laboraron entre los años del 2003 al 2010. Se utilizó la lista de empleados administrativos de la oficina de Cd. Juárez y los empleados que dejaron la empresa en los últimos años, tomándose como muestra la totalidad de la población ya que son 19 personas las que han laborado en la empresa en los últimos 7 años.

Variables: La variable fue factores que afectan el compromiso.

Indicadores: Los factores que se identificaron previamente dentro del marco teórico que se consideran como factores que afectan el compromiso se pueden identificar como:

- 1) Factor Motivacional.
- 2) Factor de Comunicación.
- 3) Factor del pobre reconocimiento.
- 4) Factor de una inadecuada administración.
- 5) Carga de Trabajo inadecuada.
- 6) Conocimiento de la misión, visión, políticas y objetivos.
- 7) Miedo a consecuencias laborales,
- 8) Definición inadecuada de objetivos.

Recolección de Datos: El instrumento que se utilizó para la recolección de datos fue el cuestionario de 15 preguntas Cerradas con varias opciones de respuesta.

Codificación de la Información: Para la codificación de la información se hizo en una hoja de cálculo en el software Microsoft Excel.

Análisis de la Información:Con las respuestas tabuladas de las encuestas, se elaboraron gráficas de pastel y de barras sobre la información obtenida y se realizó un análisis descriptivo que permite interpretar los resultados encontrados.

RESULTADOS

El instrumento utilizado para la recolección de los datos nos arrojó como resultado lo siguiente:

Al iniciar a laborar en la empresa investigada, oficina de ciudad Juárez se observa que los empleados no reciben suficiente información de la empresa como son, la presentación de la misión, visión, políticas y objetivos de la empresa, no se cuenta con un plan de inducción que cubra todas las necesidades del empleado para empezar a trabajar un lazo fuerte con la empresa, no se empieza a trabajar en el compromiso del empleado hacia la empresa y viceversa. También se puede identificar, la carencia de una definición clara de los objetivos del empleado, casi un 50% de los empleados no recibió una definición de sus objetivos, por lo tanto, desconoce que es lo que tiene que cumplir como un todo, aunque sí esté realizando su trabajo cotidiano no sabe a dónde va a llevarlo; si va a obtener un logro o un beneficio para su empresa y para sí mismo. Se detectó un muy pobre plan de reconocimientos, ya que el 94% de los empleados solo se le reconoce su trabajo una vez al año o hasta en más tiempo, hablando de cualquier tipo de reconocimiento, oral, impreso o económico, entre otros.

De igual manera la comunicación del estatus de la empresa es muy pobre, ya que la mayoría de los empleados, el 84%, comenta que solo recibe comunicación por parte de la empresa una vez al año o hasta en un periodo mayor.

En la perspectiva del empleado la gerencia a nivel México es muy pobre en los aspectos de capacidad profesional del individuo para la realización de sus labores, comunicación y confianza, además de que no es una persona con la cual se sientan comprometidos. Estos aspectos solo son cubiertos hasta el gerente de área, ya a niveles jerárquicos más elevados es pobre la relación con los empleados.

Existe un área de oportunidad en la mejora de la relación del empleado con su supervisor, aunque fue en su mayoría satisfactoria todavía se puede mejorar, La mayoría de los empleados no se consideran parte fundamental de la compañía,

RECOMENDACIONES

Hay que diseñar e implementar planes y procedimientos para incrementar el compromiso del empleado hacia la empresa entre los cuales me permito recomendar.

Un plan y procedimiento de inducción de empleados, donde se les especifique información básica como:

- Actividades de la empresa.
- o Metas establecidas.
- Objetivos que se desean cumplir organizacionalmente.
- o Definición de las reglas, políticas y procedimientos que se tienen que seguir.
- Presentación de los equipos y los integrantes que forman la empresa.
- Definición de los valores de la empresa y de la manera en que son vividos dentro y fuera de la compañía y comunicación efectiva de los mismos.
- o Demostrar la importancia del empleado en las actividades que realizará.
- Definición de los objetivos, metas y actividades del empleado
- Opciones de crecimiento.

Generación de un plan formal de reconocimientos, en el que el reconocimiento al logro de los empleados podrá ser oral o escrito ya sea por correo electrónico, reconocimiento impreso, entre otros, también puede darse el reconocimiento económico, pero la idea principal es que se lleve a cabo de manera continua cuando el empleado lo merezca. No dejar de lado la oportunidad de reconocer el esfuerzo del empleado.

Generación de planes de comunicación, ya sea presencial o por conferencia ya sea telefónica o videoconferencia, la finalidad es que el empleado esté enterado de que es lo que está pasando en la empresa, de sus logros y fracasos para que se vea reflejado en un esfuerzo común. Esto se debe establecer de manera continua por lo menos se recomienda una vez cada tres meses a nivel corporativo y una vez al mes, a nivel área de trabajo o grupo. También se solicita que se busque una interacción con los empleados donde este sea más participativo en los aspectos de la empresa.

Se tiene que trabajar a detalle con la gerencia a nivel México para que tenga mayor presencia en lo que se refiere a una buena relación con los empleados, que haya mejor comunicación, recomendándose la creación de un comité que evalúe a la gerencia para que sea más cordial el trato y no sea tan autoritario.

Se recomienda a cada supervisor hacer una evaluación de las actividades que tienen cada uno de sus empleados para verificar que las cargas estén balanceadas y así el empleado pueda estar más satisfecho y realizar mejor sus actividades.

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BIOGRAFIA

Alberto Cárdenas Valenzuela, es maestro de tiempo completo del Instituto Tecnológico de CD. Juárez, correo (aproma2004@yahoo.com.mx)

Oscar Alberto Cárdenas Morales, Maestria en Sistemas de información, Empresa JPMorgan Chase Vastera, México. correo (oscar.cardenas@vastera.com)

Jorge Armando Cárdenas Morales, abogado y profesor del Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez, correo (lic.jorgecardenas@gmail.com)

Karen Paola de la Rosa Andazola, abogada y ex alumna del Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez, correo (lic.karendelarosa@gmail.com),

Leticia Morales González, Maestra de tiempo completo del Instituto Tecnológico de CD. Juárez, correo (lmoralesitcj@yahoo.com.mx)

EMPRESA UNIPERSONAL: UNA REFORMA PARA LA COMPETITIVIDAD DEL EMPRESARIO MEXICANO

Jorge Armando Cárdenas Morales., Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez Lorenzo Fuentes Miramontes, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez Irma Leticia Morales González, Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez Alberto Cárdenas Valenzuela, Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez

RESÚMEN

En esta investigación se realizo un estudio de la figura de la empresa unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada, como una alternativa para el pequeño y mediano empresario que inicia su actividad empresarial, para que éste limite su responsabilidad cuando no cumple con el requisito de pluralidad de socios que exige la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles, para poder constituirse en una sociedad mercantil, destacando que dicha sociedad unipersonal si bien es cierto no se encuentra regulada en nuestro sistema jurídico, si es reconocida en otros países donde y se encuentra regulada. Para el diseño de la investigación se opto por el método cualitativo, por tratarse de un fenómeno social, utilizando como técnica la recolección de datos, la entrevista a profundidad, lo que permitió conocer el fenómeno por parte de los involucrados. La conclusión fue que México requiere una reforma, a efecto de limitar la responsabilidad de los empresarios de las Mipymes e incrementar su competitividad.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Sociedad unipersonal, empresarios, responsabilidad

INTRODUCCIÓN

El presente proyecto aborda la problemática que se ha presentado con los empresarios unipersonales que tienen la capacidad económica para poder constituir una empresa de las denominadas micro o pequeñas, sin la necesidad de comprometer la totalidad de su patrimonio en la consecución del fin de la empresa. El fenómeno con el que se encuentran estos empresarios al momento de iniciar operaciones, su situación de no estar jurídicamente protegidos como empresarios individuales, sino que únicamente cuando se asocian con otros empresarios y constituyen una sociedad mercantil. El proyecto en el que se actúa, se establecerá el marco jurídico para la operación de las sociedades mercantiles en México, definiendo como funcionan dichas figuras en la actualidad y si corresponden a la realidad imperante en nuestro país, realidad que forma parte de las denominadas fuentes materiales del derecho.

Así mismo, se analizará en un sentido amplio como es la participación de los pequeños y medianos empresarios dentro de las sociedades mercantiles reconocidas en México, la problemática de introducir a nuestro sistema jurídico la figura de la sociedad unipersonal, se señalará en sentido amplio como se ha regulado dicha figura en países como Colombia y Chile. Un alto porcentaje de las sociedades mercantiles que se constituyen en nuestro país como sociedades anónimas de capital variable o de sociedades de responsabilidad limitada, son en realidad empresas unipersonales, esto con el único fin de cumplir con formalidades, lo cual resulta evidente si se hace un análisis de las sociedades que se constituyen en el país, donde los porcentajes de acciones cuando se constituyen sociedades con dos socios, el porcentaje de acciones es de 90 a 10, incluso hemos visto que se llega al extremo de que uno de los socios tenga 99 acciones de 100 que tiene la sociedad, lo que significa que el segundo socio solamente tiene una acción, lo que evidencia la existencia de una sociedad unipersonal.

La constitución de sociedades unipersonales en nuestro país y en nuestra ciudad, es tácita, tal y como se demostró en una muestra que se realizó en uno de los libros de comercio del Registro Público de Comercio de este Distrito Bravos, encontramos que trece de veintiséis sociedades anónimas que se

revisaron en dicho libro, son sociedades anónimas, donde un accionista tiene entre el 90% y el 99% de las acciones, empresas como TLC Intermex Sociedad Anónima, Administradora de Empresas S.A., y Bell Electrónicos S.A. de C.V., cuentan con una proporción de cincuenta mil acciones, de las cuales cuarenta y nueve mil novecientos noventa y nueve acciones, le corresponden a un solo socio y una sola acción le corresponde al otro.

De continuar con este sistema societario, el micro o pequeño empresario se encuentra solamente ante dos opciones, la primera de ellas es la de iniciar su empresa solo, lo que representa, comprometer la totalidad de sus bienes, incluso el patrimonio familiar, el cual obviamente no quiere comprometer, porque en muchas ocasiones va inmerso el futuro familiar del empresario.El segundo de los panoramas es constituirse en una sociedad mercantil, ya sea anónima o de responsabilidad limitada, sin embargo al constituirse en este tipo de sociedad representa hacerse de múltiples obligaciones que establece la ley, para que operen este tipo de sociedades, incluso se encuentra obligado jurídicamente a compartir sus ingresos con su socio en la proporción que se haya señalado en el acta constitutiva, aún y cuando el socio no tenga participación alguna.

En la actualidad se observa que operan ambas hipótesis, las cuales son evidentemente desventajosas para el micro y el pequeño empresario, ya que de tomar la primera se encuentra a reserva que su empresa sea exitosa y que no tenga la necesidad, en caso de fracasar, de responder con la totalidad de su patrimonio, en el segundo caso se encuentra que en ocasiones, la empresa se vuelve exitosa y el socio que hipotéticamente era un prestanombres, se vuelve un accionista que exige sus derechos, los cuales se encuentran protegidos por la ley; y como el accionista mayoritario, casi siempre es el administrador único, omite las asambleas ordinarias, la rendición de cuentas de la sociedad, el pago de dividendos, llegando al extremo de ser demandados para efecto de que den cumplimiento a sus obligaciones como administrador único, y el pago de dividendos de los últimos diez años, al menos, por lo que se hace necesario realizar un estudio jurídico al respecto.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

Marco Constitucional De Las Sociedades Mercantiles.

Generalidades y Antecedentes Constitucionale: Para abordar el marco jurídico de las sociedades mercantiles en nuestro país, es necesario iniciar desde la ley fundamental de nuestro país, la cual se encuentra en la Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, que es la Carta Magna de nuestro país, y como acertadamente lo sostiene Máximo Gámiz (1999), es la ley más importante de un país, y por lo tanto, no debe ser violada en sus diferentes disposiciones e incluso ninguna otra ley, reglamento o resolución puede ser expedida o dictada en contra de lo establecido por esta ley fundamental, ya que es la base o conjunto de principios que estructuran o conforman el poder y la autoridad y en sí al ordenamiento jurídico que contiene las aspiraciones, la forma de ser y el sentir de quienes viven en México.

En su Artículo 25 entre otros enunciados se establece que la ley alentará y protegerá la actividad económica que realicen los particulares y proveerá las condiciones para que el desenvolvimiento del sector privado contribuya al desarrollo económico nacional, en los términos que establece esta Constitución. (Saldaña 2007).

Antecedentes Del Marco Jurídico Aplicable A Las Sociedades Mercantiles En México.

Walter Frisch Philipp (1982), refiere que las sociedades anónimas tienen su antecedente de regulación más remoto en el Código de Comercio de 1884, el cual reglamentaba las sociedades anónimas en sus artículos 527 hasta el 588, sin embargo señala que dicha regulación era relativamente deficiente, ya que

no citaba específicamente la limitación de la responsabilidad en su concepto y solo la enunciaba con posterioridad.

La reglamentación citada en el Código de Comercio de 1884, fue derogada con la entrada en vigor de la Ley de Sociedades Anónimas, la cual fue publicada el día 10 de Abril de 1888, sin embargo la citada ley tuvo una vida muy corta, ya que con la promulgación del nuevo Código de Comercio en nuestro país, el cual entro en vigor el 1º de Enero de 1890, derogó la Ley de Sociedades Anónimas de 1888 y volvió a absorber las disposiciones aplicables a las sociedades mercantiles al mismo Código de Comercio, tal y como lo dice Philipp Frisch (1982). Siendo el Código de Comercio de 1889, el que se encuentra vigente en nuestro país, y que constituye el antecedente inmediato de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles de 1934, la cual norma a las sociedades mercantiles que operan en nuestro país.

Reforma de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles del 11 de Junio de 1992. La reforma a la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles, llevada a cabo el día jueves 11 de Junio de 1992, sancionada por el entonces Presidente de México, Carlos Salinas de Gortari, tuvo como Artículo único, el reformar los artículos 5°; 61; 62; 65; 79; 89 fracciones I y II; 152 y 153, así como la denominación del capítulo IX; se adicionaron los artículos 10 con los párrafos segundo, tercero y cuarto; 143 con un párrafo cuarto; 178 con un párrafo segundo y 228 BIS este último al capítulo IX; y se deroga el capitulo XIV denominado "Del registro de las sociedades mercantiles", que comprende los artículos 260 a 264, de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles, tal y como se desprende del Diario Oficial de la Federación (1992).

Como se desprende el párrafo que antecede se reformó entre otros, lo dispuesto por las fracciones I y II del Artículo 89 de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles, las cuales contienen el número de socios y el capital social con el que se debe constituir una Sociedad Anónima, el cual previo a la reforma, tenía como requisito que la sociedad anónima se constituyera con un mínimo de cinco socios, el cual se modificó para reducir su número a dos y el capital se incremento de veinticinco mil pesos a cincuenta millones de pesos, tal y como se desprende de la reforma publicada en el Diario Oficial de la Federación (1992). El maestro Galindo Monroy (1992), señala que en la exposición de motivos de la reforma publicada en Julio de 1992, se estableció como prioridad el crecimiento económico y poblacional que sufría México, en aquellos años, por lo que era necesario dar agilidad y seguridad a los actos de comercio, siendo esta la base para la modificación a la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles.

En este sentido el maestro Jorge Antonio Galindo Monroy (1992), sostiene que la reducción en el número de accionistas de cinco a dos, fue conveniente, debido a que, en la mayoría de los casos o en muchos de ellos, uno o dos socios eran en realidad los únicos accionistas y las demás personas aparecían como simples prestanombres, cuya única función era cumplir un requisito legal que exigía un número mínimo de socios, pero que en realidad no tenían ninguna intervención, ni injerencia en los asuntos de la sociedad. Por ello asegura que el legislador acertó, en reconocer un hecho real que en nada afecta a la esencia de la sociedad anónima, en lugar de permitir que se continuara simulando una realidad que no existía, que además daba lugar a situaciones irregulares, que, de descubrirse, daban lugar a severas sanciones.

En este mismo sentido se encuentra el dicho de Guillermo Díaz de Rivera (1993), quien sostiene en cuanto al ajuste en el número de socios, que la reducción en el número de socios, obedecía a que en la práctica, al momento de constituirse muchas sociedades mercantiles o durante su vida jurídica, los socios reales se resumían a uno o dos, y se encontraban en la necesidad de buscar otros socios como simples prestanombres o testaferros, a fin de complementar el número mínimo requerido entonces por la ley, que era de cinco socios (Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1993). Incluso el autor antes referido, señala como antecedente de nuestra legislación el Código de Lares de 1884, que señalaba como requisito para la constitución de las sociedades mercantiles, un mínimo de dos socios, señala además, que en la actualidad se lleva a cabo una simulación por parte de los empresarios mexicanos, con el afán de obtener el beneficio de la responsabilidad limitada.

Concepto de Sociedad y Empresa: Antes de entrar de lleno al estudio del la sociedad unipersonal, es necesario definir el concepto de **sociedad** reconocido por nuestra legislación, para entonces poder estar en posibilidad de cuestionar dicho concepto, para el presente caso se analiza el concepto del Lic. Roberto Mantilla Molina (1998), el cual define a la sociedad mercantil como "un acto jurídico mediante el cual los socios se obligan a combinar sus recursos o sus esfuerzos para la realización de un fin común de acuerdo con las normas que, para alguno de los tipos sociales en ella previstos, señala la ley mercantil"

La pluralidad de socios, también se encuentra contemplada en el artículo 89 del ordenamiento de la ley general de sociedades mercantiles, el cual señala los requisitos para la constitución de una sociedad anónima y dentro de la fracción primera contiene: Que haya dos socios como mínimo, y que cada uno de ellos suscriba una acción por lo menos (Calvo, 2007). No obstante que nuestra legislación exige que se cuente con un mínimo de dos socios para la constitución de una sociedad mercantil, castiga además a la sociedad que pretenda convertirse en una sociedad unipersonal devenida, ya que dentro de su artículo 229 del multireferido ordenamiento jurídico, en donde enumera las causas de disolución de una sociedad dentro de la fracción número cuatro refiere que las sociedades se disuelven "porque el número de accionistas llegue a ser inferior al mínimo que esta Ley establece, o porque las partes de interés se reúnan en una sola persona (Calvo, 2007).

Por lo anteriormente manifestado, es importante definir el concepto de la **empresa**, que es en quienes se concentra el presente proyecto, al micro y pequeño empresario que pretende afectar, parte de sus bienes para poder desarrollar su actividad económica, como se observa en las anteriores definiciones, en ningún momento la ley habla sobre el término empresa, el cual aún y cuando es un término de carácter económico, es primordial para el desarrollo de las sociedades mercantiles, ya que al hablar de una sociedad mercantil necesariamente se está hablando de una empresa. Para un mejor entendimiento a continuación se desarrollan algunos conceptos de empresa, en primer lugar se menciona el concepto de Barssi el cual sostiene que la empresa es la organización profesional de la actividad económica, del trabajo y del capital. (García, 2003)

Por otra parte el maestro Barrera Graf (1998) sostiene que la empresa es la organización de una actividad económica que se dirige a la producción o al intercambio de bienes o servicios para el mercado. Por su parte el doctor José Ramón García López (2003), otorga una definición que es considerada trascendental para el presente estudio ya que argumenta que la empresa es una persona jurídica, con patrimonio separado y afectado a un fin, con una universalidad ya sea de hecho o de derecho, y que organiza factores reales y personales de producción. De igual forma Armando Ibarra Hernández (2003), brinda un concepto más especializado en materia económica, y define a la empresa como "una organización permanente, donde el empresario administra el capital y el trabajo para un fin determinado, es decir produce bienes o servicios para satisfacer las necesidades del mercado.

Al respecto es necesario precisar, que la Ley para el Desarrollo de la Competitividad de la Micro, Pequeña y Mediana Empresa (2002), en la fracción tercera del Articulo tres, señala los parámetros para establecer cuando se trata de una microempresa o de una pequeña empresa, y para tal efecto refiere que una microempresa se compone de 0-10 trabajadores, independientemente del sector productivo de que se trate, así mismo señala que la pequeña empresa es aquella que se compone con más de diez empleados, haciendo una distinción que tratándose de una empresa destinada al comercio será hasta por treinta empleados y cuando se trata de servicios o de industria será hasta de cincuenta empleados. De los conceptos antes referidos se concluye que en ninguna parte sostiene que es requisito esencial, la existencia de una pluralidad de personas para que una empresa se constituya y funcione perfectamente, tomando en consideración lo sostenido por el doctor José Ramón García López, quien solo se refiere a una persona jurídica, no limitando a que sea una persona jurídico colectiva o persona física, por lo tanto y aún y cuando es son conceptos un sentido estrictamente económico, dan la esencia de la figura, término que está íntimamente ligado a la idea de la sociedad mercantil.

Una vez descrito el concepto de empresa, necesario resulta analizar el concepto de empresario, y para tal efecto el doctor José Ramón García López (2003), sostiene que el empresario es un comerciante o una persona que teniendo capacidad jurídica legal para ejercer el comercio, hace de él su ocupación ordinaria, de dicho concepto, tampoco hace referencia a que necesariamente se encuentre reunido con otras personas o que se refiera a una colectividad.

Negociación Mercantil: La negociación mercantil es una figura que define el Maestro Roberto Mantilla Molina (1998), como "el conjunto de cosas y derechos combinados para obtener u ofrecer al público bienes o servicios, sistemáticamente y con propósitos de lucro. Como se desprende el citado concepto, el Maestro Montilla Molina (1998), en ningún momento hace referencia, sobre la necesidad de que una negociación mercantil sea compuesta por más de dos personas, incluso en la teoría que desarrolla sobre la existencia de la negociación mercantil, refiere el silogismo lógico jurídico, de que "toda sociedad mercantil es una negociación mercantil, sin embargo no toda negociación mercantil es una sociedad mercantil".En dicha teoría el citado maestro Mantilla (1998), sostiene que una negociación mercantil puede ser una gran empresa o también un microempresario, toda vez que, lo que la caracteriza, es la combinación de bienes y capitales con el ánimo de brindar un servicio y obtener un lucro, ya que una negociación mercantil, tiene nombre, patrimonio, domicilio y nacionalidad, sin embargo, sostiene que tal figura no alcanza su objetivo, ya que cuando se trata de negociación mercantil es obligado solidario e ilimitado con respecto de las obligaciones de la negociación mercantil.

Persona, Personalidad, Patrimonio: Es congruente con el presente estudio analizar en qué consiste jurídicamente la persona, la personalidad, y como se integra su patrimonio, debido a que como se ha mencionado con anterioridad, las sociedades mercantiles se integran por un conjunto de dos o más personas que afectan cierta parte de su patrimonio para la realización de un fin preponderantemente económico. Razón por la cual es necesario saber, a qué se refiere con el termino persona, va que es de explorado derecho que existen en el mundo jurídico, personas físicas y personas jurídico colectivas, en este sentido el maestro Galindo Garfías (1993), sostiene que el término persona, denota al ser humano dotado de libertad, capaz de realizar una conducta encaminada a determinados fines, y señala que la persona para el derecho es el sujeto de derechos y obligaciones. El maestro Galindo Garfías (1993), distingue el término persona y personalidad, argumentado que la personalidad es la manifestación, la proyección en las normas jurídicas, de la persona ya sea como persona individual o como persona colectiva. El patrimonio según De Pina (1989), tiene un doble aspecto, el primero de ellos un sentido económico y el segundo de ellos en un sentido estrictamente jurídico, sostiene que se trata del patrimonio económico, como el conjunto de obligaciones y derechos en su apreciación económica y el jurídico como el conjunto de relaciones jurídicas, activas y pasivas pertenecientes a un sujeto que sean susceptibles de estimación de naturaleza pecuniaria.

El maestro Flores Gómez (1990), sostiene que las personas morales son aquellos agrupamientos de individuos, que forman seres colectivos con finalidades licitas, a las que el derecho les ha reconocido capacidad para tener derechos y obligaciones, sostiene que las personas morales tienen una existencia ideal, que dentro del comercio jurídico desempeñan un papel fundamental para el desarrollo económico de un país. Por su parte De Ruggiero (1958), define a las personas morales como "toda unidad orgánica resultante de una colectividad organizada de personas o de un conjunto de bienes, y a los que para la consecución de un fin social durable y permanente, es reconocida por el Estado una capacidad de derechos patrimoniales". El maestro José Alfredo Domínguez Martínez (2003), señala que los atributos de la persona moral, son parecidos a los de la persona física y únicamente se diferencian en que la persona moral, no tiene estado civil y que en lugar del nombre opera bajo una razón social o una denominación.

Por lo que respecta al patrimonio de una persona moral, el doctor Flores Gómez González (1990), desarrolla la teoría del patrimonio de afectación que tiene su origen en Alemania, y dicha teoría sostiene que las personas morales son patrimonios de afectación, dicho autor distingue dos clases de patrimonios, los personales que se refieren a las personas físicas, y los impersonales o afectos a un fin o destino, los patrimonios impersonales carecen de dueño pero se encuentran unidos al logro de un fin determinado que puede ser jurídico o económico. La teoría que sostiene Flores Gómez González (1990) parte del principio de que las personas morales o jurídicas no hay otra cosa que un patrimonio sin sujeto, ya que solamente se trata de un conjunto de bienes destinados a un fin, cuyos derechos y obligaciones no son de un sujeto en particular sino del patrimonio en sí y este puede ejercitar los derechos que sean necesarios para realizar su objeto. Por otro lado Jacinto Pallares (1987), sostiene que las sociedades mercantiles forman una persona moral distinta de las personas de los socios, es decir, que la ley considera a las sociedades como entidades jurídicas capaces de derechos y obligaciones civiles independientes y distintas de las obligaciones y derechos particulares de cada unió de los socios.

Responsabilidad y Obligaciones: El tema de la responsabilidad es abordado por el maestro Manuel Bejarano Sánchez (1999), el cual lo liga estrechamente con el término de deuda que lo define como la conducta que caracteriza al incumplimiento de una obligación como un hecho ilícito, y la responsabilidad corresponde a la necesidad de indemnizar los daños y perjuicios causados por tal incumplimiento.

Funcionamiento Y Regulación De La Empresa Unipersonal De Responsabilidad Limitada En Chile. Al respecto es preciso mencionar, que en Chile, ya se encuentra regulada la sociedad unipersonal, sin embargo en dicho país tomo la figura de empresa unipersonal, para evadir la contradicción del término sociedad unipersonal, y al respecto el Artículo primero de la Ley 19857 que fue publicada el día 11 de Febrero del 2003, sostiene: Se autoriza a toda persona natural el establecimiento de empresas individuales de responsabilidad limitada, con sujeción a las normas de esta ley. (Congreso de Chile, 2008). De igual forma el artículo segundo establece que esta clase de empresa tiene personalidad jurídica distinta del empresario y cuenta con patrimonio propio distinto de éste, y puede ejecutar toda clase de actividades civiles y comerciales, siempre y cuando se encuentren dentro de su objeto social (Congreso de Chile, 2008), como se puede observar en esencia es una sociedad mercantil de las reconocidas en México. Para la constitución de la empresa unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada, el artículo tercero de la ley chilena, requiere que se haga en escritura pública, la cual se debe inscribir en el Registro Público del Comercio, similar al que opera en México, estableciendo en el Artículo 4 de la misma legislación los requisitos que debe contener la escritura constitutiva.

Por su parte el artículo 10 de la Ley Chilena establece (Congreso de Chile, 2008), que el titular de la empresa unipersonal, puede celebrar actos y contratos con su patrimonio propio, sin comprometer el patrimonio de la empresa o combinando ambos, los cuales tendrán valor únicamente cuando obren en escritura pública, de igual forma dicho numeral, eleva al delito de fraude agravado cuando este se cometa por el titular de una empresa unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada.Conforme al artículo décimo primero de la ley en comento, sostiene que las utilidades liquidas de la empresa, pertenecen al patrimonio del titular por separado del patrimonio de la empresa y una vez que se hubieren retirado no habrá acción en contra de ellas por las obligaciones contraídas por la empresa. (Congreso de Chile, 2008).

La protección al empresario respecto de sus acreedores personales, se encuentra estipulada en el Artículo décimo tercero de la ley, donde se establece que sus acreedores personales, no tienen acción sobre los bienes afectados a la empresa y únicamente podrán ejecutar sobre las utilidades del titular (Congreso de Chile, 2008). Otra variante que se encuentra en la legislación chilena se encuentra en el Artículo décimo séptimo de la Ley 19857, ya que tal normativo acepta la creación de la empresa unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada devenida, es decir cuando se opera como una sociedad anónima o como una sociedad de responsabilidad, pero todas las acciones o las partes sociales se encuentran concentradas en

una sola persona, y establece que cuando esto suceda se puede constituir en empresa unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada siguiendo los mismos pasos para constituirla desde un principio. (Congreso de Chile, 2008).

Funcionamiento y Regulación de la Empresa Unipersonal de Responsabilidad Limitada en Colombia. En este apartado se analiza detenidamente la regulación de la empresa unipersonal en Colombia, la cual se encuentra regulada en la Ley No. 222 promulgada el 20 de Diciembre de 1995, destacando que estas empresas se encuentran previstas en el Capítulo Octavo, a partir del artículo setenta y uno, el cual define lo que es una empresa unipersonal, sosteniendo que es que "mediante la Empresa Unipersonal una persona natural o jurídica que reúna las calidades requeridas para ejercer el comercio, podrá destinar parte de sus activos para la realización de una o varias actividades de carácter mercantil. La empresa unipersonal, una vez inscrita en el registro mercantil, forma una persona jurídica". (Congreso Colombia, 2008)

METODOLOGÍA

El método de investigación elegido para el desarrollo de esta investigación fue el método cualitativo, la adopción por tal método obedeció a la características, que presenta la utilización del mismo, las cuales según Baptista Lucio, Fernández-Collado y Hernández Sampieri (2008), nos permiten la orientación hacia la exploración, descripción y entendimiento de un caso, así mismo permite que el planteamiento del problema sea general y amplio, que vaya dirigido a las experiencias de los participantes. Este método es el más apto para el desarrollo de este estudio, ya que el tema es la creación de sociedades unipersonales en nuestro país, como una alternativa para el pequeño y microempresario mexicano, como ya se dijo con anterioridad este tema es derivado del fenómeno social que ocurre en nuestra ciudad, así como en el resto del país. En esta investigación se abordó el funcionamiento y la operación de las sociedades mercantiles en nuestro país, y su confrontación con la realidad que opera en el entorno social, ¿cómo es que los pequeños y microempresarios funcionan en realidad?, ¿cómo se constituyen?, ¿cómo es que limitan su responsabilidad? y con ello plantear una posible alternativa para los mismos.

Diseño De Investigación

El diseño de investigación será el fenomenológico que como Hernández Sampieri (2008), refiere es un diseño que se enfoca en las experiencias individuales de los participantes, es decir se va a describir y entender los fenómenos desde el punto de vista de cada uno de los participantes. Por su parte Álvarez-Gayou Jurgenson (2006), sostiene que la fenomenología es una corriente filosófica que se caracteriza por centrarse en la experiencia personal, en vez de abordar el estudio de los hechos desde perspectivas grupales o interacciónales. En virtud de lo anterior, se consideró el diseño fenomenológico para este estudio, ya que se busca analizar la experiencia de los participantes que en el presente caso son los microempresarios que inician o tienen ya su empresa, y ha sido su experiencia al ser los únicos propietarios de su empresa, como ha sido su necesidad de asociarse con otra persona, aún y cuando su capital es suficiente para iniciar con su empresa, y que sin embargo se ven en esa necesidad para protegerse de los posibles riesgos de fracaso en su actividad económica.

Este diseño fenomenológico, permite según Álvarez-Gayou Jurgenson (2006), el análisis de datos mediante una metodología reductiva, con el auxilio de análisis de discursos y de temas específicos y con la búsqueda de significados posibles, lo cual es perfectamente útil en esta investigación, donde se utilizó la entrevista como técnica de recolección de datos, con el propósito de saber cómo los pequeños o microempresarios experimentan tal fenómeno.

Población y muestra: La población la forman los pequeños y los microempresarios de Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua México, que aún no se encuentran constituidos como una sociedad mercantil, empresarios que

carecen de socios y cuyo capital de la empresa es el mismo capital que integra su patrimonio en general. La muestra en el proceso cualitativo es definida por Hernández Sampieri (2008), como un grupo de personas, eventos, sucesos, comunidades, sobre el cual habrá de recolectar los datos, sin que necesariamente sea representativo del universo o población que se estudia. En este estudio la muestra la formaron dos pequeños microempresarios de nuestra localidad, y tres licenciados en derecho especialistas en la constitución de sociedades mercantiles en nuestra ciudad.

El primer microempresario, es propietario de una industria maquiladora, la cual produce bienes que son exportados al extranjero, y que se encuentra constituido tanto en México, como en Estados Unidos, siendo en este último como una entidad transparente, la cual es una figura homóloga a la sociedad unipersonal, y que en nuestro país se vió en la necesidad de tener que inventarse un socio para poder constituir una sociedad mercantil y así poder limitar su responsabilidad, constituyendo así lo que se denomina jurídicamente fraude a la ley, que en este caso es la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles. El segundo microempresario, es un propietario de una imprenta, el cual decidió constituir una sociedad mercantil, hace más de diez años, ayudándose de un socio ficticio, quien después de años de productividad, decide demandar sus prestaciones económicas y sus derechos como socio, llegando al extremo de liquidar la empresa aún y cuando era un accionista ficticio. Los licenciados en derecho, son tres profesionistas reconocidos en nuestra localidad, especializados en constituir empresas y darles asesoría jurídica, respecto de su constitución y funcionamiento. Algunos de ellos han tenido contacto con las entes transparentes en Estados Unidos y han tenido clientes que han constituido dichas figuras en Estados Unidos y que ha asesorado a distintos empresarios en como constituirse en nuestro país.

Técnicas de recolección de datos: La técnica de recolección de datos que se utilizó en ésta investigación fue la de la entrevista a profundidad, la cual es conceptualizada por Hernández Sampieri (2008), como la entrevista cualitativa, que consiste en la reunión para intercambiar información entre una persona (el entrevistador) y la otra (entrevistado). La modalidad de entrevista que se utilizó fue la entrevista profunda semiestructurada tendiente a la abierta, ya que se basa en unas preguntas guías. Con el propósito de precisar los conceptos y obtener una mayor información respecto del tema planteado, al ser una entrevista semi-estructurada, se tendrá cierta libertad para introducir preguntas adicionales a las previamente escogidas, preguntas que permitirán, como refiere Hernández Sampieri (2008), precisar conceptos y obtener mayor información sobre el tema tratado. Se utilizaron dos cuestionarios de tres preguntas cada uno, el modelo de cuestionario tipo I (uno romano), fue utilizado únicamente para la entrevista que se efectúo a los microempresarios, al ser un tipo de entrevista profunda se dispone que el tiempo de entrevista fue de noventa minutos por entrevista con una diferencia de una semana entre una y otra entrevista (Seidmangl, 1998).

Técnica De Análisis De Datos

La técnica de análisis de datos que se utilizó en esta investigación fue la técnica de análisis de temas, y de manera previa al análisis de temas, es preciso acentuar algunos conceptos, al respecto se encuentra una nueva corriente que adopta el término antenarrativa. Boje (2002), hace una distinción entre el término narrativa y antenarrativa, distingue que la narrativa es una historia contada, que tiene un drama y está estructurada de manera coherente. Señala que la antenarrativa, por el contrario trata de relatos fragmentados, no tienen una estructura lineal, incluso por medio de la deconstrucción se puede reestrucrutar, es polifónica, es decir utiliza varias voces no solamente la del que cuenta la historia (cuando se refiere a la narrativa), sostiene que la antenarrativa como su nombre lo indica se da antes de la narrativa, es como una apuesta hacia el futuro. Dentro de las formas de antenarrativa se encuentran distintos métodos como el de la deconstrucción, la gran narrativa, la microhistoria, la red de historias, la intertextualidad, la causalidad, el drama y por último, pero no menos importante, es el análisis de temas, la análisis de temas, el cual como se refirió con anterioridad es el que se utilizó en esta investigación para llevar a cabo el análisis de tatos. Boje distingue entre el análisis ético y el análisis emico, sostiene que el análisis emico,

se da cuando el investigador aporta y estructura los conocimientos o la información que son adquiridos ya sea por el método inductivo o deductivo, separándolos por temas y categorizándolos. En cambio se dá el sentido ético, cuando el investigador aprovecha las categorías o las formas creadas con anterioridad y las pública (Boje, 2002). En vista de lo anterior, la presente investigación, tomó el análisis de temas como la técnica de análisis de datos. Se adoptó dicha técnica, atendiendo a que la recolección de datos se llevó a cabo por medio de la entrevista a profundidad, lo cual permitirá realizar un análisis deductivo, para que de la conversación de las tres entrevistas por participante, rescatar los temas que se consideran útiles para esta investigación, categorizándolos con carácter emico.

RESULTADOS

Se realizaron a cabo cinco entrevistas, dos de ellas se efectuaron a microempresarios de esta ciudad, y las otras tres a licenciados en derecho, con especialidad en el área corporativa y en la de asesoría de empresas. Los empresarios se clasificaron con los nombres de Artemio y Benjamín, por su parte los licenciados en derecho como licenciado Antonio, Bernabé y Carlos, destacando que dichos nombres son ficticios para proteger la identidad de cada uno de los entrevistados.

El primer resultado que se obtuvo fue que no existe en la legislación mexicana forma alguna, en que un microempresario o pequeño empresario, que actúe como persona física, pueda limitar su responsabilidad frente a terceros, incluyendo a sus acreedores, esto debido a que la ley dispone expresamente, que tratándose de obligaciones personales, el obligado responde con la totalidad de su patrimonio. El **segundo** resultado obtenido, consistió en que la forma en que el microempresario o pequeño empresario individual, pueda limitar su responsabilidad frente a terceros, es mediante la constitución de una sociedad mercantil, el cual por exigir una pluralidad de socios, obliga al empresario particular a buscar un prestanombres como para que actúe como socio. El hecho de que se utilice un prestanombres, como socio, le otorga a éste diversos derechos tanto económicos como corporativos, lo que representa una gran desventaja para los empresarios individuales, ya que la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles, les otorga derechos a los socios para participar en las utilidades y en la administración de la empresa, lo cual evidentemente desfavorece los intereses del empresario, ya que dichas personas no contribuyen en nada al desarrollo de la empresa. Así mismo, se obtuvo como resultado, el hecho de que una persona física, que desea desarrollar su empresa, va a poner en riesgo la totalidad de su patrimonio, es decir, va a comprometer el patrimonio particular, con el patrimonio de la empresa.

CONCLUSIONES

La primer conclusión a que se llegó con la presente investigación, consiste en que el derecho mercantil en México, se ha quedado rezagado, y ya no es un reflejo de la realidad que impera, se ha dejado de lado una fuente importantísima del derecho mercantil, como lo es "la naturalidad de los hechos" como bien lo define el maestro Mantilla Molina, y que consiste en que los hechos que se suscitan en la vida diaria, deben fungir como una fuente del derecho para mantenerla actualizada. Se entiende de esta manera debido a que es innegable que existen sociedades unipersonales, en México, tal y como se desprendió de las entrevistas que se realizaron, donde se acreditó que existen y que solamente se simuló la existencia de un socio, que en realidad era un prestanombres, para poder cumplir con el requisito de la pluralidad de los socios, que establece el Artículo 89 de la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles.

La segunda conclusión a la que se llegó, es que la sociedad unipersonal de responsabilidad limitada, es una alternativa ideal, para limitar la responsabilidad frente a terceros, de un empresario que opera como persona física, figura que ya se encuentra regulada en la legislación de otros países del mundo como Chile y Colombia. Reconocer las sociedades unipersonales de responsabilidad limitada en México, le permitiría al microempresario y pequeño empresario mexicano que actúe como persona física, limitar su responsabilidad frente a terceros, afectando cierta parte de su patrimonio para la consecución de los fines

de su empresa, sin el riesgo de comprometer la totalidad de sus bienes y sin la incertidumbre de no saber cuál será la conducta del prestanombres, a lo largo de la vida de la empresa, esto sin contar el fraude a la ley, por la simulación de actos que se efectúan.

La tercera conclusión a la que se llegó, fue que al no reconocer el hecho de que existen sociedades unipersonales en nuestro país, el estado ha fallado en el cumplimiento de la garantía prevista en el Artículo 25 Constitucional, referente a la rectoría económica del estado, donde nuestro más importante cuerpo normativo, le impone al estado la rectoría económica del estado, y le impone la obligación de legislar, para promover la industria y el desarrollo de la economía.

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BIOGRAFÍAS

Jorge Armando Cárdenas Morales, es licenciado en derecho y Maestro en Administración en Negocios Internacionales, profesor del Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez en el Departamento de Ingeniería Industrial. Contacto email lic.jorgecardenas@gmail.com

Lorenzo Fuentes Miramontes es egresado de la Maestría en Administración de Negocios Internacionales del ITCJ y actualmente profesor de la Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez lic.lorenzofuentes@gmail.com

Irma Leticia Morales González es profesora de tiempo completo en el Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez en el área de posgrado contacto lmoralesitcj@yahoo.com.mx

Alberto Cárdenas Valenzuela es profesor de tiempo completo del Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez en el área de posgrado contacto albertoitcj@gmail.com

Carlos Serrano-Cinca, University of Zaragoza, Spain Y. Fuertes-Callén, University of Zaragoza, Spain B. Gutiérrez-Nieto, University of Zaragoza, Spain B. Cuéllar-Fernández, University of Zaragoza, Spain

RESUMEN

Este artículo estudia la quiebra de los bancos de Estados Unidos desde 2009. Se analizan primero los síntomas financieros que preceden a la quiebra, como ingresos que no llegan a cubrir los costes, rentabilidades negativas o bajos ratios de solvencia. El artículo profundiza en las causas que originan esos síntomas, planteando hipótesis sobre el crecimiento arriesgado en la concesión de préstamos, la excesiva especialización en préstamos inmobiliarios y el anteponer una estrategia de alta rotación descuidando el margen. Se presenta y contrasta un modelo basado en ecuaciones estructurales, complementado con test de hipótesis y regresión logística. Los resultados muestran que cinco años antes de la crisis los bancos que quebraron tenían mayores tasas de crecimiento, una mayor concentración en hipotecas, mayor riesgo, mayor rotación pero menor margen que los solventes. Se encuentra relación entre los síntomas y las causas. Un análisis multigrupo contrasta la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas en el comportamiento de los bancos solventes de aquellos que finalmente quebraron.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Quiebra bancaria, ratios financieros, solvencia, PLS-Path Modeling.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

En 2009 quebraron 140 bancos de los más de 8,000 que había en USA. Una simple regresión logística con varios ratios financieros permite identificar los síntomas de la quiebra e incluso predecir con aciertos cerca del 75% de los bancos que quebraron en 2010. La insuficiencia de los ingresos para hacer frente a los costes, la falta de rentabilidad y la disminución de la solvencia son síntomas financieros que predicen la crisis, cuando está a punto de suceder. Esto es el equivalente al médico que, cuando toma el débil pulso a un paciente y comprueba su altísima fiebre, predice su fatal desenlace.

Pero el médico es capaz de conocer el origen de la enfermedad, a partir de sus síntomas. La aportación de nuestro estudio es que plantea un modelo causal explicativo de la quiebra, que incorpora hipótesis sobre algunas de las causas de esa baja rentabilidad y solvencia. En concreto analizamos como causas: la especialización en el mercado inmobiliario, el crecimiento arriesgado y la apuesta por una alta rotación descuidando el margen bancario. En la quiebra de las empresas es importante distinguir entre síntomas y causas. El estudio de los ratios financieros se ha revelado como excelente para perfilar una sintomatología de la quiebra. Beaver (1966) es el trabajo pionero que muestra como algunos ratios financieros permiten predecir la quiebra de las empresas, varios años antes de que suceda. El análisis de los ratios ha sido una línea de investigación fecunda, como muestran las revisiones de Ravi Kumar y Ravi (2007) y Demyanyk y Hasan (2010). El objetivo de la mayor parte de los estudios es obtener la mejor predicción posible pero no tanto profundizar en las causas. Argenti (1976) sí hace énfasis en la causalidad pero es un estudio de naturaleza teórica. Argenti propone causas de la quiebra como deficiencias de la gestión o la personalidad

de los directivos. El estudio empírico de Cooper et al (1994) incorpora información de tipo cualitativo, utilizando variables de capital humano. Ooghe y De Prijcker (2008) también hablan de errores cometidos por la gerencia así como factores externos. En el caso especial de la banca, Heffernan (2003) habla de fraude y problemas de gestión. Muchos autores buscan las raíces de las crisis bancarias en las políticas macroeconómicas, un ejemplo es el trabajo de Kaminsky y Reinhart (1999) para quienes la liberalización financiera a menudo precede a la crisis bancaria.

En este trabajo se dispone únicamente de información extraída de las cuentas anuales de los bancos así que exploraremos únicamente las *causas no financieras que se revelan en los estados contables*. Porque los balances y cuentas de resultados contienen información que de alguna manera revela su estrategia. Por ejemplo, la especialización es históricamente una de las causas que más quiebras bancarias origina (Latter, 1997). Se puede identificar si el banco ha optado por una estrategia de especialización en un producto financiero analizando el detalle de la cuenta préstamos. Otra causa habitual de quiebra bancaria es la sobreabundancia de crédito. Esto es verdad desde los primeros banqueros medievales como ha estudiado De Roover (1963). En este caso se puede analizar el crecimiento de partidas como los préstamos. Una decisión estratégica del banco es el optar por una alta rotación o por márgenes elevados.

La estrategia seguida se puede comprobar descomponiendo el ratio de rentabilidad en sus dos componentes, rotación y margen. Los bancos deciden conceder o no préstamos a determinados clientes, que se clasifican según el nivel de riesgo de las normas bancarias de Basilea, Bank for International Settlements (2004) y de Federal Register (2007). Mirando la composición de los activos ponderados por riesgo se puede comprobar qué bancos han optado por una estrategia conservadora y cuales arriesgan más. En el artículo se modelizan los síntomas que preceden a la quiebra bancaria y las causas que los originan. Se ha diseñado un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales que pretende ilustrar el camino a la quiebra. El modelo se ha contrastado con datos de la quiebra de bancos en USA, durante el año 2009 y 2010. Como herramienta analítica se ha usado Partial Least Squares Path Modelling (PLS-PM), herramienta muy utilizada en marketing (Henseler et al, 2009) o sistemas de información (Chin, 1998) pero apenas usada con información financiera. Que sepamos no se ha estudiado la quiebra empresarial con dicha herramienta.

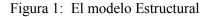
ESTUDIO EMPÍRICO

La figura 1 muestra nuestro modelo causal. Las estrategias que ha elegido el banco son responsables de su quiebra, su supervivencia o su éxito. El crecimiento y el optar por especializarse en préstamos relacionados con el sector inmobiliario influyen en ratios financieros como el margen, la rotación y el riesgo. Los aumentos en la cifra de negocio suponen una oportunidad para obtener mayores beneficios y aumentar la rentabilidad. Pero al crecer se conceden préstamos cada vez más arriesgados, lo que se refleja en los ratios que miden el riesgo. Si llega una situación de crisis, los créditos dejan de pagarse y la rentabilidad cae bruscamente. Si el banco ha crecido pero no ha fortalecido en la misma medida el capital la solvencia se deteriora. Si además la crisis afecta especialmente al mercado inmobiliario y es justo en lo que la entidad se ha especializado la probabilidad de hacer bancarrota aumenta. Ese es el camino que finaliza en la crisis.

La metodología que vamos a emplear es nueva en los estudios de quiebra. Usaremos PLS-Path Modeling, técnica que formula el concepto de causalidad en términos de relaciones lineales (Vinzi et al 2010). El modelo se ha contrastado con el software SmartPLS (Ringle et al, 2005). Los resultados que proporciona son R2 y betas, por tanto, de interpretación habitual en las ciencias sociales.

Ilustramos el caso de la quiebra bancaria de USA en el año 2009 y 2010. La base de datos procede de la Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) y se han tomado datos de 9,966 bancos desde el año 2003 al 2009. Para cada banco se han utilizado 9 ratios financieros. Los síntomas financieros son los 3 ratios:

Return on Equity (ROE), el ratio de solvencia (TIER1) y el ratio de eficiencia (EFFICIENCY). Cuanto mayor es el valor de EFFICIENCY menor es la eficiencia. Los ratios que provienen de la descomposición de la rentabilidad son MARGIN y TURNOVER. El crecimiento de los préstamos es INC-LOANS. La concentración en préstamos inmobiliarios es REALESTATE. %RISK se obtiene dividiendo los activos ponderados por riesgo entre los activos totales. SALARY es la remuneración salarial, es decir, los salarios divididos por el número de empleados.



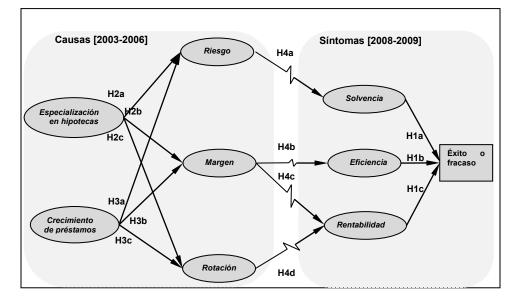


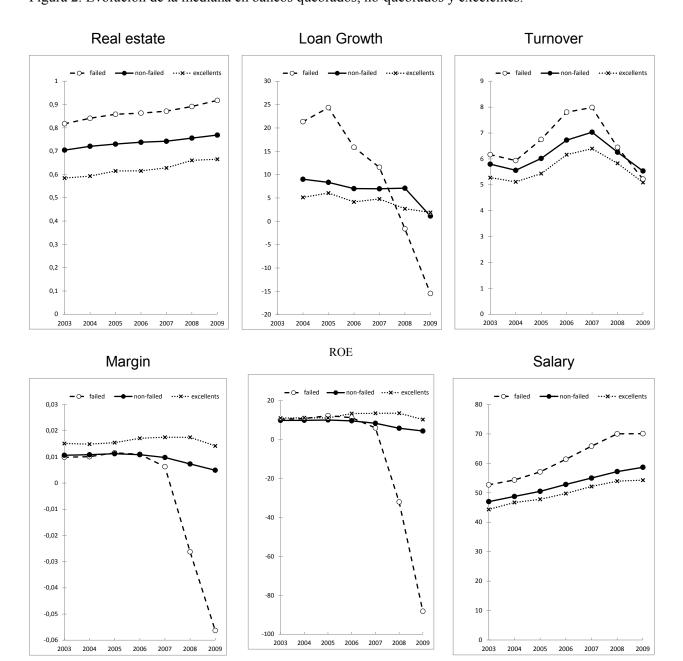
Tabla 1. Resultados del contraste de hipótesis

		Standardizea	l coeffici	ents and boots	trap t val	ues	P-value of differences	
Hypothesis	No Beta	on-failed T-statistic	Beta	Failed T-statistic	Ex Beta	cellents T-statistic	Failed vs Non-failed	Failed vs Excellent
H1a Tier1 ₂₀₀₅ \rightarrow Tier1 ₂₀₀₆	0.86	15.93**	0.47	3.47**	0.98	103.44**	0.008**	0.000**
H1b Tier1 ₂₀₀₆ \rightarrow Tier1 ₂₀₀₇	0.86	14.91**	0.68	7.67**	0.96	48.00**	0.096	0.003**
H1c Tier1 ₂₀₀₇ \rightarrow Tier1 ₂₀₀₈	0.88	20.33**	0.19	1.66	0.93	24.79**	0.000**	0.000**
H1d ROE $_{2005} \rightarrow$ ROE $_{2006}$	0.77	12.25**	0.80	19.22**	0.85	19.57**	0.666	0.414
H1e ROE $_{2006} \rightarrow \text{ROE}_{2007}$	0.77	10.86**	0.67	9.18**	0.85	11.21**	0.311	0.092
H1f ROE $_{2007} \rightarrow$ ROE $_{2008}$	0.67	7.57**	0.24	2.33*	0.68	4.71**	0.001**	0.013*
H1g Efficiency 2005 → Efficiency 2006	0.71	6.67**	0.69	5.19**	0.88	25.51**	0.882	0.161
H1h Efficiency $_{2006} \rightarrow$ Efficiency $_{2007}$	0.75	7.10**	0.73	6.26**	0.87	14.88**	0.938	0.310
H1i Efficiency $_{2007} \rightarrow$ Efficiency $_{2008}$	0.78	9.59**	0.51	6.81**	0.74	9.04**	0.016*	0.044*
H2a Realestate $_{2003} \rightarrow \text{Risk}_{2004}$	0.24	1.87	0.39	3.93**	-0.27	2.38*	0.320	0.000**
H2b Realestate $_{2003} \rightarrow$ Margin $_{2004}$	-0.05	0.48	0.21	1.96*	-0.16	1.24	0.080	0.025*
H2c Realestate $_{2003} \rightarrow$ Turnover $_{2004}$	0.29	2.56*	0.38	3.51**	0.01	0.17	0.549	0.029*
H3a IncLoans $_{0304} \rightarrow$ Risk $_{2004}$	0.36	4.66**	0.48	6.89**	0.31	2.46*	0.259	0.207
H3b IncLoans ₀₃₀₄ → Margin ₂₀₀₄	-0.01	0.17	-0.11	1.03	0.10	0.61	0.583	0.265
H3c IncLoans $_{0304} \rightarrow$ Turnover $_{2004}$	0.04	0.50	0.10	0.91	-0.02	0.28	0.640	0.486
H4a Risk 2004 → Tier1 2005	-0.14	1.65	-0.36	2.97**	-0.04	0.51	0.150	0.020*
H4b Margin 2004 → Efficiency 2005	-0.46	5.15**	-0.53	6.92**	-0.41	3.14**	0.522	0.398
H4c Margin $_{2004} \rightarrow \text{ROE}_{2005}$	0.64	7.53**	0.48	4.15**	0.63	7.23**	0.274	0.303
H4d Turnover $_{2004} \rightarrow \text{ROE}_{2005}$	0.13	1.56	0.23	1.96*	0.06	0.54	0.505	0.274

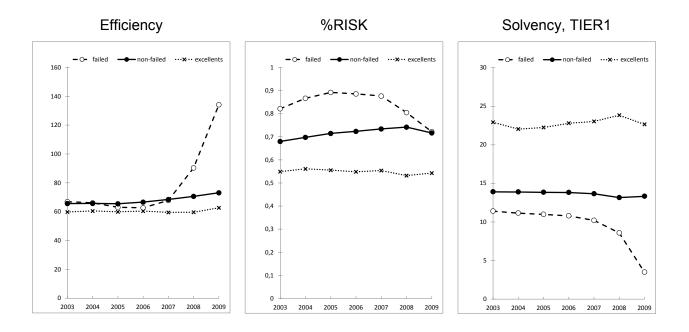
** Significant at the 0.01level * Significant at the 0.05 level **Non-Failed** N = 9,679; R^2 for Solvency₂₀₀₈=0.76; R^2 for Efficiency₂₀₀₈=0.60; R^2 for ROE₂₀₀₈=0.44; R^2 for Risk₂₀₀₄=0.20; R^2 for Margin₂₀₀₄=0.00; R^2 for Turnover₂₀₀₄=0.09 **Failed** N = 140; R^2 for Solvency₂₀₀₈=0.04; R^2 for Efficiency₂₀₀₈=0.05; R^2 for Risk₂₀₀₄=0.36; R^2 for Margin₂₀₀₄=0.06; R^2 for Turnover₂₀₀₄=0.15 **Excellents** N = 140; R^2 for Turnover₂₀₀₄=0.05; R^2 for ROE₂₀₀₈=0.46; R^2 for Risk₂₀₀₄=0.15; R^2 for Turnover₂₀₀₄=0.03; R^2 for Turnover₂₀₀₄=0.00

Figura 2. Evolución de la mediana en bancos quebrados, no-quebrados y excelentes.

ratios financieros (H1a a H1i).







Es decir, un ratio de un año determinado se explica mayormente por el valor del mismo ratio del año anterior. Se comprueba con las solventes, con las quebradas y con las excelentes. Pero los valores de las betas y las t-statistic son mayores en el caso de los excelentes. El Smith-Satterthwaite test encuentra diferencias significativas entre los grupos, en varias relaciones. De forma visual se aprecia en la figura 2 que en los bancos excelentes hay pocos cambios de tendencia, frente a los quebrados, en los que sí se aprecian saltos. En los excelentes la solvencia, rentabilidad, eficiencia se mantiene estable a lo largo de los años, frente a los trompicones que dan los quebrados.

La hipótesis 2 plantea que una de las causas de la quiebra bancaria es especializarse. La tabla 1 determina que en los quebrados hay relación estadísticamente significativa y positiva entre el porcentaje de hipotecas y el riesgo, (H2a; β =0.39, t=3.93). Pero en los excelentes sucede al contrario, la relación es negativa (H2a; β =-0.27, t=2.38). El análisis multigrupo ratifica las diferencias de comportamiento entre los quebrados y solventes (p=0.000). Parece claro que los bancos excelentes se han hecho con menos hipotecas pero de mayor calidad. La tabla muestra que a mayor crecimiento mayor riesgo. Esa relación es más fuerte en los quebrados (H3a; β =0.48, t=6.89) que en los excelentes (H3a; β =0.31, t=2.46), pero el test no detecta diferencias significativas entre los grupos. Entre crecimiento y rotación o margen no hay relación y ello tanto en los quebrados, solventes o excelentes. La tabla también muestra diferente comportamiento en la relación entre riesgo y solvencia. En los quebrados, a mayor riesgo menor solvencia (H4a; β =-0.36, t=2.97). En solventes y excelentes la relación no es significativa, el aumento en el riesgo se compensa fortaleciendo el capital (H4a; β =-0.04, t=0.51). Las diferencias entre los quebrados y los excelentes son estadísticamente significativas. Finalmente, la relación entre el margen y la eficiencia es significativa en todos los casos (H4b), así como entre margen y ROE (H4c). Pero la relación entre rotación y ROE es significativa solo en los quebrados (H4d).

En resumen, el contraste empírico se ajusta a lo hipotetizado. Los R2 muestran valores bastante elevados. Pero otras variables y relaciones podrían tener cabida. El estudio revela que existe un patrón de buena gestión bancaria y también de mala gestión. Esta última se caracteriza por poner todos los huevos en la misma cesta, prestar a quien no ofrece suficientes garantías, aumentar exageradamente el número de créditos y descuidar el margen. Ello explica la mayor parte de las quiebras bancarias.

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LA CREACIÓN DEL CENTRO DESARROLLO EMPRESARIAL UABC, Y SU IMPACTO EN LAS MICRO, PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS DEL VALLE DE MEXICALI

Marcela Reyes Pazos, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Campus Mexicali Alfredo Padilla López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Campus Mexicali Oscar Reyes Sánchez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Campus Mexicali

RESUMEN

El propósito de esta investigación es analizar la creación del Centro Desarrollo Empresarial de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Ciudad Guadalupe Victoria del Valle de Mexicali, y su impacto en las Micro Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (MIPYMES) en su entorno socioeconómico durante el periodo 2010. El método seguido fue de investigación documental, consultando la base de datos del CEDEM-UABC, y del INEGI; los principales resultados obtenidos son atención a microempresarios en asesoría financiera, planes de nuevos negocios incubados, empresas de base social formalizadas y apoyadas con financiamiento. Los resultados obtenidos hasta ahora muestran un efecto favorable en el desarrollo de las MIPYMES en el Valle de Mexicali y una adecuada vinculación universitaria con su entorno económico y social.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Mipymes

INTRODUCCIÓN

Los sucesos tecnológicos, culturales, políticos, y económicos que acontecen en los últimos años al mundo, han provocado que la sociedad se vea afectada, y exista desempleo, como consecuencia un México más pobre. Para contrarrestar estos problemas, la estrategia ha sido el soporte y la creación de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, con el fin de generar empleos, obtener impuestos por parte del gobierno por su creación, y el crecimiento de las empresas para beneficio de los países. Se han establecido organismos para asesorar en materia financiera y de administración a las mipymes que ya tienen tiempo en el mercado ó a las de nuevas creación, y son organismos gubernamentales, y asociaciones civiles, quienes impulsan el desarrollo y fortalecimiento económico de las empresas. En Baja California se ha impulsado el desarrollo de las mipymes para combatir el desempleo, y actualmente a través de la Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico con sus programas de capacitación y asesoramiento financiero favorece a la mejora de las empresas.

Actualmente en Baja California existen organismos los cuales apoyan el desarrollo empresarial, tales como EMPRESER, CANACO (Cámara Nacional de Comercio), COPARMEX (Confederación Patronal de la República Mexicana) entre otrosEl Centro Desarrollo Empresarial-Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (CEDEM-UABC) se inaugura el día 23 de febrero de 2010, en las instalaciones de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Guadalupe Victoria (EIN-GV) y nace por la necesidad de los micro, pequeños y medianos empresarios de la región del Valle de Mexicali, en cuestión de asesoría y mejoramiento empresarial, apoyado a su vez por el Programa de Investigación, Asistencia y Docencia a la Micro, Pequeña y Mediana empresa de la Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico. Solorio (2009)El objetivo principal del CEDEM es promover la formación profesional pertinente del estudiante universitario, con su entorno socioeconómico, a través de la investigación científica y vinculación con las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas del Valle de Mexicali, por medio de la asesoría para la creación de nuevas empresas,

la orientación para el fortalecimiento financiero, y de la capacitación y actualización del conocimiento empresarial. Es decir, es un medio para que el estudiante desarrolle sus habilidades, y ponga en práctica sus conocimientos adquiridos al inicio, ó durante su carrera profesional, se desenvuelva en el medio laboral al tratar con microempresarios ó nuevos empresarios, desempeñando la atención efectiva e inmediata a los usuarios. La misión del CEDEM es formar profesionales que impulsen y apoyen a las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas del Valle de Mexicali a través de la asesoría, capacitación y actualización del conocimiento y habilidades empresariales, convirtiéndolas en generadoras de empleo incrementando así el desarrollo y calidad de vida en su entorno.

La visión de CEDEM es ser un centro de formación profesional e investigación científica pertinente y necesaria para el desarrollo socioeconómico del Valle de Mexicali creando y promoviendo empresas más competitivas que generan liderazgo y consolidación de los mercados. La estructura orgánica del Centro Desarrollo Empresarial UABC, está formada por 4 áreas tales como: Incubadora de nuevos negocios, Asistencia a Empresas de Base social, Asesoría financiera y fortalecimiento Empresarial, e Investigación de mercados. En el área de incubadora de nuevos negocios se realizan actividades como evaluación del perfil empresarial por medio de un test, plan de negocios, asesoría y seguimiento, y la formalización de la nueva empresa. En lo que compete a la Asistencia a Empresas de Base social, se atienden a las empresas en las distintas etapas del programa PIADMYPE, como lo son formalización, evaluación y seguimiento.

En el área de asesoría financiera y fortalecimiento empresarial, se asesora a los microempresarios en cuestión de financiamientos, y se realizan talleres de capacitación en temas de interés para los microempresarios como: legal, mercadotecnia, contabilidad, fiscal, entre otros. La última área, es la investigación de mercados, se analiza la vocación empresarial de la región, se proyectan perfiles de mercado, se realizan estudios de mercado empresarial, además de la publicación de información especializada que surge del CEDEM-UABC.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Las primeras MIPYMES que fueron importantes en la economía argentina y después en México, son las del sector industrial en los años 50's y 60's, cuando estuvo el modelo de sustitución de importaciones. En ese tiempo las MIPYMES en México obtuvieron beneficios significativos, sin embargo también hubo restricciones en equipo, capacitación, administración, e información, en los años 70's como consecuencia no hubo productividad, ni fueron competitivas a nivel internacional. Bardan (2002)En 1978 en México existió el Programa de Apoyo Integral a la Industria Mediana y Pequeña (PAI), el cual contemplaba fondos y fideicomiso, orientado a empresas de 6 a 250 personas, y si eran menos de 5 personas, se llamaban talleres artesanales los cuales no recibían apoyos. Bardan (2002)En el año de 1996, se creó la Red de Centros regionales para la Competitividad Empresarial, los cuales daban asesoría a las MIPYMES, en administración, tecnología, contabilidad, e ingeniería. Empresarios que terminaron su capacitación, y la implementaron en el negocio, aumentaron sus ventas en un 29%. Bardan (2002) En la actualidad, las empresas en México se clasifican, según la ley para el desarrollo de la

En la actualidad, las empresas en Mexico se clasifican, según la ley para el desarrollo de la competitividad de la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa (MIPYMES), con última reforma en el diario oficial de la federación, en el 2006, y en común acuerdo de la Secretaria de Economía y Secretaria de Hacienda y Crédito Público, en relación al número de trabajadores de la siguiente manera:

Estratificación por Número de Trabajadores			
Sector/Tamaño	Industria	Comercio	Servicios
Micro	0-10	0-10	0-10
Pequeña	11-50	11-30	11-50
Mediana	51-250	31-100	51-100

Fuente: Diario Oficial de la Federación, México, 2006Se incluyen productores agrícolas, ganaderos, forestales, pescadores, acuicultores, mineros, artesanos y de bienes culturales, asi como prestadores de servicios turísticos y culturales.

En los últimos años la economía en México ha sido afectada por la crisis financiera mundial, reflejando los indicadores estadísticos una considerable tasa de desocupación laboral. En Baja California, según el INEGI en el primer trimestre del año 2010 el porcentaje de población desocupada mayor de 14 años fue

de 5.90%, sin embargo en el último trimestre aumentó a 5.94%, significa que existe necesidad de reactivar la economía en la región y se pretende lograr con el sustento de la Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico del estado (SEDECO), a través de la generación de empresas y soporte financiero a los nuevos negocios y a los que ya están en operaciones.

El Centro de Atención Empresarial de SEDECO en el 2011, afirma que en Baja California el 99.5 % de las empresas son micro, pequeñas y medianas. Además éstas emplean al 68% del personal ocupado. Según Chirino (2007), menciona que la mipyme es el motor económico de los países latinoamericanos al ocupar hasta un 99% de su planta productiva. Esto ha tomado auge y captado la atención del sector académico, de investigación y gubernamental...ya que ha presentado un desdoblamiento de las empresas familiares, es decir, las organizaciones que la generación anterior encabezaba, los padres, ahora se ven fortalecidas por los hijos quienes tienen ideas frescas, al egresar de las universidades, mismas que aplican en el negocio o simplemente al continuar con la tradición emprendedora de la familia y aplicar nueva tecnología del proceso de producción de la empresa nodriza.

Un factor importante en el crecimiento de las mipyme es el impulso que las universidades le han dado al espíritu emprendedor, sin embargo ha carecido de la exigencia en lo referente a la innovación y creatividad en los productos presentados por los estudiantes, pasando a ser este programa un requisito más que superar en su preparación, sin alguna exigencia importante. Los financiamientos que adquieren, ofertados por el gobierno, han beneficiado a bastantes microempresarios en la compra de materia prima, maquinaria, ó invertido en infraestructura para su empresa. "El acceso al financiamiento por parte de las pymes es importante, no solo por su efecto en la distribución del ingreso, sino por sus consecuencias en la creación de empleos, ya que en prácticamente todas las economías, las pymes son la principal fuente de empleo." (Stallings, 2006.)

METODOLOGÍA

Investigación documental, a través de la base de datos del CEDEM-UABC. Se realizo una lectura sistemática, se elaboraron fichas de resumen, y de citas. Se utilizaron bases de datos electrónicas como la EBSCO. Se consultaron páginas electrónicas de INEGI, Secretaria De Desarrollo Económico de Baja California, Secretaria De Hacienda y Crédito Publico Del Gobierno Federal (México).

RESULTADOS

Desde que inició el CEDEM en el 2009, hasta 2011, han acudido 631 microempresarios, algunos de ellos se favorecieron con los servicios y apoyos económicos para fortalecimiento empresarial, y creación de nuevas mipymes en la región del Valle de Mexicali.

- 447 PIADMYPE (Programa de Investigación, Asistencia y Docencia, a la Micro, y Pequeña Empresa)
- 153 Asesoría financiera y actualización
- 31 Nuevos negocios incubados

El CEDEM-UABC ha tenido bastante aceptación en el medio rural, ya que los usuarios se encuentran complacidos con los distintos servicios proporcionados por los universitarios de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios de la UABC, desde que se abrió, siendo un factor clave de éxito, que hoy en día se ve reflejado en el incremento de usuarios que acuden diariamente al Centro para adquirir algún apoyo económico ó asesoría empresarial, sin hacer uso a la fecha, de medios publicitarios para darlo a conocer.En mayo del 2010 a raíz del terremoto de la ciudad de Mexicali, y sus consecuencias, la Secretaria de Desarrollo Económico de Baja California, otorgó apoyos en la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios de la UABC, a 152 empresarios con una inversión de 3 millones 335 mil 800 pesos, con el fin de que renovaran inventario, y recuperaran infraestructura dañada.Al Centro Desarrollo Empresarial de la Escuela de Ingeniería y

Negocios de la UABC, acuden en promedio 30 microempresarios al mes y solicitan información ya sea para iniciar, formalizar, ó adquirir financiamiento para el negocio.

También, a los nuevos emprendedores del Valle de Mexicali que quieran abrir su negocio, existen infinidad de apoyos empresariales de acuerdo a sus características. El Centro Desarrollo Empresarial asiste a personas ó grupos emprendedores, que estén decididos a formar su empresa. La difusión de convocatorias en apoyo a las mipymes por parte de la SEDECO con fondo EMPRENDE, fondo EMPRENDE TRADICIONAL, FONDO EMPRENDEDOR, y el programa de vinculación PIADMYPE, se realizan en el CEDEM-UABC, contribuyendo al crecimiento de la economía en el valle de Mexicali. En este periodo 2011-1 hay 2 planes de negocios de estudiantes de psicología de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Guadalupe Victoria, próximos a egresar, los cuales emprenderán su actividad profesional con la apertura de su empresa, y han asistido a capacitación empresarial en el CEDEM-UABC. Esta actitud emprendedora de los futuros profesionales es muy alentadora para las nuevas generaciones, y motiva a generar su propio empleo, contribuyendo a su desarrollo como profesionistas emprendedores y al crecimiento del valle de Mexicali.

CONCLUSIONES

La creación del Centro Desarrollo Empresarial, como organismo del valle de Mexicali, ha contribuido al progreso de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas en cuestión financiera a través de la adquisición de préstamos para adquirir maquinaria, materia prima ó infraestructura, mejoramiento en los negocios; conocimientos generales de administración de empresas a los microempresarios a través de los talleres de capacitación, y la práctica profesional que se genera a través de la vinculación de los distintos programas que lo comprenden, provocando que el estudiante de licenciatura actué en el contexto real que viven las empresas de la región, y en algunos casos sugiera estrategias para el crecimiento económico del negocio. Es importante considerar que no solo generar nuevos negocios, es la única responsabilidad de un organismo empresarial, si no coadyuvar en la permanencia, y desarrollo de la empresa.

Hoy en día por parte del gobierno u organismos hay facilidad para la apertura de empresas, pero no es el solo hecho de incrementar el número de micro y pequeñas empresas significa que esta contribuye a la economía, es importante mencionar que muchas de ellas mueren al primer año de ser creadas por no tener una buena administración de los recursos humanos, ni financieros de la empresa. Es por ello que el Centro Desarrollo Empresarial, seguirá contribuyendo a la capacitación constante en temas prioritarios para las empresas, y la asesoría financiera pertinente de acuerdo al tamaño de la empresa, sus gastos y sus utilidades. Actualmente el Centro Desarrollo Empresarial está formado por estudiantes de licenciatura en administración de empresas, quienes fungen en las distintas área del organismo, contribuyendo con los microempresarios para el mejoramiento de las mipymes en el Valle de Mexicali, y próximamente se pretende vincular a estudiantes de licenciatura en psicología para fortalecer sus habilidades profesionales en el área de capacitación laboral, de acuerdo a las áreas afines a su carrera, fungiendo como instructores en cursos de interés para las microempresas.

En el valle de Mexicali hasta la fecha no han sido cubiertas muchas necesidades de los consumidores, y se podrían desarrollar negocios que ofrezcan productos ó servicios diferentes, satisfaciendo otros nichos de mercado.Es trascendental que las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas del Valle de Mexicali acudan a este tipo de organismos como es el CEDEM-UABC, para que obtengan un crecimiento empresarial, con el objetivo de ser competitivos en su medio, logrando una participación considerable en el mercado, con la ayuda del financiamiento y la capacitación empresarial.

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Marcela Reyes Pazos, es profesora de tiempo completo, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios. La maestra se puede contactara en el correo electrónico mtra_marcelarp@hotmail.com.

Alfredo Padilla López, es profesor de tiempo completo, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios. El maestro se puede contactar en el correo electrónico alfredopadilla_uabc@yahoo.com.mx

Oscar Reyes Sánchez, es profesor de tiempo completo, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Humanas oreyes@uabc.edu.mx

CAPITAL INTELECTUAL: LA INNOVACIÓN INDICADOR DEL CAPITAL ESTRUCTURAL EN EMPRESAS DEL SECTOR MANUFACTURERO EN AGUASCALIENTES

Martha González Adame, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Haydeé Aguilar Romero, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Gonzalo Maldonado Guzmán, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

Las empresas para ser más competitivas deben integrar en su estrategia organizativa la medición del capital intelectual y la elaboración de informes de capital intelectual, sin considerarlo como un hecho aislado sino como parte de las actividades de la empresa. Sin embargo, indica Ordóñez (2004) que la gran mayoría de las empresas no disponen de herramientas de medición de capital intelectual que les faciliten una mejor gestión. La realización de esta investigación proporcionará a las empresas una alternativa para medir sus recursos intangibles, generando ventajas para ellas. El Análisis de medias de los indicadores de innovación para el indicador "Pone en practica los planes de mercado" para empresas jóvenes (3.24) y maduras (3.02), para el sector manufacturero (2.81); el menor para el indicador "Ingresos para investigación y desarrollo de productos" para empresas jóvenes (2.6) y maduras (2.75), para el manufacturero (2.67). Considerando lo que señala Ordóñez (2001; 2002) con base en los resultados de estudios internacionales, que muestran que las empresas obtienen beneficios en términos de una mejor gestión interna y a la vez logran beneficios externos que se manifiestan en el posicionamiento estratégico, la adquisición de innovaciones desarrolladas por otras empresas y la mejora de la productividad, entre otras.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para este trabajo de investigación, se realizó un estudio empírico, a partir de la información de 126 empresas del estado de Aguascalientes, mediante una encuesta personal autoadministrada a los gerentes de las empresas.Este trabajo se ha estructurado de la siguiente forma: se presenta una revisión de la literatura sobre la capital intelectual e innovación; la metodología, que incluye el tipo de estudio, las características de la muestra, las variables, instrumentos y los análisis; se presentan los resultados, y finalmente, las conclusiones y la bibliografía.

REVISION LITERARIA

Marco Conceptual Para El Análisis Del Capital Intelectual

En este contexto observamos que el Capital Intelectual es definido como una "fuente de beneficios económicos futuros para la empresa, que carecen de sustancia física y que pueden o no aparecer en los estados financieros" (MERITUM, 2002, p. 16). Los conceptos de capital intelectual e intangible son estudiados por un gran número de autores y grupos de investigación. Las principales iniciativas que han tenido lugar en el área de la medición de intangibles han sido: Balanced Scored Card (Kaplan & Norton, 1992); Navigator of Skandia (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997); Technology Broker (Brooking, 1996); West Ontario University (Bontis, 1996); Canadian Imperial Bank (Saint-Onge, 1996); Intellectual Asset Monnitor (Sveiby, 1997); INTELECT Model,(Instituto Universitario Euroforum, 1998); Intellectual capital (Dragonetti & Ross,1998);The Value Explorer (Andriessen, 2000); MERITUM Project (2002).

Por otro lado, Bueno señala que el capital intelectual es «el conjunto de competencias básicas distintivas: unas, de origen tecnológico, en donde se incluyen también todos los elementos del saber y de la experiencia acumulados por la empresa; otras de origen organizativo o propias de los "procesos de acción" de la organización, y otras, de carácter personal, concernientes a las actitudes, aptitudes y habilidades de los miembros de la organización».

El capital estructural es aquel que permanece cuando los empleados se han marchado y, por lo tanto, es propiedad de la empresa. Incluye todas las formas de colocar conocimientos no sustentados en el ser humano, como estrategias, manuales de procesos, bases de datos, entre todo. El capital estructural se estudia según dos divisiones que representan el capital organizativo y el tecnológico. El primero es aquel que integra los talantes que se relacionan con la organización de la empresa y su proceso de toma de decisiones, esto es: la cultura organizativa, mecanismos de coordinación, rutinas organizativas, entre otros. Por otra parte, el capital tecnológico se refiere a todos los conocimientos referidos a los aspectos técnicos e industriales, como las derivaciones de la investigación y desarrollo y de la ingeniería de procesos. El Capital Estructural Organizativo es el primer paso será determinar que tipos de capital estructural existen y como pueden convertirse en una ventaja competitiva para la empresa. Según la teoría de los recursos y capacidades, los recursos se vuelven valiosos cuando aportan a la empresa, de tal forma que ésta puede mejorar su efectividad, aprovechar oportunidades y neutralizar las amenazas.

La creación de valor se enfoca en incrementar proporcionalmente los beneficios que el cliente recibe en contraste con los costos que se relacionan con la obtención de dichos beneficios. De ahí que, el capital estructural de la empresa pueda añadir valor si favorece la disminución de costos, si mejora el servicio o las características de los productos. También Collis y Montgomery (1995) enfatizan que la significancia del capital estructural estriba en el nivel en que auxilie al desarrollo de una ventaja competitiva. Viéndolo desde el ámbito económico, la teoría de los costos de transacción, plantea que las organizaciones logran obtener esta ventaja cuando poseen activos específicos que no pueden ser imitados por la competencia (Williamson, 1975).

Evidencias Empíricas: Dentro de las evidencias empíricas de indicadores de capital estructural, se encuentra el estudio de casos presentado por Ordoñez (2004) en su estudio de indicadores de capital estructural utilizados en el Informe corporativo de Capital Intelectual, mismos que pueden dividirse en: infraestructura general; apoyo al cliente; procesos administrativos; innovación; proyectos calidad y de mejora; infraestructuras basada en el conocimiento. En esta línea de estudio, definimos innovación como el aspecto que indica el compromiso de la empresa en cuanto a inversión en desarrollo de proyectos y procesos, lanzamiento de nuevos proyectos y servicios, centros de excelencia y rentabilidad de los proyectos.

METODOLOGÍA DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Tipo De Investigación: El diseño de investigación, será del tipo no experimental y transaccional, descriptivo y exploratorio. Se centra en la descripción y análisis de datos recolectados mediante entrevistas y/o cuestionarios. No se probarán hipótesis, sino que se generarán, de ahí su caracterización como estudio exploratorio, como investigación aplicada para el (las) área(s) de las Ciencias Económicas y Administrativas

La Muestra: Para determinar la muestra, se utilizó el Directorio Empresarial del Sistema de Información Empresarial de México (SIEM) 2008, de la Secretaría de Economía (SE), el cual tenía 8,661 empresas registradas al 31 de agosto de 2008, de los diferentes sectores y tamaños. Para efectos de este estudio, se tomaron únicamente aquellas empresas del Estado de Aguascalientes que tenían entre 5 y 250 trabajadores, quedando un total de 1,342 empresas (MiPymes). Para el diseño general de la muestra se consideraron los principios del muestreo estratificado en poblaciones finitas, segmentando en función del

tamaño de la empresa y su actividad empresarial. El error muestral obtenido fue $\pm 4.1\%$ con un grado de fiabilidad del 95%, quedando constituida por 126 empresas, de los sectores de servicios y manufactureras.

Instrumento: La técnica de recolección de la información que se empleó fue una encuesta personal autoadministrada y dirigida a los gerentes de las empresas.

Medición De Las Variables: La variable de capital estructural se midió con 24 ítems basándose en el "Instrumento para la capital intelectual" (Informe de Capital Intelectual (Danish Agency for Development of Trade and Industry, 2000, 2001; Meritum Project, 2002, adaptado inicialmente por JLHH en el Sector Hotelero y ahora adaptado para esta investigación) el cual distingue ocho dimensiones de cada una de los indicadores, a saber, Plan estratégico, Manuales, Rotación de personal, Tecnologías de información y comunicación, Conocimiento organizativo, Marca registrada, Política de innovación y Mercadotecnia; medidos en una escala tipo likert de 5 puntos, que va de total desacuerdo (valor 1) a total acuerdo (valor 5).La dimensión de innovación contempló en total 4 ítems partiendo del instrumento de Capital intelectual, se formó con los indicadores de Política de innovación dentro del componente de capital estructural con esos 4 ítems, medidos en una escala tipo likert de 5 puntos, que va de total desacuerdo "1" a total acuerdo "5".

Recolección De La Información

El trabajo de campo se llevó a cabo durante los meses de agosto a octubre de 2009.

Métodos De Análisis De Resultados: Se obtuvo la confiabilidad de las escalas con el Alpha de Cronbach y las estadísticas descriptivas para las variables de capital estructural y del indicador de innovación (frecuencias de las variables generales), para la prueba de hipótesis se analizaron la comparación de medias y ANOVA de un factor. Los datos fueron estudiados tomando como punto de referencia las variables de Tamaño, Sector y Antigüedad.

Análisis De Resultados: Se presenta la tabla general de resultados sobre las frecuencias de las variables sector de la empresa, si es dirigida por la familia, si tiene mayormente capital de la familia, la antigüedad de la empresa, el tipo de empresa y la educación del director de la empresa entre otras. Se les da una importancia a éstas variables por que son las que presentan un panorama general de la situación actual de las empresas en Aguascalientes.

Tabla 1: Empresas del Sector Manufacturero.

Empresas			Frequencia	%
de servicio			99	78.6 %
manufactureras transformación	0	de	27	21.4 %
Total			126	100.0

La muestra que se tuvo para este proyecto fue de 126 empresas, de las cuales 99 son de servicio y 27 del sector manufacturero. Del total de las empresas encuestadas se observa que el 50% están registradas como personas físicas y la otra mitad, como persona moral.

	Frequencies	%
si	87	69.0 %
no	38	30.2 %
Total	125	99.2 %
no contesto	1	.8 %
Total	126	100.0 %

Tabla 2: Control mayoritario familiar

Además se tomó en cuenta si las empresas tienen un control mayoritario familiar, es decir, si su capital proviene fundamentalmente de la familia, y el control que tienen dentro de la organización, es decir, que tantos puestos son ocupados por la familia.

Tabla 3: Tipo de Empresa

	Frequencia	0/0
persona física	63	50.0 %
persona moral	63	50.0 %
Total	126	100.0 %

En este ámbito se percibe que en un 69% (87 empresas) son controladas por las familias y tan sólo un 30.2% no. En los puestos ocupados por la familia se observa que en el 62.7% de las empresas los puestos gerenciales están mayormente dirigidos por familiares, sólo el 6.3% no y el 29.4% pertenece a las empresas que no contestaron o que esta pregunta no aplicaba para ser respondida

Tabla 4: Puestos directivos familiares

	Frequencia	%
si	79	62.7 %
no	8	6.3 %
Total	87	69.0 %
no aplica	37	29.4 %
no contesto	2	1.6 %
Total	39	31.0 %
Total	126	100.0 %

En los siguientes apartados también se muestra que los puestos gerenciales siguen siendo fuertemente dominados por los hombres, un 78.6% de las empresas son tuteladas por el género masculino y un 20.6% es comandado por las mujeres.

Tabla 5: Género Del director

		Frequencia	%
	masculino	99	78.6 %
	femenino	26	20.6 %
	Total	125	99.2 %
	no contesto	1	.8 %
Total		126	100.0 %

En el cuadro de educación se tiene que el 39.7% de los gerentes cuenta con una licenciatura o ingeniería, un 10.3% ha estudiado una maestría y tan sólo un 1.6% ha superado a todos estudiando un doctorado. Desde el otro polo, se cuenta con que el 18.3% terminó una carrera técnica o comercial, el 15.9% el bachillerato y el 14.3% obtuvo únicamente la educación básica.

Tabla 6 : Educación del Director

	Frequencia	%
Educación básica	18	14.3 %
Bachillerato	20	15.9 %
Carrera técnica o comercial	23	18.3 %
Licenciatura o Ingeniería	50	39.7 %
Maestría	13	10.3 %
Doctorado	2	1.6 %
Total	126	100.0 %

Sobre el tiempo que estas personas tienen como gerentes en sus empresas se destaca que la mayoría, un 56%, tiene de 1 a 5 años; siendo en contraparte "más de 31 años" tan sólo 1 persona la que tiene esta antigüedad como gerente.

Tabla 7: Tiempo Como gerente

	Frequencia	%
de 1 a 5 años	56	44.4%
de 6 a 10 años	33	26.2%
de 11 a 15 años	11	8.7%
de 16 a 20 años	16	12.7%
de 21 a 25 años	7	5.6%
de 26 a 30 años	2	1.6%
más de 31 años	1	.8%
Total	126	100.0%

La edad promedio de los gerentes en las empresas hidrocálidas es de 31 a 40 años de edad con un 32.5%, le sigue el intervalo de 41 a 50 años con un 31.7%, siendo el intervalo de menor frecuencia el de mayor de 61 años, pues en este se encuentran únicamente 6 personas.

Tabla 8: E	Edad Del	director
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	Edad	Frequencia	%
	de 20 a 30 años	15	11.9%
	de 31 a 40 años	41	32.5%
	de 41 a 50 años	40	31.7%
	de 51 a 60 años	23	18.3%
	más de 61 años	6	4.8%
	Total	125	99.2 %
	99	1	.8%
Total		126	100.0%

Como es de tenerse ese aspecto claro, nuestro Estado está suficientemente abastecido de Microempresas, siendo 70 (55.6%) las que entran en este rubro. Aunque se tiene que, a parte, 8.7% dejó de ser micro para convertirse en pequeña en el 2008. Las pequeñas continúan en su andar con un 17.5% y las medianas representan un 6.3% del total de las empresas.

Tabla 9: Tamaño de la empresa

	Frequencia	%
Micro de 1 a 10	70	55.6 %
de Micro a Pequeña	11	8.7 %
Pequeña de 11 a 50	22	17.5 %
Mediana de 51 a 250	8	6.3 %
Grande más de 251	5	4.0 %
Total	116	92.1 %
no contesto	10	7.9 %
Total	126	100.0 %

A continuación se presentan los análisis realizados al apartado de capital estructural en combinación con el sector al que pertenecen, si son jóvenes o empresas maduras y su tamaño.

Tabla 10 : Medias en las variables del Capital Estructural

Variable	Media	
Retención de empleados más honestos y profesionales.		
Desarrolla relaciones duraderas entre valores del personal	3.98	
Los productos llevan la marca registrada	3.65	
Cuenta con baja rotación del personal	3.64	
Cuenta con TI para cumplir sus funciones	3.63	
Estudia otras organizaciones para mejorar las cosas	3.49	
Uso de Sist. informáticos en sus procesos admvos	3.45	
Comparte el plan estratégico	3.42	
Informa sobre planes y proyectos al personal	3.41	
Organiza conocimiento y experiencia en documentos	3.34	
Cuenta con plan estratégico	3.33	
Cuenta con manuales normativos a disposición	3.3	
Construye prestigio con programa de RP	3.3	
Pone en practica los planes de mercado	3.15	
Considera presupuesto para nuevas tecnologías	3.1	
Destina presupuesto al desarrollo de nuevos servicios	2.92	
Desarrolla programas de software propios	2.85	
Tiempo laboral para desarrollo de nuevos productos	2.85	
Cuenta con área de mercadotecnia	2.77	
Uso de Sist. de información para diseño de nuevos productos	2.76	
Cuenta con red local para intercambio de información	2.71	
Ingresos para investigación y desarrollo de productos	2.66	
Se documentan las mejoras al servicio	2.39	
Patentan inventos e innovaciones	2.39	

Analizando ahora las variables según la antigüedad de la empresa, se destaca que, con una significancia de .05, la variable más transcendental en las empresas es la de "Cuenta con baja rotación del personal" con una media de 3.87 en empresas maduras, y la "Retención de empleados más honestos y profesionales" con 4.23, igualmente en empresas que tienen más de 10 años en el mercado. Las variables relativas a la innovación no demuestran alguna significancia en su relación.

Antigüedad Indicadores del Capital Estructural	Jóvenes de 0 a 10 años	Maduras más de 10 años	Sig. (de ANOVA de l factor)
Cuenta con plan estratégico	3.41	3.23	
Comparte el plan estratégico	3.48	3.34	
Cuenta con manuales normativos a disposición	3.25	3.38	
Cuenta con baja rotación del personal	3.48	3.87	**
Retención de empleados más honestos y profesión.	4	4.23	*
Desarrolla Rel. duraderas entre valores del personal	3.95	4.02	
Cuenta con TI para cumplir sus funciones	3.6	3.68	
Considera presupuesto para nuevas tecnologías	2.97	3.28	
Uso de Sist. informáticos en sus procesos admvos	3.42	3.48	
Organiza conocimiento y experiencia en documentos	3.3	3.4	
Informa sobre planes y proyectos al personal	3.42	3.4	
Cuenta con red local para intercambio de información	2.67	2.77	
Desarrolla programas de software propios	2.78	2.96	
Los productos llevan la marca registrada	3.71	3.57	
Se documentan las mejoras al servicio	2.49	2.24	
patentan inventos e innovaciones	2.36	2.44	
Îngresos para investigación y desarrollo de productos	2.6	2.75	
Uso de Sist. de info. para diseño de nuevos productos	2.65	2.9	
Cuenta con área de mercadotecnia	2.87	2.62	
Pone en practica los planes de mercado	3.24	3.02	
Construye prestigio con programa de RP	3.34	3.25	
Tiempo laboral para desarrollo de nuevos productos	2.99	2.66	
Destina presupuesto al desarrollo de nuevos servicios	2.96	2.87	
Estudia otras organizaciones para mejorar las cosas	3.47	3.51	

Tabla 11: Comparación de Medias Variables Capital Estructural vs Antigüedad de la Empresa

En el análisis por sector, de servicio y manufacturero o de transformación, encontramos únicamente dos variables con significancia. De esta forma, con una significancia de .05 se matiza la variable "Comparte un plan estratégico con el personal directivo para mejorar las decisiones" con una media de 3.56 en el área de servicio, y con una significancia de .10 con una media de 3.44 la variable "Organiza el conocimiento y experiencia en documentos para uso del personal directivo y operativo" es más importante en el sector servicio, también.

Las variables de innovación no se destacan con una significancia, sin embargo se observa su mayor importancia en las empresas de servicios en contraste con las de manufactura. Sin embargo, la diferencia entre estas no resulta muy relevante, únicamente en la variable "Pone en práctica los planes de mercado óptimos para enfrentar los actuales retos y oportunidades" la distancia es aún mayor con un 3.24, para servicios, y 2.81, para manufactureras.

CONCLUSIONES

El sector empresarial tiene que estar cada día más consciente de la importancia que conlleva la medición del capital intelectual. Dentro de este rubro, el capital estructural ha sido tomado en cuenta pero no en gran medida. De ahí el interés por tomar ese aspecto para analizarlo. Existen factores relevantes para cualquier estructura de organización, sin importar su tamaño, sector al que pertenecen o la edad que tenga la empresa. Sin embargo, es justo tener conclusiones específicas por cada aspecto analizado. Se resalta que el significado de las medias se asigna de esta forma: a mayor valor, implica mayor importancia de esta variable para la empresa o su aplicación actual en las organizaciones; a menor valor, descarta importancia de esta variable dentro de las compañías. Los asteriscos provienen de las tablas ANOVA que arrojaron las variables. El grado de relevancia para los asteriscos se trabajó de esta manera: *** es la significancia de más valor con .01, ** significancia de .05 y * tiene una significancia de .10.

En un comentario general, se observa que la tendencia a darle un significado más profundo al capital estructural recae en las empresas medianas, esto debido a su disposición organizacional, ya que les

importa más contar con manuales estratégicos de la organización, el compartir los planes con el personal y directivos, el retener a sus empleados más honestos y profesionales, el tener baja rotación del personal, entre otras variables del capital estructural. Cabe señalar que las variables que contemplan la innovación tuvieron una significancia en su análisis ANOVA, pero el poner en práctica los planes de mercado no obtuvo un valor importante para ser considerado.

Por otro lado, las empresas jóvenes reconocen la importancia estratégica que involucra el tener una baja rotación de personal, la retención de sus empleados más honestos y profesionales y el desarrollar relaciones de lealtad duraderas entre los valores el personal y la misión de la empresa. Esto nos lleva a pensar que las empresas están dándole un giro a su perspectiva sobre darle importancia únicamente a lo económico. Hoy en día las compañías están priorizando en su estructura y en su personal, en el compartir la filosofía con la empresa, en ofrecer un plus en las relaciones laborales. Hoy en día las empresas corroboran lo trascendente que es el tener personal, no sólo capacitado técnicamente, sino humana y éticamente. Sin embargo vemos que la innovación no es tan reveladora, si se analiza desde la perspectiva de la antigüedad de la empresa. Sus puntuaciones en las medias van de 3.24 a 2.6, estando su mayoría por debajo del "estar de acuerdo con la aplicación de esta variable dentro la empresa". Por lo que se concluye que la innovación, según edad de la organización, aún no ha saltado al nivel de importancia necesario para realizar implementaciones en su estructura y sus productos, no ha sido lleva a un plano relevante para que exista realmente "innovación" en las organizaciones.

Ahora bien, hablando de la comparación de medias de las variables contra el sector al que pertenecen las empresas, igualmente resaltan 3 variables. Para las empresas sigue siendo importante su baja rotación, tener empleados honestos y desarrollar relaciones duraderas con su personal. Para las de manufactura tiene mayor aplicación de estas tres variables que en las de servicio. Para las de servicio también resulta importante el tener un plan estratégico y compartirlo; sobretodo el compartirlo; en este aspecto difiere por algunos puntos en contraste con las empresas manufactureras. El organizar el conocimiento y experiencia en documentos también despunta más en las de servicio; teniendo una diferencia notoria en la variable "los productos llevan la marca registrada", debido a que en este, las empresas manufactureras parecen interesarse mucho y con justa y necesaria razón, ya que estas empresas son las que suelen desarrollar y fabricar los productos que revenden a las de servicio o comercio, según el caso.

La variable que es tomada en cuenta en un grado definitivamente inferior, es la de patentar inventos e innovaciones. Esto tan solo nos indica un factor típico de nuestra cultura, en su mayoría, el ser humano cree que todo está ya inventado y creado, que no existe algo más que se pueda desarrollar y, al no tener productos de nueva creación, naturalmente no hay nada que patentar.

Por eso resaltamos lo significativo que es para las empresas el contar con una visión estratégica para poder desarrollar sistemas, para establecer guías para la innovación y desarrollo de nuevos productos, para dar una pauta para el crecimiento de las relaciones con el personal, para implementar programas que permitan el la medición del capital intelectual, etc. Las empresas hoy por hoy no pueden mantenerse constantes y en una completa monotonía, deben arriesgar más y tomar el cambio con una actitud natural. La innovación es, actualmente, un rubro que debe tomarse como una ventaja competitiva, que debe ser explotada en las empresas si es que quieren continuar en el mercado.

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METODOLOGIA PARA ESTIMAR EL COSTO DEL PATRIMONIO EN EMPRESAS COLOMBIANAS QUE NO COTIZAN EN BOLSA

Javier Fuentes, Universidad Externado de Colombia Carlos Andrés López, Universidad Externado de Colombia Ana María Pardo, Universidad Externado de Colombia Rafael Camargo, Universidad Externado de Colombia Fernando Lizarazo, Universidad Externado de Colombia

RESUMEN

La presente investigación tiene como objetivo encontrar una metodología para el cálculo del costo del patrimonio en empresas colombianas que no cotizan en bolsa. Durante dicho proceso de investigación se estudian diferentes modelos y metodologías de los últimos 60 años, tanto para empresas cotizantes en bolsa, como para las que no lo hacen, llegando a la conclusión que aún hay espacio para metodologías más sencillas, menos costosas y ajustadas a la realidad económica de cada país. La metodología presentada usa como ecuación matemática base, la misma del Modelo CAPM (Capital Asset Pricing Model), pero con un proceso de hallazgo del coeficiente β sustentado en modelos ARM (Accounting Risk Models), en los cuales el cálculo se desarrolla empleando información que proviene de los estados financieros de la empresa, asumiendo que la contabilidad efectivamente representa de manera adecuada los valores de mercado. Las piezas claves para completar la formulación consisten en la elección adecuada de las tasas de interés para el caso Colombiano, los elementos útiles de los estados financieros de las empresas y su depuración estadística.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Costo de Capital, CAPM (Capital Asset Pricing Model), ARM (Accounting Risk Model), APT (Arbitrage Pricing Theory)

ABSTRACT

The objective of the following investigation is to found a methodology in order to calculate the equity cost for companies no listed on the stock exchange market. During the investigation is necessary an analysis of the different studies published for more than 60 years for listed or no listed companies on the stock exchange market, the first conclusion, is that there are enough room for methodologies simpler, less expensive and more according with the real economic situation of each country. The methodology uses the equation base of the CAPM model (CAPITAL ASSET PRICING MODEL), but using a different process to found the β coefficient based on ARM models (Accounting risk models), models where the calculation is supported on information coming from the company's accounting results, assuming that the accounting in deed really represents the market values. The other key pieces in order to complete the formulation are the adequate choice of the interest rates for the Colombian situation, the useful elements of the accounting and the statistic depuration of the available information.

KEYWORDS: Capital Cost, CAPM (Capital Asset Pricing Model), ARM (Accounting Risk Model), **APT** (Arbitrage Pricing Theory)

INTRODUCCIÓN

El propósito de esta investigación es identificar una herramienta que permita, a cualquier empresario, gestionar el riesgo de operar su empresa, por medio de la medición de su costo de patrimonio. Dicha medición, no es otra cosa que el riesgo del negocio, pues el valor de la empresa no es únicamente

consecuencia del resultado intrínseco de la operación, Court, et. Al, (2009), sino también de los riesgos a los que se ve expuesta respecto de las relaciones que establece fuera de ella y que están encaminadas en la búsqueda de valor para los propietarios, o inversionistas.

La bolsa de valores tiene la bondad, de ofrecer un acceso sencillo a información que puede ser utilizada en modelos de medición de riesgo y cuenta con la capacidad de representar en su comportamiento la mayoría de los fenómenos macroeconómicos que afectan el costo del capital de grandes empresas. Esto hace necesario que un modelo que pretenda apartarse de dicha fuente, requiera una formulación capaz de explicar la influencia de estos mismos fenómenos con igual o mayor exactitud de ser posible. La viabilidad de una metodología o modelo financiero que mida el costo del capital en empresas tipo PYME, se debe ajustar a tres elementos, primero, la sencillez de la recolección de información necesaria para la formulación; segundo, facilidad de aplicación del modelo y tercero, la consistencia y validez de los resultados.

REVISION LITERARIA

Es posible asegurar que existe una indisoluble relación entre riesgo y rentabilidad en la mayor parte de las decisiones financieras de una organización; especialmente una asociación directa, es decir, a mayor riesgo, mayor rentabilidad esperada y viceversa. Esta relación está presente en todas las decisiones del negocio en la medida en que su objetivo está siempre ligado a la obtención de determinados niveles de rentabilidad y a la maximización del valor. Gordon (2003; pág. 392) comenta: "desde el punto de vista práctico, un inversionista debe comprender la naturaleza de la relación entre el riesgo y el rendimiento de la inversión si va a colocar de manera optima sus fondos entre varias clases de activos a largo plazo, de acuerdo con su nivel de tolerancia al riesgo".

La forma como está compuesta la inversión que realiza una empresa se denomina *estructura de capital* y tiene un costo, generalmente llamado *costo de capital*. Cada uno de los componentes de la estructura de capital, deuda y patrimonio, tiene asociado riesgo, el cual es asumido de manera diferente por los bancos y los socios, siendo estos últimos, quienes soportan el mayor riesgo, ya que ante el eventual estado de quiebra de la empresa, son los últimos en recuperar lo que queda de su inversión, razón por la cual determinar el costo del capital de los socios (léase costo de patrimonio) se convierte en una necesidad. La mayoría de modelos sostienen una relación directa o indirecta con el comportamiento de los mercados de valores para hallar el costo de capital, por la cual se requiere del desarrollo de nuevos modelos que tengan en consideración las características se las Pymes.

Modelos

La revisión literaria realizada cubrió el análisis de diferentes modelos de medición de Costo de Capital y evaluación de riesgo asociado a la Deuda de largo plazo y al Patrimonio, tanto para empresas que cotizan en bolsa como empresas que no cotizan en bolsa. En general existe una amplia gama de modelos, bastante conocidos algunos de ellos, de medición de riesgo para *empresas que cotizan en Bolsa*, tal es el caso del CAPM (Capital Asset Pricing Model). Este modelo frecuentemente utilizado en la economía financiera, relaciona la prima del rendimiento esperado de un activo sobre la tasa libre de riesgo, y su riesgo relativo con respecto a la prima de retorno de mercado sobre la tasa libre de riesgo. La formulación general de este modelo:

$$E(R_{Activo}) = R_f + \beta (E(R_m) - R_f)$$
Dónde:
$$(1)$$

 $E(R_{Activo})$ Es la tasa de retorno esperada para el activo. R_f Es la tasa libre de riesgo. $E(R_m)$ Rentabilidad promedio esperada del mercado.

 $E(R_m) - R_f$ Es la prima del retorno esperado del mercado sobre la tasa libre de riesgo.

 β es un coeficiente que mide la contribución de un activo en particular, al riesgo de una cartera bien diversificada. Mide la sensibilidad del retorno esperado del activo a movimientos en el mercado.

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \frac{Cov(R_{Activo}, R_m)}{Var(R_m)} \tag{2}$$

Otro Modelo bastante referenciado y usado, el APT (Arbitrage Pricing Theory), Stephen Ross (1976), supone que hay K factores de riesgo y que cada factor tiene asociado un premio λ . A continuación se presenta la formula y la descripción de sus variables, Zavatti y Gutierrez (2007):

$$E_{(R_j)} = R_f + (\beta_{j1} \times \lambda_1) + (\beta_{j2} \times \lambda_2) + (\beta_{j3} \times \lambda_3) + \dots + (\beta_{jk} \times \lambda_k)$$
(3)

Dónde:

 $E_{(R_i)}$: Tasa esperada de rendimiento del inversionista, para un valor j.

R_f: Tasa libre de riesgo. Rentabilidad libre de riesgo del mercado. Títulos de gobiernos soberanos.

 β_{ik} : Beta estimado para la empresa no transada, encontrado para el factor k.

Considera múltiples factores explicativos como las tasas de interés, ciclos económicos, confianza inversionista, como factores relevantes para la medición del costo de patrimonio.

El modelo de los "Tres Factores" desarrollado por Fama y French, considera que el retorno esperado de una cartera, en exceso de la tasa libre de riesgo, es explicado por la sensibilidad de su retorno a tres factores: 1. El retorno en exceso de una cartera de un mercado amplio; 2. La diferencia entre el retorno de cartera de pequeñas acciones y el retorno de una cartera de grandes acciones (SMB, small minus big); 3. La diferencia entre el retorno de una cartera con acciones de alto patrimonio contable a patrimonio bursátil y el de retorno de una cartera con acciones de bajo patrimonio contable a patrimonio bursátil (HML, high minus low). Específicamente, el retorno en exceso esperado de una cartera i es:

$$E(Ri) - Rf = bi * (E(Rm - Rf) + si * E(SMB) + hi * E(HML)$$
Dónde:
(4)

E(Ri) - Rf, E(SMB) y E(HML) son premios esperados, y las sensibilidades a los factores bi, si y hi son las pendientes en la regresión de series de tiempo:

$$Ri - Rf = a + bi * (Rm - Rf) + si * SMB + hi * HML + ei$$
(5)

Dentro de los supuestos, Fama y French argumentan que si las acciones están racionalmente valoradas, las diferencias sistemáticas en los retornos promedios se deben a diferencias en el riesgo.

Entre los modelos revisados que soportan el análisis de riesgo para *empresas que no cotizan en bolsa* se encuentra modelos como el ARM (Accounting Risk Models). Son Modelos que estiman el costo de los recursos basados en datos contables. Barriga (2006), relaciona estos modelos refiriendo: "Ball and Brown en 1969 elaboraron uno de los estudios pioneros de ARM. En el analizaron el grado de asociación entre medidas de riesgo basadas en la contabilidad y en el mercado, y encontraron que cerca de la mitad de las variaciones del riesgo sistemático se explicaba con el movimiento en los ingresos contables de las firmas. Justifican el uso el uso de betas contables como variables proxy de los betas de mercado cuando hay dificultad en la información de mercado".

"Almisher y Kish (2000) plantean un modelo de regresión tomando las utilidades contables de una firma como variable dependiente y las utilidades contables del mercado como variable explicativa para obtener el beta contable".

$$Rit = \propto +\beta i * Rmt + Ui$$

Dónde: *Rit*: Utilidad neta/activos totales para la firma i en el período t. *Rmt*: Utilidad neta/Activos totales para el mercado en el período t. βi : Beta contable. *Ui*: Termino de error que se distribuye con media cero y varianza constante.

"El modelo usado por Hill y Stone (1990) y aplicado por Vos (1992) en más de 6.000 PYMES australianas en 5 años, se basa en el cociente entre el incremento periódico del rendimiento de los recursos propios de una firma y el incremento periódico del rendimiento de los recursos propios del mercado" Barriga, (2006)

$$\beta j = \frac{\Delta ROEj}{\Delta ROEm} \tag{7}$$

Fama y French (1997), han desarrollado un modelo alternativo para empresas que no cotizan en Bolsa que "en principio" subsana el inconveniente de medir el retorno que se espera de un activo que no transa en el mercado de capitales: "Pure Play". Parten del supuesto de la existencia de compañías en líneas de negocio similares que si transan en bolsa. Observando el rendimiento esperado de esos activos, se pueda aproximar el retorno del activo que se requiere estimar. A continuación se presenta la formula y la descripción de sus respectivas variables, según Herrera y Mora (1998; pág. 59):

$$K_{eNT} = R_f + \beta_{NT} \times (R_m - R_f)$$
(8)

Dónde:

 K_{eNT} : Costo de los recursos propios de la empresa que no transa en bolsa β_{NT} : Beta estimado para la empresa no transada

Para el cálculo se efectúa primero una selección de empresas que se transan en el mercado y que corresponden a sectores comparables con la actividad en análisis, tamaño equivalente y en lo posible niveles de endeudamiento parecidos. El cálculo del beta, para la empresa, se asume como "similar" al del activo que si cotiza en bolsa y por tanto su cálculo se deriva del modelo tradicional del CAPM.

METODOLOGIA

Estudiados y analizados diferentes modelos para determinar el cálculo del costo del patrimonio, se decidió trabajar sobre el modelo ARM. Las razones son básicamente la facilidad para el acceso a las fuentes de información, comparativamente con otros modelos y la practicidad para que el empresario PYME o cualquier inversionista, utilice la metodología como herramienta permanente de análisis.

La fórmula base de este cálculo es la misma del modelo CAPM, a saber:

$$Ke = TLR + \beta * (TM - TLR)$$
⁽⁹⁾

i Dónde: (6)

Ke: Costo de patrimonio.TLR: Tasa libre de riesgo.TM: Tasa de mercado.β: beta contable para los modelos ARM.

Cálculo del beta:La primera variación que se puede encontrar, es la forma como se logra el beta por medio de la razón entre el ROE de la empresa tipo y el ROE del mercado, pero previo a este cálculo, debemos detenernos por un momento en cómo se llega a las variables que conforman esta fórmula de Beta. Definición de la muestra. Para el desarrollo de este proyecto se trabajó con la información de los estados financieros que publica la Superintendencia de Sociedades de Colombia. Filtrando la información para el año 2009 las cifras que arroja según el tipo de empresa para el CIIU 1810 (Confección de prendas de vestir):

Tabla 1: Composición de las empresas según su Clasificación. CIIU. 1810

NIT	PORCENTAJE
Microempresa	2%
Pequeña	48%
Mediana	36%
Grande	14%

Esta tabla ilustra la cantidad de empresas para la CIIU 1810 Fuente: Elaboración propia

El 86% de la información de las empresas de la CIIU 1810 para el año 2009 corresponde a empresas Pyme. Tan solo el 14% son empresas de tamaño grande. Para efectos del cálculo del costo de capital Ke, se tomó la información de los estados financieros de las empresas medianas que representan el 36% del total de la muestra de la Superintendencia de Sociedades, y tienen valores cercanos a lo real. Depuración estadística de la muestra. Se realizaron dos ejercicios para depurar estadísticamente la muestra. Un examen gráfico de la naturaleza de las variables individuales a analizar con análisis descriptivo numérico para cuantificar algunos aspectos gráficos de los datos y la identificación de casos atípicos o valores extremos.

RESULTADOS

Se hizo análisis gráfico y numérico de las posibles variables a utilizar para filtrar la información dado que son los campos más adecuados para usarse en el cálculo de los betas: *Capital Suscrito y Pagado; Capital Social; Total Patrimonio; Utilidad Bruta; Ganancias y Pérdidas; Utilidad Operacional*.Para este primer análisis se calcularon las principales medidas de tendencia central (o localización) y algunas medidas de variabilidad. Así mismo, a través de Histogramas se evaluaron las distribuciones presentadas para las diferentes variables analizadas. Después de evaluar cada variable en los términos planteados, se determinó desde el punto de vista puramente numérico, que la variable que presenta mejores condiciones para ser aplicada y hacer el filtro de la información de datos atípicos es el campo *Utilidad Operacional*, por su simetría en la distribución asociado a la media y la mediana. En la Tabla 2 se presentan las salidas de los resultados obtenidos para la variable *Utilidad Operacional*.

Identificación Y Tratamiento De Los Valores Extremos

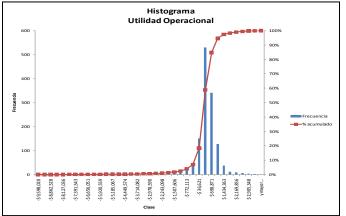
Siguiendo a Agrestin y Finlay (1999), y a Douglas y Runger (2004), Dado que en el estudio descriptivo de la información se presentaron indicios que la variable *Utilidad Operacional*, pese a tener las mejores condiciones para ser utilizada en la estimación del beta, presentaba valores considerablemente altos o extremadamente bajos, se realizó una prueba estadística que permitió identificar los valores extremos que

fueron excluidos del análisis. En esta prueba se determinó los valores atípicos leves y los valores atípicos extremos. La tabla 3, muestra los resultados obtenidos para esta variable respecto a valores atípicos:

UTILIDAD OPERACIONAL		
	\$	
Media	252.995	
Error típico	\$ 20.878	
Mediana	\$ 264.129	
Moda	\$ 233.626	
Desviación estándar	\$ 756.228	
Varianza de la muestra	\$ 571.880.142.809	
Curtosis	43,14	
Coeficiente de asimetría	(4,02)	
Rango	\$ 13.238.860	
Mínimo	-\$ 9.598.020	
Máximo	\$ 3.640.840	
Suma	\$ 331.930.052	
Cuenta	1.312	
Nivel de confianza (95.0%)	40.957,63	

Esta tabla ilustra los resultados para la variable Utilidad Operacional

Figura 4: Histograma



Fuente: Elaboración propia, cifras en miles

Tabla 3: Cálculo de valores leves y extremos, Atípicos

Leves	Valor	Frecuencia	%
R1	-\$ 628,509	54	4.12%
R2	\$ 1,214,155	72	5.49%
Extremos	Valor	Frecuencia	%
R1	-\$ 1,319,508	24	1.83%
R2	\$ 1,905,154	22	1.68%

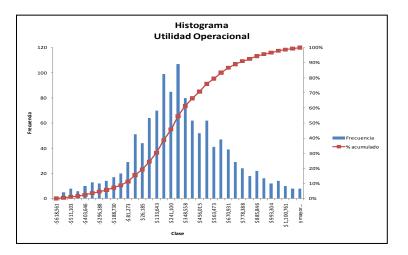
Se decidió filtrar los valores atípicos extremos. Con esta exclusión, que descartó la información de 126 registros, la "nueva variable" Utilidad Operacional presenta finalmente las siguientes características:

Tabla 4: Características de la variable Utilidad	Operacional,	Ajustada por valores atípicos
--	--------------	-------------------------------

UTILIDAD OPERACIONAL		
Media	\$ 292,44	
Error típico	\$ 9,85	
Mediana	265,60	
	222.03	
Moda	233,63	
Desviación estándar	\$ 340,94	
Varianza de la muestra	\$ 116,242,433,836	
Curtosis	0.12	
Coeficiente de asimetría	0.15	
Rango	\$ 1,826,780	
Mínimo	-\$ 618,56	
Máximo	\$ 1,208,219	
Suma	\$ 350,632,198	
Cuenta	\$ 1,20	
Nivel de confianza (95.0%)	9,317.90	

Esta tabla ilustra los resultados depurados para la variable Utilidad Operacional

Figura 5: Histograma Utilidad Operacional ajustada



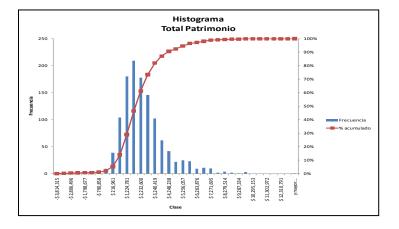
La variable *Utilidad Operacional* tiene entonces condiciones buenas para ser utilizada en el cálculo de los Betas; sin embargo para poder calcular el ROE, además de la variable de Utilidad Operacional es necesario utilizar la variable Patrimonio Total, es por esto que cómo último paso dentro del estudio estadístico de la información, se revisó como quedó la distribución y principales características de este campo luego de la exclusión de los valores extremos de la Utilidad Operacional. La "nueva variable" *Total Patrimonio* presenta finalmente las siguientes características:

|--|

TOTAL PATRIMONIO		
Media	\$ 2,143,366	
Error típico	\$ 48,01	
Mediana	\$ 1,875,488	
Moda	#N/A	
Desviación estándar	\$ 1,662,463 \$	
Varianza de la muestra	2,763,782,790,975	
Curtosis	4.20	
Coeficiente de asimetría	1.23	
Rango	\$ 17,132,925	
Mínimo	-\$ 3,814,315	
Máximo	\$ 13,318,610	
Suma	\$ 2,569,895,458	
Cuenta	1,199	
Nivel de confianza(95.0%)	94,195.34	

Esta tabla ilustra los resultados para la variable Total Patrimonio

Figura 6 : Histograma variable: Total Patrimonio



Determinación de la empresa tipo

Para hallar la empresa tipo se realizó el siguiente procedimiento: 1. De cada año de la muestra depurada, hallar la empresa de mejor desempeño en ROE; 2. De cada año de la muestra depurada, hallar la empresa de menor desempeño en ROE; 3. De cada año de la muestra depurada, hallar la empresa en el promedio aritmético del ROE; 4. Hallar un promedio simple usando los tres datos anteriores de la utilidad operacional (d); 5. Hallar un promedio simple usando los tres datos anteriores del total del patrimonio (e).

$$ROE \ empresa \ tipo = \frac{Promedio \ utilidad \ operacional \ hallado \ en \ d.}{Promedio \ total \ de \ patrimonio \ hallado \ en \ e.}$$
(10ii)

Cálculo del Beta.

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \frac{ROE \ empresa}{ROE \ mercado} \tag{11}$$

(13)

Donde ROE empresa es:

$$ROE empresa = \frac{Utilidad operacional empresa tipo}{Total patrimonio empresa tipo}$$
(12)

Donde ROE de mercado es:

 $ROE = \frac{\sum utilidades operacionales de la muestra depurada}{\sum de los patrimonios totales de la muestra depurada}$

Los resultados obtenidos por esta vía son los siguientes:

Tabla 6: Betas Calculados

Año		Beta Simple
	2002	1,13
	2003	2,06
	2004	1,72
	2005	0,94
	2006	0,54
	2007	1,06
	2008	1,08
	2009	1,76

Fuente: Elaboración Propia

Tasa Libre de Riesgo

Para este modelo ARM, se optó por usar de tasas locales debido a la estabilidad que ha presentado la economía colombiana en los últimos años. La tasa escogida fue la tasa de los TES que son los bonos de deuda pública del estado colombiano, la razón para esta decisión se fundamenta en la estabilidad y seriedad demostrada por el gobierno colombiano para responder por su deuda, el crecimiento económico del país y su reciente calificación de grado de inversión. El comportamiento de las tasas en los últimos años es el siguiente:

Tabla 7: Tasa TES, 2002-2009

Año	TLR
2.002	15,00%
2.003	17,00%
2.004	14,00%
2.005	8,00%
2.006	5,00%
2.007	11,00%
2.008	10,00%
2.009	7,00%
F D 1 1	<i>(</i> 1 1 .

Fuente: Banco de la república.

Sin embargo y a pesar de estas buenas condiciones, esta tasa tiene el inconveniente de presentarse muy alta sobre todo en los primeros años de la década,

Tasa de Mercado: Para determinar la tasa de Mercado a utilizar para el modelo, se realizaron cálculos de Ke utilizando diferentes tasas para el período 2002-2009. Se evaluaron las siguientes tasas: Indice General de la Bolsa de Colombia (IGBC); Certificados de Depósito a Término de bancos colombianos;

Tasa de Colocación Bancaria, sin contemplar crédito de consumo; La última opción analizada fue la *tasa de colocación total (TDCT)*, la cual corresponde a todas las tasas ofrecidas por los bancos. Usando la tasa de Colocación Total (TDCT) se obtuvieron los resultados de Ke más coherentes con lo que esperaría un inversionista que busca en su lógica de inversión rendimientos superiores a la tasa libre de riesgo. A continuación se presentan las tasas mencionadas.

Tabla 14: Tasa de Colocación Total (TDCT), 2002 - 2009

Año	ТМ
Allo	(ColocTotal)
2.002	14,14%
2.003	12,82%
2.004	13,06%
2.005	12,58%
2.006	11,53%
2.007	14,31%
2.008	16,38%
2.009	12,40%

Fuente: Banco de la república.

Desviación estándar del 2% y un promedio del 13,4%. La fórmula utilizada corresponde a:

$$Ke = TES + \beta simple * (TDCT - TES)$$
(17)

Resultados:

Tabla 15 : Cáculo de Ke Utilizando la TDCT, 2002 - 2009

Año	Beta Simple	TLR	TM (ColocTotal)	Ke (ColocTotal)
2.002	1,13	15,00%	14,14%	14,02%
2.003	2,06	17,00%	12,82%	8,39%
2.004	1,72	14,00%	13,06%	12,38%
2.005	0,94	8,00%	12,58%	12,33%
2.006	0,54	5,00%	11,53%	8,50%
2.007	1,06	11,00%	14,31%	14,52%
2.008	1,08	10,00%	16,38%	16,89%
2.009	1,76	7,00%	12,40%	16,49%

Fuente: Banco de la República; construcción propia

A pesar de ser una tasa más alta que todas las anteriores a excepción del IGBC, siguen apareciendo para los primeros años de estudio resultados de Ke inferiores a la TLR, esto se debe a que durante esos períodos la TLR considerada estaba muy por encima de cualquier consideración normal de lo que puede considerarse *libre de riesgo*, razón por la cual para hallar coherencia se tomaran como válidos para el estudio los valores arrojados en los últimos dos años, 2008 y 2009. Ver tabla 15.

Decisión Final

La fórmula empleada para la decisión final es:

$$Ke = TES + \frac{ROE empresatipo}{ROE mercado} * (TDCT - TES)$$
(18)

Dónde:

TES: Tasa de deuda pública del estado colombiano TDCT: Tasa de colocación total.

Estos resultados de Ke usando la tasa de colocación total son coherentes con la realidad del mercado como se presentan en el informe Mercado de capitales de la Asociación Nacional de Instituciones Financieras - ANIF y DECEVAL de noviembre 17 de 2010, donde el costo del patrimonio usando un modelo CAPM arroja un valor de 14,7% para el 2009.

CONCLUSIONES

Por la forma en que está desarrollado el procedimiento y por las fuentes de información que requiere, se estima la aplicabilidad de la metodología en cualquier sector real de la economía, aunque se requerirá validación en otros sectores para hacer totalmente concluyente esta afirmación. Ahora bien,

El uso de tasas de la realidad colombiana, permite que los resultados demuestren con mayor certeza los rendimientos que se le pueden exigir a una compañía en un determinado sector. Además la situación de estabilidad macroeconómica del país ofrece garantía en el uso de tasas de la realidad colombiana, sin necesidad de acudir a información foránea que no es explicativa de la realidad local.

La metodología se puede aplicar de forma específica a una empresa de manera sencilla, solo se requerirá los estados financieros revisados y aprobados de la empresa en la que se desea invertir y los resultados del sector, para hallar la tasa que le permita decidir sobre la inversión. Para el cálculo de costo de patrimonio para una empresa micro o pequeña en particular, se sugiere utilizar como ROE del sector el que se calcule para empresas medianas o grandes, esto debido a la baja confiabilidad de los estados financieros de las empresas micro y pequeñas.

Se decidió no usar un componente adicional de riesgo país, debido a que las tasas empleadas en el modelo son de realidad local. Con esta metodología el realizar un cálculo para valoración de una empresa en particular se antoja relativamente sencillo. En el ROE de la empresa está involucrado su desempeño, con el ROE del sector o industria se halla la relación de la empresa con su entorno, y en las tasas de mercado locales está reflejada la situación del país.

La metodología hallada emplea como ecuación matemática base, la misma de los modelos CAPM (CAPITAL ASSET PRICING MODEL) y CAPM modificados; pero con un proceso de hallazgo del coeficiente β sustentado en modelos ARM (Accounting Risk Models), en los cuales el cálculo se desarrolla empleando información que proviene de los estados financieros de la empresa.

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SISTEMA DE SOPORTE DE DECISIONES PARA LA CADENA DE ABASTECIMIENTO DE PORCELANA SANITARIA EN COLOMBIA

Carolina Saldaña Cortés, Universidad Externado de Colombia. Bogotá Carlos Ivan Gonzalez Uribe, Cigucon SAS-Tunja

RESUMEN

En la dinámica industrial se presentan ambientes de escenarios inciertos, en los cuales se producen altibajos económicos, y sus elementos, que son altamente complejos dificultan evaluar y predecir el impacto de las medidas que se tomen en el momento. La industria de Porcelana Sanitaria colombiana esta en esa dinámica de introducir cambios estratégicos eficaces en el sistema de producción para mejorar la competitividad en el mercado nacional e internacional debido a que en los últimos años la globalización de la economía, la apertura económica, la reevaluación del dólar, el aumento en los costos de producción y la disminución en los precios de los productos han deprimido los márgenes de rentabilidad del negocio. Este artículo describe un sistema de soporte de decisiones o DSS (Decision Support System) basado en un modelo dinámico de optimización matemática entera, que permite analizar diferentes escenarios de la configuración optima de la cadena de abastecimiento con el objetivo de obtener el máximo margen de utilidad para el negocio de Porcelana Sanitaria en Colombia. Específicamente el sistema da respuesta a la mejor estrategia para la combinación de flujos de productos de acuerdo a la capacidad de producción, costo de producción y costos logísticos. El motor de optimización del sistema DSS utilizado es el software General Algebraic Modeling System –GAMS, con el solver Cplex. La implementación del DSS se realizó para una firma que representa el 85% del sector de porcelana sanitaria en Colombia, obteniendo como resultado una disminución del 10% en los costos totales de operación de su cadena de abastecimiento.

BIOGRAFIA

Carolina Saldaña Cortés. Coordinador de Investigación. Centro de Tecnología y Producción. Facultad de Administración de Empresas. Universidad Externado de Colombia. Bogotá – Colombia. jenny.saldana@uexternado.edu.co

Carlos Ivan Gonzalez Uribe. Gerente General. Cigucon. SAS. Tunja- Colombia cigucon@gmail.com

ESTILOS DE APRENDIZAJE Y EL USO DE TECNOLOGÍAS EN EL DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS PROFESIONALES DEL LICENCIADO EN ADMINISTRACIÓN DE EMPRESAS EN LA UABC

María Concepción Ramírez Barón, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Objetivo del trabajo terminal doctoral es: analizar los estilos de aprendizaje y el uso de las TICs con una investigación cuantitativa para identificar el desarrollo de las competencias profesionales del Licenciado en Administración de Empresas en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California.Mide los estilos de aprendizaje y los relaciona con edad, género, semestre, también mide para el aprendizaje: la metodología, evidencias de desempeño, uso de tecnologías, para las competencias profesionales del LAE. Obteniendo como resultados que las preferencias de aprendizaje es hacia los estilos Reflexivo en primer lugar y Pragmático en segundo (CHAEA) Es mayormente el (Visual/Verbal) y el Auditivo/Cinestésico (Joy M. Reid) y los otros factores no influyen significativamente. Otro instrumento midió el uso de TICs y el conocimiento de las competencias resultando muy bajos ambos. Finalmente presenta una comparación de perfiles del licenciado en administración de la UABC, del proyecto Tuning, del colegio de licenciados en administración entre otros.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Estilos de Aprendizaje, TICs, Competencias Profesionales.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El problema de esta investigación al igual que otras se encuentra en que la docencia universitaria generalmente se imparte sin una adecuada metodología del proceso de aprendizaje, al ser en su mayoría profesionistas de áreas específicas si conocer de su campo pero algunos carecen de formación pedagógica sobre todo basada en competencias y se refleja al no planear adecuadamente sus cursos o materias, o no evaluar congruentemente con el modelo educativo al ser difícil de conciliar el trabajo de los que aprenden y las estrategias de los que enseñan. Se podría afirmar que la mayoría de los maestros no conoce el modelo educativo o no lo ha entendido en su totalidad debido a que son muchos maestros de profesiones diferentes, la mayoría por asignatura, con poca formación pedagógica y pareciera que no tienen entonces la posibilidad certera de elaborar planes de clase o programas de unidades de aprendizaje (así se le denomina actualmente a las materias, cursos o asignaturas que imparte), ni de establecer estrategias de aprendizaje, ni de evaluar adecuadamente conforme al modelo educativo y el nuevo reglamento, adecuadas para lograr esa formación profesional. Por lo tanto no hay congruencia del todo con la misión y visión tanto de la Universidad como de la propia Facultad, al no tener bien definido que conocimientos, que habilidades y que valores formar y mucho menos el cómo.

Como antecedentes en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja california se reestructuro el plan de estudios del Lic. en Administración de Empresas con un modelo flexible y basado en competencias en el 2002-1 a la fecha hay pocos trabajos que evalúen sus resultados en relación a los estilos de aprendizaje, uso de tecnologías y competencias profesionales, pero más específicamente se desconoce cómo fueron llevadas al aula, si fueron adecuadamente planeadas, operadas y evaluadas por los docentes, si los alumnos y los docentes entienden y aplican adecuadamente el modelo. En enero del 2009 se reestructuró el plan de estudios conteniendo de entre los cambios más significativos el que se crean troncos comunes por dos semestres para las licenciaturas en Contaduría, en Administración de Empresas, Informática, en Mercadotecnia y en Negocios Internacionales, otro cambio es que se reduce un semestre, por lo tanto créditos y se implementan las estancias.

De los sustentantes que ya egresaron de una Licenciatura en Administración de Empresas donde fueron aprobados por su institución de educación superior en los resultados del 2007 del Examen General para el Egreso de la Licenciatura (EGEL) del Centro Nacional de Evaluación para la Educación Superior (CENEVAL), donde se encuentran los siguientes resultados de 9,157 egresados de 330 planteles:

Tabla 1: Egresados y nivel de desempeño.

No. de egresados	Equivalen a	nivel de desempeño
2,978	32.5%	No satisfactorio
4,696	51.3%	Satisfactorio
1,483	16.2%	Sobresaliente

Fuente CENEVAL

Es un reto y una tarea identificar que ha sucedido con estos 2,978 egresados que obtuvieron un nivel de desempeño no satisfactorio. Ejemplos como este hay varios de tener pendientes el nivel con el que egresan los alumnos.

Objetivo General: Objetivo del trabajo terminal doctoral es: analizar los estilos de aprendizaje y el uso de las TICs con una investigación cuantitativa para identificar el desarrollo de las competencias profesionales del Licenciado en Administración de Empresas en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California.

Objetivos Específicos: (1) Identificar los estilos de aprendizaje predominantes en los estudiantes del LAE de la FCAyS de la UABC por medio de una investigaciónn cuantitativa para relacionarlos con sus competencias profesionales. 2. Comprobar si hay una relación entre los estilos de aprendizaje y las variables de: edad, género, semestre y relación de trabajo. 3. Analizar la metodología que generalmente usan los maestros, así como las Evidencias de desempeño que les solicitan a los alumnos en relación las competencias profesionales. 4. Identificar el uso de tecnologías a través del uso de Material didáctico, las modalidades de educación, las plataformas, los medios de comunicación alumno maestro y páginas diseñadas por maestros y su relación con las competencias profesionales.

Hipótesis general: No hay diferencias significativas entre los estilos de aprendizaje predominantes de los cuestionarios aplicados de CHAEA, Felder / Soloman y Joy M. Reyd y las variables de género, edad, semestre y trabajo inciden en los estilos de aprendizaje. Además de que el uso de las TICs y la forma de trabajo no es congruente con el modelo educativo en competencias.

Hipótesis Específicas

H1 No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica CHAEA con los que indica Felder y Soloman. H2 No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica CHAEA con los que indica Joy M. Reid.

H3 No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica Felder y Soloman con los que indica Joy M. Reid. H4 La variable de género, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. H5 La variable de edad, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. H6 La variable de semestre, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. H7 La variable de trabajo, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. H8 Los alumnos desconocen cuáles son las competencias profesionales con las que deben egresar y el número de competencias. H9 Las evidencias de desempeño que generalmente los docentes le solicitan al alumno y la metodología que los docentes aplican no son congruentes. H10 No corresponde la metodología de trabajo

con el material didáctico que utilizan los docentes.H11 La cantidad de materias virtuales y la plataforma utilizada indican que es muy bajo el uso de las TICs en estos rubros para el aprendizaje.H12 El medio de comunicación alumno docente más usado es el correo electrónico, pero es muy bajo uso de páginas diseñadas por maestros.

METODOLOGÍA

El enfoque de la investigación es cuantitativo, de alcance correlacional, el diseño de esta investigación es de tipo no experimental, el tipo de muestra es no probabilística. El método de muestreo que utilizado ha sido no aleatorio y con un carácter incidental. Es decir, los cuestionarios fueron cumplimentados voluntariamente por todos los estudiantes que asistieron a clase el día de la aplicación de los cuestionarios.

Las unidades de análisis son: a) Alumnos, son importantes porque son ellos los que directamente pueden informar cómo perciben la adquisición de competencias de la licenciatura y cómo aprenden. b) La normatividad, reglamentos, informes, bibliografía, plan de estudios, perfil del egresado entre otros para analizar el currículo formal y poder contrastar con el real. Límites de la población: los sujetos son alumnos hombres y mujeres de edades desde los 18 años hasta los 55 estudiantes en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de Ensenada en la UABC.

El escenario de investigación se presenta en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de Ensenada en la carrera de Licenciado en Administración de empresas de ambos turnos matutino y vespertino con alumnos. Características de los encuestados: se encuestaron a 307 estudiantes de todos los semestres de la licenciatura en administración se encuestaron a 174 alumnos del turno matutino y 130 alumnos del turno vespertino, en ambos turnos de los cuales 180 son mujeres y 124 son hombres, si trabajan 148 y no trabajan 156, las edades fluctúan alumnos de 17 a 21 años hay 186, de 22 a 26 hay 93 el resto 25 son mayores de 27 años, De los cuales 259 estudiantes estudiaron en preparatorias públicas y solo 45 en preparatoria privada. Hay 267 estudiantes solteros, 31 casados y 6 divorciados. Solo 35 alumnos tienen hijos y 269 no tienen hijos. Los tres cuestionarios de estilos de aprendizaje ya han sido aplicados, piloteados y validados por otros autores, el cuestionario diseñado en este trabajo específicamente se piloteo con 9 alumnos y lo que se encontró para modificar es que en las preguntas 2, 6, 8, no se anotó la opción de no sé y también tuvo que agregar la aclaración de que en las preguntas 15, 16 y 18 a pesar de tener varias opciones elegir solo una la de mayor uso.

Los instrumentos ya están validados por otros investigadores; el instrumento denominado CHAEA creado por Honey y Alonso es ampliamente usado, son 80 preguntas donde tienen que marcas un signo de más o de menos que permiten identificar el estilo de aprendizaje Activo, Reflexivo, Teórico o Pragmático. Este Cuestionario fue realizado originariamente por P. Honey en 1986, en Inglaterra, y su adaptación al castellano fue realizada posteriormente por Catalina Alonso García en 1991 en España afirma Marabotto (1998). Desde esa fecha hasta la presente se ha implementado en muchas partes del mundo.

El instrumento de Felder y Soloman (s/f) contiene 44 preguntas que permiten identificar los estilos de aprendizaje, para el cual hay una tabla que clasifica las preguntas por cada estilo. Y para el instrumento de Reid (1995) diseñó, prueba y utilización de este instrumento en una investigación para identificar las preferencias de estilos de aprendizaje en 1388 estudiantes (154 nativo hablantes y 1234 no nativo hablantes) de 93 países, de 29 áreas de estudio diferentes, con 52 antecedentes lingüísticos distintos. El test tiene cinco preguntas por cada uno de los seis estilos medidos. Para calcular los resultados, las preguntas se tienen que agrupar de acuerdo al estilo de aprendizaje al que se refieren. Cada respuesta tiene un valor numérico original que va de 5 (Totalmente de acuerdo) a 1 (Totalmente en desacuerdo). Después de sumar los valores numéricos de cada uno de los estilos, el resultado de cada uno se multiplica por dos. Al terminar se contrastan los resultados con la escala que determina qué estilo tiene un mayor

predominio, cuál tiene un predominio menor y aquel que resulta bajo. Otras razones que influyeron en la selección de esta batería fueron: 1) este cuestionario es uno de los instrumentos más abarcativos, ya que mide cuatro estilos de aprendizaje perceptivos (visual, auditivo, cinestético y táctil) y dos estilos de aprendizaje sociológicos (grupal e individual); 2) la facilidad de administración y corrección que ofrece para investigaciones que exigen la aplicación a un gran número de personas; 3) la validez comprobada en varias investigaciones a través de los años, en diversos países.

El procedimiento para analizar cuantitativamente los datos es el siguiente Hernández, Fernández y Baptista (2006) ; primera fase se seleccionó el programa estadístico en computadora SPSS versión 10 para analizar los datos, segunda fase se consiguió, instalo y ejecuto el programa SPSS, fase 3 para explorar los datos se analizaron descriptivamente los datos por variable, se visualizaron los datos por variable, fase cuatro se evaluó la confiabilidad y validez logradas por el instrumento de medición, fase 5 se analizó mediante pruebas estadísticas las hipótesis planteadas (análisis estadístico inferencial), fase 6 se realizaron análisis adicionales, y finalmente la fase siete se prepararon los resultados para presentarlos en tablas

RESULTADOS

Para analizar los resultados se divide el proceso en cinco partes, en la primera parte se presenta las preguntas planteadas en un inicio del trabajo, en la segunda lo que se realizó en términos generales para contestarlas, en la tercera el planteamiento de la hipótesis y en la cuarta la gráfica y la quinta los resultados.

1.- ¿Cuáles son los estilos de aprendizaje predominantes en los estudiantes de la Licenciatura en Administración de Empresas de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales en la UABC en Ensenada de acuerdo a CHAEA, Felder - Soloman y Joy M. Reid.? Para contestar esta pregunta se aplicaron tres instrumentos el primero consta de 80 preguntas corresponde a los Autores Honey y Alonso su instrumento se denomina CHAEA, el segundo cuestionario de los autores Felder y Soloman consta de 44 preguntas y el tercer cuestionario del autor Joy M. Reyd consta de 30 preguntas, después de capturarse se sacaron frecuencias y porcentajes, la pregunta número dos esta relacionada con la anterior ¿Cuales son las diferencias entre los estilos de aprendizaje de los tres cuestionarios? Y la primer hipótesis planteada dice H1 No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica CHAEA con los que indica Felder y Soloman.

En esta gráfica se observan los resultados de dos cuestionarios aplicados a los alumnos el de CHAEA que determina los estilos de aprendizaje: Activo, Pragmático, Reflexivo y Teórico que se encuentran en el eje de las X y el de Felder y Soloman que se encuentra en el eje de las Y con los estilos Activo/Reflexivo, Secuencia/global, Sensitivo/intuitivo y Visual/verbal. Encontrándose en que en el CHAEA en el estilo activo hay 52 alumnos que representa el 17% y en el de Fólder y Soloman son 52 alumnos en el Activo Reflexivo que representa el 16% es muy alta la relación inclusive los nombres y el concepto entre los autores es similar, y sin embargo no es así para los siguientes estilos. Por eso la hipótesis nula es aceptada porque aunque ambos miden estilos de aprendizajes los enfoques son diferentes mientras que para CHAEA los siguientes estilos son los pragmáticos, reflexivo y teóricos para Fólder y Soloman siguen los secuenciales-globales, los sensitivos-intuitivos y los visuales- verbales.

CHAEA y Joy M. Reid Continúa el trabajo para contestar la uno y dos de las preguntas relacionando con los estilos de aprendizaje de otros autores. La hipótesis dos indica que: No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica CHAEA con los que indica Joy M. Reid. Encontrandose los siguiente.

En esta gráfica podemos observar que en el CHAEA se obtuvo activos hay 52 alumnos representando un porcentaje del 17 % y en el cinestésico de Joy M. Reid resultaron 60 alumnos que representan el 21%, los demás estilos que miden ambos autores son diferentes en su enfoque por lo tanto fue rechazada la hipótesis en de que a pesar que ambos miden estilos de aprendizaje el enfoque de estos dos autores es diferente.

3.- Continúa con las preguntas uno y dos determinar los estilos de aprendizaje con los siguientes autores y sus respectivos instrumentos, para ello se trató sus diferencias y sus similitudes. La hipótesis tres dice que: No hay diferencias significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica Felder y Soloman con los que indica Joy M. Reid.

Felder - Soloman y Joy M. Reid se encontró que si existen relaciones significativas entre los resultados de estilos de aprendizaje predominantes que indica Felder y Soloman con los que indica Joy M. Reid.

Se encontró que en ambos hay estilo de aprendizaje Visual y los resultados más altos son en el de Felder – Soloman se obtuvieron 128 alumnos centrados en como entra la información o sea visual verbal (que incluye aquí este autor el auditivo) que representan el 42% o sea la mayoría (por que los otros son menores de 21% en cada uno) y en el de Joy M. Reid en el visual son 26 alumnos que representan el 9% y auditivos 64 alumnos que son el 21% también representa el porcentaje más alto en el cuadro si se suman el auditivo del 21% más el visual del 9% da el 30% y también es mayoría que los demás son menores de 21%.

Otra relación encontrada es siguiendo el orden de mayor a menor el que le continua en el de Felder y S. es que hay 64 alumnos que representan el 21% son sensitivo intuitivo estos son procesos individuales encontrandose en el de Joy 55 alumnos que representan el 18%.

Resultando los menores en ambos en el activo-reflexivo de Felder con el 16% y en el de Joy el Táctil con el 13%.

Son razones por las que en esta comprobación de hipótesis fue aceptada ya que estos dos cuestionarios salen que si hay relaciones entre sus conceptos de los estilos de aprendizaje.

Fólder – Soloman	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
ACTIVO-REFLEXIVO	50	16
Anulado	1	1
SECUENCIAL-GLOBAL	61	20
SENSITIVO-INTUITIVO	64	21
VISUAL-VERBAL	128	42
Total	304	100.0
Joy M. Reid	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Anulado	15	5
AUDITIVO	64	21
CENESTESICO	60	20
GRUPAL	43	14
INDIVIDUAL	55	18
TACTIL	41	13
VISUAL	26	9
Total	304	100.0

Finalmente se puede concluir que los tres instrumentos miden estilos de aprendizaje pero desde diferentes enfoques por lo tanto quedarse con un solo instrumento no es tan conveniente porque es quedarse con un solo resultado, el aplicar los tres instrumentos da un panorama de mayor certeza al tener el cruce de los tres enfoques y poder determinar tanto de manera individual como grupal el estilo de aprendizaje y en consecuencia poder establecer métodos de trabajo acordes al aprendizaje individual y poder atender a la demanda educativa de estar centrados en el aprendizaje y en el alumno.

Género: La tercer pregunta es ¿Influye en los estilos de aprendizaje el género de los alumnos? Aquí se aplicó el otro cuestionario donde se solicitan datos generales entre ello el sexo o género, y se cruza con los estilos de aprendizaje, la hipótesis cuatro dice: La variable de género, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje, se encontró:

Como se puede observar en la gráfica las mujeres son más reflexivas y teóricas, mientras los hombres tienen igualdad en ser pragmáticos y reflexivos primero y menos teóricos y activos.

Edad La pregunta número tres es ¿Influye en los estilos de aprendizaje las edad de los alumnos? Y la hipótesis cinco dice: La variable de edad, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje.

Se encontró que los alumnos de las edades entre 17 y 21, años son más reflexivos, al igual que los de 22 y 26. Entre los de 27 y 31 años son tanto reflexivos como teóricos, de los 32 a los 36 son más teóricos y de los 42 a 46 son más reflexivos. Así que la variable edad no influye en la preferencia del estilo de aprendizaje.

Semestre: la pregunta número cuatro dice: ¿Influye en los estilos de aprendizaje el semestre en el que van cursando? Y la hipótesis seis: La variable de semestre, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. Aquí cabe aclarar que los grupos de los primeros tres semestres son muy amplios ya que están en el tronco común junto con otras licenciaturas, pero a partir del tercer semestre se separan los LAEs y conforme avanzan los grupos se hacen más pequeños generalmente. Encontrándose lo siguiente:

En el primer, segundo, cuarto, sexto y séptimo semestre son más reflexivos, en el quinto semestre son más pragmáticos, así que no hubo diferencia o cambio por el semestre en el que se encuentran se mantiene igual a su ingreso su preferencia o estilo de aprendizaje no cambia por el nivel académico en que se encuentren.

Trabajo La pregunta número cinco dice ¿Influye en los estilos de aprendizaje si los alumnos están trabajo actualmente o no? y la hipótesis siete dice: La variable de trabajo, incide en el estilo de aprendizaje. Se encontró que independientemente que trabajen o no el estilo de preferencia de aprendizaje sigue siendo el reflexivo.

Competencias profesionales En la pregunta número seis dice:¿Conocen los alumnos las competencias profesionales con las que deben egresar? Y la hipótesis número ocho dice: Los alumnos desconocen cuáles son las competencias profesionales con las que deben egresar y el número de competencias. Se encontró que la mayoría de alumnos no saben nada en relación a las competencias con las que debe contar como egresado y profesionista. Y uno cuantos si las conocen regular afirmando que se encuentran en el rango de 5 a 10 competencias, y efectivamente son 10 las competencias del perfil del egresado. Evidencias de desempeño La pregunta número siete plantea: ¿Cuáles son las Evidencias de desempeño que generalmente se les solicita por parte de los maestros a los alumnos? Pudiendo contestar entre las diversas opciones pero se les solicito determinar la de uso más frecuente. Y la hipótesis nueve dice: Las evidencias de desempeño que generalmente los docentes le solicitan al alumno y la metodología que los docentes aplican no son congruentes.

Se encontró que lo que más se les solicita como evidencia de desempeño son ensayos y proyectos, y eso está bien para el modelo educativo que se tiene. Pero la metodología que usan los maestros es exposición por parte del alumno y exposición por parte del maestro. Lo que hace suponer que no es suficiente con las evidencias de desempeño que se están solicitando y peor toda vía que está usándose mucho la exposición por parte del los alumnos. Esto no es tan congruente con el modelo educativo centrado en el aprendizaje.

La pregunta número ocho dice;¿Cuál es la metodología de trabajo que generalmente utilizan los docentes? Y la hipótesis no. diez dice: No corresponde la metodología de trabajo con el material didáctico que utilizan los docentes

Recursos o material didáctico En la pregunta número nueve ¿Con que recursos o Material didáctico generalmente trabaja los docentes? Se encontró que la metodología que más usan es la exposición por parte de los maestros y el material didáctico el pizarrón, lo cual no es congruente ni con el modelo educativo basado en competencias, ni con la educación centrada en el aprendizaje da cuenta de un uso tradicionalista de trabajo por parte de los maestros y el otro es la exposición por parte de los alumnos lo que si es bien planeado, evaluado y retroalimentado está bien, pero sí se convirtió en un momento donde solo parcialmente estudian su parte los alumnos y no entienden a sus compañeros la otra esto si es un problema estos puntos los señalo porque aunque no había solicitado comentarios esto si lo comentarios varios alumnos que expongan sus compañeros es aburrido y no entienden.

Uso de las TICs La pregunta número diez dice ¿Cómo se utilizan las TICs el proceso de enseñanzaaprendizaje en la FCAyS en la carrera de LAE, respecto a las modalidades de educación, las plataformas, los medios de comunicación alumno maestro y páginas diseñadas por maestros? Aunque la pregunta es el uso de las TICs en este trabajo se seleccionaron algunos elementos para identificar ese uso, y se divide en cuatro la primera es: uno es preguntar si han cursado materias en otras modalidades, la segunda es: es si es virtual o semipresencial, la tercera que medios de comunicación utiliza el docente y la última si han trabajado en páginas diseñadas por sus maestros. Respecto a las hipótesis tenemos la H11 La cantidad de materias virtuales y la plataforma utilizada indican que es muy bajo el uso de las TICs en estos rubros para el aprendizaje. La H12 dice El medio de comunicación alumno docente más usado es el correo electrónico, pero es muy bajo uso de páginas diseñadas por maestros.

Se encontró que más de 100 alumnos no ha usado esta modalidad de materias virtuales o semipresenciales, y los que si la han usado son virtuales la materia. De esos alumnos que si han cursado unidades de aprendizaje en materias virtuales la plataforma más usada es la blackboard. Respecto a cómo se comunican con sus profesores la mayoría es por correo electrónico y unos cuantos por teléfono. Y alrededor de 65 personas han entrado en páginas de Internet de sus maestros.

Relación de estilos de aprendizaje, uso de las TICS y Competencias Profesionales en la pregunta número once se cuestiona ¿Cuál es la relación de los estilos de aprendizaje y el uso de las TICS para la formación de competencias profesionales del LAE? Encontrándose que hay estilos diferentes de aprendizaje y que con el apoyo de las tecnologías se contribuye al desarrollo de las competencias profesionales.

De los resultados obtenidos con esta investigación se desprende que las preferencias de aprendizaje de los alumnos de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Sociales de la UABC se caracterizan por tener una tendencia hacia los estilos Reflexivo en primer lugar y Pragmático en segundo utilizando el instrumento de (CHAEA). También se encontró que hay cierta influencia en el género y que si trabajen, sin embargo no hay influencia aparente en relación a las edades ni en el nivel o semestre en que se encuentren, en relación a este último punto el estudio de Canalejas, Martínez, Pineda, et al., (2005) reporta que en un estudio realizado en su país por Alonso afirma lo mismo que los estilos no se modifican en las etapas de su formación.

Los trabajos que reportan resultados de preferencia de estilo de aprendizaje Reflexivo en estudiantes universitarios similar a este trabajo son: Fernández y Ballesteros (2003), Canalejas, Martínez, et al. (2005), Camero, Del Buey et al (2000), Montejo, Raposo, et al. (1999) y García (2006) entre otros. A diferencia de los resultados que obtuvieron de Palacios, Matus et al. (2006), donde obtuvo puntaje alto es el estilo teórico (metódico y objetivo) seguido por el pragmática (práctico y realista). Y los estilos

activo (improvisador) y reflexivo (analítico) tuvieron predominio moderado. Del Buey y Camero (2001) informan en su estudio que las mujeres presentan un mayor empleo de diversas técnicas para aprender.

Respecto de los otros estilos de aprendizaje que arrojo el estudio la preferencia del instrumento de Felder y Soloman *el resultado es* mayormente el Visual/Verbal. Es similar en lo que se obtuvo esta investigación a lo que obtuvieron Zapata y Correa (2008) en la licenciatura de Comunicación es Visual-verbal, mientras que en las otras hay diferencias; en la de Derecho el estilo es sensorial, en Ingeniería el estilo es Visual, y en Educación es Reflexivo.

Y para finalizar respecto a los estilos de aprendizaje en el instrumento de Joy M. Reid. la preferencia fue el Auditivo/Cinestésico se encontró con similares resultados en el trabajo realizado por Hernández (2004) ya que obtuvo datos donde los estudiantes pueden mostrar un mayor predominio del estilo kinestésico si tienen entre 17 y 32 años de edad en ambos sexos.

El medio computarizado permite diversificar y trabajar con todos los estilos de aprendizaje. Demostraciones, exposiciones, escritos convencionales, secciones interactivas y diferentes niveles de dificultad.Respecto al uso de TICs se encontraron resultados similares a los de García (2006) principalmente acceso a computadoras, internet, cañones y grabadoras obteniendo resultados similares a este trabajo en relación al uso de tecnologías destaca el uso de Internet en especial el correo electrónico, y búsqueda de información y en menor proporción chats, foros de discusión, cursos en línea. Las personas con estilo activo usan más el Internet.

Y en cuanto a estudios sobre competencias profesionales el mejor estudio y más completo es el proyecto Tuning ya que engloba a más de 90 universidades en todo el mundo, sin embargo hay otros trabajos acordes a este tales como los de Lara (2006), Bellocchio (2008), Rodríguez (2007), Tejada (2006), Marum y Muñoz (2001) entre otros. Si definir las competencias profesionales del licenciado en Administración no ha sido tarea fácil, mucho menos la formación, la implementación y evaluación de ellas.

Para analizar las competencial del egresado se comparó el perfil del egresado de la UABC, el del Colegio de Lic. en Administración y el que indica TUNING encontrando algunas similitudes pero también algunas diferencias.

TUNING	CONLAE	UABC 2002	UABC 2009
1. Desarrollar un planeamiento estratégico, táctico y operativo.	1 Ejercer la profesión con responsabilidad social en un marco ético.	 Aplicar el proceso administrativo por medio de estrategias y herramientas conceptuales metodológicas y técnicas con una visión prospectiva global con un espíritu humanista de responsabilidad social y ecológica para optimizar los recursos de la organización. 	Implementar un modelo administrativo que se adecue a las necesidades y características de la organización en un entorno globalizado para obtener una mejora continua que eleve los niveles de competitividad, mediante el análisis y aplicación de las técnicas administrativas que permita obtener un beneficio a través del trato responsable del medio ambiente que se refleje en desarrollo sustentable.
2. Identificar y administrar los riesgos de negocios de las organizaciones	2. Trabajar en forma equilibrada, concertadora y visionaria, dentro del contexto interno y externo de las organizaciones	2 Implementar el sistema de calidad total y mejora continua para la optimización de los recursos que promueva el crecimiento y desarrollo de la organización.	Establecer y aplicar sistemas de administración de recursos humanos para elevar los niveles de competitividad de las organizaciones mediante diagnósticos y aplicación de técnicas acordes a las

Tabla no. 3 Comparativo de las competencias del licenciado en administración de empresas.

3. Identificar y optimizar los processo a congonizacional e información de las correspondicions organizacional e información de los planes de las correspondicions organizacional e información de los componicional e información de los componicinale los delos componicional e información de los componi				
logistico integral. negocios nacionales e internacionales e internacionales e internacionales e internacionales e internacionales. de la cación para la competitividad presentativa de los constructions de los constructions de control la condiciones cambiantes de los constructions de control e de los constructions de los constructions de control e de los constructions de control e de los constructions de los para enfrentar control e los planes antiente los constructions para los constructions de los de los constructions de los de los constructions de los construct	procesos de negocio de las organizaciones	diseñar estrategias creativas e innovadoras, para las organizaciones en el contexto nacional e internacional.	organizacional y aplicar las propuestas correspondientes acordes a la filosofía de la organización estableciendo un modelo administrativo propio promoviendo la identidad y el compromiso de sus miembros.	con un sentido humanista Analizar e interpretar la información financiera aplicando estrategias adecuadas para facilitar la toma de decisiones que incrementen los niveles de productividad, rentabilidad y competitividad en las organizaciones, con integridad, honestidad y responsabilidad social
gestionar sistemas de control administrativo. personas mediante la expanicaciones personas mediante la expanicaciones funcionales de la organizaciona. información para enfrentar personas mediante la expanicaciones. 6 Identificar las interrelaciones funcionales de la organizaciona. 6. Administrar los recursos organizacionales, procurando la conservación del medio ambiente nacional e internacional. 6. Administrar los recursos organizacionales, procurando la conservación del medio ambiente nacional e internacional. 6. Administrar los recursos organizacionales, procurando la conservación del medio ambiente nacional e internacional. 6. Diseñer y establecer controles que permitan verificar el cumplimiento de los planes setablecer 7 Evaluar el marco jurídico aplicado a la gestión empresarial. 7. Actualizar sus conoctimientos para aplicarlos reativamente el el medio organizacional nevicano y orientarlos a un nivel compatitivos globalicanes 7. Actualizar sus conoctimientos para aplicarlos reativamente el el medio organizacional el medio conganizacional nivel compatitivos globalicanes 7. Actualizar sus conoctimientos procentina verificar el andinos consecutivas que controles y ejercer un nivel compatitivos globalicanes 9. Interpretar la información financiera para la toma de decisiones gerenciales 9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar vervaluar sistemas administrativos y progenas de calidad, coordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano. 10. Aplicar la tecnología administrativos innovadores 9. Interpretar genziación, 11. Tomar decisiones de la organización, 12. Eljever el liderazgo para el gorganización, 13. Administrar y desarrolla er tal emplot. 11. Participar en los fenó		negocios nacionales e	de acción para la competitividad de la organización que enfrente las condiciones cambiantes del	para detectar y satisfacer deseos y necesidades de los consumidores a través del estudio de los factores del micro y macro ambiente teniendo presente los valores de honestidad y responsabilidad
funcionales de la organización.organizacionales, procurando la comervación del medio ambiente nacional e internacional.constructional centroles que permitan verificar el cumplimiento de los planes establecidos, aplicando medidas preventivas y correctivas que contribuy a la calidad y mejora continuos que a calidad y mejora continuos que termitan verificar el medio organizaciona8. Elaborar, evaluar y administrarios ge organizaciones7. Actualizar sus conocimientos, para aplicarlos creativamente en el medio organizaciona u nivel competitivo globalizador. 8. Dirigir grupos multidisciplinarios para el logor de organizaciones7. Antualizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los estilezos del factor humano.7. Antualizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar a sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los estilezos del factor humano.7. Antualizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar a desempeñar sus funciones.9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar a desempeñar sus funciones.9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y desarroli.10. Aplicar la tecnología administrativa para desempeñar sus funciones.10. Aplicar la tecnología económicos suficientes para la organización paria impulsar el desarroli.10. Aplicar a pectos ficos y organización paria global, utilizado estar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procesin administrativos, y proponer soluciones.10. Aplicar a spectos ficos y organización, su proventi, deterar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los proventi, deterar y corregir errores y desviac	gestionar sistemas de control	promover el desarrollo de las personas mediante la expansión, el mantenimiento y la creación e	información para enfrentar condiciones cambiantes de manera oportuna con el objeto de prever y dar solución a problemas.	
aplicado a la gestión empresarial.para aplicadros creativamente en el medio organizacional mexicano y orientarlos a un nivel competitivo globalizador.y racionales en función de los objetivos y políticas de la organización y ejercer un liderazgo efectivos.8. Elaborar, evaluar y administrar proyectos empresariales en diferentes tipos de organizaciones9. Interpretar la información de objetivos organizacionales.9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano.9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano.9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano.10. Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la oparización, ereursos financieros de administrativos y progens de ladministrativos y progens de sculidad, cordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la organización.11. Tomar decisiones de inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa.11. Participar en los fenómenos de administrativos y proponer soluciones.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la organización.13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización, 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto reciproc entre la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e imnovar los procesos administrativos.11. Participar en los fenómenos en la organización.12. Ejercer el inderazgo para i tomos el entoro. 13. Administrativos. <td></td> <td>organizacionales, procurando la conservación del medio ambiente nacional e</td> <td>controles que permitan verificar el cumplimiento de los planes establecidos, aplicando medidas preventivas y correctivas que contribuya a la calidad y mejora</td> <td></td>		organizacionales, procurando la conservación del medio ambiente nacional e	controles que permitan verificar el cumplimiento de los planes establecidos, aplicando medidas preventivas y correctivas que contribuya a la calidad y mejora	
 8. Elaborar, evaluar y administrar proyectos engresariales en diferentes tipos de organizaciones 9. Interpretar la información financiera para la toma de decisiones gerenciales 10. Usar la información de control y la toma de decisiones 11. Tomar decisiones de inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa. 13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización. 13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización. 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto reciproco entre la roganización, y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los 	aplicado a la gestión	para aplicarlos creativamente en el medio organizacional mexicano y orientarlos a un	y racionales en función de los objetivos y políticas de la organización y ejercer un	
 9. Interpretar la información contable y la información financiera para la toma de decisiones gerenciales 10. Usar la información de costos para el planeamiento, el control y la toma de decisiones de inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa. 11. Tomar decisiones de la deministrativón y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa. 12. Ejercer el liderazgo para el planeamiento, el desarrollo. 13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización. 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto reciproce entre la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los procesos administrativos. 9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos procesos administrativos. 9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y evaluar sistemas administrativos procesos administrativos. 9. Interactuar con diferentes grupos respetando sus manifestaciones culturales, coordinando los esfuerzos del factor humano. 10. Aplicar la tecnología administrativos procesos administrativos procesos administrativos. 9. Interactuar con diferentes grupos respetando sus manifestaciones culturales, coordinando los esfuerzos del natorio de administrativos procesos administrativos. 9. Analizar, diseñar, implantar y estarcolar de la organización para impulsar el desarrollo. 12. Prevenir, detectar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones. 	administrar proyectos empresariales en diferentes tipos	8. Dirigir grupos multidisciplinarios para el logro	8 Actuar como agente de cambio, con una visión global, utilizando sistemas	
10. Usar la información de costos para el planeamiento, el control y la toma de decisiones10. Aplicar la tecnología administrativa para desempeñar sus funciones.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la operación eficiente de la organización.11. Tomar decisiones de inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa. 12. Ejercer el liderazgo para el logro y consecución de metas en la organización.11. Participar en los fenómenos de administrativo para impulsar el desarrollo.12. Prevenir, detectar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la operación eficiente de la organización.13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización.11. Prevenir, detectar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la operación eficiente de la organización.13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización, 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto recíproco entre la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los procesos administrativos.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la operación.15. Mejorar e innovar los procesos administrativos.10Conseguir recursos económicos suficientes para la oorganización economicos	 9. Interpretar la información contable y la información financiera para la toma de 	evaluar sistemas administrativos y programas de calidad, coordinando los esfuerzos del	 9 Interactuar con diferentes grupos respetando sus manifestaciones culturales, 	
inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa.de administración y organización para impulsar el desarrollo.12. Ejercer el liderazgo para el logro y consecución de metas en la organización.12. Prevenir, detectar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.12. Prevenir, detectar y corregir errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización.14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto reciproco entre la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los 	costos para el planeamiento, el	 Aplicar la tecnología administrativa para desempeñar sus funciones. 	económicos suficientes para la operación eficiente de la	
logro y consecución de metas en la organización.errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.13. Administrar y desarrollar el talento humano en la organización.errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos y proponer soluciones.14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto recíproco entre 	inversión, financiamiento y gestión de recursos financieros en la empresa.	de administración y organización para impulsar el desarrollo.		
talento humano en la organización. 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y culturales de impacto recíproco entre la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los procesos administrativos.	logro y consecución de metas en la organización.	errores y desviaciones en los procedimientos administrativos		
la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los procesos administrativos.	talento humano en la organización. 14. Identificar aspectos éticos y			
	la organización y el entorno. 15. Mejorar e innovar los			

emprender nuevos negocios y/o	
Desarrollar nuevos productos.	
17. Utilizar las tecnologías de	
información y comunicación en	
la	
gestión.	
18. Administrar la	
infraestructura tecnológica de	
una empresa.	
19. Formular y optimizar	
sistemas de información para la	
gestión.	
20. Formular planes de	
marketing.	
Elaboración propia	

Se puede observar que el proyecto TUNING define claramente 20 competencias, que el colegio las agrupa en 12, que la UABC en el 2002 presenta solo 10 y que la UABC en el 2009 redacta solo 4 por lo que se puede observar que si se mantiene lo más relevante en el contenido pero se va de lo específico a lo general.

CONCLUSIONES

Se encontró que de acuerdo a cada instrumento la preferencia más alta para los estilos de aprendizaje fueron: De Honey y Alonso (CHAEA); es el reflexivo; prefieren mirar bien antes de actuar y disfrutan de observar alternativas para analizar, de Felder y Soloman, la preferencia fue el visual-verbal; recuerdan mejor lo que escuchan y leen, y de Joy M. Reid, es el auditivo. A pesar de que miden estilos diferentes se encontraron relaciones.

Respecto a las competencias con que deben egresar las desconocen la mayoría de los estudiantes. En cuanto al uso de tecnologías se encontró que aún es muy bajo.Finalmente para la formación de competencias profesionales se presentó que no se hace diagnóstico de estilos de aprendizaje, no se aprovecha bien de la tecnología y que no hay congruencia entre la metodología que los docentes utilizan, ni con las evidencias de desempeño, ni con el uso del material didáctico para el desarrollo de sus competencias profesionales.

Los párrafos anteriores coinciden con lo señalado en diferentes momentos Canalejas, Martínez et al, (2005), Argudín (2005), Alonso y Gallego (2004), López y Ballesteros (2003), Camero, Del Buey (2000), Chan (2007), Blanco (2005), Díaz y Fernández (2002). La primera conclusión da respuesta a la pregunta no 1 y 2 y a la hipótesis específica uno: Se refiere a que los tres instrumentos miden los estilos de aprendizaje pero realmente desde enfoques diferentes. CHAEA, Felder y Soloman y Joy M. Reid.

Las tecnologías de información te permiten resolver problemas, pensamiento crítico, problemas reales para que ser competente el egresado. El adecuado uso de tecnologías permite lo antes mencionado. Para implementar estrategias docentes y poder desarrollar competencias profesionales en el Licenciado en Administración se requiere entre otros: Identificar los estilos de aprendizaje, el perfil del docente, el perfil del alumno, el plan de clase y el programa de la asignatura basada en competencias, el perfil del egresado, certificaciones y acreditaciones, el plan de estudios, el modelo educativo basado en competencias (misión y visión de la universidad) y calidad en educación, así como las tendencias en relación a las competencias profesionales del Licenciado en Administración y finalmente identificar, seleccionar e implementar estrategias docentes (de enseñanza) para el desarrollo de competencias profesionales del Licenciado en Administración de Empresas en adelante (L.AE). Es por eso importante ya sea generar cursos y talleres de capacitación docente, elaborar manuales, textos, libros, o hasta contar con un departamento de apoyo, todo esto para el mejor desempeño docente que le permita entender el contexto, a los alumnos, a sus procesos de enseñanza, para poder planear, implementar y evaluar.

Como puede el conocimiento de los estilos de aprendizaje ayudar a los alumnos, padres y educadores? Uno de los factores principales para que los alumnos tengan conocimiento de su estilo de aprendizaje es tener una mejor autoestima. Cuando los alumnos puedan entender como aprenden y sobre todo el esfuerzo que esto implica, podrán tener más control sobre su ambiente de aprendizaje y solicitar lo que realmente necesitan. Los alumnos pueden aprender cualquier tema cuando se les enseña con métodos y enfoques receptivos a las fortalezas de su estilo de aprendizaje. Otra conclusión es que no basta conocer los estilos de aprendizaje si no vamos a hacer nada con ello, o utilizar más la tecnología si no la utilizamos apropiadamente crear una utopía con la era de la información como afirma McLaren (2006).

Si bien los resultados de los cuestionarios para determinar la preferencia en los estilos de aprendizaje ayudan primero al alumno a conocer sus fortalezas y debilidades para elegir formas de aprendizaje con las que se siente como y seguro, también para aprender de otras para poder adaptarse y ser flexible con apertura a nuevas formas de aprender, el que conozcan esto los padres de familia permite apoyar a sus hijos para el aprendizaje no solo en cuestiones de escuela, sino valorales, laborales, etc.

Que se conozca esto en el sector productivo o publico permite a los capacitadotes a que sus trabajadores aprendan mejor, pero en especial debe hacer una reflexión profunda los docentes de educación superior porque son los formadores de profesionistas que directo inciden tanto en el campo laboral como en la sociedad Morin, Roger et al. (2006) en sus tres ejes temáticos y estratégicos tanto para construir un currículo como para utilizarlos en el aula; el primero es el método como una estrategia para el conocimiento y la acción en un camino que se piensa sé que debe ser organizado, ecologizador, global y contextual de los conocimientos y las decisiones. El segundo es entender y usar el pensamiento complejo y el tercero los desafíos de la era planetaria el posible despertar de la sociedad mundo al concebir a la humanidad planetaria en su complementariedad del cuatrimotor (ciencia, técnica, industria e interés económico) con las ideas humanistas y emancipatorias del hombre. Debemos estudiar también más sobre la Andragogía, y las generaciones baby boommer silenciosa, la X, la Y y Z entre otras.

Otro aspecto relevante es que actualmente se considera lo más importante en las organizaciones y en los países al capital intelectual: compuesto por el capital humano (es el conocimiento que cada quien posee), capital estructural(lo que está plasmado en documentos) y capital relacional (prestigio y contactos) por lo tanto el conocimiento es importantísimo para ello hay que aprenderlo (estilos de aprendizaje) y plasmarlo en algún soporte externo que permita la reproducción y distribución (TICS) y trabajarlas en unidades de aprendizaje se facilita.

Finalmente se debe buscar la congruencia del plan de estudios, los planes de clase los programas, la misión, los perfiles de egreso con lo que los colegios indican así como las tendencias internacionales como el Tuning entre otros con el uso de TICs

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UN ENFOQUE ESTRATEGICO PARA LA SOBREVIVENCIA DE LAS PYME EN LA COMARCA LAGUNERA

Manuel Medina Elizondo, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-Torreón Víctor Manuel Molina Morejón, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-Torreón María del Carmen Armenteros Acosta, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-Torreón Sandra López Chavarría, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-Torreón

RESUMEN

Este trabajo forma parte de una investigación desarrollada en los últimos años orientada a la competitividad empresarial de las PYME. Los resultados hasta ahora publicados, presentan información acerca de Causas de la Baja Sobrevivencia clasificadas en orden de importancia, Temas Principales (o Procesos Principales) y los Momentos en que tienen más preponderancia. Este artículo tiene como objetivo la descripción de la metodología para la creación de la base de conocimiento que soporta el sistema experto de toma de decisiones para la Gestión Estratégica que coadvuve a incrementar la sobrevivencia de las PYME en la región de La Comarca Lagunera. Su sustento teórico parte de la teoría de recursos y capacidades y el enfoque de proceso en la gestión. La metodología se va desarrollando a través de la cadena: Causas – Factores Claves de Éxito (FCE) – Alternativas de Solución (AS) – Capacidades Distintivas (CD) - Mapa Estratégico Las Causas fueron estructuradas en un Árbol de Problemas (dentro del Enfoque de Marco Lógico) Los FCE se obtienen del árbol de objetivos mediante una selección basada sólo en los elementos que influyen directamente en pro de los objetivos obviando los factores y condiciones externas según el Diamante de Competitividad de Porter. La propuesta de las Alternativas de Solución surge de la revisión bibliográfica y de las experiencias de los autores, estas AS son el preámbulo para lograr las Estrategias, mismas que se diseñan partiendo de un Mapa Estratégico empleando el Método de Triangulación atendiendo a las fuentes de información. La validez y confiabilidad de contenido de todo este trabajo se obtiene tanto de las investigaciones anteriores como de la aplicación en esta etapa de Coeficiente de Competencia de los expertos, métodos de triangulación, Método Delphi y coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall, matriz de análisis estructural y mapas conceptuales. Los resultados que se presentan como ejemplos, son una simulación empleando el Proceso Principal de ComercializaciónTodo este proceso alimentará un Sistema Experto para la toma

INTRODUCCION

Hélice.

La Facultad de Contaduría y Administración (FCA) de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila (UAdeC), Unidad Torreón, desde el año 2007 inició un trabajo científico con vista al perfeccionamiento de las PYMES y de proveer al Estado de Coahuila de un Observatorio PYMES que brinde un servicio de consultoría y actualización de la cultura y actividades alrededor de esta importante temática.Molina (2011) mostró los 8 pasos de esta primera parte del diseño de la investigación que abarca un período de octubre de 2008 a noviembre de 2009 en que se desarrollaron los pasos del 1 al 6. Este artículo parte del paso 7 y a partir de este se desarrolla la Segunda parte de esta investigación.

de decisiones que será el corazón del Laboratorio Empresarial de las PYME de esta región. La puesta en práctica de este Laboratorio creará la Red de Cooperación Innovativa bajo un Modelo de Triple

REVISION LITERARIA

Las cifras de fracaso de las PYME son abrumadoras en cualquier país que se analicen. Como es lógico, las mismas varían según el país, pero se mantienen en altos niveles negativos muy similares. Así, por ejemplo, en España, para (García O. 1990), de la Universidad de Cádiz, "el 80% de las empresas quiebran en los primeros cinco años". Estas cifras son confirmadas por "EmprendedorXXI", de La Caixa, que advierte que "las estadísticas nos hablan de una elevada mortalidad en las empresas de nueva creación: según datos de 2003, más del 70% de los negocios no llegan a los cuatro años de vida". De acuerdo con la CEPAL "en los países subdesarrollados entre un 50 y un 75% dejan de existir durante los primeros tres años". En los Estados Unidos de América, según (Samuelson y Nordhaus, 2008) "el promedio de vida de las empresas es de seis años y más de un 30% no llega al tercer año". La Asociación Argentina para el desarrollo de la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa afirma taxativamente que: "Sólo el 7% de los emprendimientos llega al 2º año de vida y sólo el 3% de los emprendimientos llega al 5º año de vida". Finalmente, para no abrumar con más cifras, en Chile, según informa Rodrigo Castro F., un estudio en el que se le dio seguimiento a 67.310 empresas creadas en 1996, indicó que el 25% de ellas desapareció en el primer año, un 17% en el segundo año, el 13% en el tercer año y un 11% en el cuarto año.

Contexto Internacional: En el mundo de habla hispana se conoce como mipymes a las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (Equihua, 2002; Fundes México, 2002b; Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos, 2002). Citados por Fernandez, J. (2005a). En esta investigación se ha empleado el término PYME para considerar sólo las pequeñas y medianas empresas. Muchos países están sustentados en organizaciones de este tipo, de ahí que hoy en día exista un gran interés por tratar el tema de su participación e importancia en la nueva economía globalizada.

METODOLOGÍA

Al inicio de esta segunda parte de la investigación se han realizado algunos cambios a la nomenclatura de los Temas de la primera parte de la investigación de (Molina, 2011) y además algunos ajustes o precisiones con el fin de incrementar y actualizar la validez de este trabajo.

PASO 1: Ajustes a la nomenclatura. Influencia o peso relativo de cada uno de los Procesos Principales en esta investigación.

PASO 2: Factores Claves de Éxito (FCE), selección de expertos y método Delphi.

A partir de los FCE la empresa debe desarrollar sus capacidades distintivas y lograr ventajas competitivas, ellos constituyen el elemento en el que se fundamenta la empresa para competir en el mercado y se corresponde o deberían corresponderse con las capacidades distintivas que es necesario poseer en una organización para ser competitiva. El grado de dominio de los FCE es el que determina la posición competitiva (Gárciga 2001). A partir de esta definición es que se empleará el concepto FCE para interpretar la manera de revertir las causas de la baja sobrevivencia.

PASO 3: Alternativas de Solución (AS) – Capacidades Distintivas

Las propuestas de las Alternativas de Solución (tercera columna de la Tabla 5) surgen de la revisión bibliográfica y de las experiencias de los autores y equipos de expertos que se vinculan a esta investigación; estás AS se van definiendo y ajustando progresivamente mediante rondas Delphi hasta que se alcanza un adecuado consenso. Luego se está ya en capacidad de presentarles a los jueces la encuesta (Tabla 4), empleando los Métodos de Triangulación.

PASO 4. Mapa Estratégico y su Matriz - Estrategias

A partir de las Capacidades Distintivas se diseñan las estrategias que se formulan mediante un Mapa Estratégico que brinda las relaciones entre objetivos dado que las estrategias son las acciones que se emprenderán para alcanzar los objetivos a largo plazo. Estos objetivos en un Mapa Estratégico se presentaran a través de una relación de Causa Efecto y luego en la Matriz Tablero de Comando ellos se cuantificarán a través de indicadores o KPI

RESULTADOS

El principal resultado de este artículo es la descripción de la metodología para la creación de la base de conocimiento que soporte el Sistema Experto de toma de decisiones para la Gestión Estratégica.

Resultado 1: Definir los FCE (Paso 2 de la metodología)

De cada Proceso Principal la metodología extrae las Causas que tienen una influencia directa en pro de los objetivos obviando los factores y condiciones externas que en el Diamante de Competitividad de Porter se identifica con el factor "Industria relacionadas y de apoyo". Es así que el Proceso de Comercialización (Por ejemplo) obtiene seis FCE

Resultado 2: Definir las Alternativas de Solución (AS) y las Capacidades Distintivas (Paso 3 de la metodología)

Cada FCE debe expresarse o conceptualizarse –en una primera etapa – a través de lo que hemos denominado Alternativas de Solución que son el preámbulo de las Estrategias que nos proponemos diseñar.

Resultado 3. Mapa Estratégico y Matriz y Estrategia (Paso 4 de la metodología)

Los estrategas nunca consideran todas las alternativas viables que podrían beneficiar a la empresa porque existe una cantidad infinita de acciones posibles y una cantidad infinita de caminos para ponerlas en práctica. Por consiguiente, se debe desarrollar una serie manejable con las estrategias alternativas más atractivas.

CONCLUSIONES

Hemos partido de la Hipótesis de que el desarrollo de un sistema de trabajo mediante Laboratorios Empresariales en los que la universidad, explore y facilite a las PYME soluciones que les permitan sistematizar la adquisición de conocimientos, habilidades y capacidades coadyuvará a incrementar la sobrevivencia de éstas, todo esto enmarcado en un Modelo de Triple Hélice. La "Teoría de la Triple Hélice" apuesta por cambiar el modelo universitario "tradicional" para implantar otro que permita una aplicación de las enseñanzas teóricas y la investigación, define la relación que deberían mantener universidad, empresa y gobierno, aboga por superar la independencia habitual que caracteriza el trabajo de estas tres instituciones y por coordinar su colaboración con el fin de fomentar la creación de riqueza. Su imagen se representa como un sistema de tres hélices que se desarrolla en espiral, con vinculaciones que emergen a diversos niveles del proceso de innovación, la interacción de ellas da lugar a una sinergia que se traduce en innovación y una mayor riqueza para la sociedad.

BIOGRAFIA

Manuel Medina Elizondo, Víctor Manuel Molina Morejón, María del Carmen Armenteros Acosta Y Sandra López Chavarría pueden ser contactados en la siguiente dirección :Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Boulevard Revolución, Colonia Centro, Torreón, Coahuila, México, correo electrónico drmanuelmedina@yahoo.com.mx

LOS RETOS DEL EMPRENDEDOR: LA PROBLEMÁTICA DE ABRIR Y MANTENER UN NUEVO NEGOCIO

Luis Lenin Herrera Díaz De León, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Ana Iris Acero Padilla, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Haydeé Aguilar Romero, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

En los últimos años, Escuelas de Negocios en México y en el mundo han incorporado a sus Planes Educativos (PE) programas y contenidos que fomenten la mentalidad emprendedora, con miras a que los egresados no busquen ser buenos empleados sino que sean generadores de empleo. Sin embargo, emprender un nuevo negocio en un mundo competitivo y globalizado no es tarea sencilla. En el presente trabajo se realiza un análisis del tiempo de vida de las nuevas empresas en varios lugares del mundo, que muestra las dificultades de iniciar un negocio, así como los principales problemas internos y externos que enfrentan las personas al abrir una nueva fuente de empleos. Finalmente, se realiza una propuesta que pretende incrementar la probabilidad de sobrevivencia de las empresas, tomando como base las experiencias y estrategias exitosas que han sido aplicadas por reconocidos empresarios, así como los datos obtenidos de instituciones promotoras del emprendedurismo, que han incrementado la competitividad y el desempeño de las nuevas empresas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: emprendedor, problemática, retos

Luis Lenin Herrera Díaz De León, CR03161159 Ana Iris Acero Padilla, CR03161159 Haydeé Aguilar Romero, CR03161159

LOS CANALES DE DISTRIBUCIÓN COMO FACTOR DE COMPETITIVIDAD PARA EL PRODUCTOR DE TRIGO DEL VALLE DE MEXICALI, BAJA CALIFORNIA, MÉXICO

Leonel Rosiles López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Blanca Rosa García Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Cruz Elda Macías Terán, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

La presente investigación trata el tema de la competitividad del productor de trigo en el agro mexicano; se analizan las diferentes opciones que tiene el productor para distribuir su producto, el costo de distribución y la seguridad del producto en su traslado desde su origen hasta su destino. Este trabajo de investigación se delimita a los agricultores de trigo en el valle de Mexicali, Baja California, México. El propósito de la investigación es realizar un análisis del papel que desempeñan los canales de distribución del producto en la competitividad del productor de trigo. La investigación que se presenta se realizó a través de la aplicación de una metodología de corte cuantitativo. Se aplicó un instrumento para la obtención de datos con una confiabilidad de .898, la investigación de campo abarcó la participación voluntaria de 370 productores quienes realizaron sus cultivos en el ciclo 2008/2009, se aplicaron pruebas estadísticas de tendencia central y variabilidad. Los hallazgos de esta investigación nos permitieron conocer la situación especial en que se encuentran los productores, al comercializar su producto y mostraron la importancia que tienen los canales de distribución para los agricultores, para mejorar su competitividad, tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero.

PALABRAS CLAVE: competitividad, canales de distribución, trigo.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La competitividad de las empresas en la actualidad es el resultado de la correlación de diferentes factores como pueden ser el financiamiento, la tecnología, la calidad, el precio y los canales de distribución entre otros. Cada uno de ellos aporta a la empresa una oportunidad para lograr una mejor productividad que se refleje en una mejor competitividad en un mercado cada vez más globalizado. Sin soslayar la importancia que tiene cada uno de estos factores en el desarrollo y crecimiento de la empresa, en el presente trabajo se analiza uno de ellos: los canales de distribución, en forma específica en la producción de trigo en el valle de Mexicali, Baja California, México.

En los siguientes apartados se presenta la revisión literaria más relevante, así como la metodología que se utilizó para la recolección de datos, su procesamiento y análisis. Así mismo se presentan los resultados generados a través de la indagatoria para finalmente ofrecer las conclusiones y recomendaciones que puedan servir de base para futuras investigaciones sobre el tema.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

En fechas recientes el tema de los canales de distribución como factor de competitividad de las empresas ha adquirido mayor relevancia, dada la creciente globalización de los mercados. Los canales de distribución han sido definidos por autores reconocidos como un conjunto o estructura de organizaciones o sistemas que permiten a las empresas distribuir sus productos en el mercado de una manera organizada de tal forma que proporciona una ventaja competitiva. (Stern y El-Ansary, 1992; Kotler y Armstrong, 1996; Cortinas, Elorz, y Goñi, 2007). Asimismo Hernández, Domínguez y Ramos (2002), señalan que

los canales de distribución son el camino que siguen los productos desde su elaboración y hasta su adquisición por parte de los consumidores; estos medios incorporan al producto comunicación, financiamiento, pagos y riesgos en su traslado.

Algunos estudiosos de este tema, sostienen que los canales de distribución son un factor que repercute en forma determinante para alcanzar la competitividad. De acuerdo con Berumen (2006) entre estos factores se encuentran la calidad de los productos y servicios así como la cobertura de los canales de distribución y la efectividad de los procesos de innovación entre otros. Para Pelton, Strutton y Lumpkin (2005), un canal de distribución es la vía donde compradores y vendedores se pueden relacionar sin que tenga importancia sus ubicaciones geográficas. Hernández, Domínguez y Ramos (2002), definen el canal de distribución como el camino que recorren las mercancías dese el lugar en que son producidas y hasta el consumidor final; se ocupa de dar fluidez a los productos de forma organizada mediante la comunicación, uso de vías, equipos, financiamiento, seguridad y control de riesgos. Fernández, Martínez, y Rebollo (2006) afirman que la competitividad del productor o de un establecimiento está determinada por la capacidad o competitividad del canal de distribución en su conjunto, de acuerdo a la eficiencia con que se hagan las funciones de comercialización para la venta final del producto, el nivel de servicio y la atención a los compradores que desean precios bajos y buen servicio. Asimismo (Antun, Lozano, Hernández, y Hernández, 2005), comentan que la competitividad de un producto que satisface las expectativas de los consumidores (características, calidad, y precio) se determina por los canales de distribución, su función logística y la ejecución adecuada de servicios de transporte; aun cuando se trate de productos ya conocidos, nuevos productos o exploración de nuevos mercados.

Existen diversos modelos de la competitividad los cuales han venido evolucionando en forma paulatina con respecto al antecesor, estos modelos tienen como objeto, la medición macroeconómica y la medición micro, en la primera se mide el comportamiento de la economía de un determinado sector o industria ó de un país; la segunda se refiere a la medición de una empresa. La mayoría de los autores coinciden, que la competitividad se ve reflejada en un mayor ingreso para el país por concepto de comercio internacional, mejores empleos y un mejor nivel de vida para sus ciudadanos.

Los principales modelos económicos que miden la competitividad en sus diferentes niveles a través de las variables que los integran consideran a los canales de distribución como un factor determinante que repercute para alcanzar la competitividad. Por tanto en esta investigación se analiza esta variable en forma específica para determinar en qué medida los canales de distribución repercuten con sus dimensiones e indicadores en la competitividad de los productores de trigo del valle de Mexicali, Baja california.

La Comisión de Productividad Industrial del Instituto Tecnológico de Massachusetts (MIT), por sus siglas en inglés, dio a conocer seis características aplicables a México, que de acuerdo a las condiciones actuales de la economía, debe reunir toda aquella empresa que desee ser competitiva: 1) Tener capacidad para realizar mejoras simultáneas en calidad, costo y oportunidad de entrega. 2) Conocimiento de las necesidades y preferencias del cliente. 3) Vinculación con los proveedores. 4) Utilización de la tecnología para adquirir ventajas estratégicas. 5) La adopción de modelos organizacionales más horizontales y menos feudales. 6) Desarrollar una cultura de mejoramiento continuo (MIT, 1986).

La competitividad de las empresas exportadoras de aguacate a los Estados Unidos de América, ubicadas en Uruapan, Michoacán; está determinada según el análisis de frecuencia de variables causantes de competitividad de acuerdo con instituciones como la Organización para la Cooperación y Desarrollo Económico (OCDE), Unión Eutorpea (UE), *Massachusetts Institute of Technology* (MIT), por sus siglas en inglés, Instituto Nacional de Estadística Geografía e Informática (INEGI), así como por los investigadores Porter, Mintzberg, y Arechavela, todos ellos citados en el estudio doctoral de Bonales Valencia (2001) son las siguientes variables: calidad de la fruta, tecnología utilizada, precio de exportación, la capacitación de sus integrantes y canales de distribución.

La revisión literaria realizada muestra la estrecha relación entre los canales de distribución y la competitividad de las empresas, situación que pone de manifiesto la importancia de que las empresas escojan adecuadamente cuáles son los canales de distribución que más coadyuvan al logro de sus objetivos entre los cuales se encuentra la competitividad. La competitividad y los canales de distribución resultan ser en consecuencia, un binomio indivisible.

METODOLOGÍA

La presente investigación es de corte cuantitativo de tipo descriptivo y correlacional. Los sujetos de estudio fueron los agricultores que sembraron trigo en el periodo 2009-2010 en el valle de Mexicali, Baja California, México. La población estuvo conformada por 9514 agricultores. Se realizó el cálculo estadístico de la muestra con un 5% de error máximo y 95% de confianza. La muestra estuvo conformada por 370 agricultores. Las variables estudiadas fueron: el diseño del canal de distribución y la selección de mercados. La dimensiones desde donde se analizó la variable de diseño del canal de distribución fueron: clientes, cultura y competencia. Las dimensiones de la variable de selección de mercados fueron: objetivos de la compañía, cobertura, comunicación, costo, destino del producto, demanda externa, selección del producto, demanda interna, intermediación y aspecto legal. Se elaboró un instrumento de investigación que incluyó 14 ítems dirigidos a obtener información sobre cada variable y dimensión.

Se utilizó la escala de Likert. El nivel de medición utilizado fue el ordinal o de orden de rangos el cual nos permitió clasificar la información para su medición por variable y obtener resultados de cada una de ellas, con la finalidad de conocer la actitud o tendencia que tienen hacia la competitividad los productores de trigo del valle de Mexicali, Baja California. Los rangos fueron: completamente de acuerdo, de acuerdo, indiferente, en desacuerdo, y completamente en desacuerdo; donde el nivel de medición es (5) para completamente de acuerdo y (1) para completamente en desacuerdo.

Se aplicó un pre test para conocer la pertinencia del instrumento a 20 agricultores, localizados en diferentes ejidos del valle de Mexicali, Baja California. Durante esta prueba piloto no se manifestó ningún problema de entendimiento, confusión, o mala interpretación sobre ninguna afirmación o juicio de valor; en consecuencia se obtuvieron los 20 cuestionarios de la prueba piloto sin dificultad alguna y se consideró oportuna la aplicación del total de cuestionarios. Los datos se procesaron con apoyo del programa estadístico *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS), por sus siglas en inglés. Se realizó la interpretación de resultados a través de las medidas estadísticas de tendencia central y de variabilidad.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados de esta indagatoria se presentan de acuerdo a las variables estudiadas. Así en relación a la primer variable, el diseño del canal de distribución, se obtuvo que 38% de los productores de trigo mencionaron conocer sus principales competidores tanto a nivel nacional como internacional, de la misma manera 39% manifestó estar enterado al respecto, mientras que 11% dijo serle indiferente y el 12% restante manifestó no conocer a sus principales competidores (Ver Tabla 1). Asimismo se pudo observar que el 30% de los agricultores entrevistados manifestó conocer el perfil de su cliente tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero, mientras que un 33% manifestó también conocer a su cliente, para un 22 % el perfil del cliente le es indiferente y para el restante 15% no es importante el perfil del cliente (Ver Tabla 1). Por otra parte, los datos mostraron que 35 % de los entrevistados manifestó conocer el tipo de producto y las condiciones en las que lo prefiere su cliente, mientras que 41% también manifestó estar enterado de las preferencias del cliente, por su parte el 11% dijo serle indiferente saber lo que el cliente prefiere, y el 13% restante dijo desconocer lo prefiere el cliente (Ver Tabla 1).

Dimensiones	Ítem	Com-	De	Indi-	En	Completa-
		pletamente de acuerdo	acuerdo	ierente		mente en desacuerdo
clientes,	Conozco el perfil de mi cliente tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero.	38%	39%	11%	7/%	5%
cultura	Conozco el tipo de producto y en qué condiciones lo prefiere el cliente.	30%	33%	22%	7%	8%
competencia	Conozco quienes son mis principales competidores tanto a nivel local como internacional.	35%	41%	11%	6%	7%

Tabla 1: Resultados del Análisis de la Variable Diseño del Canal de Distribución

En esta tabla se observa que un 23% de los encuestados manifestaron indiferencia o no conocer a sus principales competidores. Asimismo sobresale que 37% de los encuestados manifestó que el perfil de sus clientes le es indiferente o no es importante. Destaca además que 24% de los encuestados manifestaron indiferencia o desconocimiento de lo que el cliente prefiere.

En cuanto a la segunda variable, la selección de mercados, se obtuvo que la mayoría de los encuestados 82% estuvieron completamente de acuerdo y de acuerdo en que sus objetivos contemplan la venta del producto en el mercado nacional e internacional. En cuanto a cobertura destacó un 81% de los encuestados quienes consideran importante la cobertura. En tanto que para 84% de los encuestados estuvieron completamente de acuerdo y de acuerdo en que la comunicación con sus clientes es eficiente. Sin embargo, 82% coincidió en considerar que les resulta costoso colocar sus productos en el mercado nacional e internacional. Otros datos que sobresalen es que el 86% de los encuestados manifestaron que realiza su cultivo del trigo con fines de exportación y que 75% de ellos manifiestan conocer el tipo de producto que demandan sus compradores de otros países. Sin embargo 72% dijo cultivar su producto en acuerdo con compradores nacionales y 79% de los encuestados señaló que por lo regular vende su producto al mismo comprador, cubriendo de esta manera una demanda interna. 76% de los encuestados dijo contar con un precio de garantía antes de recoger la cosecha y 70% dijo que vende su cosecha a un centro de acopio para luego ser exportada. Lo anterior da cuenta del alto grado de intermediación que existe, la cual se realiza en su mayoría a través de medios formales, pues 65% de los encuestados dijo tener contratos firmados para entregar su producto a sus clientes (Ver Tabla 2).

Dimensiones	Ítem	Com-	De	Indi-	En	Completa-
		pletamente	acuerdo	ferente	desa-	mente en
		de acuerdo			cuerdo	desacuerdo
Objetivos de la compañía	a Mis objetivos contemplan la venta de mi producto	38%	44%	11%	5%	2%
	tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero.					
Cobertura	Es importante la cobertura de mi producto tanto en el	44%	37%	13%	3%	3%
	mercado nacional como en el internacional.					
Comunicación	Es eficiente la comunicación con mis clientes tanto	43%	41%	8%	6%	2%
	nacionales como internacionales.					
Costo	Es costoso colocar mi producto tanto en el mercado	39%	43%	12%	3%	3%
	nacional como en el extranjero.					
Destino del producto	El cultivo de mi producto lo realizo con fines de	45%	41%	8%	3%	3%
	exportación.					
Demanda externa	Conozco el tipo de producto que demandan los	45%	30%	7%	9%	9%
	compradores de otros países.					
Selección del producto	Cultivo mi producto en acuerdo con compradores	29%	43%	10%	11%	7%
	nacionales.					
Demanda interna	Por lo regular vendo mi producto al mismo comprador.	34%	45%	9%	5%	7%
Intermediación	Cuento con un precio de garantía antes de recoger la	36%	40%	12%	7%	5%
	cosecha.					
Intermediación	Vendo mi producto a un centro de acopio y	41%	29%	6%	15%	9%
	posteriormente es exportado.					
Aspecto legal	Tengo contratos firmados para entregar mi producto a	37%	28%	7%	11%	17%
	mis clientes.					

Tabla 2: Resultados del Análisis de la Variable Selección de Mercados

En esta tabla sobresale el hecho que 35% de los encuestados dijo ser indiferente o estar en desacuerdo o completamente en desacuerdo en cuanto a tener contratos firmados para entregar su producto a sus clientes, lo que podría dar cuenta de la existencia de una economía informal. Asimismo destaca el hecho que sólo 14% de los encuestados no realiza sus cultivos con fines de exportación.

CONCLUSIONES

La comercialización del trigo en el valle de Mexicali, Baja California, cada año está sujeta al precio internacional del cereal, en este renglón los agricultores tienen contratos firmados para vender su producto a los centros de acopio, mismos que fijan el precio que van a pagar al agricultor por su producto, si el agricultor considera que el precio es adecuado para cubrir sus costos y obtener una ganancia entrega su producto, de lo contrario, entra en negociación con compradores y autoridades de gobierno, para obtener un precio o apoyo más justo.

De acuerdo con las medidas de tendencia central y de variabilidad, resultó que el 62% de los agricultores son competitivos, por consiguiente, el 38 % restante están por debajo de la media. No obstante lo anterior se puede inferir que los productores de trigo en general no utilizan los canales de distribución adecuados, no utilizan los canales de distribución adecuados, ya que, como se observó en el estudio, la mayoría comercializa su producto a través de intermediarios.Un hallazgo importante que se encontró en esta investigación es que aún cuando el 80% de la producción del cereal que se produce en la entidad federativa se exporta, no son los agricultores quienes realizan la exportación, ya que ellos se encuentran obligados a vender su producto al centro de acopio con el que tienen el contrato de entrega firmado, por consiguiente, quien realiza la exportación y obtiene los grandes beneficios económicos, según los agricultores, son los propietarios de los mencionados centros de acopio.

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Leonel Rosiles López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Blanca Rosa García Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Cruz Elda Macías Terán, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

La presente investigación trata el tema de la competitividad del productor de trigo en el agro mexicano; actividad que representa un reto en los diferentes tipos de cultivo, principalmente para el pequeño productor que en forma individual realiza sus actividades agrícolas. Este trabajo de investigación se delimita a los agricultores de trigo en el valle de Mexicali, Baja California, México. El propósito de la investigación es realizar un análisis de la manera en que el precio de venta influye en la competitividad del productor de trigo. En el presente trabajo se analiza el precio de venta internacional, el nacional y el precio al cual el productor de trigo vende su producto. La investigación que se presenta se realizó a través de la aplicación de una metodología de corte cuantitativo. Se aplicó un instrumento para la obtención de datos con una confiabilidad de .898 la investigación de campo abarcó la participación voluntaria de 370 productores de trigo quienes realizaron sus cultivos en el ciclo 2008/2009, se aplicaron pruebas estadísticas de tendencia central y variabilidad. Los hallazgos de esta investigación mostraron la importancia que el precio de venta tiene para mejorar la competitividad, tanto en el mercado nacional como en el extranjero.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Precio, Competitividad, Trigo.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La lucha constante de las empresas por incursionar con nuevos productos en el mercado, que le permitan competir a nivel local e internacional y ganar la preferencia del cliente, debe tener presente aquellos factores que son determinantes para alcanzar la competitividad, que garanticen la permanencia de sus productos en el mercado, a través de la preferencia del cliente; entre los factores que repercuten en la competitividad de las empresas se encuentra el financiamiento adecuado, la tecnología utilizada, la calidad del producto, las redes o canales de distribución y el precio de venta.

Considerando la importancia que tiene cada uno de estos factores resulta necesario analizarlos de forma individual. Por tanto en el presente trabajo se pretende realizar un análisis detallado de la repercusión que tiene el precio de venta de los productos en el logro de la competitividad de las empresas. Se presenta a continuación la revisión de la literatura más relevante sobre el tema de estudio, además de la metodología que se utilizó en la realización de la indagatoria. De la misma manera se dan a conocer los resultados y finalmente se ofrecen algunas conclusiones y recomendaciones útiles para la realización de futuras investigaciones.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La importancia del precio radica en que es el valor que el consumidor está dispuesto a pagar por el producto o servicio que recibe, mismo que determina su grado de competencia en el mercado, el precio de un producto de calidad, por lo general, determina la medida en que el producto es aceptado por el

consumidor, con base en el precio, un producto puede ser desplazado o desplazar a otro del mercado. Un precio será competitivo, cuando un producto proporcione la misma satisfacción que otro producto, pero a un precio menor que el asignado al producto de la competencia; ó cuando el precio siendo igual, el producto proporciona una mayor satisfacción.

En este sentido, según los investigadores (Rojas, Chavarría y Sepúlveda, 1999) sostienen que en el caso específico de la agroindustria y desde la perspectiva del precio de venta la lucha competitiva se centra en las relaciones que se establecen entre la agroindustria y los mayoristas y entre estos y los supermercados. Por consiguiente, se puede deducir que mientras más homogéneo sea el producto agroindustrial, más conflictiva será esa relación, puesto que el precio será una limitante para la competitividad, por cuanto el margen de administración del mismo será nulo.

Por su parte, en su análisis sobre precio, calidad y competitividad (Anda, 2004) comenta que la calidad la percibe y evalúa el consumidor en un rango de buena, baja o mala; de acuerdo al grado de satisfacción que le proporciono el bien o servicio, éste establece una relación entre calidad y precio o entre precio y calidad, estado predispuesto a aceptar pagar más por mayor calidad o pagar poco por baja calidad y a no pagar nada por mala calidad ya que esto se traduciría en un despilfarro; de esta manera la alta calidad es la única garantía para desarrollar mayor competitividad lo cual se traduce en proporcionar mayor satisfacción al cliente por menos dinero que la competencia, constituyendo la relación calidad precio la esencia para la competitividad. En la opinión de (Casani, Llorente y Pérez, 2008), coinciden en que el precio de venta es un factor importante para poder ser competitividad de las empresas y de los países competidores, el diferencial de inflación de un país se manifiesta en un incremento en los costos, el cual no podrá ser repercutido por el país de origen en otro que mantenga una economía estable.

En el mismo sentido y de acuerdo con (Gutiérrez, 1999 en Chávez 2004. P. 91), la satisfacción del cliente y la competitividad de la empresa está determinada por la calidad y el precio del producto, siendo determinante el tiempo de entrega del mismo. De esta forma se es más competitivo cuando se ofrece al cliente un producto o servicio de mejor calidad, a mejor precio que la competencia y en un menor tiempo.

METODOLOGÍA

En la realización de la presente investigación se diseño un instrumento de recolección de datos basado en la escala de Likert, con las siguientes 5 opciones de selección de respuesta: completamente de acuerdo, de acuerdo, indiferente, en desacuerdo y completamente en desacuerdo, los valores asignados fueron de 1 a 5, correspondiendo el 5 a "completamente de acuerdo", el 4 para "de acuerdo", continuando en forma descendente hasta el número 1 para "completamente en desacuerdo" el instrumento de medición fue validado a través del estadístico de confiabilidad Alfa de Cronbach, el resultado obtenido mostró un factor de .898 el cual se considera aceptable El presente estudio es de corte cuantitativo, descriptivo y correlacional, fue realizado en el valle de Mexicali, la población de estudio estuvo conformada por 9514 productores de trigo que sembraron este cereal durante el ciclo de cultivo 2009-2010, el tamaño de la muestra se determinó mediante formulas estadísticas, misma que dio como resultado la cantidad de 370 participantes. Las variables estudiadas dentro en esta investigación fueron: la fijación del precio de venta, costos, y condiciones de venta. Las variables anteriores se estudiaron desde varias dimensiones. La fijación del precio se estudio desde las dimensiones: precio de garantía y manejo del precio. La variable costos se estudio desde la dimensión costo de comercialización. En tanto que la variable condiciones de venta se estudio desde la dimensión de financiamiento. La información recabada en la investigación de campo fue procesada a través del paquete estadístico Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) por sus siglas en ingles, por medio del cual se elaboró la matriz de correlación de Spearman, a través de la cual pudo comprobarse la correlación entre los indicadores del precio, de la misma manera se pudo comprobar la correlación entre éstos y la variable dependiente competitividad; además se aplicaron las medidas estadísticas de tendencia central y de variabilidad, con el objeto de conocer e interpretar los resultados; esto permitió elaborar las conclusiones correspondientes.

RESULTADOS

Al analizar la variable fijación de precio se obtuvo que para los agricultores de trigo el precio de venta de su producto es muy importante, éste repercute en forma directa en su competitividad. Al respecto, al preguntar al productor de trigo sobre la conveniencia de que se establezca un precio de venta para su producto, se encontró que el 56 % de los agricultores está completamente de acuerdo en que si es conveniente, un 30% más también lo considera conveniente, solo un 6% está en desacuerdo; lo anterior muestra que la gran mayoría de los agricultores de trigo pretenden tener mayor seguridad respecto del precio de su producto.

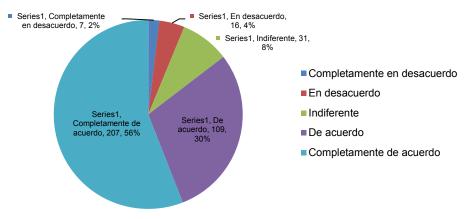


Figura 1: Es Conveniente para mi Empresa que se Establezca un Precio de Garantía Para mis Productos.

Esta figura muestra la opinión de los agricultores de trigo con respecto al establecimiento de un precio de garantía para su producto, como puede apreciarse la gran mayoría considera que ésta medida sería conveniente.

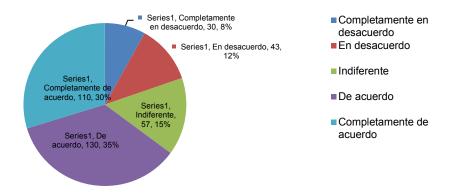
Así mismo los datos obtenidos en esta variable mostraron en relación a la eficiencia en el manejo del precio nacional e internacional del producto (figura 2); que un 30% contestó que está completamente de acuerdo en que si es eficiente, un 35 % más está de acuerdo en ser también eficiente, sin embargo un 20% considera no ser eficientes en el manejo del precio de su producto.

Los resultados obtenidos en relación a la variable costos, mostraron que en cuanto al manejo eficiente de los costos de comercialización del trigo (figura 3), 34 % de los agricultores encuestados coinciden en estar completamente de acuerdo en ser eficientes, otro 43% también está de acuerdo también en manejar los costos en forma eficientes, el 14% no toma en cuenta el manejo de los costos, mientras el 9% restante considera no manejar en forma eficiente sus costos de comercialización.

En cuanto a la variable condiciones de venta, se obtuvo en relación al financiamiento que el 34% de los agricultores está completamente de acuerdo en recibir financiamiento de sus clientes a cuenta de su cosecha, un 43% más esta de acuerdo también en recibirlo, mientras que para un 14% este tipo de financiamiento le es indiferente, el 9% restante esta en desacuerdo de recibir financiamiento a cuenta de su cosecha.

En esta figura se muestra que el 77 % de los agricultores reciben financiamiento de sus clientes (centros de acopio o molineras) a cuenta del valor de su cosecha, esto trae como resultado que, solo el 23 % restante realiza su cultivo con recursos propios.

Figura 2: Es Eficiente mi Empresa para Manejar el Precio Nacional e Internacional del Producto.



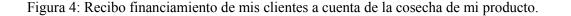
Esta figura muestra en qué porcentaje los agricultores de trigo del valle de Mexicali, se consideran eficientes para manejar el precio del trigo a nivel nacional e internacional.

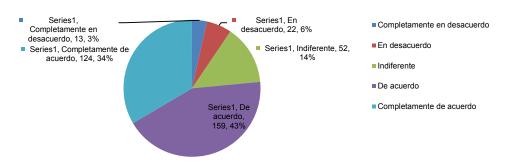
Figura 3: Soy Eficiente para el Manejo de los Costos de Comercialización en el Mercado Nacional e Internacional.



La presente figura muestra los porcentajes de eficiencia en que fueron agrupados los agricultores de acuerdo a sus respuestas. Puede observarse que la mayoría de los agricultores consideran que manejan en forma adecuada los costos de comercialización.

De acuerdo a las medidas de tendencia central y variabilidad se encontró que la frecuencia (moda) que más se registró fue 70 puntos, ubicandose en ese rango 100 agricultores que contestaron estar completamente de acuerdo en que es conveniente se establezca un precio de garantía para sus productos, por tanto los agricultores que se encuentran en este rango (27%) son altamente competitivos; por otra parte el 55% de los agricultores están por encima de la mediana la cual se ubica en 66 puntos con 203 agricultores en ese rango, los cuales nuevamente coinciden en estar completamente de acuerdo en obtener ventajas si venden su producto a un precio de garantía; en el mismo sentido se encontró que la media o promedio se ubicó en 64 puntos con 229 productores de trigo por encima de este rango, quienes aseguraron estar de acuerdo en ser eficientes en el manejo de los costos de comerciaización , lo que significa que se existe una amplia y fuerte repercución del precio en la competitividad al ubicar el 62% de los productores de trigo por encima de la media por consiguiente se consideran competitivos.





En la realización de esta investigación se tuvieron como limitaciones, la falta de un padrón de agricultores, esto dificultó su localización. Tambien se encontró que que aunque son personas muy amables desconfian del uso que puede darse a la información que proporcionan, creen que dar información pudiera perjudicarles en un futuro, en algunos casos creen que eres enviado por la oficina recaudadora de impuestos con el fin de obtener información y aumentar sus impuestos.

CONCLUSIONES

El precio del trigo a nivel nacional dependerá de la producción registrada en el país, sin embargo este se verá influenciado de acuerdo a la producción mundial de este cereal. El agricultor de trigo no cuenta con un precio de garantía para su producto, este está sujeto a la oferta y la demanda que haya del cereal. Por consiguiente este dependerá del comportamiento que tenga el precio a nivel nacional e internacional. Los centros de acopio fijan el precio al que han de pagar el producto. Tomando en consideración que el 80% de la producción de trigo del valle de Mexicali es cultivado con fines de exportación; para que el productor pueda vender su trigo a un precio competitivo, es necesario que sea este quien a través de una organización de productores, realicen en forma directa la exportación de su producto, solo de esta manera podrán llegar a ser competitivos.

Mientras el productor de trigo tenga la necesidad de financiar la siembra de su cultivo, a través de créditos para semillas e insumos; seguirá vendiendo su cosecha al precio que fije el centro de acopio, quien posteriormente será quien exporte el producto y obtenga los beneficios. En el resultado de esta investigación se coincide con los autores de la revisión literaria, en cuanto a la importancia que tiene el precio de venta para alcanzar la competitividad, es necesario que los agricultores vendan en forma directa su producto ya sea al precio nacional o internacional, según el mercado de destino, solo de esta forma llegaran a ser competitivos.

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VERACRUZANA

Minerva Parra Uscanga, Universidad Veracruzana Héctor Julián Vargas Rubín, Universidad Veracruzana Celia del Pilar Garrido Vargas, Universidad Veracruzana Patricia Arieta Melgarejo, Universidad Veracruzana Luis Alejandro Gasca Herrera, Universidad Veracruzana

RESUMEN

En este artículo se trata de explicar los beneficios que se obtienen cuando los programas educativos se acreditan, el COPAES(Consejo para Acreditación de la Educación Superior, A.C.) es la instancia capacitada y reconocida por el Gobierno Federal, a través de la Secretaría de Educación Pública, para conferir reconocimiento formal a favor de organizaciones cuyo fin sea acreditar programas académicos de educación superior que ofrezcan instituciones públicas y particulares, previa valoración de su capacidad organizativa, técnica y operativa, de sus marcos de evaluación para la acreditación de programas académicos, de la administración de sus procedimientos y de la imparcialidad del mismo. La labor de reconocimiento de organizaciones acreditadoras por parte del COPAES está en estrecha relación con las funciones que desarrollan las autoridades educativas, los organismos profesionales y académicos, y particularmente, las instituciones de educación superior.Dicho reconocimiento permite la regulación de los organismos acreditadores y los procesos de acreditación en las áreas del conocimiento, con el objeto de informar a la sociedad sobre la calidad de un programa de estudios de nivel superior. Por lo que la Universidad Veracruzana preocupada por la calidad de la educación cuenta con la acreditación de todos sus programas académicos de Contaduría y Administración.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Acreditación, Programa Académico, Calidad, Evaluación

INTRODUCCION

Hoy en día la acreditación como un elemento que permite a las instituciones el fortalecimiento a la competitividad en contraste con otras instituciones de la misma área disciplinar, lo anterior de acuerdo a la importancia que se le esta dando desde hace algunos años a este procedimiento el cual conduce a elevar los índices de calidad entre las instituciones de educación superior. Como consecuencia del ingreso de México como país miembro de la UNESCO en 1946, se funda ANUIES con la finalidad de otorgar seguimiento a los procesos de calidad. A través de los años se ha evolucionado en diversos organismos los cuales con la interacción de la SEP (Secretaría de Educación Pública) establecen los CIESS, y como respuesta a todo lo anterior y después de realizar un amplio proceso de análisis para definir su estructura, composición y funciones, a finales de 2000 fue instituido formalmente el consejo para la acreditación de la educación superior A.C. COPAES, que regula los organismos acreditadores y los procesos de acreditación en las diversas áreas del conocimiento. Después de un intenso trabajo realizado en diversas reuniones regionales y con la participación de los representantes de las 164 instituciones afiliadas a la Asociación Nacional de Facultades y Escuelas de Contaduría y Administración, A.C. (ANFECA), se conformaron y consolidaron los indicadores y estándares de calidad que regirán el proceso de autoevaluación de los planes y programas de estudio de las instituciones de Educación Superior de contaduría y administración, para su acreditación.Fortaleciéndose la revisión bibliográfica anterior con los resultados

REVISION BIBLIOGRÁFICA

La acreditación de programas académicos, como un medio para reconocer y asegurar la calidad de la educación superior, tiene su antecedente inmediato en los procesos de evaluación que adquirieron importancia creciente en el mundo a partir de la década de los años ochenta, ellos se ha manifestado en las políticas y programas que han emprendido los gobiernos de todo el orbe, apoyados por organismos internacionales como la Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura UNESCO, y la organización para la cooperación y desarrollo económicos OCDE. La Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura (UNESCO) se fundo el 16 de noviembre de 1945, su obra radica en la creación de condiciones propicias para un dialogo entre las civilizaciones, las culturas y los pueblos fundado en el respeto de los valores comunes, por lo tanto se espera que este dialogo mediatice con el mundo para forjar concepciones de un desarrollo sostenible que suponga la observancia de los derechos humanos, el respeto mutuo y la reducción de la pobreza

Dada la importancia de la ANUIES, este organismo no gubernamental, es reconocido por la sociedad y sus instituciones como una elevada representatividad del sistema educativo superior del país, así mismo como el principal interlocutor en materia de educación superior en México, cuya opinión es tomada en cuenta para la elaboración de políticas de estado para su desarrollo y financiamiento, así mismo, es ampliamente reconocida por organismos internacionales para el desarrollo de proyectos de intercambio y de cooperación académica, es incubadora de proyectos estratégicos que generan cambios y propician el desarrollo sustentable de la educación superior, se encarga de la realización de proyectos que articulan los esfuerzos de las instituciones afiliadas tendientes a preservar, promover y difundir la riqueza cultural regional y nacional, en el marco de la cultura universal, desempeña un papel importante en el fortalecimiento de los organismos de planeación de la educación superior en las entidades federativas, también ejerce una participación activa en el establecimiento de estándares de calidad y en los procesos de planeación, evaluación y acreditación en la educación superior, cuenta con criterios académicos bien definidos por tipo de institución, para ingresar y permanecer en la Asociación y por otro lado apoya a las afiliadas en el mejoramiento de su desempeño, por lo que la pertenencia a la Asociación representa un motivo de prestigio y orgullo para las instituciones de educación superior, es una Asociación Heterogénea que responde a los variados intereses o necesidades de las instituciones y de los subsistemas. (http://www.anuies.mx/la anuies/que es/vision.php)

Entre los objetivos estratégicos que pretende, son principalmente los de cumplir cabalmente con la misión de la misma así como los siguientes objetivos que son los de la promoción del mejoramiento integral y la cobertura de los programas y servicios que ofrecen las instituciones afiliadas, realizar estudios estratégicos sobre la educación superior para prever los cambios sustentando la toma de decisiones, articulando los intereses académicos y administrativos de las instituciones asociadas, representándolas antes instancias gubernamentales y no gubernamentales tanto nacionales como extranjeras propiciando la cooperación, internacionalización e intercambio académico de sus miembros, aportando soluciones a las problemáticas de la educación superior y opciones para su desarrollo con calidad y la promoción de proyectos y actividades interinstitucionales que propicien la convergencia de intereses en los ámbitos nacional, regional y estatal. (http://www.anuies.mx/la anuies/que es/objetivos.php)

Como podemos ver la ANUIES ha realizado aportes significativos para la creación de organismos y definición de programas orientados al desarrollo y consolidación de la educación superior, entre los que se encuentran la coordinación nacional para la planeación de la educación superior (CONPES), la cual se creo en 1978 como una instancia que establece lineamientos y políticas generales que son la base para el desempeño del SINAPPES.(http://www.ciees.edu.mx/ciees/quesonciees.php#objetivos)Ahora, con la intención de dar confiabilidad y certeza de la capacidad técnica y operativa de los organismos especializados dedicados a la acreditación de programas académicos, la ANUIES acordó en 1997 impulsar la creación por parte de la CONPES de un organismo no gubernamental cuyo propósito fuera regular los procesos de

acreditación, por otro lado la sociedad civil también demandaba la fundación de un organismo que garantizara la operación de procesos confiables, oportunos y permanentes para el mejoramiento de la calidad de la educación, como respuesta a todo lo anterior y después de realizar un amplio proceso de análisis para definir su estructura, composición y funciones, a finales de 2000 fue instituido formalmente el consejo para la acreditación de la educación superior A.C. COPAES. (http://www.copaes.org.mx/home/Origen.php)

El COPAES es la instancia capacitada y reconocida por el Gobierno Federal, a través de la Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP), para conferir reconocimiento formal a favor de organizaciones cuyo fin sea acreditar programas académicos de educación superior que ofrezcan instituciones públicas y particulares, previa valoración de su capacidad organizativa, técnica y operativa, de sus marcos de evaluación para la acreditación de programas académicos, de la administración de sus procedimientos y de la imparcialidad del mismo. La labor de reconocimiento de organizaciones acreditadoras por parte del COPAES está en estrecha relación con las funciones que desarrollan las autoridades educativas, los organismos profesionales y académicos, y particularmente, las instituciones de educación superior, tanto pública como particular. (http://www.copaes.org.mx/home/Antecedentes.php)

El reconocimiento que el COPAES otorga permite la regulación de los organismos acreditadores y los procesos de acreditación en las diversas áreas del conocimiento, con el objeto de evitar posibles conflictos de intereses y de informar a la sociedad sobre la calidad de un programa de estudios de nivel superior, particularmente a los posibles alumnos, padres de familia y a los empleadores.El COPAES es una asociación civil de carácter no gubernamental cuya misión es contribuir al aseguramiento de la calidad de los programas académicos que se ofrecen en las instituciones públicas y particulares de México, mediante el reconocimiento formal de las organizaciones de acreditación que demuestren la idoneidad, calidad y confiabilidad de sus procesos y resultados, y que desarrollen sus funciones y procesos con base en los Lineamientos y en el Marco General para los Procesos de Acreditación de Programas Académicos de Nivel Superior, establecidos por el mismo Consejo.

El Consejo tiene el objetivo general de fungir como una instancia capacitada y reconocida por el Gobierno Federal para conferir reconocimiento formal a favor de organizaciones cuyo fin sea acreditar programas académicos de educación superior que se ofrezcan en instituciones públicas y particulares. Entre los objetivos específicos se encuentra la promoción de la superación constante de los umbrales de calidad de los programas de educación superior, mediante el desarrollo de procesos de acreditación eficaces y confiables, el reconocimiento formal de las organizaciones acreditadoras de programas académicos de educación superior que lo soliciten, previa evaluación de sus capacidades, procedimientos e imparcialidad, la coadyuvancia con las autoridades educativas en su propósito de elevar y asegurar la calidad de la educación superior y la promoción de la información a la sociedad sobre los indicadores de la calidad de la educación superior.

Tiene como funciones la elaboración de lineamientos y criterios para reconocer formalmente a las organizaciones acreditadoras de programas académicos, la formulación de un marco general para los procesos de acreditación de programas académicos, la evaluación formal de las organizaciones que soliciten reconocimiento como organismo acreditador de programas académicos, propiciar un mejor conocimiento de la educación superior mediante la difusión de los casos positivos de acreditación, con el propósito de orientar a la sociedad sobre la calidad de los programas de educación superior, supervisar que los criterios y procedimientos que empleen los organismos acreditadores, reconocidos por el Consejo, tengan rigor académico e imparcialidad, dar seguimiento a las actividades de los organismos acreditadores reconocidos por el Consejo, a solicitud de las partes, intervenir como mediador de buena fe en controversias entre los organismos acreditadores reconocidos y las instituciones de educación superior, propiciar la coordinación, cooperación y complementación de los organismos acreditadores reconocidos, fomentar la creación y consolidación de organizaciones acreditadoras de programas académicos que

cubran debidamente las diversas disciplinas, profesiones y áreas del conocimiento, celebrar convenios con las autoridades educativas federales y estatales para los fines propios del Consejo y establecer contacto con organismos análogos de otros países para intercambiar experiencias.

El COPAES asume su función de contribuir al aseguramiento de la calidad de los programas de educación superior, orientando sus acciones de acuerdo con los siguientes principios; prestar servicios a la sociedad sin fines de lucro, respetar el marco jurídico de los organismos acreditadores reconocidos formalmente por el consejo, garantizar que los organismos acreditadores, en el desarrollo de los procesos de acreditación, respetaran y preservaran la naturaleza y régimen jurídico de las instituciones de educación superior, registrarse estrictamente por criterios académicos, conducirse con imparcialidad y escrupuloso sentido ético, ser objetivo en el análisis y verificación de su objeto de acción, proceder colegiadamente en la toma de decisiones y emisión de dictámenes, hacer transparentes sus fines, metodología, procesos y productos, así como su administración y fuentes de financiamiento, coadyuvar al aseguramiento de la confianza en la rectitud de sus procedimientos y resultados e informar a la sociedad sobre los organismos acreditadores reconocidos formalmente, así como los programas académicos acreditados por éstos. (http://www.copaes.org.mx/home/Principios.php)

La década de los cincuenta fue un periodo singular para la educación superior en nuestro país, pues se crearon trece universidades estatales, nueve institutos tecnológicos, la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES). Por ello, es importante resaltar que el hecho de instituir estas asociaciones fue verdaderamente trascendente, pues cumplieron ampliamente con el objetivo de impulsar el desarrollo y fortalecer la educación superior.Con este sentido nace la Asociación de Facultades y Escuelas de Comercio, Contabilidad y Administración de la República Mexicana (AFECCARM), cuyos propósitos claramente definidos se pretendían desarrollar al integrarse como Asociación, lo que quedó establecido en el Artículo 1 de sus estatutos donde se menciona que: "La AFECCARM es un órgano filial de la ANUIES, cuyo objetivo es agrupar a los directores de esos planteles, para promover la adopción y aplicación de medidas tendientes a mejorar la preparación académica y profesional de los Contadores Públicos y Licenciados en Administración de Empresas."

(AFECCARM, 1960: 143)Después de un intenso trabajo realizado en diversas reuniones regionales y con la participación de los representantes de las 164 instituciones afiliadas a la Asociación Nacional de Facultades y Escuelas de Contaduría y Administración, A.C. (ANFECA), se conformaron y consolidaron los indicadores y estándares de calidad que regirán el proceso de autoevaluación de los planes y programas de estudio de las instituciones de Educación Superior de contaduría y administración, para su acreditación.En 1996, los estatutos se modifican y la ANFECA se convierte en asociación civil, con el propósito fundamental de "concederle En ese mismo año, dentro del marco de la XXXVI Asamblea Nacional de la ANFECA, la Asociación instituyó dentro de su estructura el Consejo de Acreditación de la Enseñanza de la Contaduría y la Administración (CACECA); su creación se debió a la necesidad de contar con una instancia que evaluará los programas académicos de las instituciones afiliadas a la ANFECA.(Cfr.http://www.caceca.org/portal/index.php?option=com content&view=article&id=4&Itemi d=4, consultado el 28 de febrero de 2009.En la XLV Asamblea, celebrada en 2004, se anunció que CACECA obtuvo, por parte del Consejo para la Acreditación de la Educación Superior, A.C. (COPAES), el reconocimiento como organismo evaluador independiente, por lo que en ese año se separó de la ANFECA, para continuar con sus actividades de manera autónoma. CACECA se constituyó como la Asociación que asume el compromiso y la responsabilidad de diseñar los procesos formales de la Acreditación que den respuesta e imagen a sus afiliados ante la sociedad.

(http://www.caceca.org/portal/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3&Itemid=2) Dentro de la filosofía institucional, se encuentra la misión de Crear una cultura de evaluación que permita impulsar la mejora continua de los programas académicos impartidos en las instituciones de educación terciaria, en las áreas de contabilidad, administración y otras afines, con calidad y pertinencia académica en el ámbito nacional e internacional. La visión es que todas las instituciones de educación terciaria que impartan programas académicos en las áreas de contaduría, administración y otras afines, que decidan efectuar el proceso de acreditación reciban un servicio profesional de calidad que les permita impulsar la mejora continua de sus programas académicos y acceder al reconocimiento y prestigio social. (http://www.caceca.org/portal/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=5&Itemid=5)

METODOLOGÍA

El objetivo de este trabajo es el destacar la importancia de las acreditaciones para establecer la calidad en la educación superior con la aplicación del método descriptivo observacional para lo cual se realizó la indagación bibliográfica.

RESULTADOS

El beneficio principal de la acreditación consiste en mejorar el desempeño de las instituciones de educación superior, entendida ésta como la capacidad de respuesta para satisfacer las demandas y expectativas de la sociedad con servicios educativos de calidad.

En el caso de las instituciones públicas se obtienen financiamientos externos para aquellos programas educativos acrditados.

CONCLUSIÓN

Con este articulo nos podemos dar cuenta del impacto que tiene la acreditación en los programas educativos de Contaduría y Administración, ya que el ser egresado de una Licenciatura que este acreditada podríamos decir que tienen las actitudes, conocimientos y habilidades para desempeñarse en un entorno de alta tecnología y una economía global que da la pauta a la internacionalización de la educación.

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METODOLOGÍA PARA LA IMPLEMENTACIÓN DE PROGRAMAS DE EMPRENDEDORES A TRAVÉS DE LA VINCULACIÓN DE LAS UNIVERSIDADES Y LAS ESCUELAS DE NIVEL BÁSICO, PARA FOMENTAR LA CULTURA EMPRENDEDORA EN LA NIÑEZ

Francisco Meza Hernández, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California-Campus Mexicali Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California-Campus Mexicali Adelaida Figueroa Villanueva, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California-Campus Mexicali Gloria Muñoz del Real, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California-Campus Mexicali

RESUMEN

La presente investigación pretende demostrar y ofrecer la metodología estratégica para impulsar el fomento de la cultura emprendedora en la niñez, a través de los vínculos entre las universidades y escuelas básicas de nivel educativo. El mundo actual requiere nuevas formas de planear e implementar proyectos productivos que permitan crear empresas, empleos y oportunidades de progreso a millones de personas sin ocupación. Sin lugar a duda la falta de oportunidades tiene preocupados a todos los niveles educativos; por lo que las universidades y otras instituciones educativas establecen programas de emprendedores para que sus egresados no solo sean empleados, sino emprendedores exitosos en todos los ámbitos. El futuro y el presente para cualquier gobierno es: apostarle a su niñez, deseando que todo lo invertido hoy en ellos, el día de mañana se refleje en hombres y mujeres exitosos y felices. Tomando en cuenta la temprana edad de los niños donde deben aprender los valores para la vida; es ahí donde existe un gran campo de oportunidad para fomentar la cultura emprendedora. La experiencia, perfil y profesionalismo de las universidades les permite llevar la dirección de forma vinculada y conjuntamente con las escuelas de nivel básico para fomentar la cultura emprendedora.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Emprendedores, Cultura, Niñez

INTRODUCCIÓN

En la actualidad, los gobiernos han externado su gran preocupación por la falta de empleos y oportunidades para millones de personas y futuras generaciones, lo cual provoca problemas principalmente de tipo económico y social. Ante esta problemática las universidades e instituciones de educación de distintos niveles educativos se han abocado a promover, impulsar e implementar programas de emprendedores que contribuyan a la creación de empresas, empleos, el promover el auto-empleo y fomentar la cultura emprendedora en sus estudiantes y egresados. Ante la temática expuesta, problemática y propuestas en la actividad del emprendimiento, cabe destacar la experiencia, perfil y profesionalismo de las universidades dentro del ámbito educativo, para que de forma ideal, sean las universidades las conduzcan programas de emprendedores en escuelas de nivel básico.

De igual manera, los gobiernos promueven y protegen los derechos de los niños, invirtiendo en ellos; los recursos necesarios para que reciban educación y de calidad, para que el día de mañana se conviertan en hombres y mujeres competitivos, de éxito y felices, lo cual indudablemente se reflejará en el progreso y bienestar del país. Ante este contexto, la aportación y participación de las universidades para fomentar la cultura emprendedora en general; se presenta en esta investigación, la metodología para la implementación de programas de emprendedores mediante la intervención de las universidades vinculando a las escuelas de nivel básico para contribuir al fomento de la cultura emprendedora en la niñez Mexicana. Este modelo aplicado en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Campus Mexicali de

la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California y la Escuela Primaria Federal "Gabriela Mistral", a los alumnos de sexto grado de nivel básico de primaria pública, continua vigente aun, esperando culminar con éxito al mes de abril de 2011 en su implementación y resultados. Asimismo se contó con la extraordinaria participación de la Fundación Educación Superior Empresa quienes aportaron los recursos financieros para realizar este proyecto. Cabe destacar que este modelo está basado en la fundamentación educativa, donde refleja que a través de la aplicación de métodos lúdicos, es donde se transmite de la mejor manera el aprendizaje y conocimientos a los niños. Por eso, es importe resaltar que este programa lleva implícito y mancomunadamente, el objetivo de fomentar la cultura en la niñez de forma lúdica y profesional, para lograr resultados positivos y exitosos desde su implementación hasta los resultados.

REVISIÓN LITERIARIA

Para realizar esta investigación, se examino y plasmo el significado de algunos conceptos y establecer la definición de temas, que se consideran necesarios identificarlos, para brindar una mejor comprensión del tema de investigación tratado en el desarrollo de esta investigación. Cultura.- De conformidad con el diccionario de la Real Academia Española, cultura significa: Conjunto de modos de vida y costumbres, conocimientos y grado de desarrollo artístico, científico, industrial, en una época, grupo social, etc. Cultura emprendedora.- La cultura emprendedora está estrechamente ligada a la iniciativa y a la acción. Las personas dotadas de espíritu emprendedor poseen la capacidad de innovar; tienen voluntad de probar cosas nuevas o hacerlas poseen la capacidad de innovar; tienen voluntad de probar cosas nuevas o hacerlas de manera diferente. Sin embargo, el que llamamos cultura emprendedora conlleva un aspecto mucho más amplio de actitudes positivas. La cultura emprendedora supone querer desarrollar capacidades de cambio, experimentar con las ideas propias y reaccionar con mayor apertura y flexibilidad. Alumnos.- Para efectos de esta investigación, se entiende como Alumnos.- A los niños de las escuelas de nivel básico participantes en el programa de emprendedores objeto de estudio de esta investigación.

Asesor(es).- Para efectos de esta investigación, se entiende como Asesor(es).- A los estudiantes universitarios que participan en el programa de emprendedores para capacitar y asesorar a los alumnos de las escuelas primarias objeto de estudio de esta investigación. Escuelas de nivel básico.- Para efectos de esta investigación, se entiende como Escuelas de nivel básico.- Las escuelas primarias objeto de estudio de esta investigación. En México las escuelas primarias abarcan seis grados de estudio. Fomentar.- De conformidad con el diccionario de la Real Academia Española, fomentar significa: Excitar, promover, impulsar o proteger algo. Lúdico.- De conformidad con el diccionario de la Real Academia Española, lúdico significa: Perteneciente o relativo al juego.

Programas de emprendedores.- Para efectos de esta investigación, se entiende como Programas de Emprendedores.- El establecimiento de actividades y competencias a desarrollar, que fomenten la cultura emprendedora en los estudiantes. Tutor: Para efectos de esta investigación, se entiende como Tutor.- Al docente universitario responsable del programa de emprendedores vinculado a escuelas de nivel básico

METOLOGÍA

El objetivo fundamental de este estudio es presentar la metodología estratégica, a través de un modelo de trabajo que permita a los interesados, implementar programas de emprendedores dirigidos a escuelas de nivel básico para fomentar la cultura emprendedora en la niñez. Dado que es un programa que requiere su aplicación directa en las escuelas de nivel básico fue necesario establecer un marco de referencia apropiado y acorde al tipo de alumnado que se requiere atender. Asimismo aprovechando la experiencia y perfil de las universidades se estableció una metodología profesional de formulación de planes de negocios dirigido en esencia a los niños, con el enfoque dual de aprender-jugando. De igual manera al concluir todas las actividades previamente programadas y eventos realizados, será necesario evaluar los resultados de la implementación del programa para recabar opiniones, determinar su alcance y

efectividad, así como obtener datos que permitan fortalecer el propósito primordial de fomentar la cultura emprendedora en la niñez.

Fundación Educación Superior Empresa: Es la institución que financio el proyecto en cuatro rubros: apoyo económico para capitalizar las mini-empresas creadas por los alumnos de primaria, apoyo económico para los estudiantes universitarios, apoyo económico para el tutor y apoyo económico para desarrollar actividades en pro del fomento de la cultura emprenderá, para beneficio de los niños de la escuela participante en el programa. Para la cual, fue necesario realizar gestiones de obtención, administración, aplicación y comprobación de los recursos destinados para tal fin.

Tutor (Docente): Es el docente responsable del programa, quien tiene a su cargo las siguientes actividades: Contactar y vincular a la escuela de nivel básico que desee participar en el programa, presentar el programa, elaborar el convenio de trabajo y tiempo de entrega de resultados con directivos de la escuela, selección y reclutamiento de estudiantes universitarios, diseñar formatos de material de trabajo, impartir doble capacitación metodológica a los estudiantes para la elaboración de planes de negocios en aéreas de administración, producción, mercadotecnia y finanzas; esta misma capacitación aplicada de manera sencilla y con gran énfasis la instrucción lúdica en la niñez, establecer controles administrativos, gestión administrativa, difusión del programa, supervisión de campo, organizar expoemprendedores, gestionar visitas de los niños en las expos-emprendedoras universitarias y demás eventos necesarios, elaboración de reportes y reconocimientos, diseñar y aplicar instrumentos de evaluación de resultados y tener un estrecho acercamiento y comunicación afectiva con directivos, docentes, alumnos y padres de familia vinculados al programa.

Estudiantes universitarios (Asesores): Asignarse al programa y cumplir con actividades del programa como son: asignarse al programa, capacitarse, impartir las instrucciones a los niños de forma dual: profesional y lúdica, presentar el programa a los niños, organizar los equipos participantes, administrar todas las actividades a realizar por los niños, brindar asesoría y apoyar en las prueba-error de los productos, acompañar a los niños en los eventos internos en la escuela y extraoficiales que contribuyan al fomento de la cultura emprendedora y elaborar el plan de negocios y presentar resultados a los niños.

Directivos de la Escuela Primaria: Conocer los objetivos del programa, aceptar y firmar el convenio de vinculación para la aplicación y cumplimiento de la actividades de trabajo implícitas en el convenio, promover la difusión del programa y desarrollo del programa en los docentes, alumnos participantes, comunidad escolar y padres de familia, brindar acceso y facilidades al tutor y asesores para la implementación del programa y cumplimiento de todas las actividades en la escuela.

Alumnos de las escuelas de nivel básico: Este programa preferentemente se aplico con alumnos del sexto grado de primaria. Las actividades a realizar de forma profesional y divertida, apoyados y capacitados por los asesores son: Administración: lluvia de ideas, calificación del producto, nombre de la mini-empresa, describir la misión, valores y objetivos, elaborar el organigrama, llenar el contrato de la mini-empresa. Producción: determinación de los materiales, costos del producto, describir los utensilios o herramientas y la especificaciones y técnicas del producto. Mercadotecnia: realizar encuesta de mercado, establecer precios, diseñar logotipo de la empresa, producto, slogan, etiqueta, uniforme y gafetes, y establecer los canales de distribución. Finanzas: Determinar el capital inicial, elaborar el balance general inicial, estado de resultados y balance general final. Adicionalmente realizar pruebas-error del producto, platicar del programa con sus padres de familia, realizar las actividades asignadas y participar en la expo-emprendedores organizada por el tutor.

RESULTADOS

El ejercicio de esta investigación contempla de forma empírica comentarios positivos de: los alumnos.donde la mayoría expresaron su alegría y entusiasmo por jugar a ser empresarios en este tipo de programa. Los docentes.- han comentado que la actitud ha mejorado de manera sorprendente en los niños. Los directivos.- han comentado su deseo de que el programa se aplique de forma permanente en su primaria. En general, las autoridades universitaria, padres de familia y medios de comunicación.- han expresado las mejores opiniones por la gran aportación del fomento a la cultura emprendedora desde la etapa educativa de nivel básico, externando los votos de gratitud por la implantación del programa. El proceso de este modelo continua obteniendo resultados durante el mes de abril, para concluir con la aplicación de un instrumento de evaluación del programa, que permita recabar opiniones, determinar su alcance y efectividad, así como obtener datos que permitan fortalecer el propósito primordial de fomentar la cultura emprendedora en la niñez.

CONCLUSIONES/RECOMENDACIONES

Conocer metodologías de planes de negocio, estrategias empresariales y fomentar la cultura es tema dominado en las universidades, sin embargo para la implementación de programas de emprendedores en la niñez se requiere enfáticamente una preparación adicional que abarque conocimientos pedagógicos enfocados a nivel básico educativo, para utilizar los mejores métodos lúdicos que permitan el logro de los objetivos. La aplicación de este tipo de modelo, además de requerir de docentes y estudiantes universitarios con conocimientos y experiencia en programas de desarrollo de emprendedores, también se requiere contar con actitud proactiva, simpatía, empatía, tolerancia, trato amable, convivencia y respeto para y con los niños. Los gobiernos deberán aportar los recursos necesarios, para que este tipo de programas en vinculación con las universidades y escuelas de nivel básico, se aplique de forma general. De igual manera se recomienda ampliamente a las universidades la utilización del modelo expuesto en la presente investigación, para fomentar la cultura emprendedora en la niñez y brindar apoyo al gobierno y sociedad en la generación de oportunidades, creación de empresas y empleos, la promoción del auto-empleo para el desarrollo y progreso de los niños y niñas que viven un hoy incierto, con la esperanza de contar con conocimientos que fortalezcan y formen su presente y futuro.

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M.C. Francisco Meza Hernández, Contador Público con Maestría en Contaduría con énfasis en Fiscal. Docente de licenciatura y experiencia laboral en planes de negocios, aéreas: contable, costos y recursos humanos. fmh281@hotmail.com

M.C. Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Contador Público con Maestría en Contaduría con énfasis en Fiscal. Docente de licenciatura y Director de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. Experiencia laboral en aéreas de contabilidad, fiscal, auditoria, costos, nominas y seguro social. san937@hotmail.com

M.C. Adelaida Figueroa Villanueva, Ingeniero en Computación con Maestría en Ciencias. Docente de licenciatura. afigueroa@uabc.edu.mx

GESTIÓN DE STAKEHOLDERS: IMPACTO DE UN PROGRAMA DE RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL CORPORATIVA EN ENFERMOS DE DIABETES EN CHIHUAHUA, MÉXICO

Oscar Javier Montiel Méndez, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez (UACJ) Jesús Carlos Martínez Ruiz, Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua (UACH) Martha Graciela Urbina Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua (UACH) Zoila Arámbula Monreal, Centro de Bachillerato Tecnológico Industrial y de Servicios 114 (C.B.T.i.s. No. 114)

RESUMEN

La adopción de la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa (RSC) se ha convertido en un tema de interés mundial (Córdoba y Campbell, 2007). La presente investigación analiza el programa de RSC de una empresa en Chihuahua, México; poseedora del distintivo ESR, respecto a su gestión e impacto hacia un stakeholder (grupo de interés) suyo. Se aborda su estructura y experiencias al implementarlo, tanto para la empresa como para sus beneficiarios. Los hallazgos sugieren que este programa tiene un impacto positivo en la comunidad de enfermos en diabetes, por lo que se recomienda ampliar dicho programa hacia otros estados donde la empresa tiene operaciones, establecer un sistema de retroalimentación más formal de los stakeholders hacia la misma así como lograr más sinergias con sus grupos de interés, coadyuvando con ello llegar a la etapa de alineación de objetivos empresariales y sociales, a fin de apoyar a su estrategia de negocio de largo plazo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Responsabilidad social corporativa, gestión de stakeholders, empresa familiar

ABSTRACT

The adoption of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has become a topic of global concern (Cordoba and Campbell, 2007). This research analyzes a CSR program in Chihuahua, Mexico; holding the ESR certification, regarding stakeholder management. It analyzes the structure and experience when implementing it, both for the company and beneficiaries. The findings suggest that this program has a positive impact on the diabetes patients community, so it is recommended to extent this program to other Mexican states where the company operates, establishing a formal feedback from stakeholders, and achieve more synergies with other stakeholders, thereby contributing to the alignment of business and social goals, both in order to keep supporting the company's long term core business strategy.

KEYWORDS: corporate social responsibility, stakeholder management, family business

INTRODUCCIÓN

Castigar a las empresas que se comportan de manera irresponsable en su RSC puede poner en peligro su sostenibilidad no sólo por sanciones legales, sino por la propia comunidad que cada vez toma mayor conciencia (Zinkin, 2004). La RSC (también conocida como responsabilidad social empresarial, RSE) se ha convertido en un tema de interés mundial. En tiempo recientes, han ido apareciendo en el contexto internacional diversas experiencias e iniciativas, como el Libro Verde de la Unión Europea o la norma ISO26000, orientados al logro de un comportamiento empresarial ético y respetuoso con la sociedad y el medioambiente que contribuya al desarrollo sostenible. Hazlett y Mckee (2009) mencionan que a pesar de

ello, el conocimiento de cómo puede ser implementada y sostenida en una empresa la RSC, qué funciona y bajo que circunstancias y en general entendimiento de este fenómeno, sigue siendo limitado.

Para México, Cárdenas (2008) señala que la Norma NMX-SAST-004-IMNC-2004, directrices para la implementación de un sistema de gestión de responsabilidad social, tiene el objetivo de hacerla compatible con la norma ISO26000. Asimismo, por parte del Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía (CEMEFI), nueve empresas obtuvieron el distintivo Empresa Socialmente Responsable (ESR) cuando fue otorgado por primera vez en 2000, y en 2009 trescientas cuarenta y ocho lo recibieron (CEMEFI, 2010). El resto del artículo está organizado en la siguiente forma: El apartado 2 aborda la literatura concerniente al presente caso. El método de la investigación se encuentra en el apartado 3. El apartado 4 contiene al estudio de caso (empresa UM) y su modelo de RSC. La discusión, análisis e interpretación de la evidencia empírica esta contenida en el apartado 5. Las conclusiones se encuentran en el apartado 6 y el apartado 7 contiene la bibliografía.

LA EMPRESA Y LA RSC

Un problema dentro del constructo RSC es la falta de consenso entre diversos autores (Welford, 2004; Wood, 2010) sobre cuál es exactamente la responsabilidad social de una empresa. "La responsabilidad social de una empresa abarca las expectativas económicas, legales, éticas y discrecionales que la sociedad tiene de las organizaciones en un determinado momento en el tiempo" (Carroll: 1979: 500). De acuerdo a Robbins (1994) la mayor parte del debate se enfoca en dos extremos. Por un lado, el punto de vista clásico de que la única responsabilidad social de la administración es maximizar utilidades. Por el otro lado, la posición socioeconómica sostiene que la responsabilidad de la administración va bastante más allá de la obtención de utilidades, e incluye la protección y mejoría del bienestar de la sociedad.

Beddewela y Khan (2008) proponen que si las responsabilidades sociales de una empresa incluyen las que Carroll menciona, entonces la forma en la que éstas se manifiestan dentro de todos los asuntos que las empresas deben atender es una preocupación clave para muchas de ellas. Considerando Wood (1991) que aun cuando Carroll describía acertadamente como los gerentes veían sus responsabilidades sociales, no tomaba en cuenta la complejidad sociológica de sus roles y los efectos que sus acciones tenían, por lo que construyó un modelo llamado Desempeño Social Corporativo (DSC). Véase Figura 1.

El DSC es un conjunto de categorizaciones descriptivas de la actividad de la empresa, enfocándose en los impactos y resultados para la sociedad y la misma empresa (Wood, 1991). Hazlett y Mckee (2009) mencionan que las relaciones entre la gestión de los stakeholders y la RSC permanecen sin entenderse claramente, así como la evaluación de los procesos bajo los cuales esta gestión es administrada, y cómo, si es el caso, ayuda a las organizaciones en el progreso de sus esfuerzos de RSC. Para efectos de la presente investigación se utiliza la definición de Freeman: "Un stakeholder en una organización es (por definición) cualquier grupo o individuo quien puede afectar o es afectado por el logro del objetivo de la organización" (Freeman, 1984:25).

Asimismo, do Nascimento (2004) menciona tres elementos a considerar para explicar porque las empresas implementan o institucionalizan programas de RSC: a) Presión de la sociedad o de los stakeholders, donde Freeman (1984) aborda el rol que juegan los stakeholders en el proceso de toma de decisiones de una empresa y sobre como la sociedad puede demandar legitimidad y responsabilidad a éstas, ya que consumidores pueden dejar de comprar productos de la empresa, b) Percepciones de los gerentes sobre beneficios económicos de implantar programas de RSC, ya que cuando los gerentes tienen un entendimiento claro de los beneficios, pueden tomar mejores decisiones acerca de éstos (Burke, et. al., 1996) lo cual, sugiere do Nascimento (2004), son mejorar la imagen de la empresa, políticas ambientales estrictas y buenas prácticas de RSC, lo que puede prevenir costos de posibles demandas legales y reducir costos operacionales, y c) Valores sociales y ambientales de los gerentes, estando ello reflejado en los

programas de RSC de la empresa y es importante debido a que la conducta de los gerentes puede cambiar políticas y filosofías empresariales, con impactos significativos en las comunidades donde estas empresas operan.Por otra parte, Kotler y Lee (2005) proponen varias alternativas para practicar la RSC: a) Marketing con causa, aportaciones altruistas o recursos de la organización para incrementar la atención e interés hacia una causa social, b) Causas relacionadas con el mercadeo, compromiso para crear contribuciones o donativos de porcentajes de ganancias para causas específicas, c) Mercadeo social, patrocinio para apoyar campañas sociales con el fin de modificar conductas del público, d) Filantropía corporativa, mediante una contribución directa a personas o asociaciones de beneficencia o a una causa, con dinero en efectivo, donaciones materiales o proporcionando un servicio, e) Voluntariado Comunitario, apoya a empleados y público en general a donar parte de su tiempo o talento en apoyo de causas sociales, y f) Prácticas empresariales de responsabilidad social, adopta y realiza prácticas dentro y fuera de la empresa que apoyan causas sociales destinadas al mejoramiento de la comunidad en general, protección del medio ambiente, derechos humanos y de los animales.

Figura 1: Modelo de desempeño social corporativo

Principios de Responsabilidad Social	\rightarrow	Procesos de sensibilidad social	\rightarrow	Resultados e impactos del desempeño
Legitimidad: Las empresas que abusan del poder		Escaneo ambiental: Obtener información		Efectos en la gente y
que la sociedad otorga a ellas, perderán ese poder.		necesaria para entender y analizar el		organizaciones.
		ambiente social, político, legal y ético de		
		la empresa.		
Responsabilidad Pública: Las empresas son		Gestión de los Stakeholders: Compromiso		Efectos en los ambientes
responsables de los resultados relacionados		activo y constructivo en las relaciones con		naturales y físicos.
a sus aéreas primarias y secundarias de		los stakeholders		
participación con la sociedad.				
Discreción gerencial: Los gerentes y otros empleados		Gestión de cuestiones/asuntos públicos: Un		Efectos en sistemas
son actores morales y tienen la obligación de		conjunto de procesos que permiten a la empresa		sociales e instituciones.
ejercitar discreción hacia resultados socialmente		identificar, analizar, y actuar en incidentes políticos		
responsables y éticos.		y sociales que puedan afectar significativamente.		

Fuente: (Wood, 1991)

Al practicar la RSC, Osorio (2005) menciona la importancia de contar con indicadores para medir ésta, a fin de que la empresa tenga conocimiento de sus impactos, algo propuesto en el modelo de Wood en la última etapa. Siguiendo a Osorio, señala que los sistemas de verificación y control de RSC se componen de tres elementos básicos: una estructura organizacional dividida en áreas de responsabilidad, un proceso de verificación (auditoría) y un sistema de información (comunicación). Kast y Rosenzweig (1996) mencionan que la información social de las empresas puede ser definida como el esfuerzo sistemático para medir, evaluar e informar sobre el desempeño que las actividades empresariales tienen en el impacto social. Así, Chiavenato (1994) define el balance social como un instrumento para delimitar y definir la RSC, dejando de ser sólo un instrumento de información-comunicación y transformándose en un sistema de administración. Los objetivos sociales se tratan de igual manera que los económicos, lo cual afectara la toma de decisiones en la empresa. El balance social, comenta este autor, no pretende expresar un estado financiero, sino mostrar indicadores que expresan el nivel de cumplimiento de RSC.

MÉTODO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

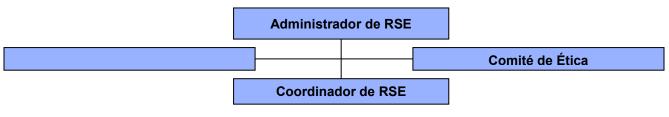
La presente investigación es descriptiva, transversal, no experimental, bajo enfoque cualitativo con la estrategia estudio de caso. Su objetivo fue describir experiencias en gestión de stakeholders como resultado de la implementación de un programa de RSC, tanto para la empresa como para el grupo de interés beneficiado. Yin (2003) menciona que el estudio de caso no representa una muestra y la meta será expandir y generalizar teorías (generalización analítica) y no enumerar frecuencias (generalización estadística). Los datos que surgen de un estudio cualitativo son descriptivos, los datos son reportados en palabras o imágenes, en lugar de números (Fraenkel y Wallen, 1990; Locke et al., 1987; Marshall y Rossman, 1989; y Merriam, 1988; en Leblanc y Gillies, 2005).

Se utilizó un muestreo dirigido. Patton (1990) menciona que la lógica y el poder de este método esta en seleccionar casos con gran riqueza y que puedan ser estudiados a profundidad. En el apartado discusión y análisis se realizó generalización analítica, recomendado por Yin (2003). Se efectuaron diez entrevistas semiestructuradas con encargados de la gestión de ESR, gerente de Recursos Humanos, beneficiarios y representantes de la asociación. La redacción del estudio de caso es de estilo "realista", donde el investigador presenta e interpreta las experiencias de los entrevistados (Van Maanen, 1988).

ESTUDIO DE CASO: EMPRESA UM Y SU PROGRAMA DE RSC

La empresa UM (el nombre de la empresa ha sido modificado a fin de respetar el acuerdo de confidencialidad suscrito con ésta) posee estructura accionaria familiar y se localiza en el estado de Chihuahua, México, quinta economía estatal. Fundada hace más de 30 años, ha contribuido al establecimiento de más de 100 corporaciones internacionales en varios estados del país. La Figura 2 muestra la estructura del depto. de RSC de la empresa.

Figura 2: Estructura del área de RSC en UM



Fuente: Documentos internos de UM

En el Tabla 1 se presentan los programas que integran la RSC en UM.

Tabla 1: Programas de la RSC en UM

Ética empresarial	Calidad de Vida en la Empresa	Vinculación y Compromiso con la Comunidad	Cuidado y preservación del Medio Ambiente
Practicas éticas de negocio	Evento "Mi Familia y yo"	Patrocinio a través de actividades culturales y deportivas	Certificaciones por cumplimiento ambiental por parte de PROFEPA
	Capacitación y adiestramiento	Colectas en beneficio de la comunidad (juguetes, libros, cobijas y ropa)	Programas de reforestación
		Platicas de motivación en diferentes escuelas	Certificación como edificio libre de humo
		Donativos en especie y en dinero	

UM menciona que su visión es lograr el desarrollo integral sustentable (económico, social, ambiental y profesional) de la empresa, sus colaboradores, cadena de valor y la comunidad donde tiene presencia, siguiendo los lineamientos del distintivo ESR (véase Tabla 2). El Distintivo ESR® es un elemento gráfico que se alcanza por medio de un proceso de autodiagnóstico, sustentado documentalmente por la empresa a través de un sistema electrónico y verificado por el Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía (CEMEFI). La RSC en la empresa se comprende y ejerce de acuerdo a esos cuatro ámbitos estratégicos.

Referente a las actividades encaminadas a la comunidad el gerente de Recursos Humanos corporativo comentó: "Se maneja mucho lo que son los donativos pero bien analizados, para que realmente brinden apoyo a mayorías, no a minorías. La compañía trabaja muy de cerca con ciertos organismos para tratar de buscar que si tú vas a dar un donativo, hazlo junto conmigo para hacerlo crecer y poder dárselo a más gente. Otra es vincular a la empresa con las comunidades donde tiene presencia, a través del municipio de Chihuahua capital se pidió a estudiantes que donaran libros de texto que no fueran a utilizar para llevarlos a la Sierra Tarahumara". Respecto a los beneficios que este programa ha representando para la empresa afirmó: "La cantidad que se dona cada año puede llegar a un millón de pesos o más, en algunos casos se dona dinero, en otros material, por ejemplo de repente nos quedamos con todo el mobiliario de alguna empresa con el que no se va a seguir trabajando y donamos todo el material de cafetería a instituciones, por ejemplo el Asilo de Niñas o de ancianos. El beneficio interno es tener una buena imagen ante los demás, ante nuestros empleados, como empresa tenemos una preocupación interna hacia la parte social, estamos integrados en una sociedad, queremos ser parte de la misma de una manera responsable, definitiva y establecida." Los obstáculos para la implementación del programa fueron internos, como las auditorias sobre su actividad de RSC que al principio ocasionaba temor entre los empleados de UM.

El Programa De Donativos De La Empresa UM

De los programas existentes se escogió el programa de Donativos debido a que la empresa autorizó total acceso. En la Tabla 2 se observa un resumen de los indicadores del programa de Donativos perteneciente al programa Vinculación y Compromiso con la Comunidad.

Personas beneficiadas directamente	Estatus del beneficiario	Impacto del donativo en el presupuesto de la organización	Uso del donativo	Costo del programa/Presupuesto total
24	Permanente (albergue)	2.5%	Pago de servicios públicos	\$ 2,018,108.00
358	Semipermanente (ciclo escolar)	0.49%	Becas	\$ 5,379,480.27
20	Permanente (albergue)	2.74%		\$ 804,000.00
25	Permanente (albergue)	8.8%	Pago de servicios públicos y combustible	\$ 250,000.00
200	Eventual	1.19%	Gastos de administración	\$ 741,200.00
40	semipermanente (temporal)	2.39%	Alimentación de internas	\$ 1,380,000.00
134	Permanente (albergue)	0.97%	Pago de titulares de grupo	\$ 5,656,800.00
52	Permanente (albergue)		Gastos de administración	\$ 1,130,000.00
450	Eventual	3.2%	Equipo y medicamento	\$ 171,600.00
120	Eventual		Pago de servicios públicos	No especifica
40,000	Eventual	0.28%	Programa educativo en escuelas	Entre \$100 y \$120 por alumno

Tabla 2:	Resumen de	indicadores	Programa	de Donativos 2008	3 UM

Fuente: Documentos internos de UM

El programa de Donativos se lleva a cabo con 14 organizaciones. Para determinar el monto de lo donado UM se basa en conocer un proyecto estructurado de la institución receptora, así como su costo real de operación. Las instituciones que solicitan algún tipo de apoyo deben llenar un cuestionario en el cual informan a UM la intención de su proyecto de ayuda así como el costo del mismo. Uno de los requisitos que deben de cumplir las instituciones es ser un organismo autorizado para recibir donativos así como expedir un recibo deducible de impuestos, otro es el grado de necesidad de la institución y esto se determina a través del cuestionario, especificando de quiénes y en qué porcentaje recibe apoyo (gobierno, empresas o particulares).

Impacto Del Programa De Donativos En La Asociación Mexicana De Diabetes, Capítulo Chihuahua, A.C.

La asociación cuenta con la ayuda de UM desde hace aproximadamente un año. Los donativos se utilizan en proveer de insulina, tiras reactivas, glucómetros así como proveer asesoría a los padres de niños y adolescentes que se acercan a la asociación: "Tenemos grupos de niños y adolescentes y tratamos de darles todo, educación y calidad de vida, platicas para ellos, tuvimos un taller que duró 4 meses donde se daban platicas de nutrición, psicología, como manejar su insulina e inyectarse. Son gente de muy bajos recursos, nos vienen a pedir pues que no tienen insulina, tiras y tratamos de ayudarles".

Respecto al entorno que viven los beneficiarios directos cuando llegan a la asociación la coordinadora continuó: "Vienen cuando están totalmente descontrolados, aunque tengan servicio de salud los médicos por lo general no se dan el tiempo para darles la ayuda que necesitan, sacarlos de dudas que traen. Tenemos una nutrióloga y un médico general educadores en diabetes, entonces se les da la asesoría [...] tuvimos un taller para padres y por ejemplo veíamos qué es la diabetes, alimentación, monitoreo, un taller

de autoestima muy importante psicológicamente para los niños y padres, es para toda la familia". La comunicación que la asociación tiene con UM así como la retroalimentación que manejan, se hace bajo un ambiente de reciprocidad, un informe libre y el ofrecimiento de platicas preventivas y exámenes sanguíneos a los empleados de UM es como el acercamiento entre ambas organizaciones se mantiene. "Estamos ofreciendo a casi todos los donadores, les ofrecemos y tomamos pruebas a su gente, pruebas de glucosa como reciprocidad, platicas de nutrición y después vamos y entregamos como salió su personal". Acerca de los donativos recibidos por parte de UM y la ayuda que esto representa para la asociación, la coordinadora comentó: "Nos ayuda muchísimo porque no tenemos otra entrada, a veces salimos "barridos". Acabamos de hacer un Bingo para recabar más fondos, la gente nos esta solicitando más insulina y tiras porque la gente ahorita no puede, no tiene economía para dárselas [...] es una enfermedad muy cara, las tiras cuestan \$350.00 pesos y duran quince días." Actualmente la asociación cuenta con cerca de 400 beneficiados y doce empresas que les aportan donativos.

Varios beneficiarios directos de la asociación compartieron sus experiencias y percepciones sobre su estancia y ayuda. "Juana", ama de casa: "Nos enseñan como se debe inyectar correctamente, los riesgos que tiene la enfermedad y su prevención, también nos dieron una platica de nutriología, mas o menos los carbohidratos que tiene que consumir, como saber los equivalentes de los carbohidratos". Adicionalmente comentó otras ayudas económicas que ha recibido: "Me han ayudado a veces cuando se me terminan las tiras que no las puedo comprar, una vez cuando se me terminó la insulina y todavía no le tocaba cita a mi hijo con el doctor para que le dieran ahí, una señora aquí, una mamá también se ofreció a dármela mientras le tocaba. Esta muy bien, hay mucha gente que lo necesita más que otra porque económicamente uno no puede y pues se les agradece, yo le tengo que comprar a mi hijo las tiras y por decir son 14 a la semana, el frasco trae 50, son 300 pesos cada quince días o a veces hasta antes, así que esta muy bien, cualquiera que sea la ayuda poca o mucha".

Por su parte "Concepción" trabaja en la farmacia de un hospital privado en la ciudad de Chihuahua. Afortunadamente puede conseguir el medicamento y lo necesario para la enfermedad de su hijo a un menor costo, no así la asesoría: "El doctor me envió aquí [...] es muy rápido cuando llegas te dan asesoría, preguntas, lo que pasa luego es que tú como mamá todo te da miedo, tardas para abrirte, tengo casi un año viniendo aquí y pues como que todavía tengo miedo, estas entre que aceptas la enfermedad y no, tienes todavía la idea que se le va a quitar". Sobre la ayuda que ha recibido por parte de la asociación comentó: "Apoyo nutricional, estuvimos viniendo a una escuelita de papás e hijos, regularmente creo que son los de reciente diagnóstico, vienen diferentes personas del medio del sector salud, recibimos apoyo psicológico, nutricional. La nutrióloga trabaja con los niños mientras tú vienes a clase para que hables de lo mismo, el niño a su edad que sepa que sí debe o que no debe comer, sintomatología de cuando tienes una hipoglucemia o una hiperglucemia. Para las que somos mamás es muy preocupante. Y llegas a aquí y pues llegas a tu casa, saben de lo que hablas, los niños se sienten identificados. Porque tú vas a una institución pública de salud y será por lo saturado que están, pero la atención no es así, individualizada. Saber que hay un lugar donde tu hijo va a ser tratado como normal. Ha sido una herramienta venir aquí".

Con respecto a las empresas con un programa de responsabilidad social, sonriente y preocupada a la vez comentó: "Que apoyen y se concientizaran más, no es posible que nuestros niños no tengan, que están iniciando una vida, entonces cada aportación que da una empresa sean 5 o 10 pesos pues son bien aprovechados. Que piensen que cada peso que dan es vida para un niño porque deberás tener un hijo en esta situación es bien difícil, súmale que no tengas el recurso, ¡peor!".

DISCUSIÓN Y ANÁLISIS

El estudio de caso sugiere que la RSC en UM es una práctica que recién inicia ya que la empresa, aun cuando menciona que la RSC es parte de su estrategia de negocio de largo plazo, aún no implementa este programa en otras ciudades del país donde tiene operaciones (solo se lleva a cabo en Chihuahua capital y en Cd. Juárez, Chih.). Las cuatro plataformas que la empresa ha diseñado en su estructura organizacional basándose en lo sugerido por el CEMEFI para dar soporte a sus actividades de RSC, sugieren que ésta, como Beddewela y Khan (2008) mencionan, ha influido en la manera en que la empresa opera actualmente, al enfocarla hacia las responsabilidades que tiene hacia sus stakeholders. Los hallazgos sugieren falta instituir de forma más clara la RSC dentro de la estrategia de negocio de largo plazo de UM, ya que al momento pareciera, como Kotler y Lee (2005) proponen, que la empresa solo "practica" la RSC, debido a que su programa de RSC aún no ha sido instituido en el resto de sus operaciones. El modelo de Wood (1991) pudiera servir a UM para tales efectos a fin de construir un conjunto de categorizaciones descriptivas de la actividad de la empresa.

Por otra parte, el programa de RSC implementado por UM otorga evidencia a lo propuesto por do Nascimento (2004): La presión de los stakeholders, por ejemplo, futuras empresas a establecerse en México que evalúen un socio comercial para tal efecto. Hazlett y Mckee (2009) mencionan que una problemática dentro de la RSC es evaluar las relaciones y sinergias entre la empresa y sus stakeholders. Los hallazgos muestran gran correspondencia entre ambas organizaciones ya que la asociación, lejos de ser sólo receptora de recursos, provee educación y asistencia a empleados de UM. Se sugiere que con este grupo de interés, UM ha logrado una sinergia.

Los hallazgos del estudio de caso sugieren que las actividades de esta empresa aún no se encuentran en lo que Chiavenato (1994) señala como el balance social, ya que a pesar de que la empresa UM cuenta con operaciones en distintos estados del país, su RSC sólo se encuentra implementada en el estado de Chihuahua. Al ampliarlo se sugiere UM pudiera llegar a la etapa de alineación de objetivos empresariales y sociales que Chiavenato (1994) comenta.

UM ha establecido para dar a conocer a los diversos actores interesados, sistemas informacióncomunicación según lo sugerido por Kast y Rosenzweig (1996), como su Informe Anual de RSC. Los hallazgos sugieren mejorar la gestión del programa de Donativos, formalizando más los sistemas de administración del mismo, como el sistema de retroalimentación para los beneficiarios, sugerido por Osorio (2005) y que a la fecha, solo se basa en el llenado de un cuestionario donde el beneficiario expresa los beneficios recibidos. La futura implementación de la Norma NMX-SAST-004-IMNC-2004, del gobierno mexicano sugiere alentara a las empresas hacia esta dirección.

CONCLUSIONES

Aunque de reciente obtención el distintivo ESR para UM, ésta cuenta ya con infraestructura institucional creada para este fin. Es necesario expandir a otras ciudades el programa de RSC, por diversos medios se ha dado mucha difusión pero no todos los empleados pueden tener una participación activa o beneficiarse con las actividades realizadas ya que residen en lugares distantes. Ello sugiere que el programa necesita institucionalizarse aún más. Se sugiere también estandarizar la retroalimentación de los grupos beneficiados, ya que algunas organizaciones lo hacen mediante escritos libres que envían a UM y no mediante la contestación de preguntas concretas para poder desarrollar objetivos más medibles. Si UM adopta el modelo de Wood e intenta continuar con la sinergia que ha logrado con la Asociación de Diabetes en todo su programa de RSC, puede lograr un enfoque proactivo a lo largo de éste y gestionar de mejor forma a todos sus stakeholders, apoyando su estrategia de negocio de largo plazo.

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CONTACTO

Mtro. Oscar Javier Montiel Méndez, Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez (UACJ), oscar.montiel@uacj.mx

UNIVERSITARIOS SOCIALMENTE RESPONSABLES Y EDUCACIÓN

Lucila Páez Tirado, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Rosalba Raquel Hernández Medina, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Patricia Guadalupe García Cabrales, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Se describen avances del programa de servicio social comunitario Cimarrones socialmente responsables, realizado por estudiantes del Tronco Común de Ciencias Administrativas y maestros de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, lo anterior se realizó en una investigación aplicada a escuelas a nivel preescolar, primaria y secundaria de colonias vulnerables en la ciudad de Mexicali, Baja California. En particular se mencionan actividades relacionadas con adopción de escuelas, Cimarrón con valores y campañas ecológicas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Responsabilidad social, Cimarrón con valores, adopción de escuelas.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Por lo tanto el objetivo de este trabajo es describir avances de la investigación acción Cimarrones socialmente responsables; Por medio de un estudio sobre el proceso educativo que involucra la acción responsable de los universitarios y encuestas prediseñadas, aplicada a los alumnos y a los Directivos de las escuelas involucradas en la investigación; con el fin de proporcionar información a Directivos y Maestros a nivel superior, sobre la importancia de sensibilizar al alumno ante la problemática social de su entorno.

A continuación se presenta la revisión literaria relevante, seguida de la metodología en esta investigación acción, en relación a resultados y conclusiones, se anticipa que únicamente se presentan avances de esta investigación, por lo tanto en la segunda fase de la misma se cubrirán dichos rubros.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Responsabilidad Social

Antecedente de los eventos de mayor trascendencia en relación a la promoción de un desarrollo sostenible de la ONU: 1972 Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas sobre el medio humano en Estocolmo, 1983 Comisión mundial sobre el medio ambiente y el desarrollo, 1992 La cumbre para la tierra, 1994-1996 La convención marco sobre el cambio climático y el convenio sobre la biodiversidad biológica y la convención de lucha contra la desertificación, 1995 Grupo intergubernamental sobre los bosques, como apoyo subsidiario de la comisión sobre el desarrollo sostenible de las Naciones Unidas, 1997 La cumbre de la tierra +5 (programa 21) División de desarrollo sostenible secretaria de la Comisión de desarrollo sostenible, 2002 Cumbre mundial sobre el desarrollo sostenible en Johannesburgo (Sudáfrica), 2005 Reunión Internacional para examinar la ejecución del programa de acción para el desarrollo sostenible de los pequeños estados insulares en desarrollo, 2010 Cumbre de la ONU para el cambio climático COP 16 en Cancún México, 2011 Reunión regional preparatoria para Rio + 20 "Cumbre de la Tierra", en Santiago de Chile para la conferencia para las Naciones Unidas para el desarrollo sostenible, Próximo evento a realizarse en 2012 Rio + 20 "Cumbre de la Tierra" Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas para el desarrollo sostenible. ("La cumbre de la tierra + 5," 1997; ONU, 2005; "ONU ya prepara Rio+20," 2011)

Todos los eventos antes mencionados fueron en pro de un desarrollo sostenible que incluye la parte ecológica, social y económica, por lo tanto y en base a los resultados obtenidos, con respecto a lo ecológico debemos duplicar esfuerzos toda la sociedad, empresas y gobierno a nivel internacional porque el daño ecológico es mayor en relación a la velocidad en la que actuamos o dejamos de actuar para no dañar ya que el planeta esta protestando "fuerte" por el trato irresponsable recibido; en relación a lo social y económico igualmente hay mucho por hacer ya que hacen falta programas de apoyo integral a las clases más necesitadas por parte de gobierno, las ONG, los programas de servicio social comunitario y profesional, proyectos de vinculación así como toda persona altruista e instituciones que deseen contribuir para regresar a los que menos tienen confianza de que no están solos y un espíritu emprendedor por parte de los que pueden crear fuentes de empleo con responsabilidad social empresarial para que mejore la situación económica de las distintas clases sociales.

En 1995, en la Cumbre para la tierra se hablo sobre "la importancia de los bosques en la moderación del cambio climático mundial y el respeto de los derechos de las poblaciones indígenas y de los habitantes de los bosques". ("La cumbre para la tierra +5," 1997), los indígenas saben más sobre el cuidado del medio ambiente, debemos respetarlos y aprender de ellos.

La agenda 21, misma que hace alusión al siglo XXI, surge en pro de un desarrollo global sustentable, presentado en Rio de Janeiro, Brasil a través de la Cumbre de la Tierra en 1992. "La agenda 21 de la cultura se inspira en las reflexiones sobre la sostenibilidad ambiental y se articula como una propuesta que describe los peligros y las amenazas que hoy sufren los ecosistemas culturales en el mundo" (Ruiz y cols., 2008)

El pacto mundial y Naciones Unidas (2006) y las redes locales (México 2008) sobre los puntos principales: Derechos humanos, derechos laborales, medio ambiente y anticorrupción, cada uno de estos puntos debe ser abordado en cada red local con una visión global hacia un desarrollo sostenible, debido al compromiso ineludible con la presente y con las futuras generaciones, ya que el daño hecho al medio ambiente se refleja a través del cambio climático, mismo que cada vez se manifiesta con mayor fuerza en respuesta al daño y descuido a nuestro planeta realizado por nosotros los seres humanos, únicos con capacidad de "raciocinio" para cambiar nuestro estilo de vida, para dar vida a nuestro planeta.

"Dicho pacto es la iniciativa de responsabilidad social con mayor trascendencia a nivel global y, por su número de participantes, la de mayor alcance en el mundo" (ONU y México, 2008)

Ban Kimon el Secretario General de las Naciones Unidas, durante la primera visita a México, menciono lo siguiente "Cuando las empresas trabajan duro para respetar los derechos humanos, los estándares laborales, el medio ambiente y la gobernabilidad corporativa, podemos confiar que habrá progresos en la lucha para mejorar nuestra sociedad y nuestro mundo". ("Responsabilidad social individual," 2008)

El consumismo es una manera de no ser socialmente responsables de nuestros actos ya que genera mucha contaminación ambiental y además estrés por querer obtener cada vez más bienes; las compras no reflexionadas en relación a la necesidad que deseamos cubrir, y sobre todo debemos cerciorarnos si dicha necesidad es real o fue creada en un proceso de mercadotecnia para beneficio de quien produce dichos bienes y los intermediarios hasta hacerlo llegar al consumidor, en perjuicio de quien hace uso de ellos y la sociedad que indirectamente se ve afectada por una compra innecesaria que activa la maquinaria industrial que tanto contamina y daña a nuestro planeta. En la actualidad se han confundido los valores con el valor de las cosas, considerando erróneamente que una persona puede ser más respetable por lo que posee, que por su valía como ser humano.

Como lo menciona Vásquez: "El efecto invernadero se debe a los cambios químicos de la atmosfera generados por las acciones humanas" (2004) por este motivo y haciendo hincapié que con nuestros actos

hemos aumentado la temperatura del planeta, y lo más preocupante es que los seres pensantes de este planeta seamos los culpables del cambio climático que tanto daño ha causado a nuestro globo terráqueo y a la biodiversidad.

Otra manera de ser socialmente responsables es hacer buen uso de los recursos naturales que hoy más que nunca debemos cuidar, y promover la producción y uso de artículos reciclados que permiten desarrollar nuestra creatividad y representan un ahorro que se refleja en nuestras finanzas y a su vez es aire fresco para los pulmones de nuestro planeta.

Se vive a "espaldas de los problemas sociales" y de frente al beneficio individual. Mientras los otros no "afecten nuestra libertad individual", entonces no importan. ("Responsabilidad social individual," 2009).

Universitarios Socialmente Responsables

Los universitarios socialmente responsables, provienen de universidades donde se concientiza al alumnado sobre las necesidades sociales no cubiertas de las clases más vulnerables de su entorno, y se promueve en la medida de lo posible buscar solución a las mismas, en respuesta a la falta de equidad a través de programas de servicio social comunitario, servicio social profesional, prácticas profesionales o proyectos de vinculación, realizados a través de las valiosas aportaciones de directivos, maestros, alumnos e instituciones involucradas en una serie de acciones altruistas que benefician a la sociedad.

"Sensibilizar a los universitarios sobre los problemas sociales de su entorno; y generar en la comunidad Baja Californiana un sentido de pertenencia hacia la universidad, a través de un programa de tarea conjunta." (Alcántara, Arcos y Mungaray, 2006, pág. 198).

Así mismo los universitarios al promover acciones encaminadas hacia un desarrollo sustentable o sostenible a través de la unidad de aprendizaje Responsabilidad social retribuyen a la sociedad por los beneficios obtenidos, y a su vez aplican valores adquiridos en casa y en las aulas, al ser generadores de cambios a favor de la sociedad.

"Las Universidades deben fomentar la investigación sobre RSE y promover en las enseñanzas universitarias la incorporación de la formación en materia de Responsabilidad Social". (González, 2011)

METODOLOGÍA

Para desarrollar la competencia de la unidad de aprendizaje responsabilidad social se realizo el siguiente proceso:

Concepción

Para realizar este programa fue necesario asociar el servicio social comunitario a la currícula, en las unidades de aprendizaje Desarrollo Humano y Responsabilidad Social, ya que de esta manera las actividades realizadas para obtener la competencia de dichas unidades de aprendizaje, permite al universitario obtener una evaluación por la actividad práctica realizada y a su vez puede liberar horas de servicio social comunitario, siempre y cuando se haya asignado al programa correspondiente, por tal razón el maestro de la unidad de aprendizaje correspondiente, avisa a los alumno al iniciar el semestre que deben asignarse en el periodo correspondiente.

El nombre del programa de servicio social comunitario que surgió de unir las unidades de aprendizaje antes mencionadas, es "Cimarrones Socialmente responsables." El objetivo de este programa es concientizar al joven universitario de la importancia que tiene su participación activa en apoyo de la comunidad, ya que las actividades a realizar reforzarán sus valores, ética y compromiso social. Así mismo se busca lograr que este programa cause impacto ecológico y favorezca a su vez el desarrollo de universitarios preocupados por la salud y el medio ambiente de la población de nuestra región; este programa de servicio social fue creado por la M.A. Raquel Roa Rivera y supervisado por la Maestra Patricia G. García Cabrales.

El programa de servicio social comunitario "Cimarrones socialmente responsables" se vincula a la Delegación Mexicali del Sistema Educativo Estatal a través de la Coordinadora de Servicio Social Comunitario, M.A. Raquel Roa Rivera, creando de esta manera un macro proyecto institucional, previa revisión y aprobación del Director de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas el M.C. Santiago Pérez Alcalá

Presentación del proyecto a maestros y programación de reuniones de trabajo

Se realizaron reuniones periódicas para dar a conocer el proyecto de vinculación, coordinadas por la M.A. Raquel Roa Rivera, cabe mencionar que tanto el Director de Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, el M.C. Santiago Pérez Alcalá como el subdirector de la misma, el M.A. Ernesto Pérez Maldonado, dieron todo su apoyo para la realización de las reuniones antes mencionadas, a través de las cuales se dio a conocer el macro proyecto de vinculación a maestros de la FCA que imparten las unidades de aprendizaje Responsabilidad social y Desarrollo humano, a su vez se formaron los cuatro equipos de trabajo, integrados cada uno de los equipos por cinco maestros y sus alumnos en las unidades de aprendizaje antes mencionadas, se acordó en estas reuniones que cada equipo seria responsable de cinco escuelas, mismas que serían a nivel preescolar, primaria y secundaria, en la tabla No. 1 se describe la integración de los equipos de trabajo.

Posterior a las reuniones mencionadas los equipos de trabajo se reunieron para planear la visita a las escuelas asignadas, previa cita con los directores de los distintos planteles para poder elaborar un diagnostico sobre las necesidades de las escuelas asignadas por equipo, mismas que se hicieron llegar a la coordinación de servicio social comunitario, previa aprobación de los directores de las escuelas vinculadas.

Es importante mencionar que el diagnostico se enfocó a cubrir necesidades en tres rubros específicos: Desarrollo del medio ambiente, apoyo a infraestructura y talleres en pro de los valores y promoción de la cultura; cuando el directivo de la escuela vinculada al proyecto, aprueba las propuestas presentadas por los maestros de la F.C.A., se informa a los alumnos sobre las actividades a realizar previa motivación de los mismos, para que reflexionen sobre todo lo que se puede aportar si se trabaja en unión en pro de los que menos tienen.

El rubro de desarrollo del medio ambiente o de Campañas ecológicas de la F.C.A. incluye las siguientes actividades: Reforestación, reciclaje, rehúso, reducción, entre otras.

El rubro de Adopción de escuelas o apoyo a infraestructura por la F.C.A. integra las siguientes actividades: Rehabilitación de escuelas, apoyo de útiles escolares, entre otras.

En el rubro de Cimarrón con Valores integra las siguientes actividades: talleres en pro de los valores y promoción de la cultura.

A continuación se presentan la tabla No. 1 que nos describe la integración a los equipos de trabajo a las escuelas presentadas por el Sistema Educativo Estatal del Estado de Baja California, como las escuelas candidatas a recibir los beneficios del Proyecto de vinculación, "Cimarrones Socialmente Responsables" en relación a la vulnerabilidad de las mismas.

Equipo No.	Grupo	Maestros		Escuelas
	405	Carmen Cruz Hernández		Rufino Tamayo
	409	Adriana Ballesteros Rivera		Pablo Picasso
1	420	Ariadna Castañeda Madrid		14 de Marzo de 1803
	417	Carmen Cruz	Hernández	Mexicali
	406	Iván Lechuga Moreno		Secundaria Técnica No. 9
		-		Secundaria Técnica No. 10
	421	Margarita Salcedo Russ		Pablo Casals
	408	Margarita Salcedo Russ		Ulises Irigoyen
	403	Raquel Roa Rivera		José María Luis Mora
2	411	Fanny Ruiz Salazar		Otilia U. de Cota
	401	Patricia García Cabrales		Secundaria 47 Carlos A.Carrillo
	407	Luis ángel Polanco Aboytes		Niños Héroes
	404	Rosalba Hernández Medina		María Curie
3	416	Lucila Páez Tirado		Citlalli
5	414	Blanca G. García Cabrales		Secundaria General No. 11
	415	Blanca G. García Cabrales		Securitaria General I.O. 11
	412	Ruth Ríos González		Ramón G. Bonfil
	402	Abril Corpus Parra		Alfredo Nobel
4	419	Abril Corpus Parra		Hans Christian Adnersen
	410	Fernando Gómez de Silva		Villa Florida
	413	Alfredo Avilés García		Belisario Domínguez
	418	Zulema Córdova Ruiz		Vicente Lombardo Toledano
				Secundaria General No. 9

Tabla No. 1: Integración de equipos y asignación de escuelas.

Esta tabla presenta la integración de los equipos de trabajo que ayudarán a veintidós escuelas más vulnerables ubicadas en 15 edificios entre horarios matutino y vespertino, en la ciudad de Mexicali, Baja California según información proporcionada por el Sistema Educativo Estatal del Gobierno del Estado de Baja California en relación a la vulnerabilidad de dichas instituciones.

Inicio de actividades

El miércoles 23 de Marzo, en punto de las 9:00 a.m., arrancó el programa de Vinculación Institucional entre Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Sistema Educativo Estatal y Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, denominado ``Cimarrones Socialmente Responsables''.

El evento fue presidido por el M.C. Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Director de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, acompañado por la Delegada en Mexicali del Sistema Educativo Estatal, Maestra Aida Araceli Pereira Fonseca, el Coordinador de Formación Básica de Vicerrectoria Mexicali, M.A. Aureliano Armenta Ramírez, el Director de Desarrollo Social Municipal, Lic. Omar Rucobo López, el Subdirector de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, M.A. Ernesto Alonso Pérez Maldonado y la Directora de la Escuela Primaria ``Otilia Urea Cota´´, Maestra Marisa Pacheco López, Escuela de la Col Hidalgo, donde tuvo lugar el arranque del Proyecto.

El beneficio será para 22 Escuelas de Educación Básica de preescolar, primaria y secundaria, ubicados en las colonias Santo niño, Hidalgo, Villa Florida y los Naranjos, mismos donde se cubrirán tres principales rubros: Desarrollo del medio ambiente, apoyo a infraestructura y talleres en pro de los valores y promoción de la cultura. En este programa asociado a la currícula en las unidades de aprendizaje Responsabilidad social y Desarrollo humano, participan más de seiscientos alumnos del tronco común de la FCA, coordinados por veinte maestros que imparten dichas unidades de aprendizaje, en la tabla No. dos se describe el diagnostico y programación de actividades del equipo No. 1 integrado por alumnos y docentes de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas de la UABC, la programación de actividades corresponde a cuatro escuelas de la Colonia Santo niño del total de las quince seleccionadas por su vulnerabilidad por el Sistema Educativo Estatal de Baja California en la Ciudad de Mexicali, y en la tabla

No. tres se describen actividades de la Escuela José María Luis Mora donde se inauguró el proyecto de vinculación.

Tabla No. 2: Diagnostico y programación de actividades en cuatro escuelas vulnerables de la Colonia Santo niño.

Escuela	Campañas ecológicas	Adopción de escuelas	Cimarrón con valores
Rufino Tamayo 02DJN0421N Zona 07	Limpieza de áreas verdes 29 de Abril de 2011	Pintura base a paredes para hacer los cinco murales en las mismas 29 de Abril de 2011	Pintura y diseño de 5 murales con personajes de caricaturas, con mensaje sobre el valor de la limpieza 29 de Abril de 2011
14 de Marzo de 1803 02DPR0766X Zona 11	Limpieza de áreas verdes	Trabajo de herrería en cajones de refrigeración, que se habilitarán para sus trabajos de mantenimiento.	Taller sobre valores
		Pintura exterior de cinco edificios de aulas.	
Secundaria Técnica 9	Reforestaciones de áreas verdes 50 árboles. 25 de Marzo	Reubicación de lámparas del tejaban de la escuela. 29 de Abril de 2011 Pintura interior de baños y pintura de 5 paredes destinadas a los mensajes de valores. 29 de Abril de 2011	Promoción de los siguientes valores: Honestidad Responsabilidad Limpieza 29 de Abril de 2011
Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas Director Santiago Pérez Alcalá	En la F.C.A. se realizan campañas ecológicas a través de otra unidad de aprendizaje. En esta tabla se Proporciona información sobre el diagnostico aprobado por los Directores de cuatro de las quince escuelas que ya empiezan a beneficiarse de este proyecto de vinculación, como ejemplo la reforestación de cincuenta arboles entre otras actividades realizadas por los Universitarios de la FCA de la UABC.	Talud -Limpieza y remoción -Adecuación del área para embellecer los espacios de la F.C.A., Formando las siglas UABC en el espacio denominado Talud de nuestra Facultad que se diseñará con piedra decorativa 25 de Marzo y 8 de Abril/2011	Se promueven los valores a través de las actividades que realizan los universitarios en la Facultad y en otras escuelas.

En esta tabla (No. 2) se Proporciona información sobre el diagnostico aprobado por los Directores de cuatro de las veintidós escuelas que ya empiezan a beneficiarse de este proyecto de vinculación, como ejemplo la reforestación de cincuenta arboles entre otras actividades realizadas por los Universitarios de la FCA de la UABC.

Cabe señalar que el proyecto de vinculación tiene como objetivo apoyar a los planteles de Educación Básica más vulnerables, así como desarrollar en los universitarios valores y actitud humanística, solidarizándolos con su entorno; esto como parte de la Política Institucional de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, misma que tiene como eje principal la Formación Integral del estudiante.

La organización de este Proyecto de Vinculación que se llevará a cabo semestralmente, está liderada por el Director de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, M.C. Santiago Pérez Alcalá, así como por más de 20 maestros que imparten las unidades de aprendizaje Responsabilidad Social y Desarrollo Humano.

2011

Escuela	Campañas ecológicas	Adopción de escuelas	Cimarrón con valores
	-Encalar todos los arboles.	-Delimitar la cancha de fútbol	-Taller de valores
	-Plantar 10 arboles	con cal.	Respeto, responsabilidad,
	 Limpieza del patio. 	-pintar puertas de cada uno de	tolerancia, amistad, trabajo en
	-Plantar flores.	los salones.	equipo, honestidad, solidaridad y
José María Luis Mora	-Quitar y colocar llantas en el	-poner tapas para los apagadores	humildad.
	patio.	de los salones.	-Lotería forestal
		-Señalamiento de cada salón.	-manualidades ambientales.
	Actividades realizadas el sábado	-Donación de material deportivo.	-Presentación de videos sobre el
	02 de Abril de 2011.	-Donación de diccionarios y	cuidado del agua.
		cuentos.	-
		Donación de material para	Actividades a realizar en Abril
		impermeabilizar dos aulas.	de 2011.
		Actividades para Mayo/2011	

Tabla No. 3: Actividades de la escuela donde se realizo la inauguración y arranque del proyecto.

En esta tabla se describen las actividades realizadas y por realizar en la Escuela José María Luis Mora en la Colonia Hidalgo, misma que fue sede para la inauguración del proyecto de vinculación y la primer escuela que recibió benefícios del proyecto.

RESULTADOS

Debido a que en esta ponencia se están proporcionando únicamente avances de este proyecto de vinculación, nos limitamos a describir el proceso de avance del mismo, pero de antemano se puede mencionar, de acuerdo a dialogo con maestros, alumnos y directivos de las instituciones educativas involucradas que visualizamos resultados muy favorables.

CONCLUSIONES

Como se mencionó en el punto correspondiente a resultados, únicamente se manifiestan avances del Proyecto de Vinculación y Programa de servicio social comunitario Cimarrones Socialmente Responsables, en la segunda fase de la investigación acción se mencionarán las conclusiones.

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BIOGRAFIA

Lucila Páez es maestra de asignatura en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Páez se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: <u>lucy_paez@hotmail.com</u>

Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera es maestra de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Roa se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: raqueloliviaroa@hotmail.com

Rosalba Raquel Hernández Medina es maestra de medio tiempo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Hernández se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: <u>Rosalba@uabc.mx</u>

Patricia Guadalupe García Cabrales es maestra de asignatura en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra García se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C. P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: patygarcia@hotmail.com

<u>Escuela</u>	Campañas ecológicas	Adopción de escuelas	<u>Cimarrón con valores</u>
	-Encalar todos los arboles. -Plantar 10 arboles -Limpieza del patio.	-Delimitar la cancha de fútbol con cal.	-Taller de valores Respeto, responsabilidad, tolerancia, amistad, trabajo en
José María Luis Mora	-Dimpeza del patio. -Plantar flores. -Quitar y colocar llantas en el patio.	 -pintar puertas de cada uno de los salones. -poner tapas para los apagadores de los salones. -Señalamiento de cada salón. 	equipo, honestidad, solidaridad y humildad. -Lotería forestal -manualidades ambientales.
	Actividades realizadas el sábado 02 de Abril de 2011.	-Donación de material deportivo. -Donación de diccionarios y cuentos. Donación de material para impermeabilizar dos aulas.	-Presentación de videos sobre el cuidado del agua. Actividades a realizar en Abril de 2011.
		Actividades para Mayo/2011	ue 2011.

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BIOGRAFIA

Lucila Páez es maestra de asignatura en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Páez se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: <u>lucy_paez@hotmail.com</u>

Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera es maestra de tiempo completo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Roa se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: raqueloliviaroa@hotmail.com

Rosalba Raquel Hernández Medina es maestra de medio tiempo en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra Hernández se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C.P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: <u>Rosalba@uabc.mx</u>

Patricia Guadalupe García Cabrales es maestra de asignatura en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas. La Maestra García se puede contactar en, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Boulevard Rio Nuevo y Eje Central, C. P. 21330, Mexicali, Baja California, México, correo: patygarcia@hotmail.com

EL DESARROLLO DE CAPACIDADES TECNOLÓGICAS Y LA VINCULACIÓN CON INSTITUCIONES EDUCATIVAS Y GUBERNAMENTALES EN LAS PYMES DE LA INDUSTRIA METALMECÁNICA DE LA REGIÓN CENTRO DE COAHUILA, MÉXICO

Elvira Velarde López, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México Edna de la Garza Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México Eunice Coronado Rojas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila-México

RESUMEN

En el escenario actual de un mundo globalizado, se están presentando cambios muy relevantes con nuevos retos para los países en desarrollo; en un mundo donde los empresarios buscan nuevas estrategias que permitan a las firmas ser competitivas, predominando el interés en la capacidad innovadora y las diferentes formas de vinculación y de transferencia del conocimiento que impulse a las empresas a adquirir más capacidades tecnológicas. El presente trabajo tiene como objetivo analizar la relación entre el nivel de desarrollo de las capacidades tecnológicas y la vinculación que se tiene con instituciones educativas y gubernamentales, en las pequeñas y medianas empresas (Pymes) de la industria metalmecánica de la región centro del estado de Coahuila. Para lograr el objetivo mencionado, la metodología consistió en obtener información cuantitativa de 50 Pymes del sector y región mencionados, mediante un cuestionario estructurado, analizando posteriormente los datos a través del software estadístico SPSS, aplicando la herramienta de Cross Tabs. El análisis arrojó resultados estadísticamente significativos, entre otros, para una relación entre los niveles de desarrollo de las capacidades de inversión y el nivel de importancia que le dan las empresas a la participación en proyectos conjuntos con centros de capacitación y con organismos gubernamentales.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Capacidades tecnológicas, vinculación, Pymes.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Actualmente, las universidades han dejado su rol pasivo y aislado para asumir un papel empresarial cada vez más dinámico, vinculándose estratégicamente a los agentes involucrados en el desarrollo económico mundial, lo que ha derivado en el surgimiento de dos nuevos conceptos que son interdependientes entre sí: la Triple Hélice y la Tercera Misión de la universidad. Las universidades deben comprometerse con el desarrollo regional y nacional a través de la I&D estableciendo mecanismos de intercambio de conocimiento y transferencia de tecnología para la innovación y competitividad (Zawdie, 2010).

Existe evidencia de que en las Pymes de la industria metalmecánica, motor económico de la región centro del estado de Coahuila, las capacidades de vinculación son las que tienen mayor problema en lo que se refiere a su desarrollo (Velarde, 2010), lo cual indica la necesidad de continuar efectuando estudios sobre los vínculos entre universidad-empresa-gobierno, que sean útiles en la toma de decisiones en cuanto a estrategias y políticas para el fomento de las mencionadas capacidades en las empresas de la región. Por otro lado, el estudio en las Pymes en México se justifica por el hecho de que representan el 98% de unidades económicas, participa con el 73% de personal ocupado y con el 34.7% del producto interno bruto (INEGI, 2010). De lo anterior se deriva el objetivo principal de este estudio: analizar la relación que

existe entre el nivel de desarrollo de capacidades tecnológicas y la vinculación con las instituciones educativas gubernamentales en las Pymes de la industria metalmecánica de la región centro en Coahuila.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El presente trabajo de investigación está fundamentado en la teoría de la transferencia del conocimiento, definida por Dawson (2000) como el proceso mediante el cual el conocimiento propiedad de un individuo, grupo o entidad emisora es comunicado a otro individuo, grupo o entidad receptora, la cual tiene una base de conocimiento similar a la de la entidad emisora. De acuerdo a Zozaya (2006), "la circulación del conocimiento en general se puede establecer en varias direcciones propio de la complejidad del sistema y estructura de redes que lo sostiene"; las redes de transferencia: se caracterizan por agrupar entes, personas u organizaciones que tienen como fin intermediar y/o trasladar el conocimiento producido a las redes sociales/culturales y están íntimamente ligados a los procesos de innovación tecnológica y desarrollo científico.

Capacidades Tecnológicas

En una empresa manufacturera la eficiencia de operación radica en el nivel de experiencia que tenga y de las capacidades que se van adquiriendo a través de los procesos de aprendizaje, capacidades que pueden ser de tres tipos: empresariales, gerenciales y tecnológicas. Las capacidades empresariales son las habilidades de los empresarios en cuanto a experiencia, motivación e impulsos necesarios para emprender una inversión industrial con tecnologías modernas; las capacidades gerenciales (o administrativas) y las tecnológicas se refieren a los insumos administrativos y tecnológicos necesarios (Gonsen, 1996).

Aún cuando las capacidades tecnológicas se consideran un concepto intangible, algunos autores coinciden en que el concepto se refiere a la información y las habilidades tanto técnicas, como gerenciales e institucionales, que permiten a las empresas productivas asimilar, usar, adaptar y cambiar su equipo y tecnología eficientemente, tanto para los ya existentes como para crear nuevas tecnologías y desarrollar nuevos productos y procesos (Biggs, et al., 1995; Kim, 1997; Jonker, 2002); implica además la experiencia humana y mecanismos y vínculos institucionales apropiados (Huq, 2002). Por otro lado, Bell y Pavitt (1995) se refieren a las capacidades tecnológicas como los recursos necesarios para generar y administrar el cambio técnico: a) conocimiento, habilidades y experiencia; y b) estructuras institucionales y vínculos dentro de las firmas, entre las firmas y fuera de las firmas.

Bell y Pavitt (1995) desarrollaron un marco analítico ilustrativo de las Capacidades Tecnológicas Industriales, basado en el marco que desarrolló Lall (1992). Los autores distinguen en la matriz tres tipos de capacidades tecnológicas que se pueden desarrollar a través de las funciones de inversión, de producción y de soporte; éstas últimas consisten en desarrollar los vínculos con otras organizaciones y en producir los bienes de capital incluyendo elementos de nuevas tecnologías creadas en la misma empresa.

Arias y Dutrénit (2003) hicieron una modificación a la matriz de Bell y Pavitt (1995), determinando tres funciones de soporte: la vinculación externa, la vinculación interna y modificación de equipo ya que utilizaron la mencionada matriz en empresas con sucursales. Por otro lado, Domínguez y Brown (2004) utilizaron la Encuesta Nacional de Empleo, Salarios, Tecnología y Capacitación (ENESTYC), en la cual se basaron para la construcción de 26 variables relacionadas con la funciones de inversión, producción y vinculación de las empresas. En Velarde y Araiza (2010) se trabajó con una clasificación basada en la matriz de Bell y Pavitt (1995), con una modificación en el sentido de que no se incluye la clasificación de las funciones de soporte, derivándose directamente en las capacidades de vinculación y las de fabricación y adaptación de maquinaria y equipo. Esta última se utilizará en el presente trabajo.

Capacidades de inversión: De acuerdo con Biggs *et al.* (1995), las capacidades de inversión son conocidas como las habilidades y la información necesaria para identificar proyectos de inversión viables, para localizar y comprar apropiadas tecnologías, para el diseño e ingeniería de la planta y para la

dirección y ejecución del proyecto. Romijn (1999) se refiere a estas capacidades como las habilidades y conocimiento requeridos para apoyar las actividades de selección, adquisición e instalación de nuevo equipo. Lall (1992) las define como las "…habilidades necesarias para identificar, preparar y obtener tecnología para el diseño, la construcción, el equipamiento y el personal de un nuevo producto".

Capacidades de producción: Según Biggs *et al* (1995), Lall (1992) y Romijn (1999), son las habilidades y el conocimiento necesario para la operación y mejoramiento de la planta o equipo adquirido por la firma, por lo que cuando una empresa invierte en cualquier tipo de tecnología como estrategia competitiva, realmente deberá desarrollar las capacidades adecuadas de producción. Arias y Dutrénit (2003) las definen como "…las habilidades para lograr la competitividad sostenida que requiere el cambio técnico después de la inversión inicial en las instalaciones de producción".

Capacidades de vinculación: Consisten en desarrollar las habilidades necesarias para el intercambio de información, tecnología y destrezas con otras empresas e instituciones (Lall, 1992; Bell y Pavitt, 1995; Domínguez y Brown, 2004; Jonker *et al.* 2006).

Capacidades de fabricación y adaptación de maquinaria y equipo: Bell y Pavitt (1995) las definen como las habilidades y el conocimiento requeridos para mejorar y modificar la tecnología existente y para crear nueva tecnología. Caniëls and Romijn (2003) las denominan capacidades de innovación.

Varios modelos han servido de base para el estudio de diferentes aspectos relacionados con los vínculos entre los tres agentes: universidad, empresa y gobierno, entre los cuales cabe mencionar: i) el modelo lineal, en el cual la transferencia tecnológica de una universidad a una empresa se considera como un proceso conformado por una secuencia lineal de etapas (Siegel *et al.* 2004); ii) modelo de la Triple Hélice (Etzkowitz y Leydesdorff, 2000), desarrollado en tres versiones sobre los vínculos de los principales actores en los sistemas de innovación regionales, siendo en la tercera versión donde las instituciones, además de las funciones que le son propias, también asumen funciones de las otras instituciones; y iii) modelo *catch up* (Kim, 2000) – basado en la imitación y captación de tecnología creada por un tercero.

La mejora de las capacidades de vinculación en la firma es influenciada por diversos factores, tales como las políticas de gobierno hacia la educación en ciencia e ingeniería principalmente, esfuerzos dentro de la empresa para promover el aprendizaje y la disponibilidad de mecanismos que apoyen el aprendizaje a nivel micro, externos a la empresa, a los cuales la empresa puede recurrir mientras construye sus capacidades (Biggs, et al, 1995). De acuerdo con Mowery (1983), un CTID puede atraer contratos de I&D con el sector productivo, dependiendo de su eficiencia operativa, es decir, de sus posibilidades de explotar la posible existencia de economías de escala internas, pero también está determinada por las propias capacidades tecnológicas de la empresa con la que realiza los contratos; por otro lado, los CTID sólo pueden establecer vínculos de colaboración efectivos con aquellas empresas que tengan un nivel de capacidades tecnológicas relativamente avanzado (Merritt, 2007).

METODOLOGÍA

Las pequeñas y medianas empresas de la Región Centro del Estado de Coahuila, dedicadas a la industria metalmecánica, son el universo al cual se enfoca la presente investigación y el empresario es la unidad de observación. Se trabajó bajo un enfoque cuantitativo con una muestra por conveniencia de 50 empresas de la población total de 153 unidades; la información se obtuvo a través de entrevistas cara a cara a los empresarios de las pequeñas y medianas empresas mediante la aplicación de un cuestionario estructurado durante el año 2007, se probó la confiabilidad del instrumento, habiendo obtenido un coeficiente de .959 (Alpha de Cronbach). Se procedió a capturar y procesar los datos cuantitativos a través del SPSS, utilizando la estadística descriptiva, para obtener la caracterización de la muestra. Así mismo, se utilizaron tablas de contingencia (*cross tabs*) para establecer asociaciones entre las variables en estudio.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados obtenidos de los datos de la encuesta aplicada a los empresarios de la muestra no arrojaron resultados estadísticamente significativos a un nivel de confianza del 95% para el cruce de todos los indicadores de las capacidades tecnológicas con las capacidades de vinculación con instituciones educativas y gubernamentales, a excepción de los que se presentan a continuación:

Niveles de desarrollo de capacidades de inversión y la importancia de participación en proyectos conjuntos con centros de capacitación.- (significancia aprox.: .000, Chi Cuadrada .714) sugiriendo una relación positiva.

Niveles de desarrollo de capacidades de inversión y la importancia de la participación en proyectos conjuntos con organismos gubernamentales.- (significancia aprox.: .045, Chi Cuadrada .670) – sugiriendo una relación negativa.

Niveles de desarrollo de capacidades de fabricación y adaptación de maquinaria y equipo y la importancia de participación en proyectos con organismos gubernamentales.- (significancia aprox.: .045, Chi Cuadrada .670) - se aprecia una relación negativa.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados encontrados estadísticamente significativos con respecto a la relación positiva de las capacidades de inversión y los centros de capacitación, sugieren que las políticas gubernamentales y de calidad existentes sobre los programas de capacitación para las empresas, propician ese incremento en las mencionadas capacidades, indicando la necesidad de continuar o diseñar nuevas políticas que vayan encaminadas a la capacitación a través de instituciones externas a las empresa. Las relaciones negativas estadísticamente significativas resultantes para la participación en proyectos conjuntos con organismos gubernamentales con las capacidades de inversión y de fabricación y adaptación de maquinaria y equipo, indican la necesidad de replantear o rediseñar políticas y proyectos gubernamentales efectivos que se trabajen conjuntamente con las empresas, enfocadas más directamente al desarrollo de sus capacidades tecnológicas. Además, se recomienda como línea de investigación futura, analizar las condiciones de los vínculos existentes entre los tres actores universidad-empresa-gobierno, con el propósito de generar conocimiento en torno a los procesos de transferencia de tecnología, identificando factores que propicien y que inhiben esos procesos.

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MODELO DE COMPETITIVIDAD BASADO EN EL CONOCIMIENTO: EL CASO DE LAS PYMES DEL SECTOR DE TECNOLOGÍAS DE INFORMACIÓN EN BAJA CALIFORNIA

Eduardo Ahumada-Tello, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Juan Manuel Alberto Perusquia Velasco, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Martha Elena López Regalado, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Robert Efraín Zárate Cornejo, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Alfonso Vega López, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Los organismos públicos y privados que fomentan la creación de clústeres, inciden en la necesidad de determinar los ejes de competitividad que se pueden aprovechar en cada uno de ellos. El caso del clúster del software que emerge del de tecnologías de información, es de entre todos uno de características especiales, puesto que el personal que en él labora debe contar con capacidades técnicas que exigen un cierto conocimiento y formación en el área lógica-matemática de las ciencias computacionales. Este documento presenta una propuesta de investigación en la que se estudia el capital intelectual de las empresas del sector, los mecanismos de business intelligence (inteligencia empresarial) que se pueden desarrollar y la influencia de la asociación sectorial entre empresas del sector con el fin de analizar su competitividad desde un enfoque basado en la gestión del conocimiento.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Capital intelectual, competitividad, inteligencia empresarial, agrupamiento sectorial, gestión del conocimiento.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En una sociedad globalizada, la competitividad se ha convertido en un tema central en el enfoque social hacia los nuevos paradigmas sociales, culturales, económicos y políticos. Las consecuencias de las decisiones que se toman en las esferas gubernamentales afectan inherentemente la calidad de vida de los habitantes de una región, territorio o nación. Es por ello que los estudios sobre cualquier situación económica o social se debe abordar desde una perspectiva sistémica, la cual, por su propia naturaleza ayuda a comprender el fenómeno estudiado desde varios niveles o perspectivas. Recientemente, varias naciones han vertido sus esfuerzos en desarrollar su poderío económico aprovechando el potencial de las personas que habitan su territorio. Dichas naciones han logrado un singular crecimiento de su economía, aunque no en todos los casos esta mejora se ha visto reflejada en la calidad de vida de la ciudadanía.

El caso de Irlanda e Israel, países que en un tiempo relativamente corto han logrado incrementar su Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) en proporciones notables, refleja una replicación de este crecimiento en las personas, mas no así el de la India, que a su vez ha tomado medidas para crecer, pero que desafortunadamente no ha logrado llevar los beneficios de su desarrollo económico a todos los niveles socioeconómicos de su sociedad.En esta investigación, se estudia el tema de la competitividad desde el modelo sistémico (Esser, Hillebrand, Messner, & Meyer-Stamer, 1996) adecuado a la perspectiva de la gestión del conocimiento, esto con la finalidad de estudiar este modelo pero limitarlo hacia los ejes que sustentan una sociedad basada en temas de generación y transferencia de elementos que den valor a la industria en una nación. El enfoque de la investigación es de naturaleza mixta y se centra en el sector de Tecnologías de Información (TI) en la ciudad de Tijuana, B.C., donde se identifican ciento veinticinco

empresas en el sector y a las cuales se les hace el estudio donde se busca relacionar variables de carácter individual como el capital intelectual, de carácter empresarial como el business intelligence (inteligencia de negocios) y finalmente, uno de tipo consensual que es el agrupamiento sectorial.

Antecedentes

El sector de las Tecnologías de Información (TI) es una industria con características únicas y particulares que sustentan su crecimiento en el desarrollo de capital humano con alto nivel de conocimiento (Dawn Metcalfe & Rees. J., 2005), mejoran las condiciones económicas de los países que adquieran capacidad para llevar a cabo un desarrollo adecuado de las mismas (Diaz de Sarralde, Garcimartin, & Rivas, 2005) y ofrecen ventajas significativas sobre otros sectores industriales y de servicios (Castells, 2002). Entre las características que diferencian a este sector industrial podemos enlistar las siguientes:

- Su naturaleza estriba en el capital humano y en la empresa que auto aprende.
- Se requiere del uso intensivo del conocimiento.
- Requiere recurso humano calificado.
- Genera empleos bien remunerados.
- Promueven la innovación tecnológica.
- Promueven la participación gubernamental en el desarrollo de políticas que mejoren las condiciones para el crecimiento del sector.
- Algunas áreas de las tecnologías de información no tienen problemas de logística, como es en los casos del desarrollo de software y de los servicios de outsourcing.
- Forman parte de un sector económico dinámico

El desarrollo de los agrupamientos sectoriales, comúnmente denominados "clústeres" en Baja California se ha convertido en un mecanismo reconocido de articulación para el desarrollo de empresas de conjuntos de sectores afines; el caso de tecnologías de información es particularmente reconocido, no solo por el auge de las actividades que contempla en el entorno nacional y global, sino particularmente por haber sido el primero que en el caso de Baja California inició un proceso de conformación y estrategia de articulación formal (Plascencia & Alcalá, 2008). Durante el año 2002, bajo las propuestas de la Cámara Nacional de la Industria de la Electrónica, Telecomunicaciones e Informática (CANIETI), el Gobierno del Estado de Baja California (GEBC) y de las empresas dedicadas al desarrollo de TI se desarrolla el estudio estratégico para la conformación del "clúster" de este sector, teniendo continuidad en 2003 para la definición de la estructura para la creación de una asociación civil impulsora del agrupamiento que recibe el nombre de Clúster de Tecnologías de Información de Baja California (ITBaja), misma que tiene como premisa la promoción y desarrollo de actividades para el fortalecimiento del sector (ProduCen, 2007).

Las TI constituyen un eje importante para mejorar las condiciones económicas de los países menos desarrollados ya que ofrece ventajas sobre otros sectores, gracias a que es intensiva en conocimiento, requiere recursos humanos calificados, genera empleos bien remunerados, propicia la innovación tecnológica y las inversiones iniciales en infraestructura requieren poco capital financiero, además de existir apoyos gubernamentales para tales proyectos (ProduCen, 2007). Las posibilidades que ofrece este sector son respaldadas con las experiencias de países como la India, Israel, Irlanda y Canadá que han logrado insertarse en la economía mundial, cubriendo distintas áreas de oportunidad en esta industria. México cuenta con algunas condiciones favorables para convertirse en un competidor mundial en este ramo, tales como: ubicación geográfica, perfil demográfico y estado de desarrollo tecnológico. Los expertos señalan que antes de que la industria nacional salga a competir a los mercados internacionales, es necesario fortalecer la demanda interna así como incrementar las capacidades de las empresas (Ania & Mejía, 2007).

En este sentido, las industrias de tecnologías de información así como el mercado interno se encuentran en un nivel muy incipiente. Según datos estimados por la compañía norteamericana Microsoft durante el año 2003, en México la demanda de soluciones tecnológicas apenas representa un diez por ciento del mercado total de las TI en comparación con Canadá donde el mercado de soluciones y servicios representa un poco más del veintidós por ciento del mercado de TI (Casalet M. , 2007). En forma contraria a la situación mexicana los países desarrollados con altos niveles de demanda para las TI no logran satisfacerla de manera autónoma, por lo cual requieren importar servicios externos. Dicha situación fue reconocida por el gobierno mexicano, al identificar las ventajas de la ubicación geográfica del país, y el perfil demográfico de su población en la formulación de estrategias de desarrollo para consolidar al sector del software de manera competitiva dentro del marco económico nacional e internacional (Casalet M. , 2007).

En el Plan Nacional de Desarrollo 2001-2006 el gobierno mexicano se planteó el objetivo de elevar y ampliar la competitividad del país a través de la promoción, uso y aprovechamiento de las Tecnologías de la Información y Comunicación (TIC) además de aprovechar los beneficios económicos del enorme crecimiento de la industria de software a nivel mundial. Para el 2002 instauró como política sectorial el Programa para el Desarrollo de la Industria del Software (PROSOFT) que tiene como finalidad consolidar competitivamente la industria del software en el país y posicionarla a nivel mundial entre las de mayor desarrollo para el 2013 (ProduCen, 2007). Baja California es uno de los estados más dinámicos del país debido a su fuerte actividad económica, la cual es impulsada por la estrecha interacción con el resto del mundo, especialmente con su vecino del norte: Estados Unidos. Esta actividad se ve influenciada por la recepción de grande flujos migratorios procedentes del sur del país, los cuales llegan en busca de cruzar a los Estados Unidos o de un empleo mejor remunerado.

Estas particularidades son la clave para que la economía de Baja California muestre una dinámica diferente al resto de México (Plascencia & Alcalá, 2008).La estructura económica de la entidad está orientada fuertemente hacia actividades manufactureras y comerciales que contribuyen, respectivamente un poco más del dieciocho y del veintiocho por ciento del PIB estatal. Plascencia y Alcalá (2008) "es de los estados fronterizos más beneficiados con la prácticas de industrialización orientadas a la exportación bajo diversas modalidades de subcontratación", existiendo un claro predominio de las actividades industriales del sector de la maquila. Las industrias que están recibiendo mayor impulso son las clasificadas en las fases "embrionarias" y de "crecimiento". En la primera se ubican las industrias de electrónica especializada, partes aeroespaciales, biotecnología y semiconductores. En tanto en la segunda figuran las de productos médicos, software y auto partes (ProduCen, 2007). La industria del software es considerada como una industria emergente en fase de crecimiento. La iniciativa de TI se orienta a las industrias de software de alto valor y a las proveedoras de servicios externos de soporte a procesos de negocio (Business Process Outsourcing: BPO), siendo este uno de los principales clústeres a impulsar por parte del estado por considerarlo de alta tecnología.

Un factor estratégico para el crecimiento de estos sectores y en particular el de TI es el diseño de programas de fomento a la innovación basado por un lado en la creación de capacidades para la innovación, desarrollo de tecnologías y su comercialización; por otro la conformación de capital humano en investigación, desarrollo y diseño. Ambos considerados como elementos centrales para la construcción de nodos locales de innovación (Plascencia & Alcalá, 2008). La conformación de clústeres como un tipo de agrupamientos empresariales en sectores estratégicos, también es una parte de las acciones que se realizan por parte de los gobiernos y de la sociedad en general para lograr generar mejores opciones de desarrollo económico (Hualde, 2009). Dentro del mismo sector de tecnologías de la información, surgen subsectores que se distinguen aun mas por sus características distintivas, como lo es el del software, este requiere particularmente, personal capacitado, procesos de business intelligence e inclusive acciones de agrupamientos, puesto que se fundamenta en el conocimiento que los individuos que lo conforman poseen (Hualde & Gomis, 2007).

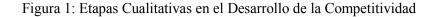
REVISIÓN LITERARIA

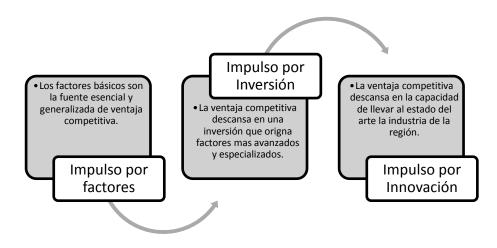
Competitividad: La competitividad se define como la capacidad de generar una mayor producción al menor costo posible. La competitividad es un atributo o cualidad de las empresas, no de los países. Está determinada por cuatro atributos fundamentales de su base local: condiciones de los factores; condiciones de la demanda; industrias conexas y de apoyo; y estrategia, estructura y rivalidad de las empresas. Tales atributos y su interacción explican por qué innovan y se mantienen competitivas las empresas ubicadas en determinadas regiones (Porter & Kramer, 2002). Eso muchas veces involucra costos sociales. Por ejemplo, México sostiene durante un largo periodo una hegemonía competitiva en el sector maquiladora durante las décadas de los ochentas y noventas, debido principalmente a los bajos salarios y a las facilidades gubernamentales para la instalación de industrias (Lee & Jung-Chi, 2003); China es ahora una opción con mayores ventajas para la producción industrial, debido principalmente a la fuerza laboral con la que cuenta y a los bajos sueldos. El análisis debe incluir el sistema educativo, la infraestructura tecnológica y de comunicaciones, las leyes laborales, las instituciones públicas, el sistema financiero, los usos y costumbres culturales entre otros aspectos determinantes (Fajnzylber, 1988).

La característica de una organización es lograr su misión, en forma exitosa para tener ventaja sobre otras organizaciones competidoras. Se basa en la capacidad de satisfacer las necesidades y expectativas de los clientes o usuarios de sus productos y/o servicios, en su mercado objetivo. Todo esto de acuerdo a la misión específica para la cual fue creada (Porter M. E., 2003). La competitividad también se define como la capacidad que tienen las empresas para producir bienes de mejor calidad con relación al precio, producir bienes de menor precio con relación a la calidad y producir bienes de alta calidad con características únicas, altamente valoradas por los consumidores.

El aumento de la competitividad internacional constituye un tema central en el diseño de las políticas nacionales de desarrollo socioeconómico. La competitividad de las empresas es un concepto que hace referencia a la capacidad de las mismas de producir bienes y servicios en forma eficiente reduciendo costos y aumentando calidad, haciendo los productos atractivos, tanto dentro como fuera del país. Para ello, es necesario lograr niveles elevados de productividad que permitan aumentar la rentabilidad y generar ingresos crecientes (IMCO, 2006). Una condición necesaria para ello es la existencia, en cada región, de un ambiente institucional macroeconómico estable, que transmita confianza, atraiga capitales, tecnología y genere un ambiente nacional productivo y humano que permita a las empresas absorber, transformar y reproducir el conocimiento, la tecnología así como adaptarse a los cambios en el contexto internacional que le permita exportar productos con mayor agregado tecnológico. Tal condición necesaria ha caracterizado a los países que, a su vez, han demostrado ser los más dinámicos en los mercados mundiales (Casalet M., 2002b).

Productividad: La productividad se puede definir como una variable dependiente usada en la estimación, para el modelo del nuevo Índice de Competitividad Global (GCI, por sus siglas en inglés) es el nivel del Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) per cápita, ajustado por la paridad del poder de compra (PPP, por sus siglas en inglés). El PIB per cápita es la medida más ancha de la productividad nacional y es fuertemente entrelazado a través del tiempo con el estándar de vida de la nación. Este es el único y mejor sumario de la medida del desarrollo de un país disponible en todos ellos alrededor del mundo. El enfoque en la productividad refleja la meta de identificar las determinantes de una prosperidad sustentable, si ellos operan a través de entradas como las habilidades y el capital o a través de la eficiencia (Porter, Delgado, Ketels, & Stern, 2008).





Fuente: Porter M., 1990

Conocimiento: El conocimiento surge cuando un ente lleva a cabo la percepción de que su propia experiencia y capacidad le ha dado la posibilidad de interpretar información que esté recibiendo en un momento determinado (Zapata-Cantú, 2004). El conocimiento deriva de información, así como la información deriva de los datos. Existe una relación directa entre datos, información y conocimiento. Si la información se transforma en conocimiento, entonces ha ocurrido la intervención de una persona. Las acciones de generación del conocimiento se producen en los seres humanos (Davenport y Prusak, 2001). Las Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación (TIC), aun a pesar de su capacidad de procesamiento de datos y creación de información, no pueden crear el conocimiento, este solo es posible a partir de la intervención de un ser humano (Bueno, 2000).

Tipos de Conocimiento: En la literatura se pueden encontrar diferentes formas de tipificar los conocimientos. Entre los más conocidos está la división del conocimiento tácito y explícito o también llamado codificado, sin embargo, existen algunos otros como vemos en la tabla 4, donde se mencionan estas divisiones y los principales autores que han tomado esa vertiente.

Tabla 1: Tipos de Conocimiento

Tipología	Autores
Tácito y explícito	Nonaka y Takeuchi (1999)
Individual y colectivo	Spender y Grant (1996)
Externo e interno	Andreu y Sieber (1999)
Saber-como, saber-que, saber-porque.	Garud (1997)

Fuente: Zapata-Cantú, 2004

Gestión del Conocimiento:En el nuevo ámbito de la llamada economía del conocimiento, la gestión del conocimiento (GC) se ha convertido en uno de los principales temas de investigación y, en el paradigma de gestión por excelencia, en el campo de la organización y gestión de instituciones empresariales. Los siguientes autores remarcan la importancia de la GC acorde con la siguiente:

"Todas las organizaciones saludables generan y usan conocimiento. A medida que las organizaciones interactúan con sus entornos, absorben información, la convierten en conocimiento y llevan a cabo acciones sobre la base de la combinación de ese conocimiento y de

sus experiencias, valores y normas internas. Sienten y responden. Sin conocimiento, una organización no se podría organizar a sí misma [...]." (Davenport y Prusak, 2001)

"Entramos ahora en un tercer periodo de cambios: el giro desde la organización basada en la autoridad y el control, la organización dividida en departamentos y divisiones, hasta la organización basada en la información, la organización de los especialistas del conocimiento". (Druker, 2003)

"[...] la capacidad de una compañía para generar nuevos conocimientos, diseminarlos entres los miembros de la organización y materializarlos en productos, servicios y sistemas. La creación de conocimiento organizacional es la clave del proceso peculiar a través del cual estas firmas innovan. Son especialmente aptas para innovar continuamente, en cantidades cada vez mayores y en espiral [generando ventaja competitiva para la organización]". (I. Nonaka y H. Takeuchi, 1999)

Tabla 2. Principales usos y razones de adopción de la GC

Uso de la GC	Razones para la adopción de la GC
Capturar y compartir nuevas prácticas	Retener los conocimientos de los empleados
Formación y aprendizaje organizacional	Mejorar satisfacción de los clientes
Gestión de relaciones con los clientes	Incremento de los beneficios
Desarrollar inteligencia competitiva	Iniciativas de E-Business
Proporcionar un espacio de trabajo	Acortar ciclos de desarrollo de productos
Gestionar la propiedad intelectual	Proporcionar espacios de trabajo
Realzar publicaciones web	
Reforzar cadena de mando	

Fuente: Milam, 2001

El sector de Tecnologías de Información: El sector de tecnologías de información software en Baja California tiene grandes ventajas frente a otros Estados de la República Mexicana debido principalmente a que se tiene como vecinos a la economía consumidora de tecnologías más importante del mundo: los Estados Unidos de América. Quien utiliza todo tipo de tecnologías y de software además de que actualmente presenta ciertos problemas con proveedores asiáticos de servicios en materia tecnológica debido en cierta medida a las diferencias geográficas y de horarios.

Baja California cuenta con elementos que le presentan como una alternativa viable para convertirse en un proveedor de servicios de este gran mercado. Algunas características ya presentes son: el manejo del idioma inglés, una aceptable infraestructura promedio de comunicaciones e Internet, y un proceso de aculturación que ha surgido durante la convivencia tradicional en la frontera. Los usos y costumbres de ambas partes son plenamente conocidos además de que se cuenta con un antecedente de transferencia tecnológica por la industria maquiladora. Estas ventajas proveen la posibilidad de tomar una participación importante en el valioso mercado de consumo tecnológico que posee el vecino del norte, y que de acuerdo con datos oficiales, se perfila en el orden de los 5 mil millones de dólares en exportación de software proyectados por el gobierno para 2013 en el Programa Nacional de desarrollo de la Industria del Software (PROSOFT), motivo por demás justificado para replantear las estrategias de competencia que se tienen en las empresas de tecnologías de información.México cuenta con los elementos necesarios para sustentar su progreso económico en el aprovechamiento de las oportunidades en el mercado de TI, acorde con los estudios realizados en el observatorios de tecnologías (Gartner, 2010). Se cuenta con las siguientes áreas de oportunidad:

- Capacidad de manejo de lenguaje
- Soporte gubernamental
- Fuerza de trabajo y Sistema Educativo
- Costos y compatibilidad cultural
- Madurez legal y global
- Privacidad y seguridad en información sobre internet

El sector de TI en México :En México, el mercado de las TI está poco desarrollado. En 2005, este mercado llegó a USD \$ 8,254 millones, de los cuales el software en paquete alcanzó los 817 millones de dólares y los servicios sumaron 2,311 millones de dólares, casi tres veces más que aquél. Las compañías tienen un tamaño muy inferior al del promedio internacional, que es de 250 empleados, y se identifican grandes desigualdades entre ellas. Junto a un puñado de grandes empresas, sobre todo extranjeras y algunas nacionales, varios cientos de Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (PYME) desarrollan principalmente servicios a la medida. Además, en el sector del software desarrollado por las firmas especializadas tiene un valor mucho menor que el que elaboran universidades, instituciones públicas y grandes empresas no especializadas en software (Casalet M., 2007).

Para desarrollar la industria, la Secretaría de Economía diseño en 2002 el Programa para el Desarrollo de la Industria del Software (PROSOFT), con siete estrategias, que van desde el diagnóstico hasta el apoyo para el desarrollo de proyectos de las empresas. PROSOFT, con sus limitaciones, ha permitido a los empresarios desarrollar proyectos para remediar carencias tecnológicas y organizativas así como mejorar los procesos productivos de las compañías. En 2004, el presupuesto erogado por el programa sobrepasó los 13 millones de dólares. En 2005 el monto distribuido aumentó a más de 18 millones de dólares. Y el número de proyectos se incrementó de 68 en 2004 a 81 en 2005.

El sector de TI en Baja California

De acuerdo con los resultados de la investigación llevada a cabo por la empresa Deloitte acerca de las capacidades a empresas en el estado de California en Estados Unidos como se ilustra en la tabla 3, se cuenta con información acerca de la naturaleza de los clientes potenciales de las empresas que pertenecen al sector de Tecnologías de Información (Deloitte, Inc., 2004).

Industria	%
Software	24.39
Computadoras y periféricos	12.20
Internet	9.51
Ciencias de la vida	29.76
Equipos semiconductores	9.51
Comunicaciones y redes	14.63

Fuente: Deloitte, Inc., 2004

La industria del software rebasa los 153,000 millones de dólares de los cuales Estados Unidos es el principal productor y consumidor, con un gasto superior a los 75,000 millones de dólares anuales y una participación de 48.8% en el total mundial. Sin embargo, en la actualidad ese dominio comienza a perder

Tabla 4: Gasto mundial (mi	nillones de dólares) relacionado	a tecnología 2005 – 2008
----------------------------	----------------------------------	--------------------------

Concepto	2005	2006	2007	2008
Servicios en general	828,487	892,738	961,598	1,037,907
Software	211,340	228,022	246,021	264,997
Hardware	424,200	456,500	488,600	518,700
Gasto en Ingeniería	764,328	738,106	802,346	822,058

Fuente: Guerra, San Román, & Tejada, 2009

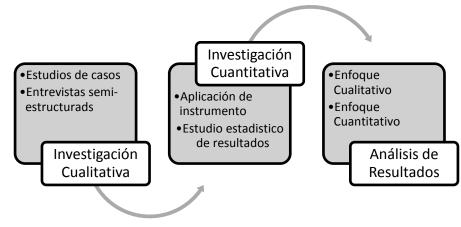
METODOLOGÍA

Introducción al proceso de investigación

La metodología del trabajo de investigación empírica tiene una estructura triple, dado las características relevantes del sector de tecnologías de información, es por ello que se lleva a cabo la siguiente propuesta metodológica para abarcar la mayor cantidad de perspectivas y opciones de la realidad en las empresas del sector que apoyen a la comprobación de las hipótesis de la investigación. Las fases de esta investigación, estriban en los siguientes aspectos que también se ilustran en la figura 44.

- o Investigación cualitativa mediante el estudio de casos
- Investigación cuantitativa mediante la aplicación de instrumentos de investigación y la realización del análisis estadístico utilizando el software de apoyo a la investigación SPSS.

Figura 22: Fases genéricas del proceso de la investigación.





RESULTADOS

Fase cualitativa:En la figura 3, se ilustran los conceptos encontrados al analizar la información de la fase cualitativa que fue recabada en las entrevistas semiestructuradas al realizar el estudio de casos. La mayoría de las empresas expresaron su interés en los conceptos mencionados, donde se realizó la agrupación de las variables de estudio.

Figura 3: Códigos Identificados en las Entrevistas Semiestructuradas

Name	Size		Author
🗱 Agrupamiento Sectorial	7		Super
🗱 Business Intelligence	9		Super
🗱 Capital Intelectual	8		Super
·			
Calidad {3-2}			
Cambio Cultural {2-4}			
Centro de Desarrollo Tecnológico {3-3}			
Certificación {1-1}			
Clúster {6-5}			
Cotiza en Bolsa {1-1}			
Desarrollo de Software {2-2}			
Desarrollo Regional {3-2}			
Educación {16-3}			
Empresa Grande {5-2}			
Empresa Internacional {3-4}			
Empresa Mediana {1-2}	~		
Entorno socio-político {1-3}		1	
Especialización {8-4}			
I+D {13-4}			
Innovación {14-2}			
Mercado Internacional {7-3}			
Mercado Local {1-2}			
Múltiples Productos {1-2}			
Planeación Estratégica {2-3}			
Propiedad Intelectual {7-3}			
Transferencia Tecnológica {2-4}			
Videojuegos {2-1}			
Vinculación {16-2}			
TERM: (("Agrupamiento Sectorial" "Business Intelliger	nce")	"Capi	tal Intelectual")

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Fase cuantitativa: En la tabla 5 muestra un concentrado en los hallazgos obtenidos de la investigación, donde se confirma la relacion de las variables independientes de estudio con la variable dependiente. Esto se ve validado por la ilustracion de la correlación de Pearson en la tabla 6 entre las variables.

Tabla 52: Sumario de la Investigación Estadística

Técnica de Análisis	Utilizada para	Hallazgos		
Análisis Estadístico Descriptivo	Describir la naturaleza de la muestra	Datos descriptivos de la muestra		
Alpha de Cronbach	Validar confiabilidad de contenido	Los elementos se validan y se aceptan para su interpretación		
Análisis Factorial Confirmatorio	Determinar el número de factores por variable	Se encuentran los valores de los factores adecuados		
Análisis de Varianza	Determinar las diferencias de las varianzas	Se encuentra relación directa positiva entre cada variable predictora y la variable independiente		
Correlación Bivariada	Determinar la correlación entre las	Existe una correlación elevada entre las variables		
De Pearson	variables de estudio	predictoras y la variable independiente		

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Tabla 6: Tabla de Correlación de Pearson

Correlations							
		VD 01 VP CAPITAL COMPETITIVIDAD INTELECTUAL				02 VP BUSINESS INTELLIGENCE	03 VP AGRUPAMIENTO SECTORIAL
	Pearson Correlation	1					
VD COMPETITIVIDAD	Sig. (2-Tailed)						
	N	67					
01 VP CAPITAL	Pearson Correlation	.743**	1				
INTELECTUAL	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.000					
INTELECTORE	Ν	67	67				
02 VP BUSINESS	Pearson Correlation	.737**	.846**	1			
INTELLIGENCE	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.000	.000				
INTELLIGENCE	N	67	67	67			
03 VP	Pearson Correlation	.800**	.638**	.623**	1		
AGRUPAMIENTO	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.000	.000	.000	1		
SECTORIAL	Ν	67	67	67	67		

Fuente: Elaboración propia**. Correlation Is Significant At The 0.01 Level (2-Tailed).

CONCLUSIONES

Las conclusiones que se presentan a continuación resultan del estudio realizado y constan de dos partes:

- Investigación cualitativa: Esta primera fase consistió en realizar una entrevista semiestructurada a catorce empresas medianas y grandes del sector de tecnologías de información en el estado de Baja California, todas ellas con alguna relación comercial, laboral, de vinculación o cualquier otra que tenga injerencia en el desarrollo económico de la ciudad de Tijuana, B.C. En base a ello, se construye el constructo donde se estipula la validez del constructo: Capital Intelectual + Business Intelligence + Agrupamiento Sectorial = Competividad.
- Investigación cuantitativa: En esta fase se aplicaron un total de 67 cuestionarios a igual número de empresas, de las cuales 23 fueron micros, 18 pequeñas, 3 medianas y 23 grandes empresas del sector de tecnologías de la información en la ciudad de Tijuana, B.C. Las variables bajo estudio se analizaron utilizando las técnicas estadísticas de Alpha Cronbach, Análisis Factorial y la Correlación de Pearson.

Ambas fases validan la importancia de estas tres áreas pertenecientes a la gestión de conocimiento con la conformación de un entorno de generación de competitividad.

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BIOGRAFIAS

Dr. Eduardo Ahumada-Tello. Coordinador del área de Programación. Catedrático de la UABC, Certificación de ANFECA y PROMEP

M.C.I. Juan M. Perusquia Velasco. Coordinador del Formación Profesional y Vinculación Universitaria. UABC, Certificación de ANFECA y PROMEP

M.A. Martha Elena López Regalado. Maestra en Administración por la UABC. Coordinador de Prácticas Profesionales. Catedrático de la UABC. Certificación de PROMEP

Dr. Robert Efraín Zárate Cornejo. Coordinador del área de Economía Internacional. Catedrático de la UABC. Certificación de ANFECA, PROMEP y miembro del SNI nivel I.

LAS PRÁCTICAS DE GESTIÓN DE LA INNOVACIÓN EN LAS MICRO, PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS: RESULTADOS DEL ESTUDIO DE CAMPO EN PIEDRAS NEGRAS COAHUILA, MÉXICO

María del Carmen Armenteros Acosta, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Manuel Medina Elizondo, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Laura L. Ballesteros Mirón, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Víctor Manuel Molina Morejón,Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

RESUMEN

La innovación es una forma eficaz para que una empresa se diferencie de sus competidores y pueda construir ventajas competitivas sostenibles. En la literatura revisada se señala que innovar, adaptar y difundir los avances tecnológicos, así como la evaluación del desempeño de las firmas en cuanto a la conducta y esfuerzos que den cuenta de la magnitud y características de los procesos innovativos es un imperativo para elevar la capacidad competitiva del sector empresarial. La estimación y medición periódica de la innovación, junto con su interpretación, juegan un rol crucial en las políticas empresariales y públicas, a pesar de sus limitaciones. Por ello, el objetivo de este trabajo es caracterizar el nivel de innovación de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas (MiPYME) del sector industrial de la Ciudad de Piedras Negras y valorar las prácticas de gestión de innovación en aquellas que son innovativas. La metodología empleada se sustentó en los estudios sobre medición de la innovación reflejados en el Manual de Oslo de la OCDE y el Manual de Bogotá de la RICYT y las funciones de la gestión de los recursos tecnológicos de Morín y Seurat y sus contextualizaciones en las investigaciones en España, y en particular en el México a través del Modelo Nacional de Gestión de Tecnología, el Premio Estatal de Centro Chihuahuense para la Calidad y la Productividad y el Premio "Tecnos" del Gobierno de Nuevo León. En el estudio de campo se aplicó una encuesta a 73 MiPYME del sector industrial para la medición de la innovación en la región de Piedras Negras y se realizó un estudio de caso en 4 de ellas, seleccionadas según el tamaño y por ser innovadoras. Los instrumentos aplicados han sido validados en investigaciones y estudios previos efectuados en México. Los resultados obtenidos permiten visualizar las diferencias en el comportamiento de la innovación de las empresas estudiadas según el tamaño y subsectores, se detectaron fortalezas y debilidades, así como las variables internas y externas que más influyen en el proceso de innovación. Dentro de las funciones de la innovación la de menor desarrollo fue la protección del patrimonio tecnológico. La información y análisis realizado permiten definir estrategias empresariales que incentiven empíricamente ambientes pro innovadores como fuente para un mejor desempeño económico y social de las empresas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Innovación, Gestión de la innovación, Evaluación de la innovación.

ABSTRACT

Innovation is an effective way to differentiate a company from its competitors and to build sustainable competitive advantages. In the reviewed literature indicates that innovate, adapt and disseminate technological advances and the performance evaluation of the firms in terms of behavior and efforts to realize the magnitude and characteristics of innovative processes is imperative to raise competitive business sector. The estimation and periodic measurement of innovation, along with his performance, plays a crucial role in business and public policy, despite its limitations. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to characterize the level of innovation of micro, small and medium enterprises (MiPYME) in the industrial sector of the city of Piedras Negras and value innovation management practices in those that

are innovative. The methodology was based on studies measuring innovation reflected in the Oslo Manual OECD and the Manual of Bogota RICYT and functions of the management of technology resources Morin and Seurat and contextualization in research in Spain and Mexico in particular through the National Model for Technology Management, the State Prize of the Chihuahua Center for Quality and Productivity Award and the "Techno" the Government of Nuevo León. In the field study is a survey of 73 MiPYME in the industrial sector for the measurement of innovation in the area of Piedras Negras and conducted a case study in 4 of them, selected by size and by being innovative. The applied instruments have been validated in research and studies conducted in Mexico. The results allow us to visualize the differences in innovation performance of the companies studied by size and sub-sectors, there were strengths and weaknesses, as well as internal and external variables that influence the innovation process. Among the functions of the less developed innovation was the technological heritage. The information and analysis to define strategies to encourage innovation as a source for better economic and social performance of companies.

KEY WORDS: Innovation, Innovation Management, Assessment of innovation:

INTRODUCCIÓN

En la actualidad, la estrategia y la innovación son elementos clave para la competitividad de la empresa y representan un elemento determinante del crecimiento económico. El Estudio de la innovación en México de la OCDE (2009); el Análisis Estratégico de las MIPYME a nivel de Iberoamérica (2009), mismo que fue realizado en diversas regiones de México: Veracruz, Aguascalientes, Durango, Coahuila, entre otros, han proporcionado datos sobre la innovación en cuanto a su grado, barreras, fuentes de información, apoyos financieros, estrategias, entre otros aspectos, que proporciona una visión integral de las PYME de las regiones estudiadas. Sin embargo, se requiere establecer marcos de análisis adecuados a las necesidades nacionales y regionales. Asi como la evaluación de la innovación, más allá de la I&D y de los indicadores de resultados, enfocada hacia los esfuerzos y actividades internas desde las funciones que incentivan la innovación y la gestión de los recursos tecnológicos como una área estratégica de las empresas. Su implementación permitirá identificar las mejores prácticas empresariales para lograr ventajas competitivas sostenibles.

Por ello, el estudio que se presenta tiene como objetivos describir las múltiples problemáticas de las MiPyME locales de piedras Negras. México, determinar empresas innovadoras, así como realizar un diagnóstico de las funciones de la gestión de los recursos tecnológicos, como forma de identificar las prácticas innovativas más exitosas de las MiPYME innovadoras. Los resultados obtenidos servirán como referencia para la elaboración de propuestas que contribuyan al diseño de políticas empresariales y públicas con el fin de estimular el desarrollo de ventajas competitivas sistemáticas, para fomentar el crecimiento y el desarrollo económico, tecnológico y social en la región.

REVISIÓN BIBLIOGRÁFICA

La comprensión de la innovación atraviesa por el desarrollo propio del concepto desde la noción del empresario innovador aislado de Shumpeter hasta el modelo de red global en la sociedad del conocimiento, pasando por el modelo lineal y el sistema nacional de innovación. (Anlló y Suárez 2008). Posteriormente ante la consolidación de grandes empresas de medianos del siglo XX se empiezan a establecer actividades formalizadas de I+D dentro de la estructura organizacional, bajo el entendido que ésta es la base para la innovación bajo un modelo lineal. La formalización de los departamentos de I+D se hizo a través de laboratorios en donde se desarrollaban los nuevos productos o procesos y luego se transferían a la producción. Igualmente podían desarrollarse estos nuevos productos o procesos en instituciones públicas, que más tarde se transferían a los usuarios, donde la empresa funcionaba como mero receptor del conocimiento generado externamente, para su aplicación. Hasta

entonces la atención que se prestaba a la innovación tecnológica de productos y procesos, que requería gastos y recursos humanos en actividades de I&D. Las fuentes de la innovación estaban en necesidades del mercado (demanda) o del propio desarrollo de las tecnologías (oferta), vinculadas a políticas industriales y científicas.

El análisis del cambio tecnológico desde la perspectiva económica a través de la teoría evolucionista (Freeman C, 1987; Nelson, R, 1996; Lundvall, 1992), conllevó a la aplicación del enfoque de sistema al estudio de la innovación en las últimas décadas del siglo XX. La innovación como objeto de investigación se mueve al conjunto de actividades científicas, técnicas, ingenieriles, comerciales, financieras, organizacionales, entre otras de la empresa; los diferentes agentes, factores del entorno y relaciones que incentivan y condicionan las decisiones y estrategias. La visión sistémica se concreta en los sistemas de innovación, nacional, regional y local, donde intervienen diversos factores y subsistemas, internos a las instituciones y del entorno; conductas y motivaciones de agentes; relaciones formales e informales; interacciones y estructuras en niveles macro, meso y micro, reflejando la complejidad multifacética de la innovación como proceso. Ello determina el carácter interdisciplinario de la temática y por tanto, las limitaciones para su estudio y para el diseño de políticas de innovación.

El contexto económico y social, desde una perspectiva territorial de la región o local, juega una papel importante en las características de la innovación como proceso de las organizaciones y como sistema de interacciones, lo cual justifica los esfuerzos que desde la Red de Indicares de Ciencia y Tecnología (RICYT) se ha realizado en Latinoamérica, cuyas teorizaciones, normalizaciones y estudios empíricos han devenido en el Manual de Bogotá, que intenta captar las particularidades de la región, convirtiendo en un referente para la medición de la innovación.

La transición hacia la sociedad del conocimiento ha resaltado el rol de la innovación, por lo que Solleiro (2002) señala, que de acuerdo a la OCDE, la innovación es la habilidad de administrar el conocimiento creativamente para responder a demandas articuladas del mercado. Para algunos intelectuales como Peter Drucker (1996) la innovación es una manera de entender el rol del hombre en el universo, ya que al innovar los individuos se anticipan, controlan y gobiernan el cambio. A nivel organizacional, este mismo autor, se refirió al concepto de innovación, como cualquier cambio que permite un mejor desempeño.

En la literatura actualizada del tema y en los enfoques gerenciales más avanzados de las empresas, se reconoce que la Gestión Tecnológica (GT) es una práctica esencial de cualquier negocio, ayuda a las empresas a gestionar sus operaciones de forma más eficaz, a desarrollarse estratégicamente para fortalecer sus recursos, su know-how y sus capacidades. Las funciones claves de la Gestión Tecnológica, definidas por Morin y Seurat (1998) y reformuladas por otros estudiosos (Morcillo y Bueno, 2004, Hidalgo y Pavón, 2002, Solleiro y Castañon, 2008), entre otros) resultan un instrumento sencillo y práctico de análisis estratégico de las empresas para los directivos.

En la actualidad la medición o evaluación del desempeño está utilizándose cada vez más como un método para evaluar las iniciativas de investigación y desarrollo tecnológico, y otras iniciativas presuntamente basadas en la innovación (Georghiou, 1998; Jordan y Streit, 2000). Los enfoques evaluativos por objetivos o basados en indicadores de desempeño pueden ser útiles para hacer un seguimiento del estado de un proyecto, a fin de asegurar que las actividades innovadoras permanezcan activas y estén yendo por buen camino. Arundel (2000) sugiere, que los indicadores (o 'fichas de puntaje' para medir la innovación) pueden ser útiles a nivel macro, por ejemplo, para construir consenso en torno a la necesidad de tomar acciones en términos de políticas para respaldar la investigación. Agrega; sin embargo, que no son relevantes a nivel meso y micro, que es donde ocurre la mayor parte de las actividades y acciones relacionadas con políticas.

METODOLOGÍA

La estrategia de investigación articula métodos de investigación cuantitativa y cualitativa para la recolección y análisis de datos, de la siguiente forma:

- Identificación de las principales variables, internas y externas, que intervienen en el proceso de innovación distinguiendo entre los estratos de micro, pequeña y mediana empresa, mediante la aplicación de una encuesta en un estudio empírico realizado en el 2010. El instrumento utilizado fue un cuestionario que se contestó en entrevistas directas con los responsables de las empresas y ha sido aplicado y ajustado varias veces en estudios similares, entre ellos "Características del proceso de innovación en empresas PYME de la industria manufacturera de la ciudad de Chihuahua, México" en el 2007 (Ollivier y Thompson. 2009) y según la opinión de expertos en la materia es adecuado para los fines que se persiguen. Sin embargo como en muchos instrumentos de evaluación de la innovación es necesario seguir haciendo las adecuaciones locales que se consideren necesarias.
- Aplicación de un modelo adaptado de evaluación de la gestión tecnológica en MiPyME mediante un estudio de casos, que permita caracterizar las funciones de la misma como elemento estratégico de las empresas, así como documentar experiencias de innovación tecnológica. Según Yin (1994) los estudios de caso son útiles cuando se quieren analizar procesos de cambio organizativos. El instrumento utilizado tiene como objetivo evaluar prácticas de gestión de innovación tecnológica y fue desarrollado a partir del concepto de innovación propuesto por la OCDE en el Manual de Oslo (2005) y está sustentado en el Modelo Nacional de Gestión de Tecnología.

Para el cálculo del tamaño de la muestra se utilizó la siguiente fórmula: $n = \frac{t^2 N pq}{e^2 (N-1) + t^2 pq}$ tomando

como 50% la proporción de empresas que realizaron alguna innovación, 10% de error y un 95% de nivel de confianza. El tamaño de la muestra fue de 65 empresas, sin embargo la muestra real fue de 73 empresas. Para fines de análisis se consideraron los cuatro subsectores del sector industrial como un solo grupo, distinguiéndolas en cuanto a su tamaño dado de acuerdo con la clasificación oficial en micro, pequeñas y medianas. Para el estudio de casos se seleccionaron cuatro MIPYME, en sus diferentes estratos según el tamaño, que fueron detectadas en el estudio de campo como empresas que realizan esfuerzos adicionales en cuestión de innovación y son líderes en el sector al cual pertenecen.

RESULTADOS

En primer lugar se presentan los resultados obtenidos de la aplicación de la encuesta y posteriormente los resultados del estudio de casos.

De manera sintética la medición de indicadores de innovación tecnológica mediante la encuesta aplicada permite apreciar las diferencias en el comportamiento de las diferentes empresas en cuanto al proceso de innovación, los cuales podemos resumir en lo siguiente:

- Los esfuerzos en I+D medidos por el personal dedicado, las inversiones y la protección intelectual son mayores en las empresas medianas.
- Los resultados económicos relativos medidos por las ventas de productos innovados el valor agregado y la utilidad antes de impuestos, son mayores en las micro y pequeñas empresas (Tabla No. 5), lo cual coincide con lo encontrado por Acs y Audretsch (1988) en las Pyme de los EUA.
- Destacan la micro y pequeña empresa, por un mayor dinamismo en el proceso de innovación, medido por la frecuencia de lanzamiento de innovaciones y la duración del ciclo de innovación; la realización de innovaciones tanto a los productos como a los procesos y una menor edad en el

equipo productivo. Adicionalmente se encuentra un factor subyacente que influye en todas las actividades de la empresa que se encuentra estrechamente relacionado al tamaño pequeño de la empresa: la *flexibilidad* de la misma, particularmente útil al permitir procesos de toma de decisiones más ágiles. De acuerdo con el estudio realizado por Wiele y Brown (1998) en las PYME australianas, la principal razón a la que obedece la mayor agilidad en las empresas pequeñas es la rapidez con la que se toman las decisiones en estas empresas.

Un aspecto importante presente en la mayoría de las empresas es la relación con el cliente, como motor del proceso de innovación; es decir, la *proximidad y conocimiento del cliente* son factores claves en la innovación de las PYME (Voss, 1998), que a su vez estos factores son la base de las economías por aglomeración realizadas por los agrupamientos industriales, mejor conocidos como *clusters* en inglés. Sin embargo, el hecho de pertenecer a un *cluster* no garantiza por sí mismo la innovación, sino que la dinámica innovadora de una empresa puede ser estimulada por las relaciones y el clima de trabajo generado por otras empresas innovadoras del agrupamiento industrial (Beaudry y Breschi, 2003).

RESULTADOS DEL ESTUDIO DE CASOS EN MIPYME DE PIEDRAS NEGRAS

A continuación se presentan los resultados obtenidos de la evaluación de la Gestión de la Innovación tecnológica utilizando el instrumento antes descrito. Dicha evaluación tuvo una duración aproximada de 2 horas y media la cual se llevó a cabo con personal competente en cada una de las áreas involucradas. La aplicación de la evaluación la empresa se da en dos fases, corresponde a la empresa ir respondiendo a cada una de las preguntas y mostrando sus evidencias, lo que resulta en una autoevaluación, y después se hace la asignación del puntaje obtenido en cada una de las categorías por el responsable de esta investigación.

Los resultados muestran un concentrado de los puntajes obtenidos por las 4 empresas estudiadas para poder hacer las comparaciones entre ellas y posteriormente analizar su desempeño. En general se puede apreciar que es en las categorías: Gestión y Administración Estratégica, Resultados e Impacto en la comunidad, y Patrimonio Tecnológico, en orden de importancia, en donde las empresas evaluadas deben enfocar sus mayores esfuerzos atendiendo el modelo propuesto con el fin de mejorar el esfuerzo organizacional en la gestión de la innovación tecnológica. Así mismo, se muestran las diferencias en el comportamiento de las 4 empresas evaluadas. En los dos primeros casos se aprecian actividades con las cuales estas empresas logran el Conocimiento Estratégico de sus clientes, proveedores, mercados y competidores y realizan ejercicios de Planeación estratégica aunque esto de hace de manera muy informal y existe poca o nula documentación de soporte que permita avalar las respuestas. El tercer caso corresponde a una pequeña empresa en donde el nivel de organización es mayor y ya se presentan procedimientos implementados y evidencias documentadas, en esta empresa se aprecian ejercicios formales y documentados del conocimiento estratégico del mercado, y de planeación estratégica que son las categorías mejor evaluadas. Siendo el cuarto caso una mediana empresa en donde la complejidad de sus procesos los obliga a tener procedimientos implementados, documentados y vigilados, el puntaje obtenido en todas las categorías es mucho más alto que en las anteriores.

CONCLUSIONES

Estos análisis presentan información valiosa respecto al proceso de innovación en las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas ubicadas en la región norte del Estado de Coahuila México. Se ha podido determinar que existen una serie de variables que es necesario considerar en el proceso de innovación y que ellas influyen en diferente medida en el mismo, por lo que se acepta la hipótesis 1 que dice que existe un número limitado de variables internas y externas que influyen en el proceso innovativo de las empresas. De igual manera se ha comprobado que las prácticas innovativas si dependen del tamaño de las empresas

y en este estudio se refleja que es en las más pequeñas en donde existe un mayor dinamismo, por lo que no se acepta la hipótesis 2 que dice que las prácticas innovativas y el desempeño económico no dependen del tamaño de las empresas.

La medición de la gestión de la tecnología, resultó ser un instrumento accesible a pesar de la naturaleza de los tópicos que se manejan, ya que éste brinda los soportes necesarios para su correcto manejo y entendimiento, además los empresarios participantes, a través del desarrollo de la evaluación, se mostraron interesados en iniciar la implementación y documentación de procedimientos de manera más formal para mejorar el conocimiento de clientes, del mercado y de sus proveedores, llevar a cabo ejercicios de planeación y administración estratégica y tecnológica, identificar la competitividad de sus productos o servicios, proteger su patrimonio tecnológico y evaluar el impacto ambiental de sus actividades, esto significa que se pueden empezar a tomar acciones a corto plazo al interior de las empresas. Con esto se acepta la hipótesis 3 en el sentido que la gestión de la innovación debe ser medida mediante modelos diseñados y este proceso debe hacerse de manera continua y sistemática para de esta manera mejorar el desempeño económico de las empresas.

La realización del estudio realizado tiene como limitantes: la actitud, los conocimientos que se tengan sobre todas las áreas de la empresa y el tiempo que dedican los responsables de las empresas en obtener la información. Esta es una labor que es necesario negociar en un ganar – ganar para que los resultados reflejen la situación real y ayuden a promover el cambio estratégico en estas empresas.

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BIOGRAPHY

María del Carmen Armenteros Acosta, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila m_armenteros@prodigy.net.mx;

Manuel Medina Elizondo, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila drmanuelmedina@yhoo.com.mx;

Laura L. Ballesteros Mirón, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila lauraballesteros@hotmail.com;

Víctor Molina Morejón, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

vmolinaa2005@yahoo.com.mx

ESTRATEGIA LÚDICA DE ENSEÑANZA-APRENDIZAJE: CASO SISTEMA DE MARATONES DEL CONOCIMIENTO DE LA UNIVERSIDAD VERACRUZANA Y LA ASOCIACIÓN NACIONAL DE FACULTADES Y ESCUELAS DE CONTADURÍA Y ADMINISTRACIÓN (ANFECA)

Patricia Arieta Melgarejo, Universidad Veracruzana Nancy Aracely Olivares Ruíz, Universidad Veracruzana Elda Magdalena López Castro, Universidad Veracruzana Héctor Julián Vargas Rubín, Universidad Veracruzana Minerva Parra Uscanga, Universidad Veracruzana

RESUMEN

Una de las tareas más importantes en el ámbito actual de la Educación, es preparar al estudiante altamente calificado y competitivo, para su desempeño con un papel activo en dicho proceso, a fin de que desarrolle habilidades generalizadoras acerca de un área específica y capacidades intelectuales, que le orienten correctamente en la toma de decisiones y la aplicación de conocimientos adquiridos activa y creadoramente. Para lo cual, el juego didáctico es una de tantas estrategias que permite el despliegue más amplio de todas las potencialidades de la situación lúdica para el aprendizaje, ya que es una oportunidad de cometer aciertos y errores en la aplicación de los conocimientos y resolución de problemas. Por lo anterior en la presente investigación se presentan los resultados del análisis, desarrollo y puesta en marcha del Sistema de Maratones del Conocimiento, como parte de una estrategia institucional de la ANFECA y la Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, Xalapa de la UV.

El Sistema de Maratones del Conocimiento, es una aportación al ámbito educativo con el soporte de las Tecnologías de la Información y Comunicación, en el cual se utilizó una combinación de modelos y metodologías para el desarrollo del mismo, como es el Modelo de Prototipos y el lenguaje UML, este último para documentar a través de Diagramas de Clase, Casos de Uso, escenas e interfaces en las etapas de análisis y diseño. Actualmente este proyecto institucional se emplea a nivel nacional en los Maratones del Conocimiento de distintas disciplinas como son: Administración, Finanzas, Contabilidad, Mercadotecnia, Fiscal e Informática Administrativa, de todas las Universidades públicas y privadas afiliadas a la Asociación Nacional de Escuelas y Facultades de Contaduría y Administración (ANFECA).

PALABRAS CLAVE: educación, maratón de conocimientos, estrategia lúdica, Sistema de Información.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El juego Didáctico es tal vez una estrategia que permite el despliegue más amplio de todas las potencialidades de la situación lúdica para el aprendizaje, ya que es una oportunidad de cometer aciertos y errores, para aplicar conocimientos y resolver problemas, es decir, es una fuente de aprendizaje que crea zonas de desarrollo potencial.Los juegos didácticos, son el soporte material con que se desarrolla el método para el cumplimiento del objetivo de alguna asignatura o experiencia educativa, permitiendo con su utilización el desarrollo de las habilidades, los hábitos, las capacidades y la formación de valores del estudiante(Huerta, 2000). Hoy en día, la tecnología tiene que ver con todas las actividades diarias del ser humano, y en mayor medida representa la punta de lanza para muchos campos de la ciencia, tal es el caso

del Internet, una de las creaciones más importantes del último siglo. Es por ello que representa una gran herramienta y ha convertido tareas que antes parecían complejas en algo simple y cotidiano.

En el ámbito educativo, el uso de las tecnologías de información cada vez más se ha incrementado y es por ello, que este documento pretende dar a conocer como el uso de nuevas tecnologías pueden optimizar el desempeño de aplicaciones que trabajan sobre plataformas tecnológicas a través de Sistemas de información, tal es el caso, del Sistema de Maratones del Conocimiento de la ANFECA, el cual, utilizando nuevas metodologías, así como tecnologías de información, se ha diseñado con una orientación lúdica para administrar la información en una competencia de conocimientos disciplinares.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Como docentes sabemos que existen muchas herramientas que nos permiten enfrentar la labor más creativa e innovadora y, a la vez, que el aprendizaje sea más benéfico y agradable para los estudiantes. Con el aprendizaje heurístico (Medina, 2001) la enseñanza se lleva a través de la resolución de problemas que es actualmente el método más utilizado para poner en práctica el principio general de aprendizaje activo, lo que en el fondo persigue con ello es transmitir en lo posible de una manera sistemática los procesos de pensamiento eficaces en la resolución de verdaderos problemas.

El juego (Terr, 2000) ha sido considerado comúnmente como un fenómeno marginal de la vida humana, como una manifestación periférica, que nada tiene que ver con las cuestiones serias e importantes de la vida, y que como tal, es una manifestación, un suplemento de la existencia que sólo ocasionalmente reluce. Derivado de lo anterior, el juego (Díaz, 2008), resulta ser sólo una actividad más entre muchas otras, pero no solo eso sino que es también la actividad más ociosa e inútil, y en la medida en que no es obligatoria, se le opone siempre al trabajo. De tal modo que el juego parece restringirse al ámbito de la vida infantil; y ciertamente el juego infantil muestra rasgos esenciales del juego humano; sin embargo, éste se presenta siempre inofensivo y menos profundo en comparación con el juego del adulto, por lo que una de las finalidades de éste proyecto que nace en la Universidad Veracruzana es la de reivindicar el papel del juego en la vida adulta, en tanto que el juego del adulto alcanza niveles más elevados de manera que, como plantean algunos autores: "El hombre juega, como niño, por gusto y recreo, por debajo del nivel de la vida seria. Pero también puede jugar por encima de este nivel", y jugar en éste último sentido es lo que posibilita transferir el juego de un plano meramente óntico a un plano de fundamentación ontológica, es decir, hacer el juego la experiencia fundamental en la vida y la realidad.

Estrategia lúdica de E-A

La Lúdica es un vocablo que proviene del latín ludo, que significa juego (Díaz, 2008), considerando que el juego no es lúdico porque es juego, si no porque en él el sujeto se expresa emocional y simbólicamente, es decir, el cuerpo del individuo se encuentra preparado en toda su dimensionalidad corporal, para ser estimulado por todas las afectaciones que origina la lúdica, por lo que desde la perspectiva anterior podemos decir que muchos de los procesos como la percepción, la atención, la intuición, la memoria y fundamentalmente la lúdica, están dirigidos emocionalmente(Jiménez, 2005). Durante la infancia y la adolescencia, etapas básicas en la formación del individuo, el juego es la actividad que mas interesa y divierte, al tiempo que constituye un elemento fundamental para el desarrollo de las potencialidades y la configuración de la edad adulta, es en definitiva un elemento indispensable para alcanzar la plena madurez..un niño que no juega, será un adulto que no sabrá pensar" (López, 2008). Mediante el juego existe una aprendizaje de contenidos desde tres perspectivas del conocimiento: conceptual, procedimental y actitudinal, con ello se alcanza no solo el saber, sino también el saber hacer y el saber ser, aspectos relevantes cuando se trata de abordar contenidos de alguna disciplina. En el juego se toma en consideración diversos factores, áreas del conocimiento, así como valores y comportamiento; por lo tanto la lúdica es una experiencia en una dimensión transversal que atraviesa cualquier práctica, actividad y

disciplina, como un proceso inherente al desarrollo humano en todas dimensiones. Dentro del proceso de aprendizaje existen tres fases para su consolidación como son: Fase de construcción del conocimiento, de permanencia de los conocimientos y la de transferencia de los conocimientos. En la fase referida a la permanencia de conocimientos, se manejan estrategias donde los conceptos construidos y comprendidos puedan permanecer por mucho tiempo incorporándolos a la memoria de largo plazo, para lo cual la estrategia de ejercitación y aplicación es ideal. La estrategia de ejercitación consiste en un proceso de práctica durante la cual, además de evocar y recordar los conceptos, se aclaran aun más sus significados y se repiten de manera que se formen los hábitos, se desarrollen habilidades y se asocien a las situaciones de aplicación, para lo cual la ejercitación debe tener el carácter recreativo, significativo, relevante, pertinente y suficiente. Entre las estrategias efectivas esta el juego, el cuestionario y el uso de medios.

Los Maratones del Conocimiento

La aplicación de la estrategia lúdica en los maratones del conocimiento reproduce formas simplificadas de un sistema, modelo o proceso, real o realizable en los que los participantes han de tomar una decisiones con el fin de dar solución a determinados cuestionamientos o problemas, en las que sus conocimientos, ingenio y decisiones condicionan los resultados en una competencia para los resultados finales.

Un Maratón de Conocimiento, es una competencia de información y habilidades acerca de un área específica, en la cual, varios equipos conformados por estudiantes de las Universidades tienen como propósito principal el impulsar entre los alumnos el estudio exhaustivo de una disciplina curricular en la Contaduría, Administración, Mercadotecnia, Finanzas, Fiscal e Informática Administrativa.

La logística de los maratones consiste en primer lugar, en el registro de equipos. Todas las fases del maratón se realizarán de forma abierta, con la presencia de los equipos participantes, el jurado calificador y público en general. El moderador del maratón, designado por la institución sede, será quien haga lectura de los reactivos y sólo podrán ser contestados por uno de los integrantes del equipo. El maratón consta de dos Fases de preguntas y en caso de existir algún empate entre los equipos, se continúa con la Fase de Muerte súbita. La primera fase consta de 50 reactivos teóricos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 15 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos teóricos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 1 minuto cada uno y 5 reactivos prácticos con un tiempo límite de respuesta de 3 minutos cada uno.

Se declarará ganador del maratón al equipo que tenga el mayor número de reactivos correctos en ambas etapas. En caso de empate en el primer lugar, el ganador se decidirá por muerte súbita. En caso de persistir el empate después de la aplicación de 10 reactivos teóricos y 3 prácticos, el criterio de desempate será el de mayor número de aciertos en los reactivos en la totalidad del maratón.

METODOLOGÍA

El nivel de la investigación y el tipo de estudio es descriptivo, ya que se especifican los rasgos y características del juego y la estrategia lúdica en relación con los procesos de aprendizaje, a través de un sistema de información. Desde el punto de vista del desarrollo de sistemas se utilizó una combinación de modelos y metodologías para el diseño, como es el Modelo de Prototipos y el Lenguaje de Modelado Unificado UML, para la representación de diagramas de clase, casos de uso, escenas e interfaces empleadas para el análisis y diseño del sistema de maratones del conocimiento.

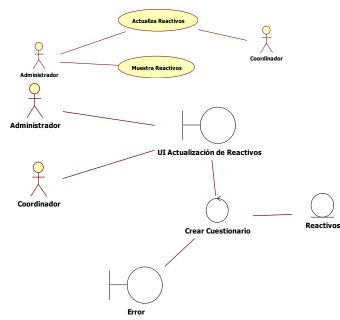
RESULTADOS

Análisis y Diseño del Sistema de Maratones del Conocimiento

A través de un Diagrama de Casos de Uso se representan las principales tareas que debe abarcar el

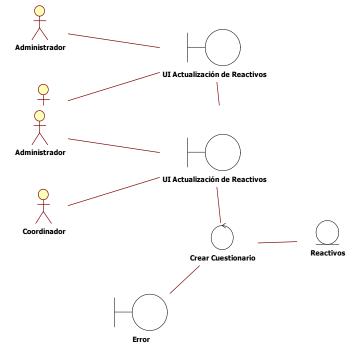
sistema desde las perspectivas de los actores principales, competidor, coordinador, directivo y administrador, se ilustran en la siguiente figura.

Figura 1. Actividades principales del sistema representado en diagrama de casos de uso. El siguiente diagrama de robustez representa el funcionamiento del sistema, donde desde la perspectiva



del administrador y del coordinador, son ellos los encargados de actualizar el catalogo de reactivos además de crear la secuencia de preguntas dentro de la aplicación.

Figura 2. Funcionamiento del sistema a través de un diagrama de robustez.



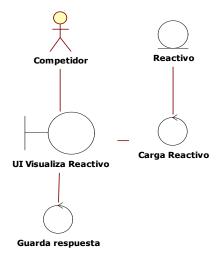
Desde la perspectiva del administrador, es este quien durante la competencia se encarga de mostrar los

reactivos en pantalla a los competidores y el jurado además de ser quien controla del cronometro de la aplicación, el cual indica el tiempo que tienen los competidores para contestar.

Figura 3. Perspectiva del Administrador a través de un diagrama de robustez.

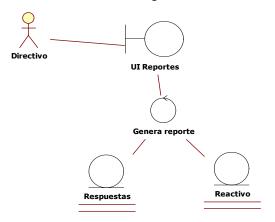
El competidor es quien contestará los reactivos una vez que el administrador haya mostrado a todos los participantes el reactivo correspondiente, esto se representa en la siguiente figura:

Figura 4. Perspectiva del competidor a través de un diagrama de robustez.



Por último, se contempla la tarea de generar reportes los cuales estarán disponibles para el perfil del Directivo como se muestra a continuación:

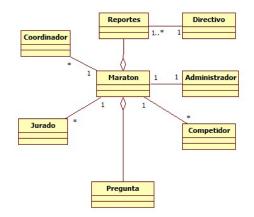
Figura 5. Perspectiva del directivo a través de un diagrama de robustez.



En la etapa de Diseño, una vez determinados los perfiles principales desglosados de los diagramas anteriores, se diseñaron las clases para definir la estructura principal de la aplicación como se muestra en la figura siguiente.

Entre las clases contempladas se encuentran la de Maratón, Administrador, Competidor y Pregunta, la clase Reporte, Directivo, Coordinador y Jurado se han considerado hasta esta etapa, pero dentro del desarrollo no serán tomadas en cuenta, ya que el modulo de reportes será desarrollara a futuro.

Figura 6. Diagramas de clase del sistema de maratones.



La clase administrador es la principal manejadora del evento, ya que esta tendrá el privilegio de otorgar el permiso a los competidores para poder contestar, además que es la clase administrador la encargada de visualizar todos reactivos. La clase maratón sirve principalmente como guía para representar a una competencia, y está relacionada a un conjunto de reactivos, representados por la clase pregunta. La clase competidor representa a cualquier equipo que se encuentre participando en el sistema, esta clase solo cuenta con los privilegios para visualizar y contestar reactivos. Para la plataforma de desarrollo se utilizó el HTML para dar atributos de diseño a las páginas web; pero, con la aparición de las Cascading Style Sheets (CSS) -en español se les conoce como hojas de estilo- es mejor utilizar HTML como un medio para estructurar el documento web (cabeza, cuerpo, pie, columna izquierda y derecha, por ejemplo) y emplear las cascadas de estilo como formas para dar atributos de diseño a la página (tipo de fuente, tamaño, color, estilo, entre otras características). La ventaja de emplear las hojas de estilo, aligera el peso del sitio, en comparación con el uso de elementos gráficos en cada página; además, la organización del sitio web se vuelve más eficiente y se puede tener mayor control sobre las partes que lo componen. En cuanto al uso de PHP, éste se puede incrustar dentro del código HTML, aprovechando las ventajas de las hojas de estilo. Para poder implementar una base de datos en el sitio web dinámico, se necesita de un manejador de base de datos que sea compatible con PHP; una buena opción es utilizar MySQL como ya se había seleccionado para el primer prototipo. También se utilizará JavaScript, este lenguaje ayudara a crear funciones para hacer un sinfín de tareas en nuestro sistema.

Funcionamiento del Sistema de Maratones Virtual (MAVI)

El diseño de la interfaz del MAVI es muy sencilla y amigable. En primer lugar, se tiene la pantalla de acceso a la aplicación, la cual muestra un mensaje de bienvenida, dos campos vacios, donde el usuario puede teclear su nombre de usuario y contraseña, una vez que el usuario teclea su nombre y contraseña, la aplicación automáticamente le mostrara las opciones pertinentes a su perfil. A continuación se muestra la pantalla de bienvenida al sistema del perfil administrador, además de las opciones principales disponibles, entre las que se encuentran Inicio, Maratón, Opciones, Ayuda y Salir).

Figura 7. Interfaz del sistema MAVI.

النونو المحمد		
Usuano Contaenia Estere	Bienvenido Bierwend au Montain Vrtual (NAV) de la Facultad de Cartadar la y Admentación de La Unterestad (Vanassa en compañe con la Asocación Nacional de Facultades de Cordador la Admentación (NEFCL). Taren o curto agua en es competidor, debes poror connectamente la inúmero de espany s'a contrastina. Recurrá pome connectamente Maylacultar y invitaciales	
Nota: Para obtener el máximo rend 3), En caso de usar Interne	imento de este sito, augerimos utilizar Freder. (versión 2 ó 3) o Sañar (versión 2 ó Esplorer, se recomienda la versión mán nocerte (minimo El versión 7).	
ĴĴ	🗊 🦀 MAA - UMANTINA VERSILIANA, AFECA.	

El módulo Maratón tiene las opciones principales del perfil de administrador. Es la parte que está diseñada para controlar la competencia, este módulo visualmente se divide en tres partes: un menú superior donde se encuentran las funciones principales disponibles solo para el administrador, además de su nombre de usuario, luego una barra lateral, donde se muestra un pequeño resumen de acerca del maratón en curso, número de la pregunta actual, el tipo de pregunta, la fase del maratón en la que se encuentra y el total de preguntas de esa fase.

Figura 8. Interfaz de los perfiles de acceso.

ترکی السلامی Nico Marado Opcioes Ayuda Satr	
Quardo: Stario Metatore Respects Spatients Partige Selectores and height of a largestate large device and particular staries and the selectore and the sele	Nim sreputs Tec: Elapa Tota de Prejuntas
😥 🛞 KAAL Distantial Versionana, AMEGA	

La pantalla de visualización del reactivo, en el perfil del administrador, presenta uno de los cambios más notorios de la versión beta de la aplicación. Se creó un diseño muy discreto y simple, acompañado únicamente de las opciones principales y el cronometro, el cual toma el tiempo que los competidores tienen para contestar el reactivo, cabe destacar que el reloj es activado con un clic del administrador y puede ser pausado de la misma forma.

Figura 9. Interfaz de visualización de reactivos.

Inicio Marató	n Opcion	es Ayuda	Salir			
Usuario : Marco	Mostrar	Respuesta	Siguiente	Puntaje		
¿En que a A) 1960	nino se r	ealizó el	primer	viaje a	a Luna?	
B) 1969 C) 1970					00 :	00
D) 1971						

Figura 10. Interfaz de visualización de reactivos.

Usuario: Marco Mostrar Respuesta Siguiente Puntaje	Núm. pregunta: 1
B) 1969	Tipo: teorica Etapa: 1 Total de Preguntas: 3
Las respuestas de los equipos fueron: Equipo1 : B Equipo2 : C Equipo3 : C Equipo5 : C	

En la pantalla de visualización de Respuestas del perfil de administrador se muestran las respuestas de los competidores y la respuesta correcta del reactivo.

Una vez que el competidor entra al módulo de Maratón, se visualiza una pantalla con las opciones de sincronizar, responder, ver puntaje en la parte superior y en el lado derecho se muestran el número de pregunta, el tipo de pregunta, en que etapa se encuentra actualmente, además del puntaje obtenido hasta el momento.

Usuario: Equipol Sincrentzar Responder Puntaje Nim. preguta: Tro: Para poder participar en el Maratión que usched desse, por favor seleccione de la lista desplegable y haga cite en el fonto indercontrar del menor superior. Espa: Total de pregunta: Espa: Total de pregunta: Segunda fase Procesos Fiscales Image: Espa: Segunda fase Adertos: Encres: Puntaje:

Por último, en la pantalla del competidor, aparecen las posibles respuestas de cada pregunta, el competidor accede a esta pantalla hasta que el administrador da el permiso.

Figura 12. Interfaz de visualización de respuesta.

Inicio Maratón Opciones Ayuda Satir	
Usuario : Equipot Responder Puntaje ¿En que año se realizó el primer viaje a la Luna? A) 1960 B) 1969 C) 1970 D) 1971 Guardar Respuesta	Núm. prepunta: 1 Tipo: teorica Etapa: 1 Total de preguntas: 3 Aciertos: Pendiente Errores: Pendiente Puntaje: Pendiente

CONCLUSIONES

La automatización de la logística de los maratones de conocimiento y la implementación del sistema de Reactivos para los Maratones, ha dado como resultado lo siguiente:

La formación del estudiante mediante la lúdica (juego) se ha convertido en una variable más de su formación integral, ya que la contar con el sistema su aplicación es múltiple, debido a que se ha desarrollado para eventos oficiales como una herramienta en línea de preparación para exámenes diagnósticos o evaluaciones menores, lo que ha motivado la participación en número y calidad del alumnado en las diversas disciplinas en las que éste se ha aplicado.

Asimismo, los estudiantes ven desarrolladas varias de sus competencias tales como: manejo adecuado de las tecnologías de información, habilidad para resolver problemas, capacidad para tomar decisiones, habilidad para controlar el estrés, capacidad para trabajar en equipo, entre otras.

Por otro lado, el sistema de reactivos para maratones del conocimiento en ANFECA, ha incremento el grado de credibilidad y certidumbre en el manejo de reactivos, ya que al conocer en pantalla las preguntas que serán contestadas en tiempo real, transparenta los procesos del mismo, dejando de lado el azar o la suerte que otros modelos de maratones en el país tienen y que no permiten la evaluación real y homogénea del conocimiento.

La mecánica para dotar de datos al mismo, ha movilizado no solo el quehacer del estudiante si no del académico, al ver ésta como una herramienta de gran importancia en su trabajo diario.

El sistema ha simplificado la tarea: el maratón ha optimizado los tiempos en su desarrollo al ofrecer herramientas tales como reportes de evaluación parcial y total, control de tiempos, dando maratones no solo confiables si no con un manejo eficiente.

La aceptación del mismo por su confiabilidad y certidumbre, han permitido que este sea el sistema base para la aplicación a nivel nacional.

Por lo tanto, podemos remarcar el impacto favorable no solo en el proceso y mecánica del maratón, sino en la formación del estudiante de manera integral, apoyando en el desarrollo de todas sus competencias.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Patricia Arieta, es profesora de tiempo completo y jefa de carrera de la Licenciatura en Sistemas Computacionales Administrativos de la Universidad Veracruzana, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, se puede contactar a: <u>parieta@uv.mx</u>.

Nancy A. Olivares, es Técnico Académico de tiempo completo de la Licenciatura en Sistemas Computacionales Administrativos de la Universidad Veracruzana, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, se puede contactar a: nolivares@uv.mx.

Elda M. López, es profesora de tiempo completo de la Licenciatura en Administración de la Universidad

Veracruzana, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, se puede contactar a: <u>eldlopez@uv.mx</u> Héctor J. Vargas, es profesor de tiempo completo de la Licenciatura en Sistemas Computacionales Administrativos y Director General del Área Económico-Administrativa de la Universidad Veracruzana, se puede contactar a: <u>hevargas@uv.mx</u>.

Minerva Parra, es profesora de tiempo completo de la Licenciatura en Administración de la Universidad Veracruzana, Facultad de Contaduría y Administración, se puede contactar a: <u>mparra@uv.mx</u>.

ANÁLISIS JERÁRQUICO EN LA EVALUACION INTEGRAL A PROVEEDORES

José Luis Anaya Carrasco, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Jorge Hernández Palomino, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez José de Jesús Espinoza, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Manuel Aguilar Arellano, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez

RESUMEN

Esta investigación descriptiva presenta una Evaluación Integral a Proveedores sustentada en la técnica del Proceso Analítico Jerárquico utilizando el coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall como instrumento de validez y confiabilidad en su primera etapa y en la segunda etapa se utilizó la Prueba de Rango con signo de Wilcox. El objetivo fundamental de la investigación fue determinar si una evaluación integral a proveedores eleva la calidad de los insumos y procesos dentro de una embotelladora. Los resultados de este sugieren que la aplicación de los métodos y el diseño del formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores, se aumenta de una manera significativa el desempeño de los proveedores y el impacto económico que se refleja en el mejor desempeño de producción y mayor fluidez en las operaciones de la Planta. Futuras investigaciones y con el objetivo de sugerir nuevas líneas de investigación, podrían investigar en diferentes contextos. Los resultados de la investigación tienen validez para los especialistas en ampliar el tema en la aplicación de métodos y el diseño del formato de Evaluación integral a Proveedores .Considerando que la investigación se realizó en una sola ciudad en México, los resultados de estudio también son presentadas.

INTRODUCCION

El objetivo de la investigación es demostrar que es posible crear e implementar el uso efectivo de una Evaluación Integral a Proveedores en una empresa embotelladora que proporcionará la información necesaria para tener una visión clara de los factores que influyen para que los proveedores puedan comunicar adecuadamente las incidencias con el fin de tomar acciones correctivas, elevar la calidad de los insumos y procesos.

Los proveedores de insumos en las empresas juegan un papel fundamental para el éxito de la compañía y el alcance de sus metas. Por lo mismo es muy importante el establecer relaciones a largo plazo con los proveedores y el desarrollarlos, trabajar con su proveedor como si fuese su socio, con una relación de lealtad y de confianza a largo plazo para mejorar la calidad de los materiales en recepción y para disminuir los costos; es por ello que se estableció un método objetivo y dinámico para que esta evaluación permita a la empresa la toma de decisiones frente a la continuidad o no de un proveedor, o a la decisión de certificar a los proveedores con un resultado sobresaliente. En cualquiera de los casos anteriores, la decisión debe tomarse con base en elementos objetivos y cuantitativos, que no dejen ninguna duda y ofrezcan transparencia para todos los involucrados en el proceso.

El propósito de evaluar a los proveedores de Novamex Planta Juárez fue debido a que se realizo un análisis de fondo en las incidencias de los defectos en los insumos de los proveedores en el año 2007. Este análisis demostró una variabilidad significativa en la materia prima de los proveedores lo cual indica la necesidad de realizar una Evaluación Integral a Proveedores. El interés de esta investigación radico en estandarizar estas evaluaciones y calificar el desempeño de las materias primas de los proveedores, implementando los métodos propuestos con el objetivo de reducir los insumos defectuosos y eventualmente garantizar el éxito de las operaciones de Novamex Planta Juárez.

REVISION DE LITERATURA

Las empresas están pasando la responsabilidad por el desarrollo de productos cada vez más a su base de proveedores. Ahora bien, las mejores empresas saben la diferencia entre delegar y abrogar sus responsabilidades.

Crear y sostener buenas relaciones con los proveedores es una habilidad organizacional crítica en un sistema equilibrado de abastecimiento y que parece engañosamente sencilla. Mejorar dichas relaciones es en efecto una de las tareas más fáciles al pasar al nuevo modelo, pero encontrar el equilibrio adecuado en esas relaciones puede ser una de las más difíciles. Sin embargo, el esfuerzo vale la pena, al mirar los beneficios que se derivan del aumento de inversión y fortalecimiento de las comunicaciones mediante relaciones sostenidas.

Simplemente llamar a los proveedores socios estratégicos no tiene más impacto que llamar asociados a los empleados. El modelo de negocios y los comportamientos tienen que sostener los objetivos que implican esas expresiones, justamente como los uniformes blancos igualitarios de Honda y la total ausencia de prerrogativas para los ejecutivos demuestran su respeto por todos los trabajadores. Crear verdaderas asociaciones estratégicas requiere una cuidadosa estructuración de las relaciones para alcanzar dependencia reciproca y congruencia de metas a base de un sólido conocimiento de la competencia del proveedor.

El equilibrio entre competencia y cooperación es algo que les agrada a la mayoría de los ejecutivos, pero que parece inherentemente difícil. La sabiduría convencional recomienda construir relaciones de confianza con los proveedores, ambos se deben concentrar en el equilibrio general acertado en sus relaciones con los proveedores. El abastecimiento equilibrado responde a los intereses ejecutivos mediante la aplicación de unos principios: Tomar decisiones con base en hechos; Pensar estratégicamente, a largo plazo; Soluciones viables, no formulas mágicas; Crear valor y participación colaborativa; Ejecutar pragmáticamente.

El desafío no está en entender las habilidades o los principios. Lo difícil es construir esas habilidades a lo largo y ancho de la organización. Las cinco habilidades organizacionales son intuitivamente atractivas y bastante sencillas conceptualmente. Sin embargo, como lo menciona Laseter (2000) "las investigaciones de Booz-Allen llevan a concluir que las mejores compañías no sienten que hayan desarrollado plenamente todas las habilidades" (p. 21).No hay formulas mágicas para crear y sostener relaciones con los proveedores, aun cuando sí existen varias técnicas que demuestran conductas apropiadas. Estas técnicas, sin embargo, se deben emplear únicamente si existe en toda la organización un compromiso adecuado para llevarlas a la práctica. Por lo tanto, para establecer relaciones estratégicas y duraderas con los proveedores se debe tener en cuenta principalmente el compromiso y la responsabilidad hacia la Calidad de los productos y servicios que se ofrecen.

La calidad de proveedores es un elemento muy importante de la organización; es en donde empieza la Calidad Total en una empresa. Los problemas que se presentan con mayor frecuencia en las empresas respecto a la calidad de sus proveedores, son el alto número de rechazos, el material que llega dañado, las materias primas fuera de especificación y proveedores que conforme aumenta el requerimiento, aumentan los defectos. Durante las operaciones de manufactura puede ocurrir mucha variación. Los parámetros de las maquinas se desajustan; los operadores y armadores cometen errores; o los materiales pueden estar defectuosos. Incluso en el proceso más controlado, las variaciones específicas en el resultado son inevitables e impredecibles. La función de manufactura debe garantizar que se cumplen las especificaciones de diseño durante la producción y que el desempeño del producto final es el esperado.

Todos estos problemas se transforman en costos, como el alto costo de inspeccionar todo el material que se recibe, material dañado en el transporte, la pérdida de tiempo que implica el recibir material defectuoso al tener que inspeccionarlo, devolverlo al proveedor y reponerlo. Existen varias situaciones que podrían ser si no las causantes de estos problemas, si las que afectan bastante las operaciones de las empresas. Estas situaciones son la dificultad que tienen algunos proveedores para producir conforme a la programación de los clientes, el hecho de que sean proveedores nuevos y no conozcan exactamente los procesos operacionales, incrementos repentinos en los requerimientos y sobretodo hasta que punto les es difícil a los proveedores alcanzar los estándares de calidad de sus clientes.

El proveedor debe traducir los requisitos del cliente en especificaciones detalladas del producto y el proceso. Hacer esta traducción es el papel de la investigación y el desarrollo, el diseño de producto y la ingeniería. Las especificaciones de producto podrían atender atributos como tamaño, forma, acabado, sabor, dimensiones, tolerancias, materiales, características operativas y aspectos de seguridad. Las especificaciones del proceso indican los tipos de equipo, herramientas e instalaciones que se utilizaran en la producción. Los diseñadores de producto deben equilibrar el desempeño y el costo para cumplir con los objetivos de mercadotecnia; por tanto, la definición de la calidad basada en el valor es la más útil en esta etapa.

El cliente es la fuerza impulsora para la producción de bienes y servicios y, por lo general, los clientes ven la calidad desde la perspectiva transcendente o con base en el producto. Los bienes y servicios producidos deben satisfacer las necesidades del cliente; de hecho, la existencia de las organizaciones de negocios depende de la satisfacción de las necesidades de sus clientes.

Un producto que satisface las necesidades del cliente se puede describir como un producto de calidad. Por lo tanto, es necesario definir la importancia de la relación que existe entre los proveedores y la calidad de los insumos.

Deming (1986) dijo a los industriales japoneses que "entender a clientes y proveedores era determinante para la planificación de la calidad" (p.5). Deming también les dijo que "la mejora continua, tanto de los productos como de los procesos de producción a través de un mejor entendimiento de los requisitos del cliente, es la clave para captar los mercados mundiales" (p.5).

Por lo tanto, es necesario mencionar que la calidad de los insumos entregados a los clientes por parte de los proveedores, es de vital importancia para lograr mantener una relación a largo plazo.

Ahora, es necesario definir la calidad ya que puede ser un concepto confuso debido en parte a que las personas consideran la calidad de acuerdo a varios criterios.

Evans y Lindsay (2008) comentan que ni asesores ni profesionales de los negocios concuerdan en una definición universal. En un estudio, en que se pidió a los administradores de 86 empresas del este de Estados Unidos definir la calidad, se obtuvieron varias docenas de numerosas respuestas, entre las que se incluyen las siguientes: 1) Perfección, 2) Consistencia, 3) Eliminación de desperdicios, 4) Velocidad de entrega, 5) Observancia de las Políticas y Procedimientos, 6) Proveer un producto bueno y útil, 7) Hacerlo bien la primera vez, 8) Complacer o satisfacer a los clientes y 9) Servicio y satisfacción total para el cliente. (pp. 12-13)

En el año 2000, la Organización Internacional para la Estandarización (ISO) incluyó en su vocabulario ISO 9000:2000, la definición de calidad como el grado en el que un conjunto de características inherentes satisface los requisitos. Por lo tanto, para poder medir y controlar los diversos enfoques de Calidad, es necesario definir el Control de Calidad. Ishikawa (1994) sostiene que: El control de calidad consiste en el desarrollo, diseño, producción, comercialización y prestación del servicio de productos con una eficacia del costo y una utilidad oprimas y que los clientes compraran con satisfacción. Para alcanzar estos fines, todas las partes de una empresa deben de trabajar juntos. Todos los departamentos de la empresa tienen que empeñarse en crear sistemas que faciliten la cooperación y en prepararse para poner en práctica

fielmente las normas internas. Esto solo puede alcanzarse por medio del uso masivo de diversas técnicas tales como los métodos estadísticos y técnicos, las normas y reglamentos, los métodos computarizados, el control automático, el control de instalaciones, el control de medidas, la investigación operativa, la ingeniería industrial y la investigación de mercado.

Conforme las compañías empezaron a reconocer el amplio alcance de la calidad, surgió el concepto de calidad total (TQ) (Total Quality). El concepto de Calidad Total ha existido durante cierto tiempo. Como lo menciona Feigenbaum (1991,) el cual reconoció la importancia de un enfoque integral para la calidad desde la década de 1950 y acuño el término Control de Calidad Total. Feigenbaum observo que la calidad de los productos y servicios es afectada de modo directo por los que él denomina las "9 letras M": mercados (markets), dinero (money), administración (management), hombres y mujeres (men and women), motivación (motivation), materiales (materials), maquinas y mecanización (machines and mechanization), métodos de información modernos (modem information methods) y requisitos de montaje de los productos (mounting product requirements). Aunque desarrollo sus ideas desde una perspectiva ingenieril sus conceptos se aplican más a la administración en general. (pp. 77-78)

Por lo tanto, con la calidad total, una organización busca en forma activa identificar las necesidades y expectativas de los clientes, incorporar la calidad en los procesos laborales utilizando de modo eficaz el conocimiento y la experiencia de su fuerza laboral y mejorar continuamente todas las facetas de la organización. Un elemento importante de la calidad total es el trabajo en equipo, que centra la atención en las relaciones cliente-proveedor y fomenta la participación de toda la fuerza laboral en la solución de problemas de los sistemas, en especial de aquellos que traspasan las fronteras funcionales.

Es por eso la importancia de entender que la calidad se puede ver desde diferentes perspectivas, a fin de apreciar por completo la función que desempeña en las diferentes partes de una empresa u organización de negocios. Aunque la calidad del producto debe ser importante para todos los individuos en la cadena de valor, la forma de ver la calidad puede depender de la posición de uno en la cadena de valor; es decir, si uno es el diseñador, fabricante o proveedor de servicios, distribuidor o cliente. Hablar sobre la finalidad de una evaluación del desempeño ya que fue el objetivo de esta investigación, para elevar la calidad de los insumos y procesos entre el Cliente y los Proveedores. Como lo menciona Evans at al.(2008).Es un enfoque que ha tenido cada vez mayor aceptación y supera muchas de las objeciones mencionadas anteriormente, se llama retroalimentación de 360 grados.

El proceso comprende la comunicación en ambos sentidos en la cual ambas partes analizan necesidades tales como niveles de servicio, tiempos de respuesta, precisión del trabajo, etc., que a menudo se expresan como contratos de servicio por escrito. Al final del periodo de desempeño, representantes seleccionados que participaron en el establecimiento de objetivos evalúan que tan bien se cumplieron los objetivos de los contratos de servicios y ofrecen retroalimentación. La evaluación final del desempeño consiste en analizar con el empleado una síntesis de los comentarios y calificaciones, y sirve como un proceso para establecer las metas del siguiente periodo y del desarrollo del empleado. (p. 306)

Las evaluaciones de desempeño son más eficaces cuando están basadas en los objetivos que apoyan las direcciones estratégicas de la organización, las mejores prácticas y la mejora continua. Como el enfoque es nuevo, se han realizado pocas investigaciones sistemáticas sobre su eficacia; sin embargo, esta investigación demostró la efectividad de las Evaluaciones y la retroalimentación entre los proveedores y Novamex Planta Juárez.

El poder de negociación de los proveedores tiene un gran impacto en las industrias, ya que pueden forzar muchas características de sus insumos como los precios, la calidad de los bienes y hasta el servicio. Como lo menciona Mintzberg, Quinn y Voyer (1997), los proveedores pueden ejercer su poder de negociación con los participantes en una industria aumentando los precios o reduciendo la calidad de los bienes y

servicios adquiridos. Los clientes, por igual, pueden forzar una baja en los precios, exigir mayor calidad o mas servicio y los competidores luchan entre sí, todo a expensas de las utilidades de la industria.

La importancia de cada proveedor depende de varias características del mercado y de la importancia relativa de sus ventas o compras a la industria. Mintzberg et al. (1997) concluye que un grupo proveedor es importante si: Está dominado por pocas compañías y está más concentrado que la industria a la que le vende. Su producto es único o al menos diferenciado o si ha establecido costos fluctuantes. No está obligado a competir con otros productos por ventas en la industria.

Una de las ventajas de trabajar con proveedores certificados es que bajo sus sistemas de calidad, adquieren materias primas de alta calidad que garantizan su entrada a todos los países del mundo, ya que cumplen con todas las especificaciones como por ejemplo la FDA (Administración de Alimentos y Fármacos). Además, trabajar con un Proveedor Certificado reduce significativamente la cantidad de inspecciones realizadas en los productos. La certificación del proveedor asegura que el producto se está fabricando, empacando y distribuyendo bajo un proceso controlado de acuerdo con dichos requerimientos.

Esta investigación demostró capacidad para cumplir con los requerimientos del cliente a través del tiempo, tomando en cuenta todas estas ventajas que resultaron de trabajar con proveedores certificados que fueron evaluadas en el proceso de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores. Como se menciona en la revista científica Industria Alimenticia (Abril, 2008): Los mercados globales se caracterizan por la exigencia hacia sus proveedores en términos de disponibilidad oportuna de materia prima, partes o componentes; flexibilidad en el suministro para responder ante incrementos de la demanda; calidad de clase mundial bajo modelos de cero defectos; precio competitivo para el productor, aún después del pago de impuestos y aranceles (p. 58).

Así que, para llegar a trabajar con Proveedores Certificados, donde la Calidad ya no consiste solo en cumplir con las especificaciones, sino adecuarse a las necesidades del cliente y su satisfacción; es preciso que el proveedor haya demostrado a través del tiempo su capacidad para cumplir los requerimientos del cliente en términos de calidad del producto o servicio, costo, entrega y seguridad. Por lo tanto, la selección de los proveedores es un elemento fundamental y de gran importancia en las operaciones de Novamex Planta Juárez.

METODOLOGIA

Esta Investigación constó de 2 etapas, la primera fue la aplicación del método AHP (Proceso Analítico Jerárquico) y la técnica muticriterial en la evaluación a proveedores para el desarrollo el formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores utilizando de base el coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall; y la segunda etapa, se basó en el análisis de los resultados obtenidos para observar si todo permaneció igual con la aplicación del formato o si hubo mejoras entre las 2 poblaciones (antes de usar del formato, año 2007; y después de usarlo, año 2008) utilizando de base la Prueba de Rangos con Signo de Wilcoxon. Se utilizaron estas 2 técnicas no paramétricas ya que son la que más se adecuaron respecto a las características y el análisis de los datos.

Los datos que se proporcionaron por estas evaluaciones se analizaron a través del tiempo en meses, de los años 2007 y 2008. El objetivo fue analizar si hay cambios positivos o negativos en estos años o si los datos permanecieron iguales. Por lo que en el año 2007 no había formato para evaluar a los proveedores y estos se evaluaron de una forma muy rudimentaria, y en el año 2008 se implemento la Evaluación Integral a Proveedores.

Este estudio es de tipo cuantitativo, para obtener los resultados se recolectaron datos numéricos de los fenómenos a estudiar y se analizaron mediante un proceso de investigación cuantitativo utilizando la estadística. La definición del alcance de la investigación fue descriptiva, ya que en esta clase de estudios se debe visualizar o definir que variables se van a medir y que o quienes recolectaran los datos. En el diseño de la investigación se utilizó el de tipo no experimental, ya que a su vez la investigación fue longitudinal por que se analizaron los datos a través del tiempo y en dos diferentes periodos.

Dentro de los diseños no experimentales longitudinales para esta investigación se utilizó el Diseño Panel, en el cual toda una población o grupo es seguido a través del tiempo. Se trató que haya claridad entre los elementos de investigación que conforman el problema, que sea posible definirlos, limitarlos y saber exactamente donde se inicia el problema, en cual dirección va y qué tipo de incidencia existe entre sus elementos, descifrándolo de una forma estadística para poder medir y mejorar los resultados de esta investigación.

La población fueron todos los proveedores de materias primas involucrados exclusivamente en el proceso de producción porque fue necesario analizar y evaluar a cada uno de los proveedores. Por lo tanto no se tomó una muestra ya que la unidad de análisis en la que se basó la investigación fue toda la población. El muestreo no fue necesario porque la unidad de análisis fue toda la población, esto quiere decir que la población fueron todos los proveedores de materias primas involucrados exclusivamente en el proceso de producción. Para recolectar los datos, se utilizó el formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores que se basó en la técnica del "Proceso Analítico Jerárquico" y para probar si hay cambios o todo permaneció igual en los años 2007 y 2008, se utilizó la "Prueba de Rango con Signo de Wilcoxon".

El formato para evaluar a los proveedores que se usó en esta investigación se basó en la observación cuantitativa. Se utilizó la técnica del "Proceso Analítico Jerárquico" (*Analityc Hiearchy Process-AHP, por sus siglas en ingles*); y se realizó un formato para cada uno de los proveedores de insumos de producción. El coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall se utilizó para asegurar que haya relación entre las decisiones de los expertos al momento de otorgar los pesos y prioridades de los criterios. Cabe mencionar que la definición de pesos y prioridades de los criterios, y la definición de escalas de calificación y ponderaciones, se definió en común acuerdo entre la empresa y el proveedor para igualar lo que una quiere y lo que otra está en capacidad de ofrecer.

Las definiciones de las características se realizaron teniendo en cuenta las que causan un mayor impacto en los procesos de producción de la empresa y deben ser clasificados en criterios que puedan ser evaluados y ponderados, además de que se puedan calificar de acuerdo con la naturaleza de cada criterio. Estos criterios se utilizaron para realizar el formato de Evaluación Integral a proveedores. Los resultados se analizaron con las hipótesis de esta investigación con la técnica de la Prueba de Rangos con Signo de Wilcoxon para verificar si hay alguna variación con el antes y el después de aplicar el método.

Para crear el formato de evaluación a proveedores se realizó una junta con los proveedores para igualar y estar de acuerdo en los criterios a evaluar.

Las variables que se evaluaron en este formato son:

La calidad del producto. Los criterios generales a evaluar de las características del insumo de cada proveedor.

Certificado de Calidad. Verificar si el proveedor cumple con la entrega del certificado de calidad junto con el insumo para validar su confiabilidad.

Entregas a Tiempo. Evaluar que las entregas de insumos cumplan con la programación y cantidad de las entregas.

Facturación. Verificar que el envío de las facturas sea a tiempo y sin errores para evitar demoras. Cumplimiento de Inventarios. Evaluar que el proveedor garantice el abasto de los insumos en la planta.

El análisis de los datos se efectuó mediante la estadística inferencial para probar las hipótesis con el análisis de la estadística no paramétrica. El coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall se utilizó para darle mayor validez y confiabilidad a los criterios a evaluar por los expertos para el diseño del formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores; y la Prueba de Rango con Signo de Wilcoxon se utilizó para interpretar los resultados arrojados por el formato a través del tiempo.

Dicho de otra manera, esta investigación constó de 2 etapas con 2 técnicas de análisis, las cuales consisten en lo siguiente:

Etapa A.- Análisis de los criterios de los expertos usando el Coeficiente de Concordancia de Kendall para el diseño del formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores.

Etapa B.- Técnica global de esta investigación (incluye a la Etapa A) para interpretar los datos obtenidos usando la Prueba de Rangos con Signo de Wilcoxon.

En la etapa A, la Prueba de Rango con Signo de Wilcoxon fue la técnica estadística no paramétrica global que se utilizó para analizar los resultados, y el coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall se usó para verificar el grado de asociación entre las variables medidas por los criterios de los expertos para el diseño del formato con el cual se obtuvieron los resultados. Así, con la eficiente aplicación del Coeficiente de Concordancia de Kendall a los datos que se obtuvieron por los expertos en la evaluación de los criterios, se dió más certeza al momento de definir si hay concordancia o no entre estos. A la vez, se dió la seguridad necesaria para evitar fallar al momento que se realizóó el formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores.

En la etapa B, la Prueba de Rangos con Signo de Wilcoxon sirvió para definir si hay realmente un cambio en los parámetros de desempeño de los proveedores antes que se aplicará el método y el después, ya realizando los cambios y las aplicaciones de los formatos y métodos en los que se basó esta investigación. Para utilizar esta técnica, el primer paso fue el de ordenar el valor absoluto de las diferencias entre los dos métodos que se van a comparar. Se descartaron todas las diferencias iguales a cero (0) y se ordenaron y etiquetaron las diferencias absolutas restantes, desde la mínima hasta la máxima. Si las diferencias fueron iguales se les asignaron clasificaciones medias a sus posiciones ordenadas en el conjunto combinado de datos. Una vez que se determino los rangos de las diferencias absolutas, se les asigno a los rangos el signo de la diferencia original en los datos.

La validez y confiabilidad se obtuvo mediante las técnicas del "Proceso Analítico Jerárquico" que es un método ya usado y probado, que como lo mencionan Osorio, Herrera y Vinasco (2008, p. 46) en el articulo "Modelo para la Evaluación del Desempeño de los Proveedores utilizando el Proceso Analítico Jerárquico", donde hace referencia en Forman y Gass (2001) el cual comenta que "el Proceso Analítico Jerárquico ha sido adoptado por numerosas compañías para el soporte de los procesos de toma de decisiones complejas e importantes" (p. 475). Se utilizó el coeficiente de concordancia de Kendall como instrumento de análisis de sensibilidad y confiabilidad; ya que como lo menciona Sampieri (2006) "este coeficiente oscila entre 0 y 1, donde un coeficiente de "0" significa nula confiabilidad y "1" representa el máximo nivel de confiabilidad (confiabilidad total)" (p. 439). El usar este coeficiente, proporciona la confiabilidad necesaria en la toma de decisiones de los expertos al momento de calificar los criterios para el posterior diseño del formato Evaluación Integral a Proveedores.

Así mismo, este coeficiente de correlación dio la validez necesaria a las decisiones y opiniones de los expertos, asegurando que los criterios que se midieron con el instrumento fueron representativos, ya que como lo menciona Sampieri (2006) "La evidencia de la validez de criterio se produce al correlacionar las

puntuaciones de los participantes, obtenidas por medio del instrumento, con sus valores logrados en el criterio" (p. 442). Por lo tanto, al correlacionar con este instrumento las puntuaciones que se dieron por los expertos, se midió el grado de asociación de estas puntuaciones, con lo cual se obtuvo una base solida y confiable para el diseño y aplicación del formato de evaluación a proveedores.

Cabe mencionar que en esta investigación se probó la hipótesis planteada mediante el uso del análisis no paramétrico de la Estadística Inferencial. Así, para la prueba de hipótesis de esta investigación se utilizó la Prueba de Rangos con Signo de Wilcoxon la cual muestra si hay un cambio antes de la implementación del formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores y después de esta. Otra razón por la que se utilizó la estadística no paramétrica; es que como "N" es pequeño, no se tuvo que demostrar una distribución normal, requisito para usar la estadística paramétrica. Para usar la estadística paramétrica la "N" (muestra) debe de ser mayor de 30 y demostrar que la población viene de una población normalmente distribuida.

CONCLUSIONES

Con la aplicación de los métodos y el diseño del formato de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores, se aumenta de una manera significativa el desempeño de los proveedores. El impacto económico de esta investigación se refleja en el mejor desempeño de producción y mayor fluidez en las operaciones de Planta Novamex Juárez. Por lo tanto, un excelente desempeño de las materias primas y servicios en general que los proveedores entreguen a la planta, va estrechamente relacionado con garantizar el éxito de las operaciones de Planta Novamex Juárez. El uso de las técnicas multicriteriales para la toma de decisiones permite realizar la evaluación y selección de los proveedores teniendo en cuenta los criterios de calidad establecidos por Novamex Planta Juárez. Así, se le provee a la empresa una herramienta que le permita de forma rápida y confiable la obtención de estos resultados.

Otro aspecto que se debe considerar es que los valores numéricos, que resultan como ponderaciones de los criterios y subcriterios, se derivan de los juicios emitidos por las personas conocedoras y participantes en el proceso de Evaluación Integral a Proveedores y de los métodos del Proceso Analítico Jerárquico (AHP). Ello es muy interesante, puesto que si se solicitara a cada miembro del equipo de expertos un valor numérico de ponderación, se presentarían discusiones poco efectivas y de difícil fundamento frente a un valor específico. Esto, por supuesto, es superado por el equipo de expertos gracias a la escala de medición propuesta por Planta Novamex Juárez en la que se toma en cuenta que el valor uno "1", indica la mínima importancia del criterio para el experto, mientras que el valor más alto "10" indica la máxima importancia para este criterio.

La síntesis de experiencias adquiridas y aquí expuestas, destaca un conocimiento, insistiendo en el enfoque sistémico, ofreciendo a su vez un necesario ritmo o compás al grupo de expertos en la toma de decisiones, pretendiendo sensibilización, razonamiento y compromiso. Es importante ver que el modelo es de fácil aplicación para las empresas, pues la información que requiere como entrada está asociada directamente con las actividades normales del proceso de gestión de los proveedores. Adicionalmente, los resultados son interesantes para la compañía, pues le proporciona herramientas de juicio fundamentadas, además que considera los múltiples criterios involucrados en el proceso de toma de decisiones.

Para investigaciones futuras y con el objetivo de sugerir nuevas líneas de investigación, los métodos expuestos en esta investigación se pueden generalizar a cualquier tipo de proveedor de cualquier tipo de servicio. El propósito de los métodos aquí expuestos es el de enfocar a los proveedores y a las empresas mismas a buscar siempre la manera de lograr la perfección y los cero "0" defectos en cualquier tipo de servicio de los proveedores, tanto de materias primas para fabricar productos como facturación, transporte, comunicación y cualquier tipo de servicio básico.

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BIOGRAFIAS

José Luis Anaya Carrasco, es Maestro en Ciencias por el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ). Profesor de la División de Estudios de Posgrado E Investigación en el ITCJ. Es jefe del Departamento de Ciencias Administrativas en el ITCJ. (scaa7067@yahoo.com.mx)

Jorge Arturo Hernández Palomino es Doctor en Ciencias de la Administración por la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM). Es profesor investigador en el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ), se encuentra adscrito al departamento de posgrados e investigación. Presidente Fundador del Colegio de Posgraduados en Administración (COLPARMEX), Capítulo Chihuahua. Pertenece al cuerpo tutorial del Doctorado en Ciencias de la Administración de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM). (mt00831@yahoo.com.mx)

José de Jesús Espinoza es Maestro en Ciencias por el Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (ITCJ) y profesor de la misma institución en la División de Estudios de Posgrado e Investigación. Coordinador General del Campus II del ITCJ. Es miembro y Presidente del Colegio de Posgraduados en Administración de la República Mexicana (COLPARMEX) capitulo Chihuahua. (joseespinoza4@yahoo.com.mx)

Manuel Aguilar Arellano es Maestro en Administración por la Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua. Es profesor del departamento de económico administrativas del Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. Consultor e instructor de diferentes empresas privadas. Es miembro del Colegio de Posgraduados en Administración de la República Mexicana (COLPARMEX) capitulo Chihuahua. (Aguilar_capacitacion@hotmail.com)

LA CAPACITACION COMO HERRAMIENTA PARA LA VENTAJA COMPETITIVA DENTRO DE UNA EMPRESA ARNESERA: UN ANALISIS MICRO Y UNO SISTEMICO

Esther A. Enríquez-Pérez, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Eduardo F. Macias-Negrete, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez Erick Gómez-Aguilar, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez

ABSTRACT

Este artículo examina el efecto de la capacitación en la competitividad de una empresa arnesera, en particular en la calidad del producto, asociada principalmente con menores errores de calidad o defectos por arnés. Se parte de que para que una empresa mantenga su competitividad en un entorno de continuos cambios en preferencias y tecnologías, se necesitan trabajadores capaces de cambiar e innovar rápidamente. Asimismo se concluye que una organización que aprende es aquella en la que el desarrollo de nuevo conocimiento no es una actividad especializada de un grupo particular, sino una forma de comportamiento en la que cualquiera es un trabajador con conocimientos. Se compara la variable dependiente etiquetas rojas contra la variable capacitación bajo los rubros de creatividad, trabajo en equipo, mejora continua, solución de problemas, gestión, costo y entrega a tiempo. A través de un análisis de correlación que incluyo una muestra de 172 participantes y con un alfa de 0.01 se probó estadísticamente que la capacitación es realmente una herramienta competitiva para el desarrollo de la calidad representada por las etiquetas rojas. Finalmente se comparan los resultados obtenidos en esta organización a nivel micro con los resultados de otra organización a nivel sistémico.

PALABRAS CLAVE: capacitación, competitividad, artículos defectuosos.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El problema de investigación que aborda el presente estudio es si la capacitación puede reducir el número de artículos defectuosos en una empresa arnesera. Durante los últimos meses esta empresa de arneses ha experimentado un alza de los artículos defectuosos por arnés o etiquetas rojas. Durante enero y febrero los defectos fueron de 55 y 68 respectivamente. Sin embargo, para marzo, abril y mayo las etiquetas rojas subieron un promedio mensual del 8.6%. El objetivo central de este proyecto es probar que la capacitación en creatividad e innovación, en trabajo en equipo, en mejora continua, en solución de problemas, en gestión, en costo, y en entrega a tiempo esta inversamente relacionada con el numero de artículos defectuosos producidos en la organización. Un segundo objetivo que se desprende del anterior es ofrecer alternativas de acción a través de la capacitación para reducir el número de etiquetas rojas o artículos defectuosos por arnés. La hipótesis principal de investigación es que de acuerdo a la percepción de los trabajadores de esta empresa la capacitación tiene una relación muy importante con el número de etiquetas rojas producidas dentro de la organización. De probarse esta hipótesis, podemos afirmar que la capacitación esta relacionada con la calidad con que se producen los arneses en esta empresa.

Marco Teórico General: Modelo De Competitividad Sistémica

Las empresas arneseras de México han sido ubicadas en este país como parte de la estrategia global de competitividad de las empresas trasnacionales automotrices. El diferencial salarial, ha sido uno de los atractivos para que la industria arnesera estadounidense traslade a México procesos simples de baja tecnología y mano de obra sin calificación (Carrillo & Hinojosa, 2001). Además del diferencial salarial, otro factor importante en la ubicación de las empresas arneseras ha sido la obtención de ventajas competitivas a nivel regional, a través de la formación de clústeres industriales. Los clústeres son

encadenamientos de sectores de la economía que producen bienes relacionados y/o complementarios. Son concentraciones de compañías interconectadas, proveedores especializados, proveedores de servicios, firmas e industrias relacionadas e instituciones asociadas (universidades, asociaciones, etc.) ubicadas en el campo particular donde compiten y cooperan las empresas al mismo tiempo (Porter, 1998).

De acuerdo a Carrillo e Hinojosa (2001) ocurren dos tendencias opuestas en la industria arnesera. Por un lado, la característica de ser altamente intensivas en mano de obra no calificada empuja a las empresas a dispersar su producción buscando cada cierto tiempo fuentes de mano de obra abundante y más barata. Pero al mismo tiempo la alta dependencia a las variaciones en los diseños y especificaciones de los clientes requiere reducir sustancialmente el *lead time*, tendiendo hacia la aglomeración industrial [o a la formación de clústeres] (p.99).De esta manera, se puede apreciar que en el diseño de las estrategias globales de competitividad las empresas evalúan la interrelación de dos tipos generales de ventajas: las ventajas comparativas y las ventajas competitivas. Las ventajas comparativas están relacionadas con las capacidades específicas de las empresas en cuanto a conocimiento, tecnología, investigación y desarrollo, comercialización, habilidades administrativas, etc.

A partir de la década de los ochentas, Michael Porter cuestionó los principales supuestos de la teoría de las ventajas comparativas y desarrolló un modelo de los determinantes de las ventajas competitivas de la nación. A la tradicional dotación de factores, Porter agregó las condiciones de la demanda, el papel de los sectores conexos y de apoyo y la estructura, estrategia y rivalidad de la empresa. De acuerdo a Porter, la globalización de los sectores libera a las empresas de la dependencia de la dotación de factores de una nación. En teoría los mercados globales, la transportación rápida y las comunicaciones de alta velocidad permiten que las compañías obtengan sus recursos de cualquier lugar del mundo en cualquier momento. Sin embargo, en la práctica, la localización de los factores de producción sigue constituyendo un elemento central de la competitividad (Porter, 1998).

Para Porter (1990), el único concepto significativo de la competitividad a nivel nacional es la productividad. Para comprender los determinantes de la productividad Porter recomienda partir de sectores y competidores a la economía como un todo. Una de las herramientas básicas que Porter utiliza para diagnosticar la ventaja competitiva es la cadena del valor. La cadena del valor disgrega a la empresa en las actividades estratégicas relevantes para comprender el comportamiento de los costos y las fuentes de diferenciación existente y potencial. Las empresas no solo examinan su propia cadena del valor para encontrar fuentes de ventaja competitiva, sino también examinan la cadena del valor a nivel sector y sectores conexos. De allí Porter (2000) deriva el término clústeres. El modelo de la ventaja competitiva de las naciones de Porter (1990) sirvió de base para al desarrollo del modelo de competitividad sistémica conformado por seis niveles de competitividad y diez capitales (Villarreal, 2001). Los seis niveles de la competitividad y diez capitales (Villarreal, 2001). Los seis niveles de la competitividad sistémica para el desarrollo, puede apreciarse en términos resumidos en el siguiente cuadro (Lara & Acevedo, 2006):

Niveles	Capital	
Microeconómico.	Empresarial	Organización
		 Flexibilidad de la Producción.
	x 1 1	 Agilidad en la comercialización.
	Laboral	 Aprendizaje y creación del conocimiento productivo.
		 Capacitación y adiestramiento.
		 Productividad de la mano de obra y capital intelectual.
Mesoeconomico.	Organizacional.	 Articulación productiva.
	Logístico.	 Infraestructura para el desarrollo del capital humano.
	Intelectual.	 Infraestructura científica y tecnológica.
		 Tecnologías de la información.
		 Organización inteligente.
Macroeconómico.	Macroeconómico.	Tipo de cambio.
		Demanda agregada.
		Sistema fiscal.
		Sistema financiero
Internacional	Internacional.	Competencia desleal.
		 Promoción de exportaciones.
		 Integración internacional, comercial y productiva.
		 IED y transferencia tecnológica
Institucional.	Institucional.	• Estado de derecho.
		 Promoción de la actividad económica.
		 Servicios públicos.
		Eficiencia gubernamental
	Gubernamental.	
Político-social.	Social	• Confianza.

Fuente: CECIC. Modelo de Competitividad Sistémica para el desarrollo. México Competitivo 2020. Citado por Lara & Acevedo (2006).

En el modelo de competitividad sistémica, el impulso de la competitividad microeconómica "requiere de empresas inteligentes en la organización, flexibles en la producción y agiles en la comercialización, apoyadas con trabajadores de conocimiento multivalente o multi-habilidades, que permitan formar el capital intelectual de aprendizaje e innovación continuos de la empresa" (Villarreal & Ramos, 2001).

Con respecto a la competitividad mesoeconómica, o a nivel sectorial, argumentan Villarreal y Ramos (2001), la articulación productiva es el elemento clave del capital organizacional. Aquí se hace referencia a tres tipos de articulación productiva: la articulación productiva entre empresas a través de cadenas empresariales; entre empresas de diferentes sectores que forman conglomerados productivos o *clusters* y entre comunidades y ciudades. A nivel macroeconómico e internacional, las políticas macroeconómicas y sectoriales de liberalización comercial, desregulación y promoción de la inversión extranjera directa también son factores que contribuyen a la formación de redes industriales, las cuales constituyen una estrategia para que las empresas enfrenten a sus competidores. De acuerdo a Villarreal y Ramos, et al, una dinámica macroeconómica de crecimiento pleno y sostenido y la eficiencia macroeconómica son factores claves para la competitividad de las empresas. La eficiencia macroeconómica debe estar basada en un un tipo de cambio real competitivo; un sistema financiero y fiscal competitivos que permitan disponibilidad de financiamiento, plazas y tasas de interés competitivos, y un crecimiento sostenido y estable de la demanda agregada.

Efectos De La Capacitación En La Competitividad.

La intensificación de la competencia internacional ha obligado a las empresas a buscar altos estándares de calidad. Una herramienta que contribuye a mejorar la calidad de los productos es la capacitación continua de sus trabajadores. La capacitación conduce a aumentar la competitividad, mejorando el manejo de conflictos (generando actitudes más positivas), ayudando a la toma de decisiones y solución de problemas. La capacitación en trabajo en equipo, técnicas estadísticas de mejoramiento y otras también contribuyen a mejorar la calidad de los productos.

La calidad como base de la competitividad ha sido la filosofía que ha dominado a los sistemas de administración de la calidad total. Este modelo organizacional ha sido superado por el modelo de competitividad sistémica. En este modelo la innovación constituye la base de la competitividad sustentable. La innovación se promueve en base a modelos de educación que enfatizan el "aprender a aprender", "aprender a emprender" y "aprender haciendo". La capacidad de las empresas de extender los conocimientos, habilidades y valores de sus trabajadores, va a contribuir, por tanto, a que las empresas se diferencien de sus competidores y a que respondan a las necesidades de sus clientes.

El entorno organizacional e institucional de apoyo a la capacitación también contribuye a la competitividad sistémica. A nivel institucional, por ejemplo, el Estado Mexicano promueve la capacitación laboral y la considera tanto una obligación de los empresarios como un derecho de los trabajadores. La capacitación como obligación para los empresarios está establecida en la Constitución Política de México en el Artículo 123, fracción XIII. La capacitación como derecho de los trabajadores está establecida en la Ley Federal del Trabajo en su Artículo 153-A. Para apoyar la competitividad de las empresas, el Estado Mexicano creó desde 1995 un sistema de normalización y certificación de competencias laborales.

METODOLOGÍA

La presente investigación se planeo de manera cuantitativa no experimental, es decir, se planeo sin manipular intencionalmente las variables. Lo que se planteo fue observar el fenómeno tal y como se da de manera natural para posteriormente analizarlo. Esta investigación también se planeo bajo el criterio transeccional descriptivo el cual tiene como propósito describir las variables y analizar su incidencia e interrelación en un solo momento y no durante varios periodos de tiempo (Hernández Sanpieri, 2004).

La población considerada en este estudio la constituyeron los técnicos y operadores que laboran en esta empresa y estuvo compuesta por 72 mujeres y 107 hombres, quienes contaban con una edad promedio de 31 años en ambos casos, una antigüedad media de 7 años en las mujeres y 8 en los hombres y una media educativa de entre 6to de primaria y primero de secundaria. De las 179 personas, el 86% provienen del interior del país y solo el 14% son del estado de Chihuahua. Para no llevar a cabo un estudio exhaustivo innecesario se opto por tomar una muestra representativa utilizando el método aleatorio simple cuidando que la muestra incluyera el mismo número de personas por departamento y genero. Se utilizo la siguiente fórmula para determinar el tamaño de la muestra:

$$n = [n'/(1+n'/N)]$$
 $n' = S^2/V^2$

Donde N= Tamaño de la población=179, n=tamaño de la muestra, n'= tamaño de la muestra sin ajustar = 44, S^2 = Varianza de la muestra = p(1-p) = 0.999(1-0.99) = 0.0099 y V² = Varianza estimada de la población = (sigmax,y cuadrada). Por lo tanto:

$$n = 35.48 = 35$$

Para recolectar la información se diseño un cuestionario con una escala tipo Likert el cual incluyo un total de 37 preguntas divididas en siete categorías que representan las variables: 1) Creatividad e innovación, 2) Trabajo en equipo, 3) Mejora continua, 4) Solución de problemas, 5) Gestión, 6) Costo, y 7) Entrega a tiempo. Los puntajes obtenidos de este cuestionario fueron correlacionados con los reportes mensuales de calidad, en los cuales se especifico el tipo de defecto y la frecuencia del mismo dentro de la elaboración del arnés, como una manera de ver el efecto que tiene la capacitación como ventaja competitiva de la empresa.

Para validar este cuestionario se pidió a cinco gerentes que contestaran el cuestionario y nos dieran su opinión acerca de la claridad con que estaban hechas las preguntas y si las preguntas tenían consistencia teórica. Esta retroalimentación nos impulso a llevar a cabo algunos cambios tanto de lenguaje como de teoría, entre los mas importantes fueron: 1) Que estábamos evaluando la capacitación de la creatividad e innovación, del trabajo en equipo, de la mejora continua, de la resolución de problemas, de la gestión, del costo, y de la entrega a tiempo, en términos de la percepción de estos trabajadores y 2) que la organización no había considerado ningún tipo de teoría en que basara su capacitación con miras competitivas. Del cuestionario obtuvimos puntajes de las siete variables y los correlacionamos con el número de artículos defectuosos o etiquetas rojas que cada trabajador incurrió en los últimos cinco meses de trabajo. El tipo de técnica estadística que usamos fue la correlación bivariada de Pearson, que solo muestra si dos variables están relacionadas entre si, sin determinar causalidad, aunque no la descarta. La formula de correlación bivariada de Pearson de acuerdo a Anderson, Sweeney y Williams (2004) es:

$$-1 \le r = [Cov (X, Y)/s_{X} s_{y}] = [\sum (X_{t} - X_{m}) * (Y_{t} - Y_{m})/\sqrt{\sum (X_{t} - X_{m})} * \sqrt{\sum (Y_{t} - Y_{m})}] \le 1$$

Donde r = correlación entre x, y; sx, sy = desviaciones estándar de x, y; X_t = valores individuales de la variable independiente; X_m = media de la variable dependiente; Y_t = valores individuales de la variable independiente; y Y_m = media de la variable independiente.

En esta sección se planeo calcular y probar una correlación global con todos los trabajadores, otra solo con los técnicos, y finalmente otra solo con los operadores. La formula que usamos para la prueba de hipótesis fue (Anderson et al, 2004):

$$t_c = [(r-0) / \sqrt{\sum(Y_t - Y_m)}]$$

Comparar contra t_t con n-2 grados de libertad y a un $\dot{\alpha} = 0.01$.

Donde t_c = valor t de calculo; r = correlación de las variables x.y; y $\dot{\alpha}$ es el nivel de confianza que se desea tener en la prueba.

Con respecto a la metodología se tuvieron dos limitantes, la primera fue que no calculamos las correlaciones individuales por variable y la segunda fue que la empresa no tenia los registros completos de cada uno de los trabajadores de las horas de capacitación por variable motivo por el cual tampoco se llevo a cabo la correlación de horas de capacitación y las variables en cuestión.

Analisis De Los Datos

Para analizar los datos regresemos a las hipótesis para tener claridad sobre que es lo que estamos probando. La primera hipótesis es:

H₀: La percepción de los trabajadores de esta empresa es que la capacitación no tiene relación con el número de etiquetas rojas. $\rho_0 = 0$

H_a: La percepción de los trabajadores de esta empresa es que la capacitación si tiene relación con el numero de etiquetas rojas. $P_a \neq 0$

$$r = -0.7215 \qquad r \text{ cuadrada} = 0.5205$$

tc = (r - 0) / $\sqrt{\sum}$ (Yi - Ym) = 0.7215/0.1188 = -6.07
tt α = 0.01, n-2 g.l. = 2.727

Por lo tanto rechazamos H_0 y podemos confirmar que con un 95% de probabilidad la percepción de los trabajadores de esta empresa es que en verdad la capacitación si tiene relación con el numero de etiquetas rojas producidas por ellos mismos.

La segunda hipótesis fue:

H₀: La percepción de los operadores de esta empresa es que la capacitación no tiene relación con el numero de etiquetas rojas. $\rho_0 = 0$

H_a: La percepción de los operadores de esta empresa es que la capacitación si tiene relación con el numero de etiquetas rojas. $\rho_a \neq 0$

$$\begin{array}{l} r = -0.7765 \quad \ \ r \ \ cuadrada = 0.6029 \\ tc = (r-0) \ / \ \ \sqrt{\sum} \ (Yi-Ym) = -0.7765 \ / 0.08823 = -8.8 \\ tt \ \ \dot{\alpha} = 0.01, n-2 \ \ g. = 2.807 \end{array}$$

Por lo tanto también rechazamos H_0 y afirmamos con 95% de probabilidad que de acuerdo a la percepción de los trabajadores la capacitación en esta empresa si tiene una relación con el número de etiquetas rojas producidas por ellos mismos.

En cuanto a la última hipótesis tenemos que:

H₀: La percepción de los técnicos de esta empresa es que la capacitación no tiene relación con el número de etiquetas rojas. $\rho_0 = 0$

H_a: La percepción de los técnicos de esta empresa es que la capacitación si tiene relación con el numero de etiquetas rojas. $\rho_a \neq 0$

Por lo tanto, al igual que las dos anteriores, rechazamos H₀ y concluimos que con un 95% de probabilidad estamos seguros de que la percepción de los técnicos de esta empresa en cuanto a que la capacitación si tiene relación inversa con el numero de etiquetas rojas.

CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES.

Nuestra primera conclusión es que no hay duda de que la capacitación estratégica tenga una relación inversa muy importante y esencial con el número de etiquetas rojas. Esto quiere decir que a mayor capacitación estratégica, menor va a ser el número de etiquetas rojas producidas en esta empresa arnesera. Incluimos el adjetivo estratégico a la capacitación porque pensamos que de acuerdo con el Diccionario Walden de negocios (2011), estratégico significa "decisiones o planes diseñados para impactar favorablemente sobre los factores críticos o clave sobre los cuales se espera un resultado deseado dentro de una organización." Por ello es importante que la capacitación se imparta de acuerdo a los problemas que tenga la organización.

Nuestra primera recomendación es que la capacitación sea estratégica en las organizaciones en general, incluida la empresa que acabamos de estudiar. Para ello se requiere que la organización lleve a cabo un diagnóstico de necesidades y problemas críticos y con ello crear un sistema de capacitación estratégica.

La segunda conclusión tiene que ver con el valor de la correlación r de Pearson de todos los trabajadores en general el cual fue de 0.7215 y cuyo coeficiente de determinación es de apenas 0.5205. Esto quiere decir que solo el 52% o poco más de la mitad de los trabajadores de la empresa reciben la capacitación que necesitan, el resto recibe capacitación diferente o no la recibe.

Nuestra segunda recomendación es que habiendo diseñado un sistema de capacitación estratégica que este bajo control estadístico, entonces y solo entonces intentar mejorar el coeficiente de determinación en al menos 0.70. Esto implica lograr un coeficiente de Pearson r de 0.84.

Comparando las correlaciones de los técnicos 0.7765 y la de los operadores 0.8870 podemos afirmar que se les ofrece mejor y más capacitación a los operadores que a los técnicos. Pero si partimos de que la alta gerencia es la responsable del 85% de lo que sucede en la empresa y solo el 15 % los trabajadores (Deming, 1993), podemos visualizar lo importante que es que la capacitación a los técnicos tenga una correlación mayor del 0.88.

Nuestra tercera recomendación es que urgentemente se mejore la calidad y la cantidad de la capacitación a los técnicos y a los gerentes. Obviamente esto implica determinar y evaluar el tipo y calidad de capacitación que se les ofrece a los gerentes.

Finalmente, recomendamos para esta empresa el modelo de competitividad sistémica, para que se impulse la competitividad microeconómica la cual requiere que la gerencia diseñe sistemas inteligentes para la organización, flexibles en la producción y agiles en la comercialización, apoyadas con trabajadores con conocimiento multivalente y/o multi-habilidades, que permitan formar el capital intelectual de aprendizaje e innovación continuos de la empresa (Villarreal & Ramos, 2001).

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Esther A. Enríquez-Pérez, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. esthenri@nmsu.edu

Eduardo F. Macias-Negrete, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. edmacias@nmsu.edu Erick Gómez-Aguilar, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez. erick.gomez@delphi.com

LA EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR EN MÉXICO EN INVESTIGACIÓN CIENTÍFICA CUALITATIVA CONCEPTUAL EN ADMINISTRACIÓN; BASES, CUESTIONAMIENTOS Y PROPUESTA

Germán Rodríguez Frías, Universidad de Guanajuato Víctor Luis Muro Salinas, Universidad de Guanajuato Adolfo Rafael Rodríguez Santoyo, Universidad de Guanajuato

RESUMEN

La enseñanza en México, de la Investigación Científica Cualitativa Conceptual en Administración, enfrenta un problema: generalmente se imparte con un enfoque cuantitativo; no se toma en cuenta la comprensión del significado de los fenómenos sociales (Verstehen), en contraposición a la postura de las ciencias naturales, que busca la explicación científica (Erklären). Es imperativo tener presente que existen las ciencias humanas o ciencias del espíritu, es decir el modelo de las "Geisteswissenschaften", en contraposición con el modelo epistemológico de las "Naturwissenchaften", aplicable este último a las ciencias naturales. Theodor W. Adorno, al hablar sobre la situación actual de la investigación social empírica en Alemania, nos dice: "Así, podría replicarse que la tarea de la ciencia no es ordenar datos, clasificarlos y tomarlos por lo que se hacen pasar; que más bien habría que interpretarlos; que muy frecuentemente la forma en que se presentan los fenómenos no hace sino ocultar su esencia social." Afirmamos, sostenemos y proponemos que no es posible realizar investigación científica cualitativa conceptual sin saber pensar correctamente, sin conocer lo elemental de la ciencia de la razón: la Lógica.

FACTORES NO FINANCIEROS DETERMINANTES EN LAS DECISIONES DE INVERSION

Mario Chan, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur

RESUMEN

En las últimas décadas, la forma de cómo se gestiona el valor para el accionista por parte de las empresas ha cambiado. Esta nueva economía ya no solo considera la creación de riquezas a través de activos físicos o tangibles, tales como planta, maquinaria, infraestructura, inventarios, efectivo, entre otros, sino que han cobrado relevancia los activos o recursos intangibles que posee la empresa.La tarea de los altos directivos en las empresas es tomar decisiones con base en factores financieros y de igual manera gestionar factores no financieros. La imagen de la marca, la participación del mercado, el nivel de satisfacción y fidelización de los clientes, y la calidad de los productos y servicios, constituyen, entre otros, las nuevas fuentes de creación de valor en una empresa, denominados Activos Intangibles.Con base en lo anterior, este trabajo de investigación pretende conocer y analizar si los empresarios que vinculan acciones de colaboración con la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR) consideran los factores intangibles y/o no financieros en sus decisiones de inversión.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Decisión, inversión, intangibles.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En las últimas décadas, la forma de cómo se gestiona el valor para el accionista por parte de las empresas ha cambiado. Esta nueva economía ya no solo considera la creación de riquezas a través de activos físicos o tangibles, tales como planta, maquinaria, infraestructura, inventarios, efectivo, entre otros, sino que han cobrado relevancia los activos o recursos intangibles que posee la empresa.El recurso humano de una empresa, con sus aportes e ideas, constituye uno de los conductores más significativos en la creación de riqueza en la presente economía global, generando nuevas obligaciones y responsabilidades tanto para los inversionistas como para los ejecutivos corporativos. Así, hoy los inversionistas deben mejorar la forma en que valorizan las empresas donde tienen inversiones en acciones, mientras que los ejecutivos tienen la tarea de reportar a la comunidad financiera esta nueva forma de creación de valor.

El capital intelectual en general, la imagen de la marca, la participación del mercado, el nivel de satisfacción y fidelización de los clientes, y la calidad de los productos y servicios, constituyen, entre otros, las nuevas fuentes de creación de valor en una empresa, denominados Activos Intangibles.Por otra parte un número importante de empresas han establecido convenios de trabajo con la Universidad tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR); este grupo de empresas está conformado por empresas de servicios, industriales y manufactureras. El 100% de estas compañías brindan sus instalaciones para que los alumnos de Contaduría de la UTRSUR del 6° cuatrimestre realicen su residencia de estadía y desarrollen proyectos de mejora, involucrándose de esta manera en el sector empresarial. Dado que se cuenta con el padrón completo de estas empresas y que en conjunto abarcan varios sectores de la industria manufacturera, principalmente la de alimentos, así como empresas de servicios, consideramos importante identificar los factores no financieros que consideran al momento de tomar decisiones.

Objetivo General

Considerando entonces, lo mencionado anteriormente, este trabajo de investigación tiene como objetivo general conocer y analizar si las empresas vinculadas con la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur consideran los factores intangibles y/o no financieros en sus decisiones de inversión.

Objetivos Específicos

Establecer en cuanto a las empresas que tienen convenio de colaboración con la UTRSUR, respecto a la carrera de contaduría, los siguientes puntos:

- Conocer el grado de utilidad que le asignan a los estados contables financieros emitidos por estas compañías en las cuales poseen inversiones, para los efectos de la toma de decisión de invertir en ellas.
- 2) Identificar la importancia de los factores financieros y no financieros que consideran al evaluar una potencial inversión.
- 3) Establecer la ponderación que asignan a los factores no financieros, al evaluar una potencial inversión.
- 4) Conocer si las empresas encuestadas cuentan analista o grupo de analistas internos para evaluar potenciales decisiones de inversión

METODOLOGÍA

a) Diseño de la investigación y fuente de datos

Al comienzo de este trabajo se utilizó una investigación exploratoria para obtener una impresión más definida de los factores no financieros y de mayor relevancia usados en la realidad mexicana, que ayudarán a la formulación de la encuesta que se suministrará a los distintos tipos de empresas vinculadas a la UTRSUR, respecto de la carrera de contaduría.En esta exploración, se emplearon fuentes primarias y secundarias de datos. Las fuentes secundarias son datos ya recolectados y publicados con propósitos diferentes a las necesidades inmediatas y especificas de la investigación. Estas fueron las siguientes:

- Estudios e investigaciones realizados por empresas multinacionales de reconocimiento mundial, como son Ernest and Young y PriceWaterhouse Coopers, que a través de sus centros de investigación han contribuido al estudio de las brechas existentes en el reporte de los aspectos no financieros por parte de las compañías, y la importancia que ellos tienen para los inversionistas institucionales de distintos países.
- Otra bibliografía sobre los activos no financieros (el capital intelectual) que poseen las empresas.

La información primaria se obtuvo mediante entrevistas en profundidad, realizadas a ejecutivos pertenecientes a las empresas más relevantes del padrón de la UTRSUR.Previo al diseño del cuestionario, se entrevistó a diez ejecutivos pertenecientes a diferentes empresas de las mencionadas anteriormente.Estas entrevistas permitieron una mayor comprensión de las preguntas incluidas en el cuestionario suministrado posteriormente, además de permitir efectuar las modificaciones concordantes a la realidad del ámbito empresarial del medio.

Lo efectuado precedentemente permitió recabar la información adecuada para la realización de una investigación concluyente. La investigación concluyente está diseñada con el fin de suministrar información para la evaluación de cursos alternativos de acción. Para la finalidad de este estudio, se utilizó una investigación concluyente de tipo descriptiva, la que tiene como objetivo principal describir el grado de importancia, asignado por los distintos empresarios vinculados a la UTRSUR, a los factores no financieros en sus decisiones de inversión.

b) Población y muestra

La población total proporcionada por el área de vinculación en el periodo cuatrimestral enero a abril 2011 fue de 50 empresas. Dentro de este grupo de empresas se encuentras industrias manufactureras, principalmente del sector alimentos y empresas de servicios.Aplicando el programa SurveyIM de Espejo (2003), se calculo la muestra tomando un nivel de confianza del 90% y un margen de error del 10%, dando como resultado la aplicación de encuesta a 33 empresas.

c) procesamiento de la información

Para el procesamiento de datos, su tabulación, obtención de tablas de frecuencias y cruzamiento de datos, se utilizó el paquete estadístico SPSS 17.0.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Según la Norma de Información Financiera C-8, de Activos intangibles (NIF C-8), son aquellos activos no monetarios identificables, sin sustancia física, que generarán beneficios económicos futuros controlados por la entidad. Pero en la nueva economía, esta era del conocimiento, el término tradicional de activo intangible ha tomado un nuevo significado y se ha entrelazado con otros términos como activos invisibles, gestión del conocimiento, "knowledge management" y, finalmente, el más significativo, el "Capital Intelectual". Stewart (1998) define el capital intelectual como "la suma de todo lo que saben las personas de la compañía que entrega una ventaja competitiva en el mercado.". Edvisson y Malone (1997), de la compañía de seguros sueca Skandia, lo definió como el "conocimiento que se puede convertir en valor". Según Valenzuela (2003) los indicadores financieros tradicionales tales como flujo de caja, utilidades, retornos sobre activos, etc., son conceptos que se pueden extraer de los estados contables de todas las compañías que lo poseen, sin importar la industria en que se encuentren.

Por contraste, el reporte de los activos intangibles tiene como necesidad establecer indicadores no financieros a medida para cada sector, y en algunos casos en el mismo sector los indicadores no financieros varían de firma en firma. Lo anterior hace que la medición de los activos intangibles sea onerosa, y plantea un mayor grado de dificultad en establecer un estándar. Además, si a lo expuesto le sumamos que el reporte de indicadores no financieros es algo nuevo y desafía al reporte tradicional de indicadores financieros , la medición de activos intangibles puede incluso generar rechazo y desconfianza. Según Kaplan y Norton (2002), una de las razones por la que las empresas utilizan modelos de medición de capital intelectual, es para identificarlo, ya que constituye el "capital oculto", pues como señalan dichos autores, no se puede gestionar aquello que no se puede medir.

De igual manera, Kaplan y Norton, propusieron un modelo de gestión empresarial, basado en la estrategia, cuyo funcionamiento exigía la definición de una serie de indicadores que permitieran la toma de decisiones. La idea fundamental que subyace en él, es que sólo puede gestionarse aquello que puede medirse. Este modelo presenta un conjunto equilibrado de indicadores que representan la visión y estrategia de la empresa desde cuatro puntos de vista. La perspectiva financiera, la perspectiva de los clientes, la perspectiva de los procesos internos y la perspectiva del aprendizaje y el crecimiento.Para Saint-Onge (1996), referenciado por Alama (2008), el capital intelectual tiene tres componentes: *capital humano*, referido a las capacidades de los individuos para proveer soluciones a los clientes; *capital estructural*, que son las capacidades de la organización para satisfacer las necesidades del mercado; este capital, está compuesto a su vez de cuatro elementos: sistemas, estructura, estrategia y cultura. Y finalmente el *capital cliente*, que refleja la penetración, cobertura, lealtad y rentabilidad de los clientes. El modelo de Navegador de Skandia (Edvinsson, 1997) se aplicó a la compañía de seguros Skandia. Su autor, Edvinsson, plantea que en una empresa existe un conjunto de activos intangibles que no estarían reflejados en los estados contables emitidos por las compañías anualmente. Pero sí estarían presentes en

las diferencias entre el valor libro de la empresa y el de mercado.Para Edvinsson, el valor de mercado de una compañía está constituido por dos componentes: el "capital financiero" de la compañía y el "capital intelectual". El capital intelectual, a su vez, se divide en capital humano y capital estructural; el primero se refiere a las competencias y habilidades de los empleados de la organización, mientras que el segundo considera a los conocimientos explicitados por la organización.

Según el modelo Intelect (Euroforum, 1998), bajo la dirección del Doctor Eduardo Bueno Campos, dentro de la medición del capital intelectual se establecen tres bloques: capital humano, capital estructural y capital relacional, bloques conformados por elementos, que a su vez pueden ser medidos por una serie de indicadores."Ernst and Young", empresa de auditoría multinacional, a través de su centro de investigación "Cap Gemini", realizo numerosos estudios relacionados con la importancia que poseen los activos intangibles en las empresas actualmente. Estos estudios, comprendieron la identificación, medición y gestión de los activos intangibles en las empresas modernas.El estudio señala que los indicadores financieros comúnmente utilizados en las valorizaciones de empresas, tales como el flujo de caja, las utilidades, y ratios de precio / utilidad, siguen siendo medidas financieras importantes, pero que cuentan con un gran defecto en esta nueva economía, este es, que las medidas financieras son solo reflejo de transacciones ya realizadas. También plantea que el éxito en el manejo de una compañía se basa en la adecuada gestión de medidas, tanto financieras como no financieras, por parte de los gerentes generales. "Measures that matter" fue aplicado en Estados Unidos e Inglaterra, donde midió la importancia que tenían los indicadores no financieros para los distintos inversionistas institucionales. Para lograr dicho objetivo señalado en el párrafo anterior, el estudio definió 39 indicadores no financieros agrupados en ocho "aspectos no financieros" o dimensiones, tal como se señala en la tabla siguiente:

Tabla 01: Indicadores no financieros agrupados en ocho dimensiones según estudio de "Measures that Matter"

Calidad del management	Efectividad de políticas de compensación hacia ejecutivos	
Ejecución de la estrategia corporativa Calidad de la estrategia corporativa Experiencia del management Calidad de la visión organizacional Estilo del liderazgo del gerente general	Alineamiento de las compensaciones con los intereses de los accionistas Políticas de compensación basadas en desempeño Ratio de compensación gerentes / compensación fuerza de trabajo	
Efectividad del desarrollo de nuevos productos	Calidad de la comunicación con los inversionistas	
Liderazgo en investigación Eficiencia del desarrollo de nuevos productos Ciclo del tiempo del desarrollo de nuevos productos % de las ventas que provienen de los nuevos productos	Credibilidad del management Accesibilidad del management Calidad de los materiales publicados Calidad de la orientación	
Fortaleza de la posición de mercado	Calidad de los productos y servicios	
Innovación Participación del mercado Imagen de la marca Fortaleza del marketing y la publicidad	Calidad de los procesos Calidad percibida por los clientes Tasas de productos defectuosos / tasas de servicios defectuosos Durabilidad del producto	
Fortaleza de la cultura corporativa	Nivel de satisfacción al cliente	
Habilidad para retener y atraer a personas talentosas Calidad de la fuerza del trabajo Calidad de los sistemas de incentivo por desempeño Tasas de rotación de personal	Nivel de satisfacción al cliente Frecuencia de ventas repetidas Número de quejas por cliente Calidad del departamento de servicio al cliente	

Tabla que refleja los principales indicadores no financieros cuestionado a los gerentes generales según "Measures that matter" y el cual fue aplicado en Estados Unidos e Inglaterra, donde midió la importancia que tenían los indicadores no financieros para los distintos inversionistas institucionales. Fuente: Blitz (1997)

Los inversionistas institucionales (La encuesta realizada en Estados Unidos considero a 275 inversionistas institucionales, en el caso de Inglaterra se encuestaron a 50 inversionistas institucionales) más relevantes

de Estados Unidos e Inglaterra fueron encuestados para determinar cuáles eran los atributos no financieros más importantes al momento de evaluar una potencial inversión en acciones.Los resultados obtenidos en estos estudios fueron sorprendentes, la información no financiera constituía cerca del 35% de la decisión de inversión para los más grandes fondos de inversión existentes en Estados Unidos eInglaterra.Además, se lograron determinar los indicadores no financieros más importantes para los inversionistas institucionales de cada país. Por ejemplo, tanto en Estados Unidos como en Inglaterra, el indicador no financiero más importante es la ejecución de la estrategia corporativa (de aquí se desprende el éxito que tienen los cuadros de mando como el "balance scorecard", que permiten gestionar los intangibles para que se produzcan la estrategias establecidas por la dirección).

Asimismo, el segundo indicador no financiero más importante para Estados Unidos, lo constituye la credibilidad de los ejecutivos, mientras que en Inglaterra es la calidad de la estrategia corporativa.

Tabla 02: Indicadores no financieros mas importantes para Estados Unidos e Inglaterra según estudio de "Measures that Matter"

No	Estados Unidos	Inglaterra
01	Ejecución de la estrategia corporativa	Ejecución de la estrategia corporativa
02	Credibilidad del management	Calidad de la estrategia corporativa
03	Calidad de la estrategia	Participación de mercado
04	Innovación	Credibilidad del management
05	Habilidad para atraer y retener a personas talentosas	Investigación y desarrollo e innovación
06	Participación del mercado	Experiencia del management
07	Experiencia del management	Liderazgo en investigación
08	Calidad de la compensación a los ejecutivos	Calidad de los procesos
09	Calidad de los procesos	Capacidad global
10	Liderazgo en la investigación	Habilidad para atraer y retener a personas talentosas

Esta tabla vislumbra los indicadores no financieros más importantes para Estados Unidos e Inglaterra según estudio de "Measures that Matter" Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a "Measures that matter US" (1997) y "Mesures that matter UK" (2002)

RESULTADOS

En cuanto al objetivo 01 el cual requiere conocer el grado de utilidad que le asignan a los estados contables financieros emitidos por estas compañías en las cuales poseen inversiones, para los efectos de la toma de decisión de invertir en ellas, se puede observar *e*n la figura 01 que el 78.79% de los encuestados respondio que los estados contables que elaboran para toma de decisiones de inversion son de gran utilidad, el 9.09% considera que son medianamente utiles y un 12.12% lo percibe como poco util.

Figura 01: Grado de utilidad de los empresarios con respecto a sus estados contables emitidos

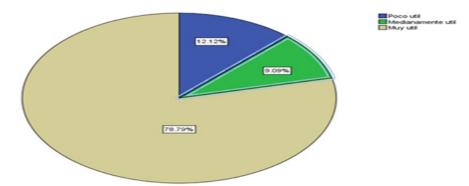


Figura que califica el grado de utilidad, que tienen los estados contables emitidos por sus empresas para la toma de decisiones de inversión. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011) con base en SPSS versión 17.0.

Este resultado contrasta con numerosos estudios extranjeros que indican una creciente disconformidad con los estados contables, por cuanto no estarían reflejando el verdadero valor de una compañía. Sin embargo, el hecho de que un 12.12% de los empresarios encuestados piense que los estados contables poseen "poca utilidad", como herramienta de apoyo para la evaluación de decisiones de inversión, abre un espacio para plantear la posibilidad de que perciben los estados contables como no generadores de información valiosa acerca de todo el valor que posee una compañía.El objetivo 02 que refiere el identificar la importancia de los factores financieros y no financieros que consideran al evaluar una potencial inversión, los podemos visualizar en las figuras 02 y 03, los cuales se presenta a continuación:

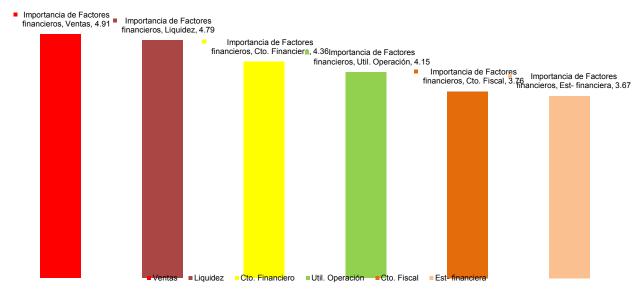


Figura 02: Importancia de factores financieros

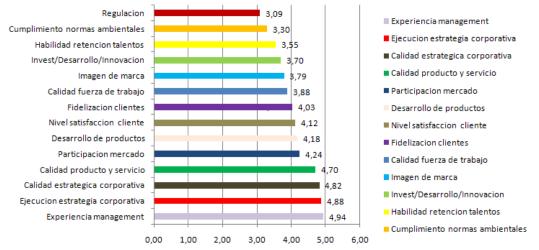
Tabla que refleja la importancia de los factores financieros de acuerdo a los valores promedio de los ítems de las dimensiones. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

En la figura 02, podemos apreciar la importancia asignada a cada uno de los factores financieros objeto de este estudio, lo cual se realizo tomando como base el valor promedio del total de las respuestas obtenidas a través de los encuestados. Como factor mas importante está el comportamiento de las ventas, ya que según Stewart (2000) todo incremento en las ventas trae consigo una generación de valor para la misma e influye en la maximización de las utilidades. Como segundo factor de importancia esta la liquidez, muchos de los empresarios encuestados argumentan que el que su empresa cuente con liquidez suficiente, les permite tomar decisiones inmediatas sobre alguna alternativa de inversión.

En tercer orden de importancia esta el costo financiero, en el cual los empresarios mencionan que el adquirir estos al mas bajo costo repercute en la generación de valor para la empresa. Como cuarto punto esta la utilidad de operación en la cual refieren que al obtener un mayor margen de la misma con respecto a las ventas, les permite cubrir sus cargas fiscales, intereses y obtener una rentabilidad deseada.

En quinto y sexto punto podemos observar a los costos fiscales y a la estructura financiera los cuales no son considerados tan relevantes como los anteriormente mencionados.

Figura 03: Importancia de factores no financieros



Importancia de factores NO financieros

Tabla que refleja la importancia de los factores financieros de acuerdo a los valores promedio de los ítems de las dimensiones. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

En la figura 03, podemos apreciar la importancia asignada a cada uno de los factores no financieros objeto de este estudio, lo cual se realizo, al igual que el anterior punto, tomando como base el valor promedio del total de las respuestas obtenidas a través de los encuestados. El factor de mayor importancia para los empresarios encuestados es la experiencia del management, prácticamente el 100% de los encuestados respondió que es muy importante para la toma de decisiones; en segundo y tercer lugar se distinguió a la ejecución y calidad estratégica corporativa, cabe mencionar que estas tres forman parte de la dimensión de "calidad del management"; en cuarto lugar se observa a la dimensión de calidad en productos y servicios, seguida de la participación del mercado (quinto) y desarrollo de productos (sexto) que forman parte de la dimensión de fortaleza de la posición del mercado.

Seguidamente queda la dimensión de satisfacción del cliente, como son nivel de satisfacción y fidelización de los clientes como importantes en el lugar séptimo y octavo; y por ultimo los factores medianamente importantes como calidad de la fuerza de trabajo, imagen de la marca, investigación y desarrollo, habilidad de retener talentos, cumplimiento de normas ambientales y regulación.En cuanto al objetivo 03 el cual requiere la identificación de la ponderación que los empresarios asignan a los factores no financieros al evaluar una potencial decisión de inversión puede observarse en la figura 04:

Figura 04: Ponderación asignada por los empresarios a los factores no financieros en sus decisiones de inversión

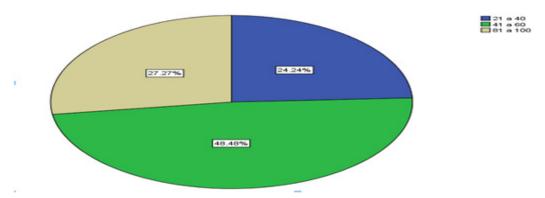


Figura que indica el porcentaje de ponderación que su empresa le asigna a los factores no financieros en sus decisiones de inversión. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011) con base en SPSS versión 17

Como podemos percatarnos, se refleja que un 48.48% de los empresarios encuestados sostuvo que los aspectos no financieros representaban entre un 41% y un 60% de sus decisiones de inversión. Por otra parte un 24.24% determino también que los factores no financieros constituían entre el 21% a 40% de sus decisiones de inversión.

De manera relevante podemos observar que el 27.27% considera los factores no financieros dentro del rango de 81% y 100% para toma de decisiones de inversión, esto nos confirma el grado de importancia que estos factores significan para el sector empresarial objeto de este estudio y que hasta cierto punto van adquiriendo mayor interés que los indicadores financieros tradicionales.

El objetivo 04, el cual pretende conocer si las empresas encuestadas cuentan analista o grupo de analistas internos para evaluar potenciales decisiones de inversión se refleja en la figura 05:

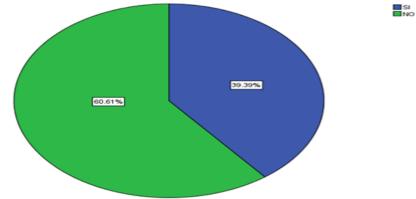


Figura 05: Porcentaje de analistas (o grupo) interno que evalúan decisiones de inversión

Figura que refleja si la empresa cuenta con un(so) grupo(s) de analista(s) especifico(s) interno(s) para evaluar potenciales decisiones de inversión. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011) con base en SPSS versión 17.0

Un 60.61% de los empresarios encuestados respondió que no poseía analistas internos para evaluar potenciales decisiones de inversión; ellos manifestaban que para éste punto contaban con asesores y consultores externos. Únicamente el 39.39% si tenía analistas internos para sus decisiones de inversión.

CONCLUSIÓN

La principal inferencia de este estudio es que los aspectos no financieros sí son considerados por los empresarios encuestados al evaluar potenciales inversiones. De hecho, un 48.48% del total de los encuestados, sostiene que estos factores representan entre un 41 y un 60 por ciento de sus decisiones de inversión y, sorprendentemente, un 27.27% manifestó que los aspectos no financieros constituyen entre un 81% y 100% de importancia al momento de evaluar una posible toma de decisión para inversión.

Dentro de los factores no financieros más importantes destaca: la experiencia del management, la ejecución de la estrategia corporativa y la calidad de la estrategia corporativa, todas ellas forman parte de la dimensión de calidad del management. En el caso de los factores financieros tradicionales, como las ventas y la liquidez, fueron sorpresivamente desplazados por los tres aspectos mencionados anteriormente, pero no en forma significativa. Todo esto demuestra que los factores que no aparecen reportados en los estados contables, tienen una mayor relevancia para las decisiones de inversión de los encuestados y, que los factores financieros siguen considerados significativamente.

El hecho de que la experiencia del management haya sido el factor más importante en este estudio, justifica la relevancia que han adquirido en las empresas los métodos de gestión de activos intangibles, como el cuadro de mando integral (balance scorecard). Este factor también aparece en el primer lugar de los estudios extranjeros analizados al documentarnos sobre este tema.La regulación, cumplimiento de normas ambientales, la investigación y desarrollo, junto con la habilidad de atraer y retener a personas talentosas, fueron los factores no financieros con la menor importancia entre los encuestados. Esto se debe en parte a la poca inversión en I + D que se realiza en nuestro país.Se están considerando más importantes los factores no financieros que los tradicionales, pero no hay un reporte formal y establecido en los estados contables.Para un mejor desempeño financiero, las empresas deben considerar estas nuevas fuentes de valor, gestionarlas e incorporarlas en los reportes que emiten.De no efectuarse lo anterior, significaría no proporcionar la información correcta que demandan los inversores, que podría generar opiniones erradas y distorsionadas sobre el verdadero valor de la compañía.

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BIOGRAFIA

El profesor Mario René Chan Magaña es profesor investigador de tiempo completo de la carrera de contaduría y Coordinador del Cuerpo Académico de Ciencias Económico Administrativas de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR). Al profesor se le puede contactar en tablaje catastral No. 792 vía del ferrocarril Mérida – Peto en Tekax de Álvaro Obregón; correo: mario.chan@utregionaldelsur.edu.mx.

Iris María Vélez Osorio, Universidad ICESI

RESUMEN

El desarrollo del que se habla en la presente investigación hace referencia al planteado por el PNUD y la propuesta de Manfred Max Neef; se hace una revisión del desarrollo humano desde ésta perspectiva; intentando hacer una aproximación a la realidad colombiana desde la disciplina administrativa explorando los elementos del desarrollo humano para Colombia, evidenciando que para el Valle del Cauca: La persistencia de las situaciones descritas pone de manifiesto que existen en el Valle del Cauca contrastes entre concentración de riqueza y desigualdad; discordancias entre el crecimiento económico experimentado y la pobreza de una proporción importante de la población; divergencias entre la pujanza de algunos territorios y el atraso de otros; incongruencias entre la disminución de la violencia en unas subregiones y su fijeza en otros lugares; disparidades notorias entre las condiciones de vida de los indígenas y afrodescendientes y las de "no étnicos". A pesar de los avances logrados en materia de contrastes en acceso a oportunidades y recursos, y revela una problemática de exclusión que afecta el desarrollo humano. (Informe de desarrollo humano para el Valle del Cauca, 2008, 46).

PALABRAS CLAVE: Desarrollo Humano, exclusión, pobreza, crecimiento económico

ABSTRACT

The development which is tread in this research refers to the idea of UNDP and the proposal of Manfred Max Neef; is a review of human development from this perspective, trying to make an approach to the Colombian reality from management exploring elements of human development for Colombia, showing that for the Valle del Cauca: The persistence of the situations described shows that exist in the Valle del Cauca contrasts between wealth concentration and inequality; inconsistencies between economic growth and poverty of a major proportion of the population; differences between the strength of some areas and backwardness of others; inconsistencies between the reduction of violence in some sub-regions and fixity in other places, glaring disparities between the living conditions of indigenous and African descent and those of "non-ethnic." Despite the progress achieved in economic growth, its benefits are not equally distributed, which is reflected in the contrasts in access to opportunities and resources, and reveals a problem of exclusion that affects human development. (Human Development Report for the Valle del Cauca, 2008, 46).

KEYWORDS: Human Development, exclusion, poverty, economic growth.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para Sen, (2000:3-5) citado en el Informe Regional de Desarrollo Humano 2008; existe una conexión entre pobreza, exclusión y privación, pues "la exclusión social hace parte directamente de la pobreza de capacidades" y porque "ser excluidos de algunas relaciones sociales puede conducir a otras privaciones que así mismo limitan en forma adicional las oportunidades en nuestra vida". En consecuencia, "la exclusión social puede (...) ser constitutivamente parte de la privación de capacidades, así como instrumentalmente una causa de diversas falencias de capacidad" (pág. 32).

Por su parte, Max Neef plantea que (Economic Growth and Quality of life: A Threshold Hypothesis. Ecological Economics. 1995. p. 117.) "having detected among people in rich countries a growing feeling that they were part of an overall deteriorating system that affected them both at the personal and collective levels, we were led to propose a "Threshold Hypothesis" stating that: for every society there seems to be a period in which economic growth (as conventionally measured) brings about an improvement in the quality of life, but only up to a point – the threshold point – beyond which, if there is more economic growth, quality of life may begin to deteriorate".

Elaborando una traducción, estamos bajo la idea de la "hipótesis del umbral" según Max Neef (crecimiento económico y la calidad de vida: Una hipótesis del umbral Economía Ecológica 1995 p. 117) "de haber detectado entre las personas en los países ricos un creciente sentimiento de que eran parte de un sistema general de deterioro que les afecta tanto en lo personal y a nivel colectivo, nos llevó a proponer una "hipótesis del umbral", afirmando que: para toda sociedad parece haber un período en el que el crecimiento económico (medidas en forma convencional) trae consigo una mejora en la calidad de vida, pero sólo hasta un punto - el punto de umbral - más allá del cual, si hay más crecimiento económico, la calidad de vida óptima ni ofrece la posibilidad de desarrollo humano, dado que la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas sólo son un eslabón en la cadena del logro del desarrollo humano, siendo así, posibilitar el alcance del desarrollo humano para toda la población se convierte en un objetivo es identificar cual sería un tipo de administración que permita alcanzar el desarrollo humano desde la perspectiva de Manfred Max Neef.

REVISIÓN TEÓRICA

¿Cuál debería ser un tipo de administración que permita alcanzar el desarrollo humano desde la perspectiva de Manfred Max Neef? De acuerdo con el PNUD Son ocho retos mundiales que se han convertido en un marco de trabajo universal para el desarrollo y en una oportunidad para desplegar herramientas que promuevan el logro de una vida digna en términos de ingreso, educación, salud, saneamiento básico, hábitat, medio ambiente y construcción de oportunidades colectivas. Colombia, mediante documento Conpes 91 de 2005, se comprometió con metas concretas para cada uno de los Objetivos del Milenio que son: 1) erradicar la pobreza extrema y el hambre; 2) lograr la educación básica universal; 3) promover la equidad de género y la autonomía de la mujer; 4) reducir la mortalidad infantil; 5) mejorar la salud sexual y reproductiva; 6) combatir el Vih/sida, la malaria y el dengue; 7) garantizar la sostenibilidad ambiental, y 8) fomentar una asociación mundial para el desarrollo.

Sin embargo, para el Valle del Cauca "la economía viene creciendo a un buen ritmo y el departamento muestra indicadores sociales que lo sitúan entre los mejores del país. A pesar de esto y de los esfuerzos realizados desde lo público y lo privado para mejorar en desarrollo social, la existencia de condiciones – sobre las que se profundiza en los diferentes capítulos del Informe– de carácter político, económico, social, ambiental y cultural genera o reproduce exclusiones que:

- Restringen el acceso de sectores poblacionales a los derechos, libertades y capacidades que se requieren para vivir en forma creativa, pacífica, productiva y saludable.
- Concentran geográfica y socialmente las oportunidades, limitando el aprovechamiento de las potencialidades del territorio, la integración de las diferentes subregiones del departamento, y frenando el desarrollo de grupos y asentamientos poblacionales sometidos a marginalidad.
- Desatienden la vulnerabilidad a la que están expuestos determinados segmentos de población de escasos recursos y los afectados por situaciones de violencia y conflicto armado.
- Provocan débil reconocimiento y respeto por las diferencias raciales y étnicas, culturales y de

género, y por preferencias sexuales y discapacidades.

• Usan en exceso los recursos naturales" (IDH, página 47).

METODOLOGÍA

La presente investigación es exploratoria y descriptiva; dado que a través de búsqueda de información por fuentes secundarias, especialmente informes de organismos internaciones sobre el tema de desarrollo humano, así como el análisis de papers, journals y publicaciones en revistas, se busca analizar lo que constituye el desarrollo humano, construyendo una descripción que permita entender cual es la problemática alrededor del tema y por qué pese al crecimiento económico, el desarrollo humano se ha vuelto un objetivo difícil de alcanzar tanto en países de economías grandes y crecientes como en países en grandes difícultades económicas y sociales. Se pretende encontrar una forma de administración que permita alcanzar el desarrollo humano desde la perspectiva de Manfred Max Neef, quien es conocido por su teoría de la economía a escala humana.

RESULTADOS PRELIMINARES

A continuación se presenta algunos resultados obtenidos a partir del análisis y una propuesta iniciar a lo que debería incluirse al realizar el estudio de desarrollo humano como fin último de disciplinas como la administración, la economía e incluso la psicología.

Desarrollo Humano en Colombia en los últimos años: Definitivamente NO es suficiente crecer, necesitamos desarrollarnos, generalmente se confunden ambos conceptos y se cree que crecimiento es sinónimo de desarrollo pero no lo es, crecer es aumentar la producción, ésto nos lleva a la idea de incrementar, pero el desarrollo no es un tema de cantidades sino obligatoriamente cualitativo en el que importa la calidad más que la cantidad para el mejoramiento de la calidad de vida de la población. Así lo importante no es generar riqueza sino generar los recursos para provocar desarrollo en términos de calidad, eficiencia y productividad y su equitativa redistribución. De acuerdo con el PNUD: El índice de desarrollo humano (Idh) es una medida sintética que mide el progreso medio de un país o región en tres aspectos: 1) el disfrute de una vida larga y saludable (esperanza de vida); 2) disponer de educación (tasa de alfabetización y tasa combinada de matriculación), y 3) tener un nivel de vida digno (Pib per cápita).

DESARROLLO

Algunas de las cifras alrededor del Desarrollo se encuentran en el Informe Regional de Desarrollo Humano 2008 "La población con necesidades básicas insatisfechas (Nbi) es 15,6%, inferior a la de Antioquia (22,6%) y casi la mitad de la de la nación (27,6%). Así mismo, el índice de desarrollo humano (Idh) en el Valle del Cauca (0,80) es el segundo del país, después del de Bogotá (0,83), y el departamento contribuye en gran medida a impulsar a la nación en términos de desarrollo humano" (P. 40).

En el informe de desarrollo humano para el Valle del Cauca 2008 se evidencia: La persistencia de las situaciones descritas pone de manifiesto que existen en el Valle del Cauca contrastes entre concentración de riqueza y desigualdad; discordancias entre el crecimiento económico experimentado y la pobreza de una proporción importante de la población; divergencias entre la pujanza de algunos territorios y el atraso de otros; incongruencias entre la disminución de la violencia en unas subregiones y su fijeza en otros lugares; disparidades notorias entre las condiciones de vida de los indígenas y afrodescendientes y las de "no étnicos". A pesar de los avances logrados en materia de crecimiento económico, sus beneficios no se distribuyen equitativamente, lo cual se refleja en los contrastes en acceso a oportunidades y recursos, y revela una problemática de exclusión que afecta el desarrollo humano (p. 46).

Estrategias de Crecimiento propuestas e implantadas por los diferentes gobiernos nacionales.

El crecimiento económico - entendiendo por crecimiento la expansión de los factores de producción -, es una variable que aumenta o disminuye el producto interno bruto (PIB). En otras palabras, Si el PIB crece a un ritmo superior al del crecimiento de la población, se dice que el nivel de vida ésta aumentando. Si por el contrario la tasa de crecimiento de la población es mayor que la tasa de crecimiento del PIB, podemos afirmar que el nivel de vida de la población está disminuyendo. En la presente investigación se analiza la actividad económica colombiana a partir de cinco elementos que han sido considerados elementos claves para el crecimiento económico del país (López y Mesa. p. 5), éstos son: las exportaciones como fuente de crecimiento económico, el régimen cambiario y el desempeño macroeconómico, las dificultades de reducir el déficit fiscal en un contexto de apertura externa, el papel de las remesas en el crecimiento y la relación entre el ahorro, el mercado de capitales y el sector financiero. Las exportaciones como fuente de crecimiento: "La estrategia de impulsar el crecimiento económico en el país a través de la expansión de la demanda agregada mediante la promoción de las exportaciones no tradicionales, ha sido el denominador común de los modelos de desarrollo imperantes en Colombia desde 1970 a la fecha, especialmente con la apertura económica que se implementó a partir de 1990...la evidencia disponible de la última década del país, permite mostrar la contribución del sector externo al crecimiento en donde se verifica una relación directa entre el crecimiento de las exportaciones no tradicionales y los ritmos de actividad económica representados en el crecimiento del PIB real" (López y Mesa. p. 9). Régimen cambiario y desempeño macroeconómico: "Los sistemas cambiarios se han convertido en un determinante importante del desempeño macroeconómico de los países, básicamente a través del crecimiento y la volatilidad del PIB per cápita.

Lo anterior sirve para señalar que dentro de las posibilidades de garantizar una estrategia de crecimiento sostenible en Colombia para la próxima década, será importante el papel que desempeñe el esquema bancario vigente en el país. Esto significa que el impulso al crecimiento anclado en el desarrollo del sector exportador a partir de mantener una meta de devaluación real acumulada del 9% anual en el futuro, deberá considerar un esfuerzo grande del Gobierno por garantizar estabilidad y reglas de juego claras en la determinación del tipo de cambio nominal en el país. Ante esto, la opción cambiaria que mantenga el Banco de la República (o el Gobierno) en el futuro será determinante en las perspectivas de alcanzar los niveles de crecimiento deseado. La pérdida de popularidad de los regímenes intermedios (entre ellos los sistemas de bandas cambiarias) se ha vinculado con su falta de sostenibilidad en presencia de reversiones masivas de los flujos de capitales. En efecto, la experiencia Colombia fue bastante evidente al respecto, especialmente en el período 1998 – 1999, cuando el Banco de la República empeñado en defender el régimen de bandas ante la fuga de capitales que se venía registrando, perdió un importante nivel de reservas internacionales y aumentó considerablemente las tasas de interés.

Los costos de los anterior estuvieron por el lado de la crisis del sistema UPAC y de la fuerte recesión económica que se observó en 1999" (López y Mesa. p. 13). Las dificultades de reducir el déficit fiscal y la mayor expansión del consumo público en un contexto de creciente apertura externa: "Uno de los problemas más relevantes de los últimos 10 años en Colombia ha sido la fuerte expansión del gasto público concentrado en pensiones y transferencias en medio de lentos incrementos en los ingresos del Estado, motivado en parte por los problemas estructurales que arrastra el régimen impositivo colombiano. Esto como es lógico, ha generado el crecimiento del déficit fiscal ,especialmente, el del Gobierno Nacional Central –GNC- y ha inducido una fuerte alza en la relación deuda pública/PIB. Ante esto, los esfuerzos de la autoridades económicas colombianas en el pasado reciente se han concentrado en introducir cambios importantes en la política fiscal que permitan impulsar reformas estructurales para garantizar un equilibrio fiscal y sostenible en el largo plazo" (López y Mesa. p. 14).

El papel de las remesas en el crecimiento: "Las remesas han incrementado su participación como porcentajes del PIB y de las exportaciones de bienes entre 1998 – 2005. en efector, para 2005

representaron cerca del 3% del PIB, mientras que en 1998 fue de 0,8% y como porcentaje de las exportaciones de bienes representaron el 16%, en tanto que en 1998 un 7,2%. Por su parte, en 2004 – 2005, el renglón de transferencias representó el 26% en promedio del total de los ingresos corrientes registrados en balanza cambiaria.

De la misma manera, al terminar 2005, las remesas estaban representando casi 23 veces los ingresos por exportaciones de café y representaban el 59,6% de las exportaciones de petróleo y sus derivados. El incremento en las remesas tiene un impacto positivo sobre el ingreso y el consumo de los hogares, de la misma manera, se constituyen en una importante fuente de financiamiento para el desarrollo, con baja volatilidad en comparación con otras fuentes de financiamiento externo (Ratha; 2003). Además, es posible que las remesas tengan cierto impacto redistributivo debido a que han permitido hacerle frente al problema de la pobreza y la distorsión de la distribución de los ingresos, a pesar de que son los estratos socioeconómicos altos las que las reciben, sin embargo, el 46% de los receptores pertenecen a los sectores más pobres de la población (Cárdenas y Cadena; 2004)" (López y Mesa. p. 16 - 17). Ahorro, mercado de capitales y sector financiero: "Un obstáculo directo a la sostenibilidad del crecimiento y a las posibilidades de lograr altos niveles de actividad económica en el país, se encuentra asociado con las bajas tasa de ahorro que se vienen registrando desde mediados de los años noventa en Colombia. Así mismo, las restricciones del proceso de intermediación financiera, como resultado del conjunto de debilidades que presenta el sector financiero nacional y la existencia de un mercado de capitales con alternativas financieras bastante limitadas, donde sobresale el mercado de la deuda pública, validan las dificultades estructurales de este importante sector de la economía como financiador potencial de los niveles de inversión interna

De acuerdo con Manfred Max Neef (1986) existen dos grandes concepciones que han dominado el panorama de América Latina: el *desarrollismo* y el *monetarismo neo-liberal*. El desarrollismo fracasó "debido fundamentalmente a su propia incapacidad para controlar los desequilibrios monetarios y financieros, a que la estructura productiva que generó -especialmente la industria - resultó tremendamente concentradora, y a que su enfoque de desarrollo, predominantemente económico, descuidó otros procesos sociales y políticos que comenzaban a emerger con fuerza y gravitación crecientes, especialmente después del triunfo de la Revolución Cubana", tuvo lugar entre 1950 y 1960 y se caracterizó por generar una corriente de pensamiento en la que surgen: la CEPAL, el Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, el Pacto Andino, la Alianza para el Progreso, y la UNCTAD entre otras. Por su parte, el monetarismo neo-liberal ofreció recetas por lo que generó crecimiento económico pero no desarrollo, considerando al crecimiento como fin en sí mismo; se caracterizó por contar con unos supuestos de racionalidad económica mecanicistas e inadaptables a las condiciones de países pobres, pretendiendo liberar los mercados de los que están excluidos los pobres precisamente, de igual forma la aplicación en una economía especulativa en la que grupos de poder no tienen límites lo que ocurre es la concentración y no el desarrollo.

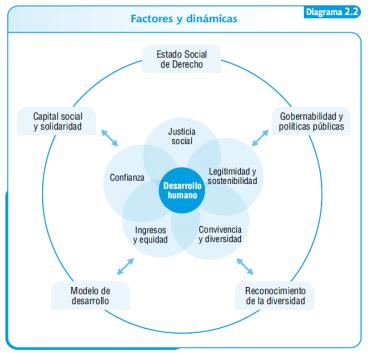
"Las dos han pecado de mecanicistas y de provocar resultados económicos concentradores. Para el neoliberalismo, el crecimiento es un fin en si mismo y la concentración se acepta como una consecuencia natural. Para el desarrollismo, el crecimiento es una condición económica que conllevará al desarrollo. Ambas suponen que la concentración estimula el crecimiento lo cual es demostrable estadísticamente pero, mientras el neo-liberalismo no ve necesidad alguna de limitarla, el desarrollismo, que si le reconoce límites, no logra controlarla. El desenlace de esta historia de cuarenta años nos inserta, finalmente, en la situación de perplejidad en que hoy nos encontramos".

El Modelo

Por otra parte, para la presente investigación se ha considerado que dentro de éstos factores debería encontrarse además: el factor cultural; dado que éstos afectan a la construcción de un sistema de trabajo positivo hacia la consecución de desarrollo humano. Es notable que el contexto cultural de cada región

modifica los comportamientos, las creencias, las formas de actuar y por tanto, lo que cada uno considera como bienestar, por ejemplo, para una familia que ha vivido siempre en el campo, bienestar corresponde a la posibilidad de cultivar la tierra y tener el sustento diario a partir del trabajo familiar, por su parte para un citadino, bienestar puede constituirse únicamente en la capacidad de encontrar un trabajo que le ofrezca cierta estabilidad en términos económicos pese a que no pueda tener el disfrute de la familia campesina, de la unión familiar; en éstas condiciones evaluar, lo que constituye bienestar y por tanto, la posibilidad de un desarrollo humano requiere, analizar muy bien el contexto cultural, para lograr una aproximación que complemente los factores y dinámicas que impactan el desarrollo humano especialmente alrededor de la problemática de exclusión e inclusión y como el factor gobierno se convierte en un elemento fundamental para la resolución de tensiones, siendo la construcción de capital social una de las mayores preocupaciones cuando se habla de desarrollo humano.

Figura 1: Factores y Dinámicas



Fuente: Informe de Desarrollo Humano para el Valle del Cauca, PNUD, 2008, 47.

De acuerdo con el Informe de desarrollo humano para el Valle del Cauca 2008, "En cuanto al modelo de desarrollo vigente, se evidencian tensiones entre dinámicas y procesos que incrementan la productividad y la competitividad y la expansión de formas de subempleo y precarización del trabajo. Se aprecian también tensiones entre las apuestas orientadas al crecimiento y la competitividad y la concentración social y territorial de activos y dotaciones productivas en un marco de debilidad de proyectos estratégicos y acciones de mayor impacto redistributivo.

En consecuencia, un posible análisis de éstos factores y dinámica que constituyen el desarrollo humano y que nos permite entender la problemática para establecer formas de administración o de gestión para responder a éste desarrollo humano, sería:

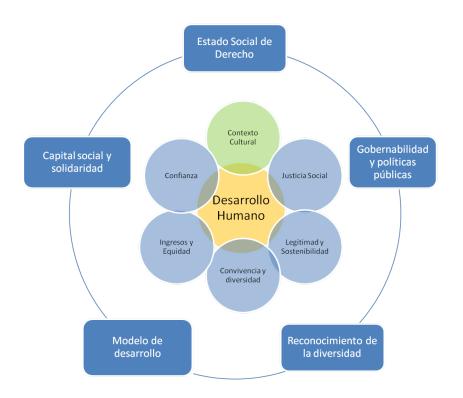


Figura No 4: Factores y Dinámicas con perspectiva cultural

Fuente: Adaptado de Factores y dinámicas Diagrama 2.2. Informe de Desarrollo Humano para el Valle del Cauca, PNUD, 2008, 47.

Así por ejemplo, algunos elementos deben considerarse cuando se piensa en desarrollo humano, dado que no se alcanza únicamente por factores como el ingreso, el papel de las políticas públicas, por tanto, ¿Puede el factor cultural responder al perfil de las poblaciones en condiciones de pobreza? donde además de no tener suficientes oportunidades, aquellas que se presentan sólo ofrecen un bienestar en la inmediatez, es decir, cuando se cuenta con una ganancia extra, lo más importante corresponde a darse "pequeños lujos" como la compra de un televisor, el computador para los niños y cuando el dinero se termina, el uso que se le ha dado no corresponde a un uso productivo, pero sí a un uso necesario (entretenimiento hace parte de una necesidad cultural) para la población en condiciones de pobreza.

Ésta condición de la pobreza es lo que denomino, cultura de la pobreza individual, donde la marginación del sistema económico no permite sino una adaptación del individuo al sistema para sobrevivir a las problemáticas "tradicionales" de éstos grandes grupos sociales y por tanto, ésta cultura debe incluirse en el análisis de lo que entendemos por desarrollo humano, así como entender las características de éste tipo de cultura que se ha constituido en un factor trascendental para la comprensión de las nuevas formas de gestión, de organizaciones e incluso de supervivencia de aquellos que sobreviven con menos de un dólar diario.

CONCLUSIONES

Dado éste panorama, el Desarrollo a Escala Humana que plantea Max Neef et al ., desde la economía se sustenta en tres pilares básicos: necesidades humanas, autodependencia, y articulaciones orgánicas; el Desarrollo a Escala Humana se concentra y sustenta en la satisfacción de las necesidades humanas fundamentales, en la generación de niveles crecientes de autodependencia y en la articulación orgánica de los seres humanos con la naturaleza y la tecnología, de los procesos globales con los comportamientos

locales, de lo personal con 10 social, de la planificación con la autonomía y de la Sociedad Civil con el *Estado* (Max Neef, 1986, 14). El objetivo principal del Desarrollo a Escala Humana es la conversión de la persona – objeto en persona – sujeto, así el desarrollo se refiere a las personas y no a los objetos. Es uno de los hallazgos importantes, que permiten visualizar una propuesta de gestión.

Respecto a las necesidades humanas Max Neef observa que éstas son limitadas y no varían de cultura a cultura lo que en realidad cambia son los medios para satisfacerlas, de éste modo se crean las culturas por la elección de los satisfactores para cada necesidad, en consecuencia, se puede afirmar que los cambios culturales ocurren gracias a cambios en satisfactores tradicionales; "Uno de los aspectos que define una cultura es su elección de satisfactores. Las necesidades humanas fundamentales de un individuo que pertenece a una sociedad consumista son las mismas de aquél que pertenece a una sociedad ascética. Lo que cambia es la elección de cantidad y calidad de los satisfactores, y/o las posibilidades de tener acceso a los satisfactores requeridos". Existen dos tipos de necesidades, las existenciales: Ser, Tener, Hacer y Estar; y las axiológicas: Subsistencia, protección, Afecto, Entendimiento, Participación, Ocio, Creación, Identidad y Libertad, la importancia que tiene el reconocimiento de las necesidades humanas se comprende cuando se entiende que la satisfacción de ellas es el camino para el desarrollo.

Para Max Neef el desarrollo es la liberación de posibilidades creativas de todos los que componen una sociedad el cual está aparte del crecimiento económico y no es condición para éste. Así para Max Neef debía hacerse énfasis en lo pequeño como lo presenta en su obra "La Economía Descalza" diciendo «So much can be achieved by thinking and acting small. This should not be surprising, after all, smallness is nothing but immensity on the human scale» (From the Outside Looking In, p. 205); para proponer "la economía a escala humana" representa por así decirlo, un retorno a la sensatez y al sentido común. Es la economía que se fortalece a niveles locales y regionales, donde la gente realmente está, sin caer en el deslumbramiento con el gigantismo y con lo macro como fines supremos.

Es la economía de la diversidad, de la interdependencia, y de la solidaridad. Es la economía que reconoce que el desarrollo tiene que ver con las personas y no con objetos. Es la economía que se reconoce como subsistema de un sistema mayor, que es la biosfera sin cuyos servicios ninguna economía sería posible. Es una economía que no confunde el crecimiento con el desarrollo. Es una economía que sin ser espectacular, apunta a la satisfacción de las necesidades humanas fundamentales. De éste modo, es fácil reconocer las necesidades humanas a la luz de tres áreas diferentes que se interrelacionan, con uno mismo, con los demás y con el entorno mostrándonos un nuevo concepto de pobreza respecto a la economía y a lo que se debe hacer desde ésta disciplina y desde otros enfoques para búsqueda de soluciones y alternativas que no se queden en utopías; se deja de lado la idea de la pobreza desde un punto de vista economicista que sólo clasifica a las personas en condición de pobreza por ingreso para pasar a una definición distinta; en consecuencia, Max Neef (1986) propone: "Sugerimos no hablar de pobreza, sino de pobrezas. De hecho, cualquier necesidad humana fundamental que no es adecuadamente satisfecha revela una pobreza humana.

La pobreza de subsistencia (debido a alimentación y abrigo insuficientes); de protección (debido a sistemas de salud ineficientes, a la violencia, la carrera armamentista, etc.); de afecto (debido al autoritarismo, la opresión, las relaciones de explotación con el medio ambiente natural, etc.) de entendimiento (debido a la deficiente calidad de la educación); de participación (debido a la marginación y discriminación de mujeres, niños y minorías); de identidad (debido a la imposición de valores extraños a culturas locales y regionales, emigración forzada, exilio político, etc.) y así sucesivamente". Las necesidades insatisfechas generan además patologías tales como: patologías colectivas del miedo, eufemismos, violencia, marginación y exilio.

En consecuencia, las necesidades insatisfechas se convierten en causa de una cultura de pobreza individual, donde existen una serie de factores permisivos que influyen en el crecimiento de la problemática, por lo que hoy, organismos internacionales, académicos y empresas vuelcan su interés sobre los grupos sociales marginados social y económicamente en búsqueda de soluciones y aproximaciones posibles.

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Iris María Vélez Osorio, Joven investigadora del Departamento de Gestión Organizacional de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas y Económicas de la Universidad Icesi. Se puede contactar a Calle 18 122 – 135 Cali, Colombia, irisvelez17@hotmail.com. Es Administradora de Empresas, Magíster en Ciencias de la Organización, cuenta con un Diplomado en Pedagogía Universitaria. Terminó "La Economía Solidaria un Desafío a los Modelos Organizacionales Tradicionales. Propuesta de un Modelo de Gestión para las Organizaciones de la Economía Solidaria en Colombia" Tesis Meritoria. El presente documento es el resultado del Anteproyecto para Doctorado en Administración titulado: El Desarrollo Humano desde la Perspectiva de Manfred Max Neef, Administración para el Desarrollo Humano.

Araceli Gutiérrez Guzmán, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Haydeé Aguilar Romero, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Juan Carlos Moreno Aguilera, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo es el análisis para la comercialización de un producto turístico, en el Estado de Aguascalientes, siendo éste, el turismo cinegético, un producto emergente del turismo de naturaleza, considerado así a nivel mundial. Sin embargo este siempre tendrá que ser de minorías y por tanto su desarrollo es limitado y su promoción se basa en el marketing directo y restringido. Por lo que un elemento fundamental en la dirección de marketing es la elaboración de estrategias y planes de marketing, creativos e inteligentes para que sirvan de orientación al resto de las actividades para la comercialización del turismo cinegético.

Según la Secretaría de Turismo, el turismo cinegético, permite la práctica de la caza de fauna silvestre en su entorno natural, haciendo uso de servicios logísticos y turísticos para hacer más fácil la práctica de este deporte, en un marco de conservación y sustentabilidad de la vida silvestre. Erróneamente había sido considerado por las sociedades como el sacrificio de especies. Pero en la actualidad ha tomado un rumbo mas conciente y activo, con la llegada del los ranchos cinegéticos y UMAS, siendo la comercialización estratégica de éste producto una ventaja para dar a conocer esta actividad.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este trabajo se pretende dar a conocer la importancia de comercializar el Turismo cinegético, principalmente en el Estado de Aguascalientes, donde el Turismo, además de ser un sector de gran dinamismo y capacidad de desarrollo, ha estado ligado al proceso de cambio de tendencia, en donde el turista en la actualidad está a la búsqueda de experiencias únicas, acorde a sus gustos, necesidades y preferencias, como lo es el tener experiencias con las comunidades receptoras, interrelacionarse con la naturaleza, actividades de reto físico, búsqueda de emociones fuertes, el mantenerse en forma, cuidar su salud, realizar actividades al aire libre; es el caso del turismo cinegético.

El turismo cinegético abre la oportunidad de negocio en el nicho de servicios logísticos, además de contribuir al desarrollo regional, especialmente en el área rural. Este es un mercado poco explotado, un tanto por la poca difusión que existe de éste deporte y otro más por las complicaciones que conlleva la utilización de las armas de fuego, sin embargo existe la Ley de Armas de Fuego y Explosivos, que regula y respalda a las personas que se dedican a esta actividad.

Además, con la puesta en marcha del Programa de Conservación de la Vida Silvestre y Diversificación Productiva en el Sector Rural 1997-2000 se establece la política en la administración de los recursos de la flora y fauna silvestre para el país.

Por lo que se considera de importancia crear estrategias de comercialización, para atraer visitantes tanto nacionales como extranjeros que vivan la experiencia de estar en contacto con la naturaleza.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

México es considerado uno de los siete países con mayor biodiversidad en el mundo, debido a su posición geográfica, clima y variada topografía, lo que crea diferentes sistemas ecológicos cuyos tipos de vegetación permiten la existencia de una gran variedad de especies animales. Es por eso que asume la responsabilidad de conservar su riqueza biológica y patrimonio natural con base en políticas ambientales claras y definidas, que permitan conciliar intereses entre los diferentes sectores de la sociedad, y darle a la población de nuestro país alternativas productivas viables que les brinde beneficio económico y social (SEMARNAP, 1997; Alcérreca, 1998).

"El turismo cinegético es la actividad que desarrolla un cazador deportivo nacional o extranjero, que visita destinos, localidades o áreas, donde se permite la práctica de la caza de fauna silvestre de interés cinegético en su entorno natural, y que hace uso de servicios logísticos y turísticos, para hacer más fácil la práctica de este deporte, en un marco de conservación y sustentabilidad de la vida silvestre". (http://www.sectur.gob).

Una UMA es la forma de llamar a las Unidades para la Conservación, Manejo y Ambiente Sustentable de la Vida Silvestre y se refiere a un esquema de trabajo que se aplica a un área determinada, con la cual se crean oportunidades para aprovechar de forma legal y viable la vida silvestre (SEMARNAP).

El marketing es una herramienta de apoyo hacia las acciones de venta de la empresa, que se basa en el trabajo sobre el producto, el mercado, el precio, la publicidad y promoción, colocación estratégica en los puntos de venta y distribución (Stanton2004).

La comercialización asume un rol vital en el desarrollo de una empresa, y el proceso de mercadeo comienza antes de que el producto o servicio sea diseñado y producido, e incluye todas las acciones de una empresa relacionadas a crear, promover y distribuir el producto o servicio adecuado destinado a satisfacer las necesidades (y/o deseos) actuales o latentes de los consumidores. A esto se debe de agregar en concordancia la capacidad económica y física de la organización para producir productos o servicios, y venderlos al precio adecuado.

Objetivo General: Impulsar la actividad de los Ranchos UMAS o cinegéticos en Aguascalientes, con el fin de desarrollar estrategias y planes de marketing para posicionar este tipo de turismo a nivel nacional e internacional.

Objetivos Específicos

- Conservación de los recursos naturales
- Incrementar la afluencia de visitantes a nuestro Estado
- Diagnostico de las ventajas y desventajas de comercializar el turismo cinegético.
- Descripción de las actividades de los ranchos cinegéticos y UMAS en el estado de Aguascalientes
- Impulsar y posicionar a través de la promoción turística al Estado tanto a nivel nacional como internacional

METODOLOGIA

El diseño de la investigación del presente trabajo se llevó a través de la recopilación de documentación de manera directa con las dependencias; se entrevisto a un cazador, mismo que realizó prácticas profesionales en el servicio de atención a los visitantes, para obtener información necesaria y requerida para la elaboración de las bases para el diseño de las estrategias de comercialización del producto turístico.

Ranchos Cinegéticos en Aguascalientes

Estado agraciado por la naturaleza. Cuenta con servicios de los ranchos cinegéticos, con gran variedad de flora en la sierra fría que son el hábitat natural para especies de La fauna predominante es venado cola blanca, puma, jabalí, gato montés, zorro gris, águila real, guajolote, halcón peregrino, codorniz, conejo, coyote, víbora, puma, y existe población de guajolote silvestre gould.

Un grupo de Ranchos están constituidos como Unidades de Manejo Ambiental (UMA) y sus propietarios trabajan en el aprovechamiento del recurso faunístico que, en base a estudios técnicos determinan las solicitudes de tasas de aprovechamiento que una vez calificadas, autoriza SEMARNAT cada temporada de caza. Dichos Ranchos Cinegéticos en 1997 se incorporaron a la Asociación Nacional de Ganaderos Diversificados, A. C. (ANGADI).

A partir de 1999 y en los años subsecuentes, se ha venido ofertando la actividad de cacería, lo que ha permitido a los propietarios de los Ranchos Cinegéticos la reinversión. Tales Ranchos perfectamente regulados cuentan con excelentes instalaciones tanto para la estancia del cazador como en la práctica de la actividad, guías especializados, servicio de alimentos y traslados lo que les ha permitido atender la demanda tanto local como regional e inclusive internacional.

Actualmente se cuenta con 7 Ranchos Cinegéticos adheridos a Sierra Fría A. C. que ofertan una de las mejores opciones para la cacería en todo el país.

RANCHO	PROPIETARIO
EL GAURO	Sr. Alberto Guerrero Pérez
TORRECILLAS - LA COYOTERA	Sr. José Gutiérrez Gutiérrez.
PEÑA AZUL	Sr. Abel Orozco González.
PILETAS	Ing. Clemente Villalobos Llamas.
ANTRIALGO	C.P. Jaime Díaz Torre Llamas
LA CIÉNEGA	Lic. Carlos Guerrero Pérez.
LA TINAJA	Sr. Gerardo Muñoz Castorena
ANGADI	Sr. Jesús Gutiérrez Gutiérrez
SIERRA FRIA AGUASCALIENTES	Presidente: Sr. Javier Romo de Alba
	Gerente Operativo: Lic. Carlos Guerrero Pérez
NATIONAL WILD TURKEY	Presidente: Julio Díaz Torre
	Vicepresidente: Jaime Díaz Torre Llamas

Ranchos UMA's en Aguascalientes

La Sierra Fría

Se encuentra al norponiente del Estado dentro de los municipios de San José de Gracia, Calvillo, Rincón de Romos y Jesús María; comprende una extensión de 112,090 hectáreas de sierra y bosques atravesados por la Carretera Escénica La Congoja - El Temazcal, donde destacan las especies de pino, encino, cedro, madroño y fresno entre otras. Aquí se localiza el Cerro de la Ardilla, el de mayor elevación sobre el nivel del mar con una altura de 3,050 metros. Las actividades que se pueden realizar además del turismo cinegético son: campismo, excursionismo, caminatas guiadas por senderos interpretativos, observación de flora y fauna, paseos a caballo, ciclismo de montaña, así mismo se puede practicar la pesca deportiva así como la cacería ambas actividades reguladas por autoridades estatales y federales.

En la actualidad este tipo de turismo, ha tomado un rumbo mas consiente y activo ya que con la llegada del los ranchos UMA (Unidades de Manejo Ambiental) y cinegético se ha podido seguir con esta costumbre de la cacería, así como la conservación de la vida animal y su ambiente mismo que se desarrollan en espacios naturales protegidos, según las diversas legislaciones en la Republica Mexicana.

En la práctica se extiende también a zonas, todavía no protegidas, pero de gran belleza medioambiental u originalidad étnica.

<u>UMAS</u>

Desde el año 2000 fue aprobada la ley de fauna silvestre y en esta se establece "El aprovechamiento sustentable de la fauna silvestre por los propietarios de los predios en donde habita esta", En la antigua ley de caza quedaba estrictamente prohibida cualquier comercialización de la fauna, sus partes y derivados.

Funcionamiento

Las UMA funcionan con base en la ejecución de su plan de manejo, previamente aprobado por la SEMARNAT, mismo que es elaborado por el técnico responsable, de acuerdo a los objetivos de la misma, garantizado con un programa de trabajo la conservación de los ecosistemas y la viabilidad de las poblaciones de todas las especies existentes en el lugar.

Ventajas que tiene establecer una UMA?

- Se promueve la conservación, manejo, restauración del hábitat y aprovechamiento de la vida silvestre.
- Hay un manejo del hábitat de las especies que se encuentren en áreas naturales extensas donde se promueve su conservación y se aprovecha sustentablemente, evitando así la alteración del ecosistema.
- No limitan las actividades tradicionales de agricultura y ganadería intensivas y promueven la diversificación productiva.
- Contribuyen al desarrollo económico de las zonas rurales, validando todas aquellas actividades productivas relacionadas con la vida silvestre, bajo un plan de manejo.
- Las UMA, a través de la aplicación de sus planes de manejo, son generadoras de información técnica y científica confiable, que permite conocer qué y cuánto tenemos y de qué manera puede ser aprovechado plena y responsablemente.
- Contribuye al conocimiento de la naturaleza y refuerzan la educación ambiental.

Leyes que regulan el turismo cinegético:

- 1. Ley Federal de Armas y Explosivos (Titulo Primero, Capitulo Único, artículos 1,2,3,4,5,)
- 2. Ley General de Vida Silvestre (articulo 1 y 2)

ESTRATEGIAS DE COMERCIALIZACIÓN DEL TURISMO CINEGETICO

La comercialización suele facilitar el contacto entre el oferente y el demandante: de parte del oferente, además de tramitar la documentación de venta, informa expone y declara los beneficios y atributos de su producto o destino turístico, los acerca al consumidor y le motiva hacía ello; de parte del consumidor, selecciona previamente, sin necesidad de que éste se desplace, aquellos productos o destinos que le pueden interesar y le facilita su uso y disfrute.

Así las estrategias para la comercialización serían múltiples puesto que la concepción y la naturaleza de su aplicación dependerán de una serie de aspectos y parámetros, según:

- El mercado al que se dirige
- La temporada de caza
- La extensión territorial o área permitida para la caza
- El posicionamiento .

- Atender y dar seguimiento a la Política y Estrategia Nacional para el Desarrollo Turístico Sustentable por los actores involucrados.
- Agilizar los diferentes procesos de manifestación de Impacto Ambiental.
- Brindar capacitación y apoyo a las comunidades y autoridades locales para el desarrollo y manejo adecuado del turismo de aventura.

RESULTADOS

Se llevó a cabo la aplicación de 160 encuestas en la temporada 2010 de la cacería del guajolote silvestre (marzo-abril), entre los cazadores que asistieron al Estado de Aguascalientes y saber las edades de quienes participaron, cuál era su nacionalidad y porque medios se han enterado de los servicios que el producto en si ofrece.

PERSONAS	NACIONALES	EXTRANJEROS	EDAD 20-30	EDAD 30-40	EDAD 40-50	EDAD 50+	EDAD 50+	Medios de información publicitarios
Visitantes	123	37	11	36	33	80	80	38

Durante las entrevistas realizadas a las dependencias a cargo de regular y controlar el sacrificio de especies, se obtuvo la siguiente información:

□ En la temporada de venados 2010-2011 se sacrificaron alrededor de 21 ejemplares.

□ Temporada de espolón (guajolote) 2010 se sacrificaron 28 ejemplares.

Entre los principales hallazgos del estudio se encuentra que el turismo cinegético genera al país una derrama de 155 millones de dólares, % de nacionales y 43% de extranjeros; el mercado ha presentado un crecimiento en el periodo 94-98 de 10.5 % y que el país registra una oferta de 2,606 ranchos cinegéticos (UMAS), ubicándose el 97% en la región norte. (www.sectur.gob.mx>...> segmentos estratégicos)

CONCLUSION

El Turismo Cinegético es una actividad poco fomentada y con escasa difusión, si como tal es una actividad Turística sustentable que fomenta el desarrollo regional y ambiental que colabora para la conservación de la vida silvestre, permitiendo realizar esta práctica como deporte.

El turismo cinegético más que una amenaza para el medio ambiente es una ventana abierta poco explorada y poco informada para un mundo de nuevas alternativas para una sociedad cambiante de su forma de pensar respecto al cuidado y sustentabilidad que deben obtener los sitios naturales aun existentes; así como para los amantes de la caza que conforme el cambio de la sociedad han adquirido responsabilidad propia por el cuidado y conservación de las especies que requieren para su práctica.

El turismo cinegético a diferencia del anteriormente conocido como turismo safari denota en la necesidad misma de la conservación y mantenimiento de las especies y el ambiente que lo rodea; así como el dejar beneficio a los habitantes humanos de las zonas silvestres como a la sociedad en general. En este caso pues podemos decir que si se está logrando el aprovechamiento de los recursos actualmente existentes sin comprometer los recurso para las sociedades futuras.

El gobierno estatal podría centrar su atención en propiciar la asociatividad a través de los actores locales en Agremiaciones y Asociaciones, de los municipios, en función de crear, "Productos Turísticos" sustentables y colaborar para la conservación del medio ambiente

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CARACTERIZACIÓN DE LAS METODOLOGÍAS UTILIZADAS PARA LA MEDICIÓN DE LA SATISFACCIÓN DE LOS CLIENTES EN LAS CLÍNICAS Y HOSPITALES DE BUCARAMANGA Y SU ÁREA METROPOLITANA

Elidia Esther Galviz Muñoz, Universidad Industrial de Santander Néstor Raúl Ortíz Pimiento, Universidad Industrial de Santander

RESUMEN

Teniendo en cuenta la importancia que los clientes tienen para la supervivencia de las organizaciones y lo relevante que es conocer su percepción acerca de su satisfacción con el producto o servicio recibido, se realizó un estudio en las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana, con el objeto de identificar las características más representativas que esas organizaciones consideran en relación con la medición de la satisfacción de los clientes, ofreciendo un punto de referencia para futuras investigaciones sobre el tema. En este trabajo se presentan los aspectos generales del estudio realizado, así como las conclusiones del mismo, que permiten caracterizar a las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana, en cuanto a las metodologías empleadas para medir la satisfacción de sus clientes.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Satisfacción del cliente, medición de satisfacción

INTRODUCCIÓN

La literatura reconoce que la relación con el cliente es fundamental para el desarrollo y estabilidad de las organizaciones (Kotler y Armstrong 2004; en Buitrago 2007) y que un alto nivel de satisfacción del cliente en una empresa puede llevarla a beneficios como una mejor posición competitiva o aumentar su cuota en el mercado (Fornell, 1992). Debido a ello, desde hace años ha existido un interés creciente en estudiar y evaluar la satisfacción del cliente en diferentes países e industrias. En Colombia, principalmente el interés de medir la satisfacción de los clientes va ligado a la necesidad de cumplir una normatividad voluntaria u obligatoria; como es el caso de las empresas que tienen implementado un Sistema de Gestión de la Calidad basado en la norma ISO 9001 o en el caso de las empresas de salud que tienen reglamentado un indicador al respecto (Resolución 1446 de 2006).

Resultado de ello, las empresas tienen información básica acerca de la percepción del cliente en cuanto a su satisfacción, que no se analiza y desagrega a tal punto que permita a la Gerencia, identificar fácilmente actividades o puntos críticos de su servicio que deban mejorarse para impactar en la satisfacción del cliente. Adicionalmente, existen obstáculos en el estudio de la satisfacción como la superficialidad de los instrumentos utilizados debido a que no se tiene claro el concepto de satisfacción y el rigor científico con el que ellos se emplean (Zas, 2002). Con base en lo anterior, se detectó la necesidad de desarrollar una investigación cuyo objetivo principal es el diseño de un modelo integral de la medición de la satisfacción del cliente en empresas de servicio, que tendrá su aplicación en el Sector Salud. En el marco de dicha investigación se realizó el diagnóstico de las metodologías empleadas por las Clínicas y Hospitales de la ciudad de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana (AMB), para realizar la medición de la satisfacción del cliente.

Medición De La Satisfacción Del Cliente En Bucaramanga Y Su Amb

El estudio se realizó en el segundo semestre del año 2010 y fue desarrollado considerando lo siguiente:

- Población objetivo: Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana. Se definió trabajar con este grupo específico de Instituciones Prestadoras de Salud- IPS -, considerando que en ellas, los procesos administrativos se encuentran definidos y estandarizados de una mejor manera que en Instituciones pequeñas como consultorios médicos, odontológicos o laboratorios. Con base en ello, de la lista de Instituciones suministrada por la Secretaría de Salud del Departamento se identificaron 19 Instituciones y se determinó realizar un censo y no un muestreo, dado el bajo número de empresas.
- Instrumento: Se diseñó una encuesta en la que se indagó acerca del tipo de método utilizado, escala, frecuencia de aplicación, factores principales y secundarios asociados a la satisfacción del cliente, responsables de analizar los resultados, uso y mecanismo de divulgación de los mismos, entre otros. El instrumento utilizado fue validado mediante una prueba piloto aplicado en una empresa de transporte masivo (Metrolínea S.A), empresa de servicios; de ella surgieron algunos ajustes al instrumento.
- Trabajo de campo: Se realizaron visitas a las Instituciones seleccionadas y se realizó entrevista al personal encargado del manejo de la información relacionada con la medición de la satisfacción del cliente. En esta etapa, dos Instituciones no suministraron la información solicitada, motivo por el cual el número de encuestas analizadas fue de 17; el 47% de las Instituciones estudiadas corresponde al nivel 3 de complejidad, el 29% al nivel 2 y el 24% al nivel 1.
- Tabulación de la información: Luego de revisar las encuestas diligenciadas, se procedió a su tabulación, con la ayuda de Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) y Microsoft Excel, obteniendo los siguientes resultados:

A partir de los resultados obtenidos en ese estudio, se concluye que el proceso de medición de la satisfacción del cliente en Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su área Metropolitana posee las siguientes características principales:

- Las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana utilizan como metodología para la recolección de datos, principalmente, encuestas aplicadas de manera personal en la instalaciones de la Institución. Otras metodologías empleadas son: encuestas que el cliente deposita en un buzón o envía por correo electrónico y encuestas aplicadas telefónicamente. Las Instituciones generalmente, utilizan dos de estas metodologías.
- La frecuencia de tabulación de las encuestas puede diferir para cada tipo de cliente objetivo. Todas las Instituciones encuestadas tabulan mensualmente la información recolectada para alguno de sus tipos de cliente. Se utilizan frecuencias más distantes (semestral y anual), para tipos de clientes compuestos por menor número de integrantes, como es el caso de las Entidades Prestadoras de Salud –EPS- y personas jurídicas.
- Los servicios más evaluados por las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana corresponden a: Urgencias, Consulta Externa General y Consulta Externa Especializada, Hospitalización y Unidad de Cuidados Intensivos. Otros servicios evaluados son: Ayudas Diagnósticas (entre ellas: Rayos x, Laboratorio Clínico), Cirugía, Terapias, Banco de Sangre, Farmacia.

- En las encuestas aplicadas se consulta más comúnmente acerca de: el trato/atención/amabilidad, la información suministrada en general y la relacionada con deberes y derechos, el tiempo de espera/agilidad y la oportunidad del servicio. Dentro de estos factores asociados directamente con el servicio prestado se encuentran además: accesibilidad, seguridad, calidad de medicamentos, eficacia del tratamiento, confiabilidad, competencia del personal, competencia y tarifas.
- Otros factores relacionados con el servicio de una manera menos directa, acerca de los cuales se consulta al cliente son: comodidad y adecuación de las instalaciones, aseo/limpieza, tecnología/recursos, comida, hotelería y señalización.
- En su mayoría (64%), las Instituciones no tienen claramente identificada la metodología utilizada para el establecimiento de los factores asociados a la satisfacción de los clientes. Sólo una de ella menciona para ello, el análisis interno de factores claves de éxito. Otra pequeña parte (24%) manifiesta seguir lineamientos del Ministerio de Protección Social.
- No se han realizado estudios de correlación de variables que permitan identificar qué tan relacionados están los factores utilizados para medir la satisfacción del cliente e identificar también su independencia.
- En la mayoría de Instituciones (70%), la Oficina de Servicio Información y Atención al Usuario SIAU- es la encargada del análisis de los resultados de la satisfacción del cliente.
- Las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana utilizan el porcentaje de clientes satisfechos como indicador para monitorear la satisfacción del cliente.
- Los resultados de la medición de la satisfacción del cliente se utilizan para plasmarlos en informes y menos del 60% de las Instituciones, genera planes de mejoramiento a partir de ellos.
- Las Clínicas y Hospitales de Bucaramanga y su Área Metropolitana divulgan los resultados de la medición de la satisfacción del cliente mediante reuniones de Comités primarios o de calidad, boletines y charlas informativas.
- No necesariamente las Instituciones que iniciaron desde hace varios años la medición de la satisfacción del cliente, son quienes dan un mayor uso a la información que proporcionan esos resultados, pues se encuentran Instituciones que aplican encuestas de este tipo desde hace más de 4 años y no generan a partir de allí de planes de acción o mejoramiento, ni comunican los resultados.
- La madurez administrativa en cuanto al manejo de los resultados de la satisfacción del cliente, tampoco depende del nivel de complejidad de las Clínicas y Hospitales, pues se encuentra cómo las Instituciones que no comunican los resultados de esa evaluación a sus empleados, corresponden a los niveles 2 y 3.

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Elidia Esther Galviz Muñoz, Ingeniera Industrial, estudiante de último semestre de Maestría en Ingeniería Industrial de la Escuela de Estudios Industriales y Empresariales de la Universidad Industrial de Santander. Carrera 27 Calle 9, Bucaramanga (Colombia). Correo electrónico: elidiagalviz@hotmail.com

Néstor Raúl Ortíz Pimiento, Ingeniero Industrial, Especialista en Gestión Tecnológica, Especialista en Docencia Universitaria y Magíster en Ingeniería de Sistemas. Docente de la Escuela de Estudios Industriales y Empresariales de la Universidad Industrial de Santander. Carrera 27 Calle 9, Bucaramanga (Colombia). Correo electrónico: nortiz@uis.edu.co

ÉXITOS Y FRACASOS EN LA PLANIFICACIÓN TURÍSTICA: EL CASO DEL ESTADO DE CHIHUAHUA, MÉXICO

Julián Alberto Álvarez Hernández, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Jesús Alberto Rodríguez Alonso, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Laura Estela Anguiano Herrera, Universidad Autónoma de Juárez

ABSTRACT

In this document, the authors present some of the theoretical basis of tourism and how it contributes in the economic and social welfare. It is also mentioned, how a perspective in public policies contributes to reaching the planned development. There is an explanation on how the State Government of Chihuahua has ignored several social and cultural issues and how this is affecting this region. Key words: Tourism planning, Tourism development, Public policies.

RESUMEN

En este documento, se presentan algunos de los fundamentos teóricos del turismo como impulsor de desarrollo económico y social. Así como la importancia que tiene la planificación para lograr dicho impulso, desde una perspectiva integral de políticas públicas. Asimismo se mencionan algunos casos en que el sector público ha ignorado los problemas sociales y culturales en el Estado de Chihuahua, y como esto se ha convertido en una limitante del desarrollo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Planificación turística, Desarrollo turístico, Política pública.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para realizar una planificación turística efectiva de corto y largo plazo se requiere la participación de diferentes agentes, tanto privados como públicos. En este sentido, el papel que ha jugado la administración pública en la planificación turística en México ha sido intermitente, es decir no se ha mantenido constante el seguimiento y evaluación de la misma. Es preciso que en todo ejercicio de planificación turística, la administración pública tenga un papel activo y constante. Lo anterior permitirá que se tomen en consideración los distintos factores: económicos, políticos, sociales, culturales y ambientales que impactan en el desarrollo de un destino turístico.

Uno de los principales papeles de la administración pública es la generación de políticas públicas que generen infraestructura, cuyo enfoque deberá estar en el desarrollo de las comunidades cercanas o directamente relacionadas con la actividad turística.

A su vez el sector privado impulsará los servicios turísticos con los que se generan empleos, finalmente la comunidad deberá impulsar el cuidado del patrimonio cultural, ambiental e histórico. Para que todo ello en conjunto, es decir la acción gubernamental, de los empresarios y otros agentes del turismo y la comunidad, posibilite una conceptualización más clara e integral de un producto turístico.

Para lograr lo anterior, la planificación turística es una herramienta que permite concentrar los esfuerzos de los diversos actores que convergen en el desarrollo de un producto turístico. Sin embargo, se puede observar que los actores públicos encargados del ámbito turístico fallan en el proceso de planificación, lo que conlleva a una difícil consolidación del desarrollo turístico. En el caso del Estado de Chihuahua, se puede observar que se ha presentado una débil planificación, generando poca competitividad turística. Ya

que pareciera que los proyectos turísticos se generan en base a intereses y visiones particularistas más que en una planificación que considere condiciones y problemas de la región donde se asienten los proyectos en cuestión.

LA PLANIFICACIÓN TURÍSTICA EN LA ADMINISTRACIÓN PÚBLICA

La planificación es un proceso en el cual se establecen metas, basadas en realidades específicas; en las cuales se procura desarrollar objetivos y formas de distribución y asignación de recursos para hacer frente a las demandas o necesidades de la comunidad. Por ello la planificación turística se enfoca en dos grandes áreas de acción:

- La elaboración de políticas públicas que regulen y fomenten el desarrollo de la actividad y sus consecuentes impactos ambientales, socio-culturales y económicos (Hernández, 2005, pp. 17-27), y
- La generación de una distribución organizada de los espacios destinados a la actividad turística (Boullón, 1997, pp. 56-86).

En la actividad turística, la elaboración de planes y proyectos ha tenido mucha relevancia dentro de las estrategias gubernamentales, sobre todo aquellas orientadas a promocionar el bienestar general de una población. Así, se hace tangible la participación del sector público en la toma de decisiones referentes al desarrollo turístico.

Según Bote (1999, Pg. 83), la planificación gubernamental (sobre todo la económica) tiene sus orígenes en el socialismo y en la teoría keynesiana, la cual surgió en la década de 1930 como respuesta a la Gran Depresión. Así, se puso de manifiesto que las fuerzas del mercado eran insuficientes por si solas para superar las diversas crisis económicas. Cabe señalar que la planificación de los diversos sectores económicos en un sentido más actual, se inicio hasta después de la Segunda Guerra Mundial, como respuesta a las necesidades sociales y económicas que se observaron principalmente en Europa.

Actualmente la planificación turística cuenta con diversos sinónimos como son: "Planificación estratégica en la administración pública del turismo", "Planificación económica del turismo", "Gestión municipal / regional de turismo" entre otras formas. Provocando así una considerable cantidad de recursos bibliográficos que en cuanto al fondo son relativamente similares. (Bote, 1999, Pg. 87-89).

Es importante mencionar que, para la planificación de un destino turístico, es necesario considerar la imagen presente y futura del mismo, así como la calidad de vida de sus habitantes; todo ello como un ángulo rector, es decir la imagen sintetiza a la sociedad que se aspira, a través de la implementación de uno o varios modelos de desarrollo social y económico.

Lo expuesto coloca a los autores en la necesidad de efectuar un breve acercamiento al tema del diseño e implementación de políticas públicas, las que independientemente cuál sea su área de acción, implican necesariamente una serie de elementos para su consecución. De acuerdo con Subirats, (et. al.; 2008) existen tres aspectos claves generales para el desarrollo de políticas públicas, estas son:

1.- Los actores, que estaría conformado por las autoridades político-administrativas, los grupos afectados o potencialmente problemáticos y los beneficiarios finales o aquellos que padecen los efectos negativos de una política.

2.- Los recursos que están presentes en la política, desde el económico, hasta la infraestructura, pasando por el recurso político, el tiempo, la información, el conjunto de leyes y reglamentos ya existente, la fuerza y la organización.

3.- Las reglas institucionales generales y específicas, es decir desde las normas escritas formales que posibilitan la interacción social hasta las normas no escritas que también influyen e impactan en la acción colectiva.

Estos aspectos se hayan presentes en los diferentes momentos de una política pública, es decir el modelo del proceso para desarrollar una política se presenta en cuatro lapsos, los cuáles contienen recursos, actores y reglas institucionales para su avance:

1°. Inclusión de la agenda, cuyo principal producto es la definición de un problema público, es decir una condición social de necesidad u oportunidad. En nuestro caso, por qué el desarrollo turístico o no, puede considerarse un asunto relevante para incluir en la agenda.

2º. Programación, en esta etapa los principales productos son el *programa de acción político – administrativo* y *el acuerdo de actuación político-administrativa*. El programa de acción político-administrativo hace referencia al conjunto de leyes y reglamentos que hacen o pueden hacer posible una política; mientras que el acuerdo de actuación político administrativo es donde se establecen los actores que llevaran a cabo, sus competencias y recursos a utilizar.

3°. Implementación, en esta fase se busca generar dos productos, los planes de acción y los actos de implementación; en los primeros se asientan las prioridades de ejecución, considerando para ello el aspecto geográfico, social, cultural e incluso el tiempo. Asimismo los actos de implementación describen las acciones administrativas y las decisiones de aplicar la política.

4º. Evaluación. En ésta se busca desarrollar los enunciados evaluativos, es decir, los indicadores que medirán los efectos de las políticas, tanto en términos de la pertinencia, la eficacia y la eficiencia. Por lo anterior es preciso resaltar que la planificación turística, implica un proceso integral de desarrollo de políticas enfocadas al sector turístico, ya sea para desarrollar nuevas espacios o para consolidar o rescatar otros.

LA PLANIFICACIÓN TURÍSTICA EN MÉXICO

Según la Secretaría de Turismo (2005, p. 25) desde el año de 1929, cuando se iniciaron las políticas que coordinan y regulan esta actividad, así como su respectiva planificación; México ha contado con un incremento exponencial de turistas internacionales que visitan el territorio nacional. Así mismo declara que sin dichas políticas y sin la creación de las instituciones que regulan al turismo, la actividad turística habría sido al menos cinco veces de menor impacto.

Cabe señalar que dicho incremento en la actividad turística pudo haber sido provocado por factores exógenos de la propia planificación como: el incremento en el tiempo libre en los países industrializados, le construcción de vías de comunicación que mejoraron el desplazamiento de los turistas, y el crecimiento demográfico que ocasiono un aumento en la demanda de servicios turísticos.

Con lo antes dicho, no se pretende reducir el reconocimiento a la planificación expresada por el Gobierno Federal, sino que se intenta aclarar que la planificación como herramienta para mejorar el desarrollo turístico es efectiva en términos concretos. Para ejemplificar lo anterior, basta mencionar el caso del desarrollo de La Riviera Maya, como caso exitoso de una planificación a largo plazo.

EL IMPACTO DEL TURISMO EN EL ÁMBITO GLOBAL

"La industria (actividad) turística se caracteriza por su gran complejidad, no solo por la gran cantidad de elementos que la componen, sino también por los distintos sectores económicos que se ven involucrados en su desarrollo. En este sentido, el turismo se ha considerado generalmente como una exportación de una región o nación hacia el lugar de destino (país receptor), en el que genera renta, se favorece la creación de empleo, se aportan divisas que ayudan a equilibrar la balanza de pagos, se aumentan los ingresos públicos y se fomenta la actividad empresarial. Así, la actividad turística cobra una gran importancia en la

economía debido a su elevada aportación a la generación de Valor Añadido Bruto en la región receptora" (OMT, 1999, p. 9).

El gasto provocado por la derrama económica del turismo no solo se ve reflejado en la ocupación hotelera, ya que existe una amplia diversidad de empresas que son reconocidas como parte del servicio del turismo. Ocasionando que dicha derrama económica se distribuya entre varios prestadores de servicios. Así, se observa como empresas del giro de servicios y de entretenimiento, así como sus respectivos proveedores, se vean beneficiados con el éxito que tenga el destino turístico en el cual se encuentren.

Según la Organización Mundial del Turismo (1999, p. 20), la importancia económica que tiene esta actividad varía de acuerdo al grado de desarrollo de cada país ya sea de los receptores así como los emisores del turismo. Entre las variables se pueden mencionar el grado de desarrollo y crecimiento económico, la renta disponible de la población, la existencia de leyes laborales que regulen el tiempo libre, así como aspectos demográficos, políticos, creencias religiosas, nivel de educación y desarrollo tecnológico, entre otras cosas.

El impacto económico del turismo inicio a mediados del Siglo XX, pero en la década de los setentas se consolidó presentando tasas de crecimiento por encima de las experimentadas por la economía mundial. Durante este periodo el turismo se sostuvo como uno de los principales generadores de empleo. La actividad turística global desaceleró su crecimiento sostenido después de los eventos posteriores a los atentados terroristas de Nueva York en el 2001, así mismo la crisis hipotecaria que inicio en E.U. Posteriormente, la pandemia de influenza humana AH1N1 también provocó un freno en dicho crecimiento durante el año 2009 (WTTC, 2010, p. 6).

A pesar de las amenazas arriba mencionadas, el turismo ha sostenido una capacidad de recuperación a corto plazo, ya que el Consejo Mundial de Viajes y Turismo (WTTC, por sus siglas en inglés) pronostica que durante el año 2010, algunos países como China y Estados Unidos sostuvieron altos indicadores del Producto Interno Bruto Turístico. Como se puede apreciar en la siguiente tabla.

Tabla 1. Principales Países en Donde se Pronostica en el Más Alto Producto Interno Bruto Turístico (en términos absolutos) para el Año 2010

Núm.	País	Billones \$U.S.	Núm.	País	Billones \$U.S.
1	Estados Unidos	\$ 1,375.9	6	España	\$ 237.9
2	China	\$ 499.9	7	Reino Unido	\$ 231.1
3	Japón	\$ 459.3	8	Italia	\$ 217.1
4	Francia	\$ 284.6	9	Canada	\$ 136.1
5	Alemania	\$ 273.4	10	Australia	\$123.1

Fuente: WTTC, 2010

INVERSIÓN TURÍSTICA

De acuerdo con la Tabla 1, se puede verificar como la WTTC justifica que los países que serán los principales beneficiados por el turismo receptivo, son aquellas naciones que mayor inversión realizan en la esta actividad. Mostrando como a través de la Tabla 2, una relación casi directa entre inversión y recepción de divisas traducidas al Producto Interno Bruto Turístico.

Núm.	País	Billones de U.S.	Núm.	País	Billones de U.S.
1	Estados Unidos	\$ 252.8	6	Alemania	\$ 39.0
2	China	\$ 203.4	7	Australia	\$ 38.9
3	Japón	\$ 59.6	8	Italia	\$ 35.8
4	España	\$ 46.8	9	Federación Rusa	\$ 34.8
5	Francia	\$ 42.3	10	India	\$ 34.7

	Tabla 2. Principales	Países en Inversión	Turística pa	ra el 2010
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Fuente: WTTC, 2010

Las inversiones turísticas se caracterizan por su alta rentabilidad y reproductividad, provocando que aquellas naciones que incurran en la protección de sus patrimonios y la inversión sostenida, aventajen a los destinos no integrados en esta fórmula. Estas naciones turísticamente activas, presentan importantes ingresos de divisas; su crecimiento depende de una inversión apropiada, con la que se puede generar empleos y mejorar la calidad de vida de sus habitantes.

Se puede decir que en gran medida, que el avance tecnológico aplicado a los mecanismos de transporte masivo de pasajeros, así como las prestaciones laborales de los países industrializados ha provocado la existencia de grandes corrientes turísticas. Las cuales permiten un adecuado flujo de divisas, pero también un uso excesivo de los servicios, los cuales potencialmente ocasionan la erosión del ambiente si no se ha hecho la planificación necesaria.

Es importante mencionar el caso de Estados Unidos, como el principal país con inversión en equipamiento e infraestructura turística (ver Tabla 2), es también el principal país que recibe ingreso por turismo. Esto muestra la importancia económica que al turismo se le brinda desde la inversión privada y la planificación pública.

De acuerdo con Bronzini (2002, p. 3), en los países en vías de desarrollo, el turismo ha cobrado un especial interés. Ya que genera altos ingresos brutos por visitantes que consumen servicios hoteleros, restauranteros entre otros. De tal manera que la contribución del turismo se mide en parte por los ingresos procedentes del turismo internacional este cálculo se lleva a cabo considerando el saldo de la balanza turística frente a la balanza comercial. Además, se considera que en los países en vías de desarrollo, es bastante inferior la cantidad de habitantes que pueden salir del país con fines turísticos, comparado con la cantidad de turistas internacionales que dichos países reciben. Así, se puede comparar a esta actividad con importaciones y exportaciones de divisas por concepto de turismo. Una de las ventajas de los programas de desarrollo de nuevos centros turísticos es la aportación de divisas a la balanza de pagos provenientes del turismo externo y del ahorro de divisas por el aumento del turismo interno.

EL IMPACTO NACIONAL DEL TURISMO

Se estima que de los 23, 450,000 turistas internacionales que visitaron México durante el 2006, 9,642,000 ingresaron al territorio nacional por los estados fronterizos (SECTUR, 2005, p. 24). Con este fenómeno, se puede asumir que casi el 50% de esos ingresos se dan principalmente en los estados fronterizos con E.U. ya que la frontera sur, la cual se comparte con Guatemala y Belice, muestra una dinámica migratoria y turística diferente.

Además, según pronósticos de la WTTC (2010, p. 16), durante la década de 2010, los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica será el principal país exportador de turismo, evento que pone en clara ventaja a la economía de los estados fronterizos del norte de México. Ya que esta situación, le permite a Chihuahua, explotar los recursos turísticos con los que cuenta con mayor facilidad que aquellas entidades que se localizan más al interior del territorio nacional.

GENERACIÓN DE EMPLEOS

En materia de generación de empleos, es común observar como los gobiernos de los países subdesarrollados ponen en marcha programas de fomento turístico para obtener divisas que equilibren su balanza de pagos. Esto seguido de una fuente generadora de empleos, la cual arroja una serie de opciones que van desde los directos, los indirectos y los inducidos. Este aspecto está ligado al grado de importancia que éste tiene como fuente generadora de ingresos para el país.

Según la WTTC, (citada por la Organización Mundial del Turismo, 1995) uno de cada nueve empleos en el mundo, está relacionado con la actividad turística. Provocando que hacia el año 2010, solo en México, cerca de 1,848,000 personas laboraron directamente en turismo.

Núm.	País	Indirectos	Directos	Núm.	País	Indirectos	Directos
1	China	60,103,000	17, 123,000	6	México	5,881,000	1, 848, 000
2	India	49,086,000	18, 610, 000	7	Brasil	5,333,000	2, 209, 000
3	EE.UU.	13,697,000	5, 070, 000	8	Vietnam	4,539,000	1, 397, 000
4	Indonesia	6,766,000	1,952,000	9	Tailandia	4,000,000	1,877,000
5	Japón	6,062,000	2, 294, 000	10	Rusia	3,538,000	ND

Tabla 3. Principales Países Generadores de Empleo en Turismo en 2010

Fuente: Elaboración propia, basado en WTTC, 2010

Se puede afirmar que los flujos de turismo se han generado en los países desarrollados principalmente, y desde ellos se han ido extendiéndose hacia los países en vías de desarrollo. Esta idea se sustenta con el principio que al existir mayor actividad económica en los países desarrollados, habrá más renta y a su vez mayor cantidad de tiempo libre, mayor nivel de educación y en general mayores niveles de calidad de vida, en comparación con los países catalogados como del tercer mundo.

EL FUTURO DEL TURISMO

De acuerdo con la OMT y la WTTC, con una correcta estrategia en la planificación turística, y basándose en expectativas del mercado; para el año 2020, el panorama económico podrá tener los siguientes resultados:

Por un lado, la Organización Mundial del Turismo pronostico desde 1999 cuales serían los diez principales países receptores de turismo. Es importante destacar que para la realización de éste pronóstico se desconocían algunos eventos sociales y económicos que a futuro impactaron al mundo entero. Como fueron los casos de terrorismo contra Estados Unidos en el año 2001, la pandemia provocada por la influenza humana A H1N1, entre otros eventos. Así, se puede observar que el pronóstico en cuestión es solo una aproximación al seguimiento de la planificación turística que se realizaba en ese periodo. Quedando de la siguiente forma:

 Tabla 4. Pronóstico de los Principales Destinos Mundiales en 2020

	País	Llegada turistas	de	% mundial		País	Llegada turistas	de	% mundial
1	China	137,100,000		8.6	6	Italia	52,900,000		3.3
2	EE.UU	102,400,000		6.4	7	Reino Unido	52,800,000		3.3
3	Francia	93,300,000		5.8	8	México	48,900,000		3.1
4	España	71,000,000		4.4	9	Rusia	47,100,000		2.9
5	Hong Kong	59,300,000		3.7	10	Rep. Checa	44,000,000		2.7
	- •					TOTAL	708,800,000		44.2 %

Fuente: Organización Mundial del Turismo, 1995

Mientras que el Consejo Mundial de Viajes y Turismo, pronostica durante el año 2010 que, para el 2020 éstos serán los principales países recibir el beneficio de empleo directo por turismo.

Tabla 5. Pronóstico de los Principales Países Generadores de Empleo Directo en Turismo en 2020

Núm.	País.	Empleos	Núm.	País.	Empleos
1	China	27, 028, 000	6	Japón	2, 529, 000
2	India	20, 915, 000	7	Indonesia	2, 373, 000
3	EE.UU.	6, 268, 000	8	México	2, 227, 000
4	Brasil	2,946,000	9	Vietnam	1, 795, 000
5	Tailandia	2,643,000	10	Egipto	1, 776, 000
	E	uente: WTTC 2010			

Fuente: WTTC, 2010

A pesar de todas las circunstancias que afectan al turismo. Se puede observar que México mantendrá niveles óptimos de competitividad turística en los próximos años venideros.

EL TURISMO Y SU LUCHA POR ERRADICAR LA POBREZA

Según la SECTUR (2005, p. 17), la gran mayoría de los municipios de México, que gozan de ser considerados como turísticos, tienen bajos niveles de marginación y pobreza. Como se demuestra en la siguiente tabla:

Grado de Marginación	Total Nacional	%	Municipios Turísticos	%	Part. en el Total
Muy Bajo	247	10.11	69	60.00	27.94
Bajo	417	17.08	22	19.13	5.28
Medio	486	19.90	14	12.17	2.88
Alto	906	37.10	8	6.96	0.88
Muy Alto	386	15.81	2	1.74	0.52
Total	2442	100	115	100	4.7

Tabla 6. Marginación de Municipios Turísticos en México

Fuente: Secretaría de Turismo, 2006

De acuerdo con la Tabla 6, se observa como en aquellos municipios con vocación turística existe una mayor probabilidad de calidad de vida al tener menores niveles de marginación económica y social. Por lo tanto, se puede asumir que la actividad turística es un mecanismo que contribuye a erradicar la pobreza en México. Lo que permite asumir, que la actividad turística, como componente básico de la competitividad mexicana, contribuye a elevar la calidad de vida de los mexicanos. Ya que la generación de empleo genera riqueza familiar y con ello, permite la adquisición de bienes y servicios que elevan la calidad de vida de los pobladores de una nación.

EL IMPACTO SOCIO CULTURAL DEL TURISMO

El impacto a los efectos socioculturales, pueden ser analizados desde dos posturas:

a. La percepción del receptor o residente: Es común que al estar sujeto a una población grande, en el que el espacio de convivencia es suficiente y pertinente, la afluencia de los flujos turísticos en la vida de los residentes es mínima. Inclusive en muchas ocasiones, las acciones de los turistas literalmente pasan inadvertidas por los locales. Caso contrario, cuando la zona de convivencia es mínima o pequeña, la influencia del flujo turístico (de los foráneos) se hace sentir de forma inmediata. Impactando a la calidad de vida del residente del destino turístico y por consecuencia alterando la respuesta de esta hacia sus turistas.

b. La percepción del visitante: Por lo general, para el visitante, la oportunidad de hacer turismo en localidades que culturalmente están muy alejadas de su entorno, le presenta una oportunidad de incrementar sus conocimientos y ampliar sus criterios.

En base a la correcta planificación turística, la cual deberá estar apegada a la sustentabilidad, se procurara la continuidad de un destino y sus atractivos en la preferencia del mercado.

Por último, es necesario reflexionar como la falta de planificación de la actividad turística, en conjunto con la falta de estrategias que eviten la transculturación han ocasionado incluso segregaciones sociales. El mejor ejemplo de tal caso es la poca participación en el fomento cultural que recibe la Tribu Raramuri, la cual es oriunda del Estado de Chihuahua y prácticamente esta en olvido de toda planificación integral de la actividad turística.

Hacia el verano del 2010, el Gobierno del Estado se esmero en la construcción de un teleférico, y de un parque turístico, sin haber realizado los estudios adecuados del impacto socio-cultural. Al grado de provocar una serie de ofensas hacia la comunidad Raramuri, con hecho de no haber ni siquiera realizado una invitación formal a los mismos a incorporarse como parte íntegra del proyecto (El Agora Digital, 2010, s.p.). Esto sin considerar que una vez que dicho proyecto fue inaugurado, tuvo que suspender sus servicios por varios días debido a que carecía de los mecanismos adecuados para su funcionamiento, además de anunciarse como un servicio excesivamente costoso para los posibles visitantes (La Parada Digital, 2010, s.p.). Esto ejemplifica la ausencia de una política integral, donde la planificación responda a aspectos técnicos y no a meros intereses políticos coyunturales.

La construcción de dichos mecanismos y atractivos, no figuraba en los proyectos del Plan Estatal de Desarrollo, provocando que en regiones como la Sierra Tarahumara, ha comenzado un impacto socio – cultural ante la presencia de turistas. Ocasionando varios conflictos entre la comunidad receptora; ya que sus tradiciones y costumbres se ven afectados por la intromisión de estos visitantes. Además, el 90% de los Raramuri (tarahumara) muestra un nivel de calidad de vida por debajo del nivel nacional. A pesar de su cercanía y contacto con los turistas.

Lo anterior trae consigo que los Raramuri busquen su sustento en actividades económicas informales tales como la mendicidad; en detrimento de su cultura y de su cohesión como tribu representativa de la región. Por otro lado la ausencia de una política pública integral hacia el turismo, imposibilita explotar otras áreas de oportunidad como: el campo, la producción alimenticia y la producción de artesanía que les garantice bienestar social.

CONCLUSIÓN

En opinión de los autores, el turismo es una herramienta efectiva de desarrollo económico, social y de fomento cultural, siempre y cuando su explotación se realice de manera sustentable, integrando a los miembros de las comunidades receptoras como participantes y benefactores de la actividad. Es decir, para lograr un turismo sustentable se precisa políticas públicas integrales cuya planificación tenga en cuenta los diversos sectores, agentes, recursos y leyes que posibiliten dicha sustentabilidad.

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BIOGRAFIA

Julián Alberto Álvarez Hernández, Ph.D, es Profesor e Investigador del Programa de Licenciatura en Turismo de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez. Puede ser localizado en el Instituto de Ciencias Sociales y Administración, Heroico Colegio Militar y Avenida Universidad, Zona El Chamizal, C.P. 32310, Cd. Juárez Chihuahua, México. Tel. 52-656-6883800 al 09 o al correo electrónico jualvare@uacj.mx

Jesús Alberto Rodríguez Alonso Ph.D, es Profesor e Investigador del Programa de Maestría en Ciencias Sociales de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez. Puede ser localizado en el Instituto de Ciencias Sociales y Administración, Heroico Colegio Militar y Avenida Universidad, Zona El Chamizal, C.P. 32310, Cd. Juárez Chihuahua, México. Tel. 52-656-6883800 al 09 o al correo electrónico jerodrig@uacj.mx

Laura Estela Anguiano Herrera M.E, es Profesora y Coordinadora del Programa de Licenciatura en Turismo de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez. Puede ser localizado en el Instituto de Ciencias Sociales y Administración, Heroico Colegio Militar y Avenida Universidad, Zona El Chamizal, C.P. 32310, Cd. Juárez Chihuahua, México. Tel. 52-656-6883800 al 09 o al correo electrónico languian@uacj.mx

FACTORES DEL CAPITAL SOCIAL QUE FACILITAN LA COOPERACIÓN ENTRE LAS PEQUEÑAS EMPRESAS: CASO DE LA INDUSTRIA METALMECÁNICA DE LA REGIÓN CENTRO DE ESTADO DE COAHUILA EN MÉXICO

Ma. Zóchitl Araiza Garza, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Nidia Hernández Castro, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Dariela Saraí Sánchez Campos, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

RESUMEN

La presencia de factores que favorecen el desarrollo del capital social como confianza, compromiso, reciprocidad, cultura empresarial semejante, experiencia previa en cooperación, así como la ausencia de oportunismo, un ambiente cultural del negocio similar entre las empresas que cooperan y el apoyo de las política gubernamentales impulsan el proceso de la cooperación interempresarial (CI). En el presente artículo se identificaron los factores del capital social presentes entre las PyMES de la industria metalmecánica de la región centro del estado de Coahuila que facilitan la cooperación entre ellas y se analizó la relación de dichos factores con las actividades de cooperación que realizan. De manera específica, en este estudio se estableció, con base en asociaciones estadísticamente significativas, que los factores de confianza y ambiente cultural del negocio similar entre las PyMES, se asocian con las actividades de cooperación por lo que de presentarse alguno de éstos, facilita el proceso de la CI. La presencia de confianza generalmente soportada en vínculos familiares y amistosos así como la afinidad en la cultura de negocios, facilita el proceso de cooperación entre las pequeñas empresas.

Palabras claves: capital social, cooperación interempesarial (CI), PyMES industria metalmecánica.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En el Municipio de Monclova, principal localidad de la región centro del Estado de Coahuila, en México, se ubica la fundidora de acero más importante del país, Altos Hornos de México, S.A. de C.V. (AHMSA), empresa locomotora del desarrollo de la región, a la cual se encuentran vinculadas las pequeñas y medianas empresas (PyMES) de la industria metalmecánica, tanto hacia adelante, como hacia atrás en el proceso siderúrgico. Esta vinculación de las pequeñas empresas con AHMSA, dio origen en la región a un conglomerado de PyMES de la industria metalmecánica, donde algunas de ellas cooperan entre si.

La cooperación interempresarial (CI) es definida por Araiza y Velarde (2008) como la interacción de las PyMES independientes con un propósito específico, que les permiten intercambiar recursos que mutuamente los benefician, y la plantean como un proceso dinámico que consta de cinco etapas: i) necesidades que impulsan a las empresas a cooperar, ii) búsqueda y selección del socio con el que se va a cooperar, iii) estructura del acuerdo de cooperación, iv) actividades de CI y v) resultados de la cooperación, y destacan, al igual que Fernández y Vigil (2007), la necesidad de realizar estudios acerca de la dinámica que se da en un conglomerado de empresas. Atendiendo esta necesidad en este artículo, se identifican los facilitadores de la CI presentes entre las PyMES de la industria metalmecánica y se analiza la relación de éstos con las actividades de la CI). La información que se presenta se encuentra organizada como sigue: enseguida se presenta la revisión de literatura efectuada sobre el tema, luego se muestra la metodología empleada en el estudio y finalmente se presentan los resultados y las conclusiones.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Esta investigación se encuentra enmarcada en el concepto de aglomeración de empresas en un mismo lugar geográfico donde la interacción cercana de empresarios y empresas a través de la acción cooperativa local (Becattini, 1992) y la desintegración vertical de los procesos productivos aglomerados y sectorialmente especializados (Humphrey y Schmitz, 1996), obtienen una eficiencia colectiva que cada uno de los actores económicos no podrían obtener a partir de su acción individual (Schmitz, 1995).

En este sentido, se utiliza a la teoría de redes y estructura social para explicar de manera específica el fenómeno de los facilitadores de la cooperación interempresarial, siguiendo el trabajo de Saxton (1997), en donde sugiere que el comportamiento de la alianza está en función del valor económico de los recursos per se y de la probabilidad de que se forme una relación satisfactoria dentro de una estructura social.

En relación a esto, Eisenhardt y Schoonhoven (1996), señalan que las empresas recurren a las alianzas por la cooperación estratégica y la cooperación social, la primera se da cuando la empresa es vulnerable en su posición por la carencia de recursos y la segunda se refiere a las oportunidades de negocio creadas a través de relaciones, confianza y compromiso (posición social). Estas relaciones forman parte del capital social definido por van Staveren y Knorringa (2007) como el juego de las relaciones sociales que permiten a los actores ganar, mantener o ampliar el acceso a recursos económicos. Desde la perspectiva económica las relaciones estables de confianza, reciprocidad y cooperación son vistas como instrumentos para facilitar las relaciones entre agentes económicos y mejorar la eficiencia de formatos organizacionales tanto entre firmas y al interior de las firmas (Albagli y Maciel, 2002). En este estudio se incorporan estos factores del capital social (confianza, compromiso, reciprocidad, conocimientos previos de colaboración) como facilitadores de la cooperación interempresarial.

Además de los anteriores, sin lugar a dudas el concepto de oportunismo propuesto por Williamson (1985) dentro de la teoría del costo de transacción, definido como la búsqueda del interés propio con dolo, debe de ser considerado en este estudio, ya que los agentes humanos no cumplirán confiablemente sus promesas de un acuerdo, cuando así convenga a sus intereses, por tal motivo la ausencia del oportunismo entre las empresas que cooperan será considerado como un facilitador de la cooperación.

Así mismo, y de acuerdo a Villaschi (2001), las políticas públicas pueden fomentar y dinamizar los arreglos productivos de las PyMES a través de la concientización de la importancia de la acción sistémica para la cooperación, por lo que, para efectos del presente estudio, se considera también como facilitador de la cooperación, al apoyo de políticas gubernamentales que promuevan la cooperación entre empresas.

En las PyMES, una de las barreras en relación a la Cl, se manifiesta ante la presencia de diferentes culturas de negocio que han sido usadas y fomentadas a lo largo de mucho tiempo, por lo que pueden existir dificultades para integrar y articular a las distintas empresas, ya que Según Albagli y Maciel (2002), "los procesos de cooperación son diversos conforme al ambiente cultural e institucional en que ocurren, no pueden por tanto ser codificados en "recetas" susceptibles a reproducción en cualquier otra localidad o región.", para efectos del estudio se considera, como un facilitador de la cooperación, al ambiente cultural del negocio semejante entre las empresas que cooperan, entendido como los usos y costumbres similares al trabajar.

En otro orden de ideas, en este estudio se usa el concepto de experiencia asumiendo que las firmas tienen memoria y desarrollan el *know how* de la colaboración, pues como afirman Powell y Koput (1996), una vez que una firma comienza a colaborar, desarrolla la experiencia en la cooperación y una reputación como socio. En relación a esto, es importante considerar también la figura de la persona que dirige en el nivel más alto a la empresa y su cultura empresarial, vista conforme a Ferrer (2006) como la manera de estructurar a las empresas y las estrategias que establecen para ser competitivas, pues según Vera-Cruz y

Dutrenit (2005), las PyMES con mayor éxito y aprendizaje tecnológico, generalmente son administradas por empresarios con experiencia, conocimiento tecnológico y visión estratégica, por lo que la experiencia previa en cooperación y cultura empresarial del dueño serán considerados en este estudio, como facilitadores de la cooperación interempresarial.

Por otro lado a efectos de analizar la relación que existe entre los facilitadores de la CI y las actividades de cooperación que realizan las PyMES, en este estudio se tomará como base la tipología desarrollada para éstas últimas por Araiza *et al.* (2010) en la cual definen cuatro tipos de cooperación: cooperación para producir, cooperación para innovar, cooperación para mercado y cooperación para administrar.

METODOLOGÍA

La estrategia metodológica, se basó en un estudio secuencial de dos fases con método mixto, en la primera fase se realizó una exploración cualitativa acerca de las actividades de la cooperación así como de los facilitadores de la CI, y en la segunda, se realizaron las encuestas (año 2007) entrevistando cara a cara a los empresarios de las 50 empresas que conformaron la muestra por conveniencia de una población de 153 empresas. Los datos cuantitativos obtenidos, se procesaron a través del paquete estadístico SPSS para medir, en base al grado de importancia otorgado por los empresarios (escala de 1 a 5, de menor a mayor), a los facilitadores de la cooperación entre las empresas, para posteriormente determinar si existe asociación entre éstos y las actividades de cooperación. Finalmente, se efectuaron las conclusiones y recomendaciones del estudio y se definieron las líneas futuras de investigación.

RESULTADOS

Factores del Capital Social que Facilitan la Cooperación Interempresarial.

De las 50 empresas encuestadas en este estudio, el 66% de ellas reconoce la presencia de facilitadores de la cooperación, por lo que los resultados que se presentan fueron determinados, con base en los datos recabados de las 33 empresas que manifestaron haber tenido al menos alguna experiencia donde la cooperación fue una actividad llevada a buen término, debido a la presencia de los facilitadores.

En la Tabla 1 se aprecia que el principal facilitador de la CI, tanto por la cantidad de menciones (24 empresas), como por ser al que le otorgan en promedio mayor nivel de importancia (4.7), es la ausencia del oportunismo entre las empresas y reconocen como facilitador de menor importancia (3.5) y 11 menciones, al apoyo de políticas gubernamentales para promover la cooperación.

Tabla 1: Factores del Capital Social que Facilitan la Cooperación Interempresarial.

Facilitadores de la Cooperación	No. de Empresas	Media	Desviación Estándar
Ausencia del oportunismo entre las empresas	24	4.7	0.7
Reciprocidad entre las empresas	24	3.9	1.2
Compromiso entre las empresas	21	4.4	0.8
Cultura empresarial del dueño semejante	19	4.6	0.8
Confianza entre las empresas	17	4.2	1.2
Experiencia previa en cooperación	16	4.4	1.0
Ambiente cultural del negocio similar entre las empresas	16	4.3	1.0
Apoyo de políticas gubernamentales para promover la cooperación	11	3.5	1.5

En esta tabla se muestra el nivel de importancia que los empresarios asignan a los facilitadores de la cooperación interempresarial.

Los resultados acerca de las actividades de cooperación interempresarial fueron previamente reportados por Araiza *et al.* (2010), por lo que aquí tan solo se retoman para con base en los mismos, analizará en el siguiente apartado, la relación de estas actividades de cooperación con los facilitadores de la CI.

Asociación Entre los Factores del Capital Social que Facilitan la Cooperación Interempresarial y las Actividades de Cooperación Realizadas por las PyMES.

Al relacionar a la cooperación interempresarial con los factores del capital social, se aprecia que el valor es estadísticamente significativo a un nivel de confianza del 95%, por lo que se puede afirmar que existe una asociación de .572 entre los factores del capital social con las actividades de cooperación interempresarial; dicha asociación se da conforme a lo siguiente: las empresas que le asignan una alta importancia a la cooperación interempresarial, también le asignan una alta importancia a los factores del capital social.

Posterior a esto, de manera específica se procedió a determinar si existe alguna asociación entre cada uno de los ocho factores del capital social con las actividades de cooperación. Los resultados revelaron, con base en asociaciones estadísticamente significativas a un nivel de confianza del 95%, que únicamente el factor confianza con X^2 .650, n(13) y ambiente cultural del negocio similar entre las empresas con X^2 .717, n(12), se asocian a las actividades de cooperación.

CONCLUSIONES

En términos generales existe una asociación directa entre los factores del capital social que facilitan la cooperación interempresarial y las actividades de cooperación de que realizan las PyMES, ante una mayor presencia de facilitadores, mayor es la posibilidad de efectuar la cooperación. De manera específica los facilitadores asociados a la CI, al realizar propiamente las actividades de cooperación, son la confianza y el ambiente cultural del negocio similar entre las empresas que colaboran.

Respecto a la presencia de confianza, generalmente soportada en vínculos familiares y amistosos, asociada con las actividades de cooperación, al presentarse durante su realización facilita el proceso de cooperación. Por otro lado las similitudes en el ambiente cultural del negocio entre las empresas que cooperan, facilita el proceso de la CI, propiamente cuando se realizan las actividades de cooperación, este facilitador se relaciona con la facilidad de integración que representa para las empresas el trabajar con usos y costumbres similares, entre mayor nivel de importancia tengan las similitudes, más probable será lograr la colaboración.

En definitiva, para lograr impulsar la cooperación interempresarial como una estrategia competitiva que deben adoptar las PyMES como impulso del desarrollo regional, se requiere la suma de esfuerzos, por lo que el interés de promover y lograr desarrollar dicha estrategia debe de ser de todos los actores de la localidad, que incluye a los empresarios, organismos empresariales, dependencias de gobierno, la academia y la sociedad en general.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Zóchitl Araiza Garza, Doctora en Administración, actualmente adscrita como investigadora a la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, en México, donde es líder del cuerpo académico micros, pequeñas y medianas empresas; cultiva la línea de investigación asociación y cooperación de empresas, exponiendo sus contribuciones como ponente en congresos nacionales e internacionales, así como publicando libros, y capítulos de libro de investigación además de artículos en revistas arbitradas e indexadas. Es miembro del

Sistema Estatal de Investigadores del Estado de Coahuila y del cuerpo arbitral de varias revistas de investigación. <u>araizagarza@yahoo.com.mx</u>

Nidia Hernández Castro, Maestra en Administración de Sistemas de Información, actualmente se encuentra adscrita a la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila donde está estudiando el Doctorado en Administración y Alta Dirección, ha participado como ponente en congresos nacionales e internacionales, ha escrito artículos en revistas arbitradas e indexadas y colabora en los proyectos de investigación desarrollados por la Dra. <u>nehc59mex@gmail.com</u>

Dariela Saraí Sánchez Campos, alumna de licenciatura de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, ha participado como ponente en congresos y colabora en los proyectos de investigación desarrollados por la Dra. Araiza. <u>sarai dariela@hotmail.com</u>

COMPARACION DEL NIVEL DE EMPRENDIMIENTO DE LOS ALUMNOS DE DOS UNIVERSIDADES TECNOLOGICAS

Mario Chan, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur Juan Balam, Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur

RESUMEN

Un elemento clave de la innovación es el empresario, ya que este es la persona que realiza las innovaciones hasta obtener nuevos productos y/o servicios, por lo que es considerado como el motor del cambio tecnológico según Schumpeter. Es por esto que, los trabajos recientes, proponen considerar al proceso emprendedor como un conjunto de funciones, actividades y acciones asociadas con la percepción de oportunidad y la creación de la organización para explotarla. La Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR) y la Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana (UTM) tienen entre sus propósitos el formar gente emprendedora que pueda desarrollar negocios y contribuir al crecimiento económico de la zona sur y centro del estado de Yucatán, todo esto a través de su desarrollo académico en la carrera de desarrollo de negocios. En el presente trabajo se pretende analizar la capacidad de emprendimiento, en cuanto a las dimensiones de creatividad, seguridad, aceptación de riesgo y manejo de igual manera conocer si existen diferencias entre ellos.

Palabras clave: Empresario, dimensión, emprendedor.

INTRODUCCION

La generación de emprendedores es de vital importancia para un país debido a los beneficios que esto genera en el ámbito económico, tales como el crecimiento de la economía, la generación de empleos, el crecimiento del PIB, y mayores inversiones extranjeras dentro del país que mejores resultados económicos refleje. A pesar de estos beneficios existen diversas barreras que impiden el desarrollo de un espíritu emprendedor dentro de una sociedad. En el caso particular de México se realizan proyectos emprendedores que nunca llegan a culminarse, debido a que se desconocen las fuentes de financiamiento, o que el emprendedor no tiene el suficiente conocimiento técnico sobre como allegarse de recursos. Para nadie es un secreto que emprender en México es complicado. Según la Organización de Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE), existen tres principales barreras para el establecimiento de nuevos negocios en el país: los monopolios públicos, los monopolios privados y el acceso al financiamiento.

La falta de apertura para competir es una de las grandes barreras que los emprendedores enfrentan. "De 72 ramas de actividad que contempla la economía mexicana, son contadas con los dedos las que tienen competencia efectiva y acceso al mercado", señala Ernesto Cervera, director general de Grupo de Economistas y Asociados (GEA).Para que un emprendedor tenga impacto en la economía debe crear un negocio que repercuta en la multiplicación del empleo y ofrezca productos o servicios innovadores.

Idealmente, señala el reporte del Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2007, los emprendedores mexicanos deben plantear sus modelos de negocios con una visión que los lleve a competir en los mercados internacionales. Después de analizar toda la información anterior podemos entender el porqué es importante generar emprendedores en nuestro país, y las universidades deben de apoyar en inculcar el perfil de emprendimiento entres sus alumnos. Es por ello que consideramos importante el comparar el nivel de emprendimiento entre los alumnos de dos de las universidades tecnológicas que se encuentran en el estado de Yucatán, con el propósito de identificar sus diferencias y similitudes y elaborar propuestas de mejora en base a los resultados obtenidos.

Objetivo General: El objetivo de la investigación fue medir la capacidad de emprendimiento y determinar si existen diferencias entre los alumnos de dos universidades tecnológicas.

Objetivos Específicos

- 1. Conocer el nivel de creatividad de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de ambas universidades.
- 2. Conocer el nivel de seguridad personal de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de ambas universidades.
- 3. Conocer el nivel de aceptación del riesgo de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de ambas universidades.
- 4. Conocer el nivel de manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de ambas universidades.
- 5. Comparar si existen diferencias entre las dimensiones de creatividad, seguridad personal, aceptación de riesgo y manejo de problemas.

METODOLOGIA

Hipótesis

Ha1: La dimensión de creatividad de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual a la de los alumnos de la UTM

Ha2: La dimensión de seguridad personal de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual a la de los alumnos de la UTM

Ha3: La dimensión de aceptación del riesgo de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual a la de los alumnos de la UTM

Ha4: La dimensión de manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual a la de los alumnos de la UTM

Justificación: La industria reclama al sistema educativo la responsabilidad de formar a los jóvenes en competencias metodológicas y habilidades sociales y desarrollar competencias tales como: interés por la calidad, capacidad de innovar, responsabilidad ante las propias decisiones y actuaciones, familiarizarse con el entorno, capacidad para trabajar en equipo y cooperar, pensar en positivo y capacidad de aprender. Es muy importante para el estudio, conocer las principales competencias o características de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de la UTRSUR y UTM, esto dará los elementos necesarios para establecer estrategias que coadyuven en la adecuada formación emprendedora de los estudiantes tomando como base este estudio. El conocer los resultados de este proceso, permitirá sentar las bases e identificar las áreas de oportunidad en este sentido, de manera que se pueda ser congruente en los estilos de enseñanza y técnicas didácticas aplicadas, buscando que se produzca un mejor efecto formativo en los alumnos.

Preguntas de investigación

1. ¿Cuál es el nivel de creatividad, seguridad personal, aceptación del riesgo y manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de ambas universidades?

2. ¿Existen diferencias entre las dimensiones de creatividad, seguridad personal, aceptación de riesgo y manejo de problemas de ambas universidades?

Población Y Muestra

Población: Estudiantes de Desarrollo de Negocios del quinto cuatrimestre de la UTR y UTM Elemento muestral Alumno inscrito al cuatrimestre enero abril 2011 en la carrera de TSU en Desarrollo de Negocios de la UTR y UTM

Unidad Muestral: Salones de clase de la Carreras de TSU en Desarrollo de Negocios la UTR y UTM Extensión instalaciones UTR y UTM de la ciudad de Tekax y Mérida respectivamente Marco muestral: Lista de asistencia de los alumnos de la carrera antes mencionada tanto en UTR como en UTM

Tipo de muestreo: Probabilístico aleatorio estratificado

Cálculo de la muestra: Dos muestras independientes cada una de ellas con 95% de confianza y 5% de error

Instrumento: El instrumento que se utilizara para medir las características de los emprendedores es el "inventario del perfil del emprendedor" del Ing. Rafael Alcaraz. Este instrumento consta de 20 ítems, los cuales evalúan las principales características inherentes al emprendedor. Cada pregunta forma parte de las cuatro dimensiones manejadas en el instrumento, las cuales son: creatividad, seguridad personal, aceptación del riesgo y manejo de problemas. El significado de cada una de las características es el siguiente:

1 Creatividad: Ver un problema, tener una idea, hacer algo sobre ella, tener resultados positivos.

2 Seguridad personal: Actitud proactiva y seguridad en la toma de decisiones.

3 Aceptación del riesgo: Capacidad para manejar el riesgo de fallas potenciales al tomar decisiones o realizar acciones.

4 Manejo de problemas: Capacidad metodológica para solucionar problemas.

Para la respuesta del cuestionario se aplico una escala de Likert del 01 al 5, donde: 5 es definitivamente si, 4 es probablemente si, 3 es indeciso, 2 es probablemente no y 1 es definitivamente no.

Validación del instrumento: Todas las preguntas del instrumento han sido validadas y clasificadas dentro de las categorías a la cual pertenecen, lingüística y psicológicamente. De igual manera el instrumento ha sido confiabilizado en otros ambientes mediante la aplicación del alpha de cronbach arrojando resultados superiores al 70%.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El Emprendedor (Perfil del emprendedor):Emprender es un concepto con múltiples acepciones, de hecho, dependiendo del contexto en que se utiliza es la connotación que se le da, por ejemplo, para el ámbito empresarial el emprendedor es un empresario, es decir es sinónimo de propietario de una empresa comercial con fines de lucro, como es el caso de Finley (1990), quien lo describe como alguien que se aventura en una nueva actividad de negocios o Say (1800), citado por Drucker (1989), quien lo clasifica como un "buen administrador".

Para el académico en cambio, emprender denota más un perfil, un conjunto de características que le hacen actuar de una manera determinada y que le permiten mostrar ciertas "capacidades" para visualizar, definir y alcanzar objetivos, tal como lo señalan Ely y Hess (1937), citados por Ronstadt (1985). De la misma manera, Shefsky (1997) y Baumol (1993), éste último citado por Ibáñez (2001), señalan que el término es utilizado para describir a cualquier miembro de la economía cuyas actividades son, de alguna forma, novedosas, quienes en definitiva huyen de rutinas y prácticas mayoritariamente aceptadas, por tanto es definido en términos de su capacidad para crear, innovar, salir de la rutina, hacer cosas diferentes, mejorar lo existente. Harper (1991), lo identifica como una persona capaz de detectar oportunidades y con las habilidades necesarias para desarrollar a partir de ellas un nuevo concepto de negocio.

Así pues, existen diversas formas de definir y entender el término emprendedor, sin embargo en lo que coinciden diversos autores es en que el término Emprendedor se deriva de la palabra Entrepreneur, que a su vez se origina del verbo francés: "Entreprendre", que significa *encargarse de*, tal como lo señala Jennings (1993), en su libro "Multiple perspectives of Entrepreneurship". De la misma manera, Jennings cita a Joseph Schumpeter (1934), quien afirma que la innovación se desarrolla a partir de la capacidad para emprender, por tanto, los emprendedores no son necesariamente capitalistas, administradores o inventores, ya que finalmente se trata de personas con una capacidad para "combinar" los factores de producción existentes y obtener mejores resultados de dicha forma de utilizarlos, es decir, de *innovar*.

Un elemento que no había sido señalado hasta este momento es el riesgo, el cual algunos autores establecen como una característica fundamental y por tanto base de la definición de emprender, ya que consideran al emprendedor como un "tomador de riesgos", que pondera los beneficios y asume los riesgos que implique alcanzarlos (Baty, 1990). Por su parte, Halloran (1992), señala que los emprendedores son individuos dispuestos a tomar el riesgo y asumir sus propias ganancias y sus propias pérdidas. De la misma manera, Gray y Cyr (1994), mencionan que el emprendedor (empresario, para ellos es sinónimo), es "alguien que organiza, controla y asume riesgos en un negocio, ante su deseo por enfrentar desafíos, la oportunidad de alcanzar logros y el impulso de cumplir necesidades personales, emocionales y psicológicas". Hiam y Olander (1991) por otro lado, definen al emprendedor como un individuo que "inicia, administra y asume los riesgos y recompensas de un nuevo negocio", mientras que Longenecker, Moore y Petty (1994) lo definen como una persona con "aptitud para innovar y disposición para asumir el riesgo". Stacey (1980), agrega otro elemento interesante en el perfil del emprendedor relacionado con la aceptación del riesgo y es la capacidad para aprender de los errores o fracasos, y señala que el emprendedor es una persona capaz de caer y levantarse con una nueva perspectiva de las cosas y un aprendizaje que le permitirá mejorar su desempeño.

Dollinger (1999), define al emprendedor como un individuo con capacidad de crear e innovar, de obtener y manejar recursos y de evaluar la posibilidad de éxito y su correspondiente riesgo, mientras que Longenecker y Shoen (1975), lo ven como una persona con autonomía para buscar oportunidades y definir objetivos.Shapero y Sokol (1982), establecen que la acción de emprender es el hecho de "tomar la iniciativa, consolidar los recursos, gestionar la empresa, actuar con autonomía y asumir el riesgo", lo mismo que Stevenson, Roberts y Grousbeck (1989), quienes consideran que emprender esta en un continuo de actuación en el que en un extremo se identifica como un promotor que considera que puede "hacer pasar las cosas" y en el otro extremo un administrador eficiente de recursos que los combina para aprovechar las oportunidades.

Para Lambing y Kuehl (1997), además de lo anterior, el emprendedor es una persona que tiene los siguientes atributos: confianza, determinación, tenacidad, tolerancia a la ambigüedad, creatividad, visión y orientación a los detalles (perfeccionismo). Pero que finalmente usa todos estos recursos (cualidades) para generar "bienestar", según Ronstadt (1985).McClelland, citado por Kuriloff y Hemphill (1981) así como DEMAC (1991), mencionan que el emprendedor es una persona que posee necesidades psicológicas básicas (como todo ser humano, según McClelland son tres): necesidad de logro, necesidad de afiliación y necesidad de poder, en donde la necesidad de logro es la más importante y dominante para determinar sus actitudes y actuaciones correspondientes, DEMAC menciona algunas más que aunque

pudieran estar contempladas en las anteriores tres, señala como: Necesidad de Independencia y autonomía, necesidad de dominio de su medio y necesidad de crear. Características Del Emprendedor Que Favorecen El Éxito

Según Robbins (1999) las características de los emprendedores son: trabajo constante, autoconfianza, optimismo, determinación y un alto nivel de energía. Pero por lo general 3 factores proporcionan el perfil de la personalidad emprendedora, los emprendedores tienen una gran necesidad de logro, tienen la convicción de que pueden controlar su propio destino y solo enfrentar riesgos moderados.

Los emprendedores son trabajadores independientes que tienen una tendencia a aceptar riesgos calculados y, al mismo tiempo, aceptan el hecho de que puedan ocurrir errores. Estas y las características anteriores se pueden complementar con la falta de experiencia en los negocios, pareciera que la combinación de estos elementos, es una mezcla para preparar un fracaso anunciado, pero si no es de esta forma ¿Cómo vamos a obtener experiencia los nuevos egresados?

RESULTADOS

Estadística descriptiva En este apartado se hace la descripción de los resultados obtenidos

Tabla 01: Descriptiva del sexo de los encuestados

	Sexo del entrevistado									
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado					
Válidos	Masculino	67	39.2	39.2	39.2					
	Femenino	104	60.8	60.8	100.0					
	Total	171	100.0	100.0						

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al sexo de los encuestados. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

La mayoría de las personas entrevistadas fueron mujeres (60.8%)

Tabla 02: Descriptiva de la edad de los encuestados

	Rango de edad										
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado						
Válidos	Menos de 18	2	1.2	1.2	1.2						
	De 18 a 23	164	95.9	95.9	97.1						
	Más de 23	5	2.9	2.9	100.0						
	Total	171	100.0	100.0							

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto a la edad de los encuestados. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Respecto a la edad, el rango con mayor frecuencia es de 18 a 23 años (95.9%)

Tabla 03: Descriptiva de los alumnos encuestados de la UTR y UTM

			Universidad		
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado
Válidos	UTR	74	43.3	43.3	43.3
	UTM	97	56.7	56.7	100.0
	Total	171	100.0	100.0	

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al numero de alumnos encuestados en ambas universidades. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

La mayoría de los entrevistados fueron de la UTM de Mérida (56.7%)

		Lugar de	e origen		
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado
Válidos	Mérida	77	45.0	45.0	45.0
	Interior del estado	82	48.0	48.0	93.0
	Fuera de Yucatán	12	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	171	100.0	100.0	

Tabla 04: Descriptiva del lugar de origen de los encuestados

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al lugar de origen de los encuestados. Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Del total de los entrevistados, 48% son originarios del interior del estado de Yucatán y el 45% son de Mérida, cabe señalar que la UTR se ubica en la ciudad de Tekax a 120 kms al sur de la ciudad de Mérida 9 de cada 10 entrevistados tienen un nivel alto de dimensión de creatividad

Tabla 05: Distribución de frecuencia de la dimensión de creatividad

Dimensión Creatividad					
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado
Válidos	Medio	16	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Alto	155	90.6	90.6	100.0
	Total	171	100.0	100.0	

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al nivel de valoración de la dimensión de creatividadFuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Tabla 06: Distribución de frecuencia de la dimensión de seguridad

	Dimensión Seguridad						
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado		
Válidos	Bajo	1	.6	.6	.6		
	Medio	4	2.3	2.3	2.9		
	Alto	166	97.1	97.1	100.0		
	Total	171	100.0	100.0			

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al nivel de valoración de la dimensión de seguridad Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Casi la totalidad de los entrevistados tiene un nivel alto de dimensión de seguridad. Respecto al riesgo, la mayoría de los entrevistados tienen un nivel medio de dimensión riesgo (95.3%)

Tabla 07: Distribución de frecuencia de la dimensión de aceptación del riesgo.

		Di	mensión del Riesgo		
		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado
Válidos	Bajo	8	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Medio	163	95.3	95.3	100.0
	Total	171	100.0	100.0	

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al nivel de valoración de la dimensión de aceptación del riesgo Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Respecto al manejo de problemas, 8 de cada 10 de los entrevistados tienen un nivel alto.

Prueba de normalidad:Se procedió a determinar si la dimensión de creatividad y seguridad tienen una distribución normal a través de la prueba de Kolmogorov- Smirnov.

Ha creatividad: La dimensión de creatividad no es normal Ha seguridad: La dimensión de creatividad no es normal Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < a 0.05 de otra manera no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α = 0.05

Tabla 08: Distribución de frecuencia de manejo de problemas

	Dimensión Manejo de Problemas					
	-	Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado	
Válidos	Medio	33	19.3	19.3	19.3	
	Alto	138	80.7	80.7	100.0	
	Total	171	100.0	100.0		

Esta tabla mide el porcentaje de frecuencia con respecto al nivel de valoración de la dimensión de manejo de problemas Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Tabla 09: Prueba de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para una muestra – Dimensión de creatividad y seguridad

		Dimensión Creatividad	Dimensión Seguridad
	N	171	171
Parámetros normales ^{a,,b}	Media	2.91	2.96
	Desviación típica	.292	.214
Diferencias más extremas	Absoluta	.532	.536
	Positiva	.374	.435
	Negativa	532	536
	Z de Kolmogorov-Smirnov	6.958	7.007
	Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.000	.000

Esta tabla muestra los resultados obtenidos de la aplicación de la prueba de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para una muestra – Dimensión de creatividad y seguridad

Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

a. La distribución de contraste es la Normal.

b. Se han calculado a partir de los datos.

Como p valor =0.000 < 0.05 en ambas pruebas entonces se rechaza Ho por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza que no existe evidencia estadística para rechazar que la dimensión creatividad y de seguridad no tienen una distribución normal

También se procedió a determinar si las dimensiones de riesgo y manejo de problemas tienen una distribución normal a través de la prueba de Kolmogorov- Smirnov.

Ha riesgo: La dimensión de riesgo no tiene una distribución normal Ha manejo: La dimensión de manejo de problemas no tiene una distribución normal Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < a 0.05 de otra manera no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α = 0.05

Como p valor =0.000 < 0.05 en ambas pruebas, entonces se rechaza Ho, por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza que no existe evidencia estadística para rechazar que la dimensión creatividad y de seguridad no tienen una distribución normal. En otras palabras las dimensiones obtenidas de la capacidad de emprendimiento de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM no presentan una distribución normal.

Cuanto los datos no presentan una distribución normal y se quiere probar las hipótesis de que dos poblaciones tienen o no diferencias se realiza la prueba de Mann-Whitney (Anderson, Sweeny y Williams, 2008), por lo que las hipótesis a probar son:

Tabla 10: Prueba de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para una muestra – Dimensión de riesgo y manejo de problemas

Prueba de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para una muestra					
		Dimensión del Riesgo	Dimensión manejo de Problemas		
	Ν	171	171		
Parámetros normales ^{a,,b}	Media	2.95	2.81		
	Desviación típica	.212	.396		
Diferencias más extremas	Absoluta	.541	.494		
	Positiva	.413	.313		
	Negativa	541	494		
	Z de Kolmogorov-Smirnov	7.070	6.461		
	Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.000	.000		

Esta tabla muestra los resultados obtenidos de la aplicación de la prueba de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para una muestra – Dimensión de riesgo y manejo de problemasFuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

a. La distribución de contraste es la Normal.

b. Se han calculado a partir de los datos.

Ha1: La dimensión de creatividad de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual la dimensión de creatividad de los alumnos de la UTM

Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < 0.05 de otro modo no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α : 0.05

Tabla 11: Rango promedio de la dimensión de creatividad

		Rangos		
	Universidad	Ν	Rango promedio	Suma de rangos
Dimensión Creatividad	UTR	74	84.76	6272.00
	UTM	97	86.95	8434.00
	Total	171		

Esta tabla refleja el cálculo a través del SPSS 17.0 de los rangos promedios de la dimensión de creatividad Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Estadísticos de contraste ^a				
	Dimensión Creatividad			
U de Mann-Whitney	3497.000			
W de Wilcoxon	6272.000			
Z	569			
Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.570			

a. Variable de agrupación: Universidad Esta tabla refleja los resultados del cálculo de la prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de creatividad Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Como p valor = 0.570 > 0.05 entonces no se rechaza Ho, por lo que se puede concluir con 95% de confianza, que no se tiene evidencia estadística para aceptar las aseveración de que la dimensión de creatividad de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM son diferentes.

Ha2: La dimensión de seguridad de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual la dimensión de seguridad de los alumnos de la UTM

Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < 0.05 de otro modo no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α : 0.05

		Rangos		
	Universidad	Ν	Rango promedio	Suma de rangos
Dimensión Seguridad	UTR	74	86.20	6379.00
	UTM	97	85.85	8327.00
	Total	171		

Esta tabla refleja el cálculo a través del SPSS 17.0 de los rangos promedios de la dimensión de seguridad Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Tabla 14: Prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de seguridad
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Estadísticos de contraste ^a		
	Dimensión Seguridad	
U de Mann-Whitney	3574.000	
W de Wilcoxon	8327.000	
Z	160	
Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.873	

Esta tabla refleja los resultados del cálculo de la prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de seguridad Fuente: Elaboración propia(2011)

Como p valor = 0.873> 0.05 entonces no se rechaza Ho, por lo que se puede concluir, con 95% de confianza, que no se tiene evidencia estadística para aceptar las aseveración de que la dimensión de seguridad de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM son diferentes

Ha3: La dimensión de riesgo de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual la dimensión de riesgo de los alumnos de la UTM

Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < 0.05 de otro modo no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α : 0.05

Tabla 15: Rangos promedio de la dimensión de aceptación del riesgo

		Rangos		
	Universidad	Ν	Rango promedio	Suma de rangos
Dimensión del Riesgo	UTR	74	85.38	6318.00
	UTM	97	86.47	8388.00
	Total	171		

Esta tabla refleja el cálculo a través del SPSS 17.0 de los rangos promedios de la dimensión de aceptación del riesgo Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Estadísticos de contraste ^a		
	Dimensión del Riesgo	
U de Mann-Whitney	3543.000	
W de Wilcoxon	6318.000	
Z	392	
Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.695	

a. Variable de agrupación: Universidad Esta tabla refleja los resultados del cálculo de la prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de aceptación del riesgoFuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Como p valor = 0.695> 0.05 entonces no se rechaza Ho, por lo que se puede concluir, con 95% de confianza, que no se tiene evidencia estadística para rechazar las aseveración de que la dimensión de riesgo de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM son diferentes

Ha4: La dimensión de manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la UTR no es igual la dimensión de manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la UTM

Regla de decisión: Rechazar Ho si p valor < 0.05 de otro modo no rechazar Ho Nivel de significancia α : 0.05

Tabla 15: Rangos promedios de la dimensión de manejo de problemas

	Ι	Rangos		
	Universidad	N	Rango promedio	Suma de rangos
Dimensión Manejo de Problemas	UTR	74	85.17	6302.50
	UTM	97	86.63	8403.50
	Total	171		

Esta tabla refleja el cálculo a través del SPSS 17.0 de los rangos promedios de la dimensión de manejo de problemas Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Tabla 16: Prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de manejo de problemas

Estadísticos de contraste		
	Dimensión Manejo de Problemas	
U de Mann-Whitney	3527.500	
W de Wilcoxon	6302.500	
Z	280	
Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.779	

a. Variable de agrupación: Universidad Esta tabla refleja los resultados del cálculo de la prueba de hipótesis de la dimensión de manejo de problemas Fuente: Elaboración propia (2011)

Como p valor = 0.779 > 0.05 entonces no se rechaza Ho por lo que se puede concluir, con 95% de confianza, que no se tiene evidencia estadística para rechazar las aseveración de que la dimensión de riesgo de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM son diferentes.

CONCLUSIONES

En este apartado se concluye que la muestra estuvo representada en su mayoría por mujeres (60.8%), cuyas edades esta entre los 18 y 23 años (95.9%). La dimensión de seguridad fue la que obtuvo el mayor porcentaje por parte de los alumnos de ambas carreras, ya que el 97.10% de los estudiantes salieron con el nivel de categoría alta, esto indica que son alumnos que tratan de reconocer sus fortalezas, conocen sus capacidades, aptitudes y limitaciones, identifican estos puntos en su persona lo cual los ayudará para que

comiencen a sentir seguridad en si mismo; por lo que a estos alumnos es recomendable involucrarlos en desarrollo de proyectos que les permita poner en práctica sus fortalezas. Por otro lado la dimensión de manejo de problemas en situaciones adversas es la que, a pesar, de estar ubicada en un nivel alto, se encuentra en el mínimo, para pasar a la categoría de nivel medio, con un 80.7% de aceptación. En base a este resultado se sugiere que fortalezcan el identificar claramente discrepancias entre un estado actual y uno deseado y que actúen para resolver tal discrepancia. Este proceso de solución les orientara a superar los obstáculos y vencer las dificultades que impiden lograr un objetivo. Deben de escuchar la opinión de aquellos que entienden un problema de manera diferente a la propia, es esencial que fortalezcan esta característica. En cuanto a las dimensiones de creatividad y aceptación del riesgo los alumnos de ambas universidades obtuvieron un nivel alto alcanzando un 90.6% y 95.3% respectivamente.

Por otro lado, y con base en la aplicación de la prueba de normalidad se puede concluir con 95% de confianza que no existe evidencia estadística para rechazar que la dimensión creatividad, seguridad, aceptación del riesgo y manejo de problemas no tienen una distribución normal.En cuanto a las pruebas de hipótesis se puede concluir con 95% de confianza, que no se tiene evidencia estadística para aceptar las aseveraciones de que la dimensión de creatividad, seguridad, aceptación del riesgo y manejo de problemas de los alumnos de la UTR y UTM son diferentes. Seria interesante para futuros estudios conocer hasta que punto los alumnos que formaron parte de esta muestra generaron sus propias empresas y empleos.

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BIOGRAFIA

El profesor Mario René Chan Magaña es profesor investigador de tiempo completo de la carrera de contaduría y Coordinador del Cuerpo Académico de Ciencias Económico Administrativas de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR). Al profesor se le puede contactar en tablaje catastral No. 792 vía del ferrocarril Mérida – Peto en Tekax de Álvaro Obregón; correo: mario.chan@utregionaldelsur.edu.mx.

El profesor Juan Francisco Balam Mena es profesor investigador de tiempo completo de la carrera de desarrollo de negocios de la Universidad Tecnológica Regional del Sur (UTRSUR). Al profesor se le puede contactar en tablaje catastral No. 792 vía del ferrocarril Mérida – Peto en Tekax de Álvaro Obregón; correo: jbalam mena@hotmail.com.

Lucila Zárraga Cano, Universidad del Caribe, Cancún Q. Roo. Víctor Manuel Molina Morejón, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Torreón, México. José Gabriel Ruíz Andrade, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Enrique Corona Sandoval, Universidad del Caribe, Cancún Q. Roo

RESUMEN

El inicio de una nueva etapa turística en donde los mercados se fragmentan cada vez más, donde existen nuevas tendencias en la tecnología, las formas de producción, los estilos de gestión y las condiciones del entorno, y por si fuera poco un mayor número de competencia; propician que se esté innovando la forma de gestionar las empresas turísticas, mediante la búsqueda de mecanismos que coadyuven a mejorar la competitividad para enfrentar a la competencia, es por eso que se propone diseñar un modelo que combine la Cadena de Utilidad en el Servicio y el Modelo Nacional para la Competitividad 2010, para ayudar a que las empresas que operen con guías de turistas puedan salir adelante ante los cambios vertiginosos del entorno.

El objetivo de esta investigación es diseñar un modelo que garantice los estándares en los procesos de calidad del servicio de los guías de turistas que demandan expectativas y que coadyuve al incremento de la competitividad de las empresas de servicios de guías de turistas en la ciudad de Cancún.

Para la elaboración del presente estudio se tomo en cuenta los aportes del Modelo de Calidad 2010 en cuanto a sus impulsores que son clientes, liderazgo, planeación, información y conocimiento, procesos, personal y responsabilidad social, así como los eslabones de la Cadena de Utilidad en el Servicio. El estudio comprende una fase de investigaciones aplicadas a los diferentes sujetos de estudio involucrados de acuerdo a los eslabones y el modelo de calidad, tanto de tipo cualitativa mediante diseños exploratorios para adquirir ideas preliminares, como de tipo cuantitativa en donde se pone énfasis en preguntas formales para analizarlas estadísticamente.

Hoy en día los guías juegan un papel importante ya que ellos están en la línea de enfrente, proporcionando información y haciendo que los turistas se sientan bienvenidos, es por eso que ellos son un reflejo de la calidad de las empresas. Se espera tener una herramienta de servicios avalada por varios instrumentos que ayuden a cerrar brechas y mejorar la competitividad de los guías de turistas en Cancún. Con el modelo se detonarán mejores oportunidades para el sector de los guías, teniendo colaboradores más productivos que cuenten con conocimiento en materia, garanticen destrezas y pericias técnicas y propicie actitudes positivas y en consecuencia satisfacción al cliente.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Turismo, calidad, competitividad

ABSTRACT

The beginning of a new era where markets tourism increasingly fragmented, where there are new trends in technology, production methods, styles of management and environmental conditions, and last but not least a greater number of competition ; conducive to innovation is how to manage tourism businesses by finding ways to help improve the competitiveness to face competition, which is why we propose to design a model that combines the string value in the service and National Quality Model 2010 to help companies operate tour guides to cope with rapid changes in the environment. The objective of this research is to design a model that ensures the standards in the processes of service quality tour guides demanding expectations and contributes to increasing the competitiveness of service companies tour guides in the city of Cancun.

For the preparation of this study took into account the contributions of the 2010 Quality Model in their drivers that are customers, leadership, planning, information and knowledge, processes, personal and social responsibility, as well as links Profit Chain in the Service. The study includes a phase of research applied to different subjects of study involved according to the links and the quality model, using both qualitative exploratory design to acquire preliminary ideas, including both quantitative, where the emphasis is on formal questions to analyze statistically.

Today, the guides play an important role since they are on the front line, providing information and making visitors feel welcome, that is why they are a reflection of the quality of companies. It hopes to have a service tool backed by several instruments that will help close gaps and improve the competitiveness of tourist guides in Cancun. The model is detonated better opportunities for the sector of the guides, with more productive employees who have knowledge in the field, to ensure skills and technical skills and fosters positive attitudes and hence customer satisfaction.

KEYWORDS: Tourism, quality, competitiveness

INTRODUCCIÓN

Cancún se encuentra en el estado de Quintana Roo en donde se consolida al turismo como eje principal, ya que custodia los mejores recursos turísticos del país, y busca ir a la vanguardia nacional en servicios para el turismo. Se pretende que se cuente con empresas altamente competitivas que oferten productos de alta calidad, por lo que la estrategia será el fortalecimiento de los programas de mejora y promoción de la calidad, la capacitación y modernización empresarial en las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas turísticas (Plan de Desarrollo Estatal de Q. Roo, 2005).

Uno de los sectores con problemas en cuanto a la calidad del servicio que se ofrecen son los guías de turistas, ya que hay una competencia desleal por parte de los guías no certificados o guías piratas, la falta de apoyo por parte de las autoridades en cuanto a capacitación, no existe una preocupación notable por las remuneraciones percibidas (ITAM, 2008).

Las empresas que operen con guías de turistas tienen una gran responsabilidad ya que representan la imagen del servicio del destino turístico por lo que son una pieza clave, en la que se deben ir cerrando brechas para elevar la calidad en su trabajo y de esta manera mejorar la competitividad. El objetivo de la investigación es el diseño de un modelo que garantice los estándares en los procesos de calidad del servicio de los guías de turistas que demandan expectativas y que coadyuve al incremento de la competitividad de las empresas de servicios de guías de turistas en la ciudad de Cancún, Q. Roo.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Definir el turismo es complejo debido a la ausencia de definiciones conceptuales que delimiten la actividad turística y la distingan de otros sectores (OMT, 1998). En esta investigación se conceptualiza el turismo desde la teoría general de sistemas en donde los procesos permitan entender las interacciones y la forma en que esas interacciones definen el sistema en su conjunto, así como sus particularidades. El guía de turista se define como la persona física que proporciona al turista nacional o extranjero

El guía de turista se define como la persona física que proporciona al turista nacional o extranjero orientación e información profesional sobre el patrimonio turístico, cultural y de atractivos relacionados

con el turismo, así como servicios de asistencia, el cual puede presentar sus servicios bajo la modalidad de guía general (Secretaria de Turismo, n/d).

Los preceptos de la calidad en toda su extensión de la palabra se institucionaliza a través de modelos de excelencia, son instrumentos que permiten acelerar el proceso de cambio cultural en las organizaciones y constituyen una guía para lograr el mejoramiento continuo de empresas (Cantú, 2006).

El Modelo Nacional para la Competitividad 2010 creado por el Instituto para el Fomento de la Calidad Total A. C., es un apoyo a las organizaciones mexicanas para orientar procesos de cambio que las lleve a mejorar su posición competitiva.

Los eslabones de la Cadena de Utilidad en el Servicio (Lovelock, 1997), se basan en las siguientes premisas:

- 1. La lealtad del cliente impulsa las utilidades y el crecimiento.
- 2. La satisfacción del cliente impulsa la lealtad del cliente.
- 3. El valor impulsa la satisfacción del cliente.
- 4. La productividad de los empleados impulsa el valor percibido por el cliente.
- 5. La lealtad de los empleados impulsa la productividad.
- 6. La satisfacción de los empleados impulsa la lealtad.
- 7. La calidad interna impulsa la satisfacción de los empleados.

METODOLOGÍA DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Para el planteamiento del modelo, primero se tuvo que analizar a través de varias investigaciones la situación real que se vivía con los guías de turistas, para poder detectar las áreas de oportunidad y al mismo tiempo poder implementar en el modelo acciones correctivas ante los futuros problemas.

La primera investigación de Zárraga y Corona (2010), sobre las expectativas de los turistas cuando contratan los servicios de un guía de turista, fortalece al eslabón que se denomina Requisitos del Sector. El objetivo es conocer cuáles son las expectativas de los turistas nacionales que visitan la ciudad de Cancún al momento de contratar a un guía de turista, esta investigación tuvo una primera fase cualitativa que ayudo a construir un primer acercamiento a las expectativas, a través de un grupo focal, en la segunda fase se probó mediante una investigación cuantitativa, en donde se aplicó a una muestra infinita, considerando una población de 108,700 turistas nacionales, con un margen de error de 5% donde el resultado fueron de 400 encuestas, se realizó un análisis de factores y discriminante.

La segunda investigación de Zárraga (2009), sobre los guías de turistas: Autodidactas de su profesión, fortalece el eslabón de Calidad en el Servicio Interno, se plantea el objetivo de profundizar en cuáles son las competencias profesionales que requiere un guía de turista, este estudio se realizo a través de una investigación cualitativa mediante un grupo focal.

La tercera investigación de Zárraga, Corona y Molina (2010), sobre las competencias de los guías de turistas como ventaja competitiva, es un estudio descriptivo a través de cuestionarios a nivel gerencia, en donde se aplicó un muestreo no probabilístico a 40 tours operadoras que operan con guías de turistas, que fortalece al eslabón de Calidad en el Servicio Interno.

La cuarta investigación, se relaciona con el eslabón de Satisfacción del Guía de Turista en donde Zárraga, Molina y Corona (2010) se realizaron una investigación descriptiva sobre la satisfacción de los empleados de las operadoras turísticas, con el objetivo de conocer la percepción de los guías de turistas que laboran con las operadoras turísticas de la ciudad de Cancún, respecto a los sentimientos que tienen hacia su trabajo, colegas, empresa y las condiciones laborales en la que se desempeña. Se tuvo un muestreo no probabilístico, por bola de nieve en donde se obtuvieron un total de 86 encuestas. La quinta investigación de Zárraga y Corona (2009), sobre la medida de satisfacción de los turistas sobre el servicio de los guías, ayuda a fortalecer el eslabón de la satisfacción del turista a través de un estudio descriptivo en donde el objetivo es conocer el índice de satisfacción de los turistas con respecto a la labor del guía. Se realizó un muestreo aleatorio simple, tomando una población de 4700 visitantes, dando como resultado 367 encuestas, la validación del número de encuestas se basó en el teorema de límite central, en donde la desviación estándar es de 1.18 lo que valida el tamaño de la muestra.

PROPUESTA DEL MODELO

El Modelo propuesto basado en el Modelo de la Cadena de Utilidad en el Servicio, el cual reconoce la importancia de los empleados, dado que estos ponen en manifiesto el valor del servicio que a su vez trae beneficios como la lealtad del cliente, el aumento de los ingresos y las utilidades de las empresas y el Modelo Nacional para la Competitividad 2010, modelo de excelencia, en donde intervienen impulsores claves como clientes, liderazgo, planeación, información y conocimiento, procesos, personal y responsabilidad social para hacer más competitivas las empresas, se mezclan para crear un modelo que se muestra en la figura 2, reuniendo datos duros e indicadores, transformándolos en información relevante y estratégica.

CONCLUSIONES

El modelo pretende elevar la competitividad generando mejores condiciones de trabajo para los guías y estos estén satisfechos y a su vez permee la propuesta de valor a los turistas y la perciban mejor que la de la competencia, en este sentido el liderazgo que tengan las compañías será de suma importancia para la ejecución del mismo.

Se espera tener una herramienta de servicios avalada por varios indicadores que ayuden a cerrar brechas y mejorar la competitividad de los guías de turistas en Cancún. Con el modelo se detonarán mejores oportunidades para el sector de los guías, teniendo colaboradores más productivos que cuenten con conocimiento en materia, garanticen destrezas y pericias técnicas y propicie actitudes positivas y en consecuencia satisfacción al cliente.

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EL IMPACTO DE LAS NUEVAS TENDENCIAS DE MODERNIZACION DE LA ADMINISTRACION PUBLICA FEDERAL (APF) ENLA ATENCION AL CIUDADANO EN LA DELEGACION DE SEMARNAT EN BAJA CALIFORNIA

Juan Carlos Avitia, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California Sosima Carrillo, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California Ana Cecilia Bustamante Valenzuela, Universidad Autónoma del Estado De Baja California Julio César León Priento, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Baja California

RESUMEN

Existe una percepción ciudadana en México de que la Administración Pública Federal (APF) es ineficiente, desperdicia recursos y ofrece una mala calidad en el servicio a la ciudadanía; el presente trabajo pretende analizar si las nuevas tendencias de modernización de la APF implantadas en la delegación SEMARNAT en Baja California han mejorado los servicios, a partir de la reforma del estado que se impulsó en el 2000. Para tal efecto, en este trabajo se realiza un estudio comparativo, bajo los principios de planeación estratégica, modernización administrativa y calidad total, de las acciones realizadas por la SEMARNAT en aquel estado; los resultados indican que la mejoría en los servicios de la APF ha sido consecuencia de las nuevas tendencias mundiales de la Administración Pública y no tanto por la reforma de Estado. Además que los principios básicos de la Administración tienen validez tanto en la administración de naturaleza privada como en la pública, siempre que quienes tengan la facultad de aplicarlos e imponerlos, deseen hacerlo.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Administración Pública, Gobierno, Servicio Público.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El término burocracia se ha vuelto a nivel mundial y en México peyorativo. Para mucha gente la burocracia es sinónimo de ineficiencia, mal servicio, trato despótico, sin embargo el origen de la burocracia es más noble, es una organización con normas que la regulan y distribuyen sus asuntos.Son muchos factores los que han llevado a tener una Administración Pública Federal mexicana con ineficiencias y mala calidad en el servicio, pero sobre todo el tiempo y el status quo dentro del Gobierno ha llevado a sentir que el servicio público no tiene nada que ver con la calidad en el servicio.

Más motivado por las nuevas tendencias mundiales de la administración pública y por la demanda ciudadana de una mejor calidad en servicio que por la alternancia en el poder, a partir de la administración del Presidente Vicente Fox Quesada en el 2000 se impulsó con más fuerza las nuevas tendencias de la administración pública federal encaminadas al ciudadano.Estas nuevas tendencias han tenido beneficios tangibles que se reflejan en una mejor atención al usuario; esto lleva a recomendar que se sigan aplicando y que exista un cambio de actitud frente a esas mejoras, aplicándose con mayor convicción y de esta manera aumentando su efectividad.

El tema se ubica dentro de la Administración Pública, la cual es "la actividad del Estado, encaminada al cumplimiento de las leyes y fomento de los intereses públicos" (Enciclopedia Dicc. Salvat, 1976)La Presidencia de la República, las Secretarías de Estado, los Departamentos Administrativos y la Consejería Jurídica del Ejecutivo Federal, integran la Administración Pública Centralizada. Y los organismos descentralizados, las empresas de participación estatal, las instituciones nacionales de crédito, las

organizaciones auxiliares nacionales de crédito, las instituciones nacionales de seguros y de fianzas y los fideicomisos, componen la administración pública paraestatal, de conformidad con la Ley Orgánica de la Administración Pública Federal.

En Baja California se encuentran ubicadas diversas delegaciones federales y particularmente el estudio analiza los resultados en la delegación de la Secretaría de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales (SEMARNAT), se seleccionó esta Delegación dado que se considera que este modelo administrativo es repetido a través de las demás delegaciones en todos los Estados, además de contar con casi todos los servicios que ofrece la SEMARNAT, al haber aquí Zona Federal Marítimo Terrestre, Áreas Forestales, Áreas Naturales Protegidas, alta generación de residuos peligrosos e incluso problemas atmosféricos. En ese sentido, en base al análisis del comportamiento y servicio prestado a los usuarios de la delegación federal en Baja California el tema a dilucidar con este trabajo es si las nuevas tendencias de modernización en la Administración Pública Federal implantadas en la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California a partir de la administración de Vicente Fox Quesada han mejorado la atención al ciudadano.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Para hablar de la Administración Pública tenemos que hablar del Estado. Como lo menciona Pichardo Pagaza en su libro "Introducción a la Nueva Administración Pública de México Volumen I (Pichardo, 2002) la primera presupone la existencia del segundo. Aún y cuando la existencia y características del Estado es un tema complejo y del cual se desprenden diversas teorías de varias ciencias sociales tenemos que mencionarlo para este análisis y dada la naturaleza de este trabajo mencionaremos las teorías organizacionistas que consideran al estado como un ente similar a un organismo vivo. Con personalidad propia, distinta a los individuos que la integran. Su desarrollo histórico es similar a un desarrollo biológico de un organismo vivo. La versión actual de esta teoría nos dice que el Estado se entiende como un órgano, como una estructura con identidad propia que realiza una gama compleja de funciones.

Según la clásica teoría kelseniana se mencionan los elementos integrantes del Estado, que son: pueblo, territorio y gobierno. En el caso de México se mencionan pueblo, población, territorio y se agregan los poderes públicos y la Constitución establece que es un sistema republicano, democrático, representativo y federal.Se le llama "forma de gobierno" a este cuádruple sistema asentado en el Articulo 40 Constitucional que reza: "Es voluntad del pueblo mexicano constituirse en una República representativa, democrática, federal, compuesta de Estados libres y soberanos en todo lo concerniente a su régimen interior; pero unidos en una Federación establecida según los principios de esta Ley Fundamental."De entre las instancias que conforman la administración pública federal, la Secretaría de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales, SEMARNAT es la dependencia de gobierno que tiene como propósito fundamental, constituir una política de Estado de protección ambiental, que revierta las tendencias del deterioro ecológico y siente las bases para un desarrollo sustentable en el país.

En el Capítulo Primero del Reglamento Interior de Ley Orgánica de la Administración Pública Federal., que se refiere a la Competencia y Organización de la Secretaría se señala la existencia de las Delegaciones Federales. En el Capítulo Séptimo, Artículo 39, fracción I dice: Las delegaciones federales tendrán las atribuciones siguientes, dentro de su circunscripción territorial, Coordinar, en el ámbito territorial de la entidad federativa o región correspondiente, la ejecución de los programas y acciones relativas a las atribuciones que en este Reglamento se le otorgan, con apego a las normas y lineamientos que determine el Secretario y las unidades administrativas centrales competentes, así como informar de los avances y resultados de su ejercicio. Pero es importante resaltar que los organismos públicos centralizados y los descentralizados operan con fines distintos.

Así pues, entre las diversas organizaciones que coexisten en el actual entorno cambiante están las empresas y las instituciones públicas. El entorno tiene exigencias distintas para cada una. Una empresa es

"una organización que utiliza recursos para producir un bien o servicio y así obtener beneficios y que además posee una o más plantas". Por su parte, las instituciones públicas son las organizaciones que desarrollan la administración pública. Ambas organizaciones actúan en el marco de la sociedad pero, mientras la empresa está sujeta a las fuerzas del mercado, la institución pública está protegida, ya que busca "el eficaz desempeño de la responsabilidad del Estado sobre el desarrollo integral del país", en términos de Ley y aludiendo a la planeación.

En otras palabras, la relación entre el entorno cambiante, las empresas y las instituciones públicas, produce escenarios distintos, donde por una parte, la empresa busca sobrevivir y por la otra, las instituciones públicas buscan el desarrollo integral del país. Analizar a la administración como herramienta en contexto permite establecer que aun cuando el enfoque cambia, el proceso de "trabajar con las personas y con los recursos para lograr las metas de la organización" mantiene ciertas funciones y procesos administrativos básicos como:

- Planeación. Comprende la toma de decisiones en forma sistemática acerca de las metas y actividades que una persona, un grupo, una unidad de trabajo o toda la organización perseguirán en el futuro.
- Organización. Considera la actividad de ensamblar y coordinar los recursos humanos, financieros, físicos, de información y otros que sean necesarios para lograr las metas.
- Dirección. Orienta los esfuerzos del servidor público para estimular un desempeño elevado por parte de los empleados
- Control. Considera la acción de comprobar el progreso y realizar los cambios necesarios.

Un dilema que se asocia a la planeación tiene que ver con la rapidez del cambio y con el potencial que se atribuye a la planeación para influir en el futuro. Como una solución ha surgido el enfoque de la planeación prospectiva al cual se le atribuyen las características siguientes: Es sistémico, multidisciplinario, dinámico, histórico, futurista y activo. Este enfoque se considera que es la base de un Modelo de Calidad Total. En ese sentido, dentro de las tecnologías blandas un esquema integral que permite el logro de la mejora continua y la innovación para dar respuesta oportuna a la ciudadanía desde la administración pública, ha sido la implementación del Modelo de Calidad Total

La Administración Pública Federal tiene hoy en día el gran desafío de reinventarse, diseñando esquemas innovadores que permitan dar respuesta a los retos que se le plantean. Por esto, una nueva visión de servicio debe surgir de las estructuras gubernamentales, que nos permita replantear la forma de hacer las cosas y generar una nueva actitud. El servicio debe brindarse con altos estándares de desempeño, transparencia, eficiencia y oportunidad, cuya mejora sistemática esté en función de la evaluación que sobre los mismos realicen los propios usuarios. Es así como nace el Modelo de Calidad INTRAGOB, el cual está orientado a satisfacer plenamente las expectativas y necesidades de los ciudadanos y clientes de los productos y servicios que proporcionan la APF, la consolidación de una cultura de calidad, así como la actuación responsable del servidor publico ante la sociedad. Los criterios establecidos para la implantación del Modelo INTRAGOB son los siguientes:

1.Satisfacción del cliente y ciudadano: Comprende la forma como la dependencia profundiza en el conocimiento del cliente y ciudadano y mercados así mismo la forma como estos perciben el valor que se les proporciona.

3.Desarrollo del personal y gestión del capital intelectual: Comprende la forma como la organización diseña y aplica sistemas para lograr el desarrollo del personal durante su vida laboral: desde el reclutamiento y selección hasta la separación, con la finalidad de favorecer su desempeño y calidad de vida.

4. Administración de la información y la tecnología:

Incluye los medios para obtener, estructurar, comunicar y analizar tanto la información institucional como el conocimiento del personal para la administración de los procesos y el apoyo a las estrategias y al desarrollo de la organización.

5.Planeación: Comprende la forma como la planeación orienta a la organización hacia la mejora de su competitividad, incluyendo la manera como son definidos los objetivos y estrategias: y como estos son divulgados en toda la institución.

6.Gestión y mejora de procesos: Comprende la manera en que se diseñan, controlan y mejoran los productos, los servicios, los procesos de la institución incluyendo el enlace con los proveedores para constituir cadenas que aseguren que los clientes reciban valor de forma consistente y con ellos logren sus objetivos específicos.

7.Impacto en la sociedad: Incluye la forma en que la organización asume su responsabilidad para contribuir al desarrollo sustentable de su entorno y la promoción de la cultura de la calidad en la comunidad.

8.Resultados: Evalúa el desempeño de la organización en cuanto a la creación de valor hacia sus diferentes grupos de interés, así como el análisis de la creación causal entre los indicadores clave, los procesos y los sistemas de organización.

La Secretaría del Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales, tiene como propósito fundamental, constituir una política de Estado para la protección ambiental, cuya misión es incorporar en todos los ámbitos de la sociedad y de la función pública, criterios e instrumentos que aseguren la óptima protección, conservación y aprovechamiento de los recursos naturales. Por ello existe la convicción de que el Modelo de Calidad INTRAGOB, ayudará a lograr el cambio estructural deseado por ello, se ha dado a la tarea de cumplir con los requerimientos que se especifican en los criterios de evaluación de la implantación de este Modelo de Calidad, con el fin de remplazar los sistemas burocráticos por sistemas emprendedores, mediante un cambio profundo de cultura, que permita la evolución de los enfoques tradicionales hacia nuevos enfoques, además de lograr la calidad total que lleve a prevenir actos de corrupción, basada en un estricto código de ética. A continuación, se enumeran en la Figura 1 algunas de las acciones que se han realizado en la Delegación de Baja California, en este modelo de calidad total teniendo como paraguas las mismas acciones en Secretaría, jerárquicamente en las Direcciones Generales y finalmente se han hecho extensivas en las Delegaciones Federales en los Estados.

CRITERIO	ACCIÓN	HERRAMIENTA
1	Instalación de un Centro Integral de Servicios (CIS) es una	
Satisfacción del		
cliente y	los usuarios, resolviendo sus requerimientos, mediante la	
ciudadano	identificación de áreas de oportunidad para impactar en la mejora	BUZON DE QUEJAS Y SUGERENCIAS
	de los servicios y contribuir a generar confianza y credibilidad en	
2	las dependencias y entidades de la APF.	Comité Técnico del CIS
2 Liderazgo	CIS, a través del Comité Técnico del CIS, se revisan las áreas de oportunidad y se buscan esquema de mejora continua, esta	Comite Tecnico del CIS,
Liuerazgo	conformado por el Delegado Federal, los subdelegados y	
	coordinadores o Enlaces del CIS.	
3	Entrada en vigor de la Ley de Servicio Profesional de Carrera	Servicio Profesional de Carrera
Desarrollo del	Contrataciones bajo este esquema	Código de Ética
personal y Gestión	Desarrollo de un esquema de Planeación Estratégica, donde se	Capacitación Técnica
del Capital	definen la Misión y Visión, así como los valores que	
Intelectual	proporcionan un sentido de dirección común para todos los	
	empleados y establecen directrices para su compromiso diario.	
4	CIS, automatización de tramites mediante el Sistema Nacional de	SINAT
Administración de	Tramites (SINAT), que permite capturar los tramites que entran a	
la información y la	las Delegaciones, y se da seguimiento del estado de los tramites	6
tecnología	en línea.	
5	Se desarrolló un Sistema de Planeación Estratégica que alinea los	
Planeación	objetivos de la Delegación con el Plan Nacional de Desarrollo y	(software DAS-G)
	los programas sectoriales, las metas y actividades definidas se	
	capturan en un software DAS-G que permite tener en tiempo real	
6 Gestión y Mejora	el avance de las actividades y plantea indicadores de desempeño. Desarrollo de Manuales de Procedimientos administrativos y	Manuales de Procedimientos
de Procesos	trámites que permitan contar con un flujo grama que nos indique	administrativos y de tramites
de 11000303	los registros y controles que generan estos procesos para	deministrativos y de traintes
	identificar áreas de mejora.	
7 Impacto en la	Adopción del Programa de Administración Sustentable, (PAS)	PAS
sociedad	que nos invita a hacer un mejor uso de los insumos tales como	
	agua, energía eléctrica, papel. Cuenta con un Comité Sectorial	
	para dar seguimiento a las acciones.	
8 Resultados	Adopción de Cartas Compromiso, estas se elaboran por cada	
	tramite, se ha iniciado por los tramites de Alto Impacto a la Ciudadanía, mediante esta se miden los estándares de calidad y el	SINAT
	servicio.	
	Medición de tiempos de respuesta mediante el Sistema Nacional	
	de Tramites	

Figura 1: Acciones de la SEMARNAT-Delegación Baja California

La delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California cuenta con una gran cantidad de trámites de los que se ofertan por esta secretaría ya que cuenta con características que la hacen única. Cuenta con una gran cantidad de industria, lo cual hace que haya una cantidad grande de trámites en lo que se refiere a manejo integral de contaminantes. También cuenta con un gran litoral lo que hace que se demanden trámites correspondientes a la zona federal marítimo terrestre. Cuenta con terrenos rurales y áreas forestales, lo cual hace que la ciudadanía solicite trámites correspondientes a forestales suelos. Frecuentemente se llevan a cabo proyectos nuevos que demandan trámites correspondientes al impacto el riesgo ambiental. Por último se cuentan con unidades de manejo de la vida silvestre que atraen una gran cantidad de cazadores por lo cual se solicitan trámites que tienen que ver con vida silvestre.

Por las razones antes mencionadas, la delegación de baja California es después del distrito federal el lugar por donde más trámites se ingresan a la SEMARNAT BC como lo demuestra la figura 2, en donde se ve que hasta la primera semana de diciembre de 2005 se habían ingresado 28 286 trámites en la delegación de baja California. Esto representa el 18. 88% del total nacional. Le sigue el distrito federal con el 16. 9% del total nacional, algunos estados como B. C. Sur tienen tan sólo el 0.36% del total.

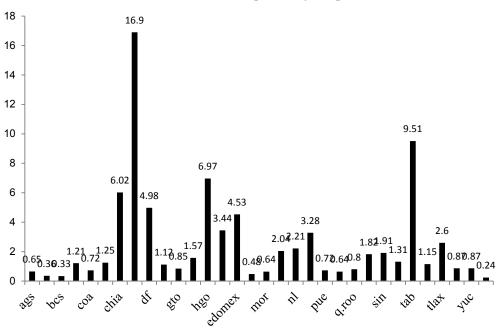


Figura 2: Porcentaje de trámites de la Delegación Baja California en proporción al total nacional

Entidad Federativa, porcentaje respecto al total nacional

El CIS (Centro Integral de Servicios), como parte del Modelo de Calidad, es un modelo de servicio que se adelanta a las quejas, dado que busca satisfacer al usuarios en todas sus necesidades al realizar alguna diligencia en la institución y aprovechando que por lo general el servidor público sabe más de la normatividad y tiene la experiencia de atender usuarios similares, se adelanta a lo que requerirá la persona que asista al CIS, es por eso que se adelanta a las quejas y no las deja llegar. Lo que busca el CIS es ser una instancia "proactiva" y "preventiva" que permita captar la voz de los usuarios, resolviendo sus requerimientos, mediante la identificación de áreas de oportunidad para impactar en la mejora de los servicios y contribuir a generar confianza y credibilidad en las dependencias y entidades de la APF. En pocas palabras, se dice que es un modelo de servicio de la Administración Pública Federal en el que se atiende con calidad y transparencia a partir de la voz de la ciudadanía.

Por otro lado, ante la evidente necesidad de otorgar a la ciudadanía la atención con la calidad que brinde trámites y servicios que satisfagan las necesidades y expectativas de la ciudadanía, el Gobierno Federal está enfocando sus esfuerzos en fomentar programas que permitan transparentar e incrementar la calidad en los trámites y servicios de alto impacto ciudadano, a partir de la implantación de acciones de mejora derivadas de la opinión ciudadana.En este sentido, la Secretaría de la Función Pública se dio a la tarea de investigar las mejores prácticas en ésta materia a nivel mundial, el resultado fue la Carta Compromiso al Ciudadano. Las Cartas Compromiso al Ciudadano tienen su origen en el programa Citizen's Charter o Cartas al Ciudadano, desarrollado en el Reino Unido en el año 1991. A principios de la década de 1990, el Gobierno del Reino Unido se planteó como objetivo principal recuperar la confianza y la credibilidad que la ciudadanía había perdido en las instituciones públicas. Las cartas al ciudadano fueron una herramienta para establecer un vínculo con la sociedad y terminar con los vicios al interior de su administración pública.Es por eso que una nueva tendencia de modernización en la Administración Pública Federal son las Cartas Compromiso al Ciudadano, las cuales son documentos públicos que proporcionan de forma sencilla y clara toda la información necesaria para realizar un trámite o solicitar un servicio, informan sobre los estándares de calidad que las dependencias y entidades se comprometen a

cumplir, y ponen a disposición canales para opinar y evaluar el servicio recibido. Su objetivo principal es que a partir de tu participación, los trámites y servicios públicos puedan ser mejorados para satisfacer así las necesidades del usuario. Las Cartas compromiso conllevan principios de calidad. Al adoptar este sistema de gestión de calidad, la institución adquiere el compromiso de implantarlo, documentarlo y asegurarlo. Los principios de calidad del sistema CCC son:

a)Centrarse en el cliente: Dado que los ciudadanos son la razón de ser del sector público, el sistema CCC está orientado a conocer qué espera y necesita la ciudadanía, orientando la mejora de sus procesos para cumplir y satisfacer estas necesidades.

b)Desempeñarse eficaz y eficientemente: Además de la mejora orientada a satisfacer las necesidades y expectativas ciudadanas, se debe instruir a la institución para que obtenga buenos resultados con recursos limitados, eliminando las deficiencias y reduciendo los costos. Asimismo el sistema CCC verifica que todas las acciones contribuyan con los objetivos definidos para la institución.

c)Fomentar el liderazgo y la participación de todos los miembros de la institución: No puede existir un cambio sin el compromiso de la alta dirección. Es por ello que el sistema CCC exige la declaración y compromiso expreso de los titulares de la institución y del equipo responsable de la implementación y aseguramiento del sistema CCC.

A juicio de la administración pública federal, las mejoras en los trámites gracias a las Cartas Compromiso al Ciudadano (CCC) producen beneficios para cada usuario:

Menor duración del trámite

Menores tiempos de espera para ser atendido

Menos traslados a las oficinas públicas

Menos documentos

Certeza sobre plazos, requisitos y condiciones

METODOLOGÍA

El objetivo principal de este trabajo es determinar si las nuevas tendencias de modernización en la Administración Pública Federal implantadas en la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California a partir de la administración de Vicente Fox Quesada han mejorado la atención al ciudadano.

Se buscar también señalar los beneficios que ha traído a la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California la adecuación de las nuevas tendencias de gestión en la modernización del Estado implementadas a partir la administración de Vicente Fox Quesada a diferencia de la administración pública tradicional. Asimismo se pretende verificar las transformaciones logradas en lo referente a la atención al público a partir de las nuevas tendencias de gestión en la modernización del Estado implementadas a partir de las nuevas tendencias de gestión en la modernización del Estado implementadas a partir de la administración de Vicente Fox Quesada a diferencia de la administración pública tradicional.

Para tal efecto se hizo un análisis de las condiciones anteriores y actuales de la gestión administrativa de la SEMARNAT, así como el resultado de la aplicación de las políticas de modernización y se plantea la hipótesis que a través de las nuevas tendencias de gestión en la modernización del Estado implementadas

a partir de la administración de Vicente Fox Quesada a diferencia de la administración pública tradicional se han generado incrementos en los niveles de calidad de la atención en el servicio.

RESULTADOS

El trámite más solicitado de la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California.Aún y cuando como se explicó en apartados anteriores para la SEMARNAT hay trámites de los llamados de "alto impacto" para la ciudadanía, no necesariamente son estos los más demandados en nuestro Estado.Como se ve en la siguiente gráfica en Baja California el trámite más demandado es el Aviso de Retorno de Residuos Peligrosos. Este trámite es presentado por las empresas con el régimen de "maquiladora" ya que debido al esquema de operación que manejan al ingresar temporalmente sus materias primas deben regresar a su país de origen el producto obtenido a través de su proceso productivo y también los residuos que se generen. Como es de suponerse, muchos de esos son "peligrosos" de conformidad con la Ley General de Equilibrio Ecológico y Protección al Ambiente y retornan a su país de origen dando aviso a la SEMARNAT mediante el trámite mencionado.Sin duda para el país es de gran beneficio que estos residuos salgan de nuestro territorio, sin embargo, es importante el trámite ya que gracias a la salida de estos residuos es controlada la contaminación se obtienen importantes datos estadísticos en materia ambiental que permiten la toma de decisiones.

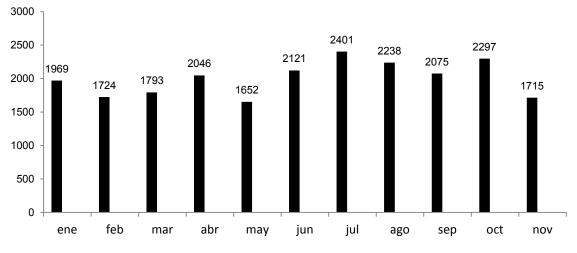


Figura 3: Estadística de retornos de la delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California

Aviso de retorno SEMARNAT BC-2008

Este trámite tiene la ventaja para la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California que al ser un "aviso" no requiere una contestación formal por escrito, no se entrega documento alguno al ciudadano, sino que simplemente su presentación y el hecho de que no se le llame la atención da una positiva ficta al mismo. En caso de haber irregularidades en este trámite el Departamento de Manejo Integral de Contaminantes da aviso al ciudadano así como la a la Procuraduría Federal de Protección al Ambiente para que realice la inspección correspondiente.Como se puede analizar en este texto ha habido esfuerzos desde la llamada reforma del estado por modernizar y transparentar el servicio público con el objetivo de dar un mejor servicio al ciudadano.

Estos cambios que se han realizado en la mayoría de las dependencias, derivando incluso en leyes como la Ley del Servicio Profesional de Carrera y la Ley de Transparencia y acceso a la información, han venido transformando a la burocracia federal.Sin embargo los cambios no han sido tan rápidos o espectaculares como les gustaría a los ciudadanos, han sido de manera gradual, permitiendo marginalmente una mejora

que no todos los usuarios perciben. Sobre todo aquellos que no son usuarios recurrentes de las dependencias federales.

En el caso de este estudio, la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California los cambios se han realizado más por la obligación de realizar una tarea más encomendada por oficinas centrales que por la convicción de mejorar el servicio; aún y con esa reticencia, cuando menos inicial, los cambios se han venido dando y han transformado el servicio y la atención al público de la delegación en la entidad. Aunque en materia de atención al público ha habido avances a través de la resolución de trámites y servicios, creándose el Centro Integral de Servicios y buscando una mayor comodidad para aquel que utiliza las instalaciones, hay otros campos en donde el avance ha sido más lento, como es el caso de la capacitación y la certificación del servicio profesional de carrera.Un avance significativo que ha traído la creación del CIS para la resolución de trámites ha sido el tener parámetros de medición de la atención al público, ya que este sistema tiene semáforos e indicadores de cumplimiento de los términos legales, como se refleja en la Figura 4.

Figura 4: Estadísticas de Trámites en Delegación BC-SEMARNAT

Entidad		Concluidos por mes (2008)							Trámites % de	% de	In					
Federativa	Ene	Feb	Mar	Abr	May	Jun	Jul	Ago	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dic	Total (a)	concluidos Fuera de Tiempo (b)	Trámites Resueltos Fuera de Tiempo ((b)/(a))*100	gre sa dos
Baja California	2811	2234	2580	2845	3008	3287	3790	3640	3530	3990	2890	843	35448	2,190	0.006	36177
Totales	2811	2234	2580	2845	3008	3287	3790	3640	3530	3990	2890	843	35448	2,190	6.178	36177

Un punto a mejorar sin duda es la calidad de respuesta del servicio en términos de su tiempo legal de resolución ya que si bien en el cuadro anterior se observa que existe una gran eficiencia al tener solo el 6.17% de los trámites resueltos fuera de tiempo esto es debido a que se están contabilizando aquellos trámites que no requieren respuesta, situación que suaviza las cifras.

Figura 5: Reporte de trámites en proceso en SEMARN	AT a Diciembre de 2008
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No	ENTIDAD FEDERATIVA	EN PROCESO	NO REQUIEREN RESPUESTA (*)	SI REQUIEREN RESPUESTA	EN TIEMPO	FUERA DE TIEMPO	% EFICACIA (**)
02	<u>Baja California</u>	1948	1517	431	207	224	48.03
	NACIONAL	1948	1517	431	207	224	48.03

(*) Trámites que NO REQUIEREN RESPUESTA pero no se han concluido por SINAT (**) (EN TIEMPO / SI REQUIEREN RESPUESTA) * 100

Como se puede apreciar en la Figura 5, al dejarse fuera los trámites que no requieren respuesta en un día normal de operación del SINAT en Baja California la cifra de eficacia se reduce enormemente.Sin duda el ofrecer un servicio de calidad en la administración pública no sólo tiene que ver precisamente con instalaciones decorosas o modernas, ya que al ciudadano usuario de esta delegación lo que más le interesa es la resolución de su trámite en tiempo y forma.

CONCLUSIONES

Las recomendaciones de este estudio tienen un alcance limitado dado que son aquellas que se podrían llevar a cabo en dependencias de la administración pública descentralizada, en virtud de que se analizó

Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California y es poco probable que se puedan implementar localmente sin requerir de la aprobación o ayuda de las oficinas centrales de la dependencia. La ventaja sería que de autorizarse localmente, como se señaló en este mismo estudio, al ser la Delegación una figura que se lleva a cabo en cada entidad federativa, estas recomendaciones podrían aplicarse a las demás delegaciones de nuestro país.Los resultados de este trabajo por un lado ponen de manifiesto que la mejoría en los servicios de la APF ha sido consecuencia de las nuevas tendencias mundiales de la Administración Pública y no tanto por la reforma de Estado; por otro lado se puede concluir que los principios básicos de la Administración tienen validez tanto en la administración de naturaleza privada como en la pública, siempre que quienes tengan la facultad de aplicarlos e imponerlos, tengan la voluntad de hacerlo y lo hagan.

Reorganización del Personal: Como muchas estructuras burocráticas, la composición organizacional de la Delegación de SEMARNAT no está directamente relacionada a las necesidades inherentes a las actividades sustantivas de la organización, sino que más bien son los remanentes de las estructuras antiguas provenientes de las áreas que componen a la ahora SEMARNAT que tuvieron su origen en otras dependencias formadas en sexenios anteriores a los sujetos de estudio.

El área administrativa de la dependencia en estudio tiene que ser revisada a fondo en un análisis de sus procesos y de su organización para reducir aún más su plantilla laboral y trasladar al personal excedente hacia las áreas sustantivas de la Delegación. Además del personal que se encuentra en la Delegación hay personal en las oficinas regionales el cual se encuentra comisionado a labores administrativas; muchas de estas labores se duplican con las que realiza el personal en la Delegación.En el área de vida silvestre puede realizarse una restructuración, esto debido a que desde el año 2005 se firmó un convenio de colaboración entre la SEMARNAT y el Gobierno del Estado de Baja California en el que se transfirieron todos los trámites que realizaba la Delegación en materia de Vida Silvestre al Gobierno de Baja California. Esto ocurrió debido al interés del Gobierno del Estado motivado por el hecho de que en los vecinos estados de la Unión Americana, California y Arizona, radican una gran cantidad de cazadores que vienen a México a realizar sus actividades cinegéticas, lo cual genera una gran derrama económica en el ramo turístico.

Descentralización de Funciones: La Descentralización es una tendencia de la Administración Pública Federal en México, su objetivo es fortalecer a los Gobiernos Estatales y liberar de funciones a los organismos nacionales, es decir, es un claro ejemplo de "ganar ganar" como diría Stephen Coben.El titular de la Delegación de SEMARNAT en Baja California debe hacer un intenso cabildeo con el Gobierno del Estado para lograr descentralizar más funciones a la Secretaria de Protección al Ambiente. Actualmente se tiene un programa de descentralización el cual es llamado Programa de Desarrollo Institucional Ambiental (PDIA) que permitió fortalecer mediante apoyos pecuniarios a la dependencia estatal para poder recibir los trámites correspondientes a vida silvestre. Se deben realizar convenios de descentralización en otras áreas que si bien no generan ingresos económicos significativos para el Gobierno del Estado, dado que no reportarán grandes entradas de recursos vía impuestos o derechos, si son estratégicas para su desarrollo por lo que es necesario que las realice el Gobierno de Baja California.

Entre las actividades que podemos señalar se encuentran las relativas al manejo integral de residuos peligrosos y actividades altamente riesgosas, que si bien es una actividad que no recauda muchos impuestos ni derechos, si es muy importante para la ecología del Estado. Toda autoridad que tenga conciencia social y desee preservar bien su medio ambiente debe hacerse cargo de la disposición final de los residuos peligrosos y el camino que estos siguen desde su creación hasta su confinamiento.

La supervisión de los residuos peligrosos es también una actividad que bien llevada puede a fomentar el desarrollo de la actividad industrial en nuestro estado, del cual se presume tiene una gran vocación industrial, ya que posee un alto número de empresas trasnacionales dedicadas a la exportación.

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El Mtro. Juan Carlos Avitia Carlos es profesor es Licenciado en Economía, con maestría en administración, es maestro de asignatura en la Facultad de Ciencias Políticas y Sociales, imparte la materia de entorno económico. Email avitia@hotmail.com

La maestra Sósima Carrillo es Contador Público, profesora de tiempo completo, coordinadora de la carrera de Lic. en Contaduría, especialista en el área de administración y finanzas, profesor de tiempo completo de la Fac. de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, ubicada la facultad en Blvd. Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo en Mexicali, Baja California, México. Email sosima@uabc.edu.mx

La Mtra. Ana Cecilia Bustamante Valenzuela es Contador Público, titular del área de servicio social profesional, es especialista en el área de administración y es profesor de tiempo completo de la Fac. de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, ubicada la facultad en Blvd. Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo en Mexicali, Baja California, México. Email. ceci@uabc.edu.mx

El Mtro. Julio César León Prieto es licenciado en derecho, con maestría en ciencias en administración, cursando el doctorado en derecho constitucional, imparte materias de derecho administrativo, garantías individuales y derecho corporativo, entre otras; es profesor de tiempo completo de la Fac. de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, ubicada la facultad en Blvd. Eje Central y Blvd. Río Nuevo en Mexicali, Baja California, México. Email jcleon@uabc.edu.mx

INNOVACIÓN SOBRE LA COORDINACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO DEL CENTRO DE ESTUDIOS SUPERIORES DEL ESTADO DE SONORA (CESUES)

Emma Vanessa Casas Medina, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora Norma Lorena Arenas Mozqueda, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora

RESUMEN

Los nuevos roles de los docentes en el Modelo Educativo que se implantó en el CESUES, reconoce que la enseñanza no se reduce a la transición de los conocimientos disponibles, sino que se orienta fundamentalmente al desarrollo de los mecanismos necesarios para la adquisición de competencias profesionales.El presente estudio es descriptivo cualitativo, el cual se realizó al inicio del semestre 2011-1, tomándose en cuenta la planta docente de la Unidad Académica Hermosillo del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora (CESUES). Los resultados de la propuesta de una nueva coordinación pedagógica, curricular y profesional en nuestra Institución nos permitirán implantar un nuevo modelo llamado Coordinación Docente.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Docentes, alumnos, innovación educativa, enseñanza, coordinación docente, formación profesional.

ABSTRACT

The new roles of teachers in educational model that was introduced in the CESUES, recognized that education is not confined to the transition of the knowledge available, but that is primarily orientated toward the development of the mechanisms mechanisms for the acquisition of professional skills. This study is qualitative descriptive, which took place at the beginning of the half 2011-1, taking into account of the teaching staff of the Academic Unit Hermosillo of the Centre for Advanced Studies del Estado de Sonora (CESUES). The results of the proposal for a new coordination of teaching, curriculum and professional in our institution, we will introduce a new model known as the coordination Teacher.

KEY WORDS: teachers, students, educational innovation, teacher education, coordination, vocational training.

PRESENTACIÓN

Las instituciones de educación superior en México han emprendido importantes procesos de cambio de sus modelos educativos, incorporando innovaciones surgidas de los avances de los distintos campos de conocimiento con el propósito de lograr mayor pertinencia y calidad en su funcionamiento. Con base en el análisis de las condiciones del contexto, de las políticas educativas vigentes, de su propia historia así como de las diversas evaluaciones que se realizaron en el CESUES se implantó un Modelo Educativo que permite atender las necesidades y requerimientos de los estudiantes, asegurando una formación profesional pertinente de calidad, así como también el establecimiento de un nuevo modelo de coordinación docente, que es el aspecto que nos ocupa en este proyecto, ya que nos pareció de suma importancia la posibilidad de su implantación en el próximo ciclo escolar 2011-2 en el Modelo Educativo ENFACE (Enfocado en el Aprendizaje y las Competencias del Estudiante), que inició a partir del 2007.

Marco Teórico

La mundialización de la economía, la sociedad digital, las crecientes desigualdades entre países y sectores de población de ricos y pobres, los cambios en las nociones de espacio-tiempo, el incremento de la

diversidad cultural, entre otros, son fenómenos cada vez más presentes impulsados, además, por el desarrollo de las nuevas tecnologías de la comunicación y de la información. Tales factores han dado lugar a importantes transformaciones en el funcionamiento del sistema económico y productivo, con un fuerte impacto en esferas como la educativa y la sociocultural. Una clara repercusión sobre los cambios mencionados se encuentra en el nuevo concepto de trabajo por una parte, se demanda una mejor formación para una cantidad considerables para puestos de trabajo; por otra, muchos de ellos desaparecen como resultados de la automatización tanto en los procesos de fabricación como de los servicios. El trabajo a tiempo parcial, la contratación por producto y trabajos específicos, el horario flexible de trabajo y el autoempleo están aumentando en todas las sociedades. Los cambios también generan ocupaciones nuevas basadas tanto en competencias de análisis simbólico de alto nivel de abstracción como de competencias comunicativas e interpersonales.

El enfoque tradicional de formación profesional está siendo abandonado en la mayoría de los países para ser substituido por otro que pone mayor énfasis en la formación de competencias fundamentales, es decir, en el desarrollo de competencias cognitivas superiores y en la formación de competencias de empleabilidad, es decir aquéllas requeridas para funcional eficazmente en economías que cambian rápidamente y están sujetas a una presión competitiva. Lo anterior, se relaciona con el hecho de que, en la sociedad actual los conocimientos adquiridos en la formación inicial tiene una fecha de caducidad, es decir, que ésta formación no garantiza al individuo elementos válidos y útiles para toda la vida profesional activa. Por lo contrario, tanto la aparición constante de nuevas ocupaciones y profesiones como el avance del conocimiento requieren de aprendizaje permanente.... Zabalza (2000) señala que se han convertido "la agradable experiencia de aprender algo nuevo cada día en un inexcusable principio de sobrevivencia". También así mismo afirma que la coordinación facilita el desempeño de tareas, mejora la factibilidad de los individuos y sirve en ocasiones, para que podamos conseguir nuestras propias expectativas.

TENDENCIAS DE CAMBIO EN EL PROCESO DE FORMACIÓN PROFESIONAL

El valor de las sociedades actuales está directamente relacionado con el nivel de formación de sus ciudadanos y fundamentalmente con la capacidad de innovación que estos poseen. Es fundamentalmente en las instituciones de educación superior en donde se forman los profesionales e investigadores capaces de generar tales innovaciones, por lo que es imprescindible cambiar las modalidades de atención a las funciones tradicionales de las universidades, así como las responsabilidades de los distintos autores que participan en éstas. Los fenómenos presentes en el mundo de trabajo, particularmente el alto grado de incertidumbre en la evolución de las ocupaciones y profesiones, y la emergencia de nuevas actividades, profesiones y especializaciones, ponen en evidencia la inadecuación de los modelos educativos tradicionales basados en perfiles o desempeños ocupacionales específicos y crea la necesidad de identificar nuevas orientaciones que reconozcan la importancia de la formación de competencias para el aprendizaje y actualización continua (aprender-aprender), así como para adaptarse a condiciones y exigencias cambiantes e impredecibles.

Al respecto se identifican algunas tendencias relevantes que marcan desde hace algunos años, el proceso de transformación de las instituciones de educación superior, éstas son: a) la emergencia del enfoque centrado en el estudiante y en el aprendizaje, b) la flexibilidad curricular y académica, c) el enfoque educativo basado en competencias. Estas tendencias engloban distintos procesos y elementos que transforman los paradigmas que sustentan el proceso educativo, su gestión y su administración.

En relación a las bases psicopedagógicas, se advierte el interés por incorporar las teorías constructivistas y otros enfoques cognitivistas y socioculturales que inciden directamente en el desarrollo del enfoque centrado en el estudiante y el del aprendizaje y en la utilización de experiencias comunicativas que requiere una implicación más activa del estudiante.

Desde el punto de vista de la gestión y administración de la institución y del proceso educativo, es de suma importancia la evaluación y la acreditación, así como el uso generalizado de la planificación y de la gestión estratégica. De particular importancia es la emergencia del enfoque de formación por competencias, que, sin duda, provoca un cambio fundamental en la concepción de la formación profesional. En su libro de competencias docentes del profesorado universitario Zabalza dice "*La* Universidad es un escenario complejo y multidimensional, en él inciden y entrecruzan influencias de muy diversos signos. Por tal motivo, cualquier estudio que se haga sobre los procesos que tiene lugar en el seno de la Universidad exige una contextualización. Por lo que la Universidad no son las clases que se imparten, ni la organización de las carreras sino más. (Zabalza, pág. 14 2003).

Hablar de la Universidad y reflexionar sobre el trabajo que se hace en ella como profesores constituye un proceso imprescindible para mejorar el nivel de conocimiento y el compromiso con la calidad. Así mismo, Zabalza (2003), indica que al realizar un análisis de la docencia hay que asumirlo desde una perspectiva curricular y situarla en el marco del proyecto formativo que se pretende desarrollar en la Universidad. Entendiéndose por currículo el proyecto formativo que se pretende llevar a cabo en una institución formativa, en este caso la Universidad. Una buena definición de currículo debería incluir, además la idea "unicidad" y "cohesión interna" característica que resulta esencial a la perspectiva Curricular y además los Proyectos precisan de algún tipo de formalización que los convierte en documentos. La docencia por su naturaleza compleja en cualquiera de los niveles de formación constituye un objeto a la investigación experimental.

Los docentes universitarios tienden a actuar de una manera autónoma e individualista, convirtiendo las materias y las clases en algo propio, que pertenece y pretenden salvaguardar de la curiosidad y de la intervención de los demás. Por lo tanto, la calidad de la Docencia en la Universidad no puede dejar de plantearse el reto de la colegialidad como una condición básica para la consecución de los mejores resultados formativos. (Zabalza, 2003). Para el docente universitario no existe dificultad para su desempeño profesional dentro del aula, por ejemplo, preparación de programas, estrategias metodológicas, manejo de nuevas tecnologías, tutorías, etc. El docente siempre está dispuesto y hace esfuerzos por mejorar siempre y cuando lo haga solo, el problema surge cuando se plantea una coordinación en su trabajo con sus colegas. Esto es algo que el propio docente considera que no puede construir sus programas para dar coherencia a proyectos formativos, inclusive en algunas universidades se han fragmentado las asignaturas para garantizar que cada profesor tenga su propio espacio personal y diferenciado sin tener que compartir con nadie.

Sin embargo, algunas experiencias de innovaciones puestas en marcha en los últimos años, están trabajando sobre el renglón de la cooperación entre docentes, por ejemplo, la integración de varias disciplinas en un mismo proyecto didáctico interdisciplinar y, donde la docencia es compartida por varios profesores: las guías didácticas utilizadas por los estudiantes, proyectos de innovación didáctica convocados por algunas universidades, tutorías compartidas, etc. "En éstas acciones se va avanzando aunque muy lentamente en esa cultura de colaboración, el profesorado parte de una reflexión sobre lo que significa el trabajo colaborativo y las condiciones que debe cumplir, definir en el objeto de estudio". (Ana López, 2003). El éxito del trabajo coordinado de los docentes debe partir de una estrategia general de organización mediante la cual los docentes universitarios acuerden de manera conjunta los objetivos, la planificación de las actividades a desarrollar, los ámbitos y las formas de participación, así como las tareas y responsabilidades, según el papel que toca a cada quien desempeñar. Para ello es importante la realización periódica y efectiva de las reuniones y la claridad de esta forma de trabajo.

Objetivo

Iniciar y mantener la Coordinación pedagógica, curricular y profesional en el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora para fortalecer la gestión compartida de los docentes dentro de la Universidad.

METODOLOGÍA

Los nuevos roles de los profesores en el Modelo Educativo ENFACE (Enfocado en el Aprendizaje y las Competencias del Estudiante), que se implantó en el CESUES reconoce que la enseñanza no se reducirá a la mera transmisión de los conocimientos disponibles en un momento determinado, sino que se orienta fundamentalmente al desarrollo de los mecanismos necesarios para la adquisición de las competencias profesionales, asimismo como aquellos propios para la reflexión y la innovación de cada programa académico (carrera profesional).

Los profesores del CESUES son capaces de responder a los cambios del conocimiento científicotecnológico y de las concepciones del aprendizaje, para ello utilizarán de manera creativa las nuevas tecnologías, sustentándolas en un enfoque pedagógico, basado en la comprensión de las especificidades individuales socio-económicas del estudiante, para lo cual se recurrirá a las nuevas modalidades de gestión del proceso educativo y realizará una vinculación con diversas instancias que promoverán los aprendizajes. Motivados por lo anterior, la coordinación entre profesores se trabajará partiendo de que al inicio del semestre 2011-2 el Director de la Unidad Académica Hermosillo del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora, convocará a los Jefes de los Programas Académicos para dar a conocer los cambios que se realizarán en el quehacer docente, es decir el nuevo proyecto de innovación sobre la coordinación docente que se implantará en nuestra institución, y solicitará la participación activa y decidida de los profesores, para así lograr que la información se haga llegar de manera vertical y lograr una verdadera comunicación y cooperación entre ellos.

CONCLUSION

La coordinación del docente en el contexto universitario es una responsabilidad de todos los profesores, motivo por el cual en el CESUES precisa incentivar la coordinación pedagógica y curricular para fortalecer la gestión compartida de los docentes dentro de nuestra institución, es precisamente lo que justifica su actuación y el punto que centra su compromiso, que en definitiva sería la docencia de calidad. El concepto de desarrollo próximo de Vygotsky se puede aplicar a la educación universitaria toda vez, lo que la universidad y docentes universitarios dan al estudiante ese plus de aprendizaje; y de desarrollo formativo al que ellos no podrían acceder por sí solos. Éste es el compromiso real del docente que poco a poco ha ido cambiando su modelo de gestión para convertirlo en un modelo más acorde a las necesidades actuales a través de la coordinación con sus mismos colegas y lograr así un mejor desempeño en su ámbito profesional.

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M.A.N. Emma Vanessa Casas Medina, egresada del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora, en Comercio Internacional, estudio la maestría en Administración de Negocios en la Universidad del Valle, profesora de tiempo completo en el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora en la carrera de Comercio Internacional y actualmente estudia el Doctorado en Logística y Dirección de la Cadena de Suministro. Universidad Popular Autónoma del Estado de Puebla.

M.E. Norma Lorena Arenas Mozqueda, egresada de la Universidad de Sonora, en Sociología, estudio la maestría en Educación en la Universidad del Valle de México, profesora de tiempo completo del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora en la carrera de Comercio Internacional. lorryam@hotmail.com

EVALUACIÓN DEL SERVICIO SOCIAL PLAN DE ESTUDIOS 2001 DE LA UNIDAD ACADÉMICA HERMOSILLO DEL CESUES

Emma Vanessa Casas Medina, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora Norma Lorena Arenas Mozqueda, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora

RESUMEN

Se realizó la evaluación del Servicio Social del Plan de Estudios 2001, para saber el comportamiento de la práctica de ésta actividad y determinar con los resultados de esta investigación si realmente el Servicio Social en la Unidad Académica Hermosillo del CESUES está cumpliendo con los objetivos y metas planteadas. Este estudio es Descriptivo (cualitativo/cuantitativo), el cual se realizó con una muestra total de alumnos de 497. Los resultados de la evaluación nos permitieron elaborar las conclusiones y propuestas para elevar la calidad del servicio social

PALABRAS CLAVES: Análisis, evaluación, observación directa, opinión de los alumnos, maestros, funcionarios educativos e instituciones receptoras y propuestas.

ABSTRACT

The evaluation of the Social Service of the Curriculum 2001, which in order to know the behavior of the practice of the activity and to determine the results of this research of the Social Service in the Unit of Academic Hermosillo CESUES is playing with the objectives and goals set. This study is descriptive (qualitative/quantitative), which was conducted with a total sample of 497 students. The results of the assessment enabled us to develop findings and proposals for improving the quality of service social

KEY WORDS: analysis, assessment, direct observation, view of students, teachers, educational and institutions and proposals.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La Evaluación del Servicio Social de este Plan de estudios surgió con la inquietud y la necesidad de saber cual ha sido el comportamiento de esta actividad, en especial de la Generación 2001-2006, ya que por primera vez en CESUES el Servicio Social formó parte de Plan de Estudios y con un valor de diez créditos, es decir, que si el estudiante no cumplía con este requisito no sólo no podía titularse sino que ahora tampoco podría graduarse, porque no concluye su carrera profesional.

La finalidad esencial de este trabajo, es que los estudiantes que egresen del CESUES cumplan con los objetivos y metas planteadas al implementar en las Instituciones de Educación Superior, la realización del servicio social y que se lleve a cabo en las comunidades más desprotegidas y apartadas de las principales ciudades de nuestro estado. Si bien es cierto, el Servicio Social es un conjunto de actividades orientadas a atender necesidades de la sociedad que los estudiantes realizan en forma obligatoria y sin remuneración, el cual el alumno ejecuta como parte complementaria de su formación académica, de igual manera sin restarle importancia a las actividades que se realizan en esta Institución de Educación Superior como las académicas, investigación, prácticas profesionales, etc., en lo que respecta el presente trabajo, el Servicio Social se analiza como se lleva a cabo en el Plan de Estudios que inicia el 2001. Proponemos que se de más importancia a los proyectos con inclinación comunitaria y sobre todo saber si en las modalidades de servicio social que se presentaron en el Plan de Estudios 2001, han respondido a las necesidades de la Unidad Académica Hermosillo del CESUES y sobre todo de la comunidad.

El cuestionamiento que nos planteamos para la realización de este trabajo fue saber si las modalidades de servicio social que se han llevado a cabo por los estudiantes que cuentan con los créditos necesarios para cumplir con esta actividad de los distintos Programas Educativos del Plan de Estudios 2001, han impactado con sus proyectos a la formación académica de los estudiantes, y a su vez si han respondido a las necesidades de la Unidad Académica Hermosillo del CESUES.Para dar respuesta a este cuestionamiento, se planteó la hipótesis de que "La realización del servicio social en las diferentes modalidades de los estudiantes del Plan de Estudios 2001 de los distintos Programas Educativos, los proyectos si han cumplido con las expectativas planteadas por las autoridades académicas del CESUES". Este estudio tiene como objetivo general, analizar si en el Plan de Estudios 2001 la práctica del servicio social, han impactado con sus proyectos a las comunidades urbanas y semiurbanas del Municipio de Hermosillo de acuerdo al tipo de proyectos ya sea e instituciones públicas, privadas proyectos propios comunitarios y académicos.

EL SERVICIO SOCIAL EN EL CESUES

En El Sistema De Créditos Con Salida Lateral (Modular).

La Dirección General del CESUES (hoy Rectoría) define a través de las políticas Institucionales, las directrices que deberán marcar el rumbo de los diferentes programas sustantivos que dan forma a las actividades propias de nuestro Centro de Estudios, en las cuales destacan por su relevancia las correspondientes al Servicio Social, siendo las siguientes: a). Concebir y desarrollar el servicio social como un espacio más de experiencia de formación profesional, b). Impulsar proyectos de servicio social que propongan mejorar los niveles de calidad de vida comunitaria, así como las prácticas productivas de los grandes sectores de la sociedad sonorense, c). Promover la realización de servicio social con la participación de grupos de alumnos de los distintos programas de formación profesional, y d). Fortalecer los vínculos con los diversos organismos públicos y sectores sociales de la producción a fin de concretar convenios de presentación de servicio social.

Por lo anterior descrito, en el Sistema de Créditos con Salida Lateral, se elegía el proyecto de servicio social en el cual se iba a participar dentro de una comunidad, se desarrollaba un protocolo y se presentaba una primera parte por 240 horas y se obtenía Título a Nivel Técnico Superior, y se exponía su memoria ante sinodales, posteriormente se realizaba la segunda etapa por otros 240 horas para obtener Título a Nivel Licenciatura, y de igual manera se exponía ante sinodales.

En El Sistema Curricular (1995-2006).

En el CESUES, se estableció y reconoció al Servicio Social como requisito indispensable para que los alumnos o egresados de las carreras que ofrece, obtengan el grado académico correspondiente. Dentro del Servicio Social destaca las siguientes políticas Institucionales: a). Coadyuvar a la formación académica y profesional de los estudiantes y egresados a través de la vinculación de los conocimientos, habilidades y destrezas adquiridas en sus procesos curriculares, con la problemática de los diferentes sectores de la sociedad, b). Fomentar la conciencia de responsabilidad y solidaridad social de los prestadores de servicio social, a través del vínculo directo y la investigación de los problemas y necesidades de los diversos sectores sociales de la entidad, c). Difundir en la comunidad y grupos sociales en los que se presente el servicio social, los beneficios de la cultura, la ciencia, el arte y tecnología, que contribuyan a elevar la calidad de vida de la sociedad, y d). Fortalecer y ampliar el vínculo que tiene el CESUES con los sectores sociales y productivos de la entidad, a fin de conocer su desarrollo y participación en la búsqueda de soluciones a sus problemáticas, poniendo énfasis en el desarrollo de programas que beneficien a los grupos más desprotegidos de la sociedad.

En el Sistema Curricular, las formas en que puede presentar el servicio social en el CESUES, sin ser limitativo a ellas eran: a). Proyectos de Atención Comunitaria, b). Servicio Social de Atención a las Áreas y Servicios del CESUES, c). Servicio Social en Programas Institucionales Externos, d). Proyectos de Atención a la Investigación, y e). Servicio Social por Tareas y Períodos Cortos.

Problemática y Propuesta Del Servicio Social En Las Instituciones De Educación Superior

Con el mejoramiento de la calidad en el sistema educativo, y con el impulso que se le imprima a la vocación y responsabilidad social de las Instituciones de Educación Superior en apoyo a la solución de los rezagos sociales del país, y de la superación de la pobreza extrema y la marginación, el Servicio Social cobra vigencia como estrategia educativa y social y se hace necesaria su reorientación como práctica integral de los alumnos comprometido con la sociedad. Que el Servicio Social se dé en la mística de la reciprocidad de los estudiantes hacia los que menos tienen, puede cambiar la vida de éstos, pero más aún puede transformar la vida de los estudiantes quienes, a cambio de una visión más cercana al México diverso y contrastante que les ha tocado vivir, pueden contribuir en la reconstrucción del diálogo entre educación superior y sociedad. El Servicio Social tiene grandes espacios de acción: por un lado, en la diversidad regional reflejada en una serie de problemas por resolver en las comunidades y, por otro, en los retos y oportunidades que representan el desarrollo de proyectos estratégicos que ofrezcan soluciones a las demandas comunitarias más apremiantes.

Que el Servicio Social a futuro, sea una estrategia educativa en su más amplio sentido y una práctica integral comprometida con la sociedad que permite consolidar la formación profesional. Se debe de establecer incentivos a los programas que se desarrollan en la comunidad más desprotegidas y prioritarias de nuestro país, incrementando sustancialmente su capacidad de atención, y con ello se fortalecería el Servicio Social. Por último, estimular a los alumnos, proponiendo acciones de desarrollo comunitario con la participación de los estudiantes prestadores en las comunidades más desprotegidas.

METODOLOGÍA

Lograr la calidad en la educación es una meta primordial hoy en día en las Instituciones de Educación Superior, es por ello que se realizó este trabajo con el objetivo de: a). que el Servicio Social que los alumnos del CESUES realizan como parte de su Plan de Estudios a partir del 2001 tenga la importancia debida como parte del Programa de formación complementaria de los alumnos, y b). que el área de servicio social del CESUES, sea considerada como apoyo y referencia para reforzar el vínculo entre la sociedad y los proyectos institucionales. En el cumplimiento de un servicio social de calidad que el alumno del CESUES, antes de egresar, se considere lo siguiente: a). que el alumno egresado de acuerdo a su perfil profesional haya realizado el servicio social en proyectos de apoyo para la comunidad, y b). Que obtenga elementos necesarios para enfrentarse a su vida profesional futura con un alto grado de competitividad y que esté dentro de los estándares de calidad.

La Metodología que se propone consta de tres etapas: 1). La Primera Etapa es la necesidad de conocimiento de la situación del Servicio Social en México, 2). La Segunda Etapa, se realizó el Diagnóstico de la situación del servicio social que se lleva a cabo actualmente en el CESUES, y 3). La Tercera Etapa, se estructuró el Plan de Organización y Desarrollo del Trabajo de Investigación. Este estudio se realizó durante los meses de junio del 2005 a octubre del 2006 que es cuando los alumnos de éste generación egresaron. Se excluyeron aquellos alumnos que no cumplieron de forma completa su plan de estudios y que no concluyeron su servicio social. Análisis de resultados La Evaluación de las Encuestas de opinión aplicada a los alumnos fue obtener información que brinde elementos para mejorar la prestación del Servicio Social en el CESUES. Como se muestra en la Tabla 1. La Evaluación que se realizó a 293 alumnos que fue el 58.95% del total de los alumnos de la Generación del 2001-2006 que fue de 497, que equivale a los seis Programas Educativos fue el siguiente:

Tabla 1: Generación 2001 – 2006

Carrera	No. De alumnos de la generación 2001	No. De alumnos graduados	% entre alumnos de generación y graduados		
Ingeniero en Horticultura	5	1	20.00		
Ingeniero en Geociencias	11	4	36.00		
Licenciado en Ecología	22	12	55.00		
Licenciado en Entrenamiento Deportivo	74	34	46.00		
Licenciado en Comercio Internacional	176	109	61.93		
Licenciado en Administración de Empresas Turísticas	209	133	63.63		
Total	497	293	58.95		

Relación del total de alumnos por carrera que se graduación de la Generación 2001-2006.

En la Tabla 2. Se muestra los resultados de la pregunta abierta que se les realizó a los alumnos encuestados de las Generaciones del 2001 al 2006 la cual se les preguntó ¿Comentarios ó sugerencias que quiera agregar?, los cuales respondieron lo siguiente:

Tabla 2: Sugerencias por parte de los alumnos

Ningún Comentario	= 127	= 43.34 %
Excelente y buen servicio	= 99	= 33.79 %
Extensión de horario	= 0	= 0.0 %
Proyectos afines y más opciones	= 12	= 4.09 %
Servir a mi comunidad	= 6	= 2.05 %
Más información	= 20	= 6.83 %
Otros	= 29	= 9.90 %
Total	= 293	= 100.00 %

Resultados porcentuales y gráficos de las encuestas de opinión de los alumnos que concluyeron el servicio social de las generaciones del 2001 al 2006.

Con lo anterior, nos damos cuenta que los alumnos de la generación 2001-2006 estuvieron satisfechos con el servicio que otorga el Área de Servicio Social.

PROPUESTAS

En base a las encuestas realizadas a los alumnos, se proponen las siguientes acciones, de acuerdo a los resultados obtenidos de los estudiantes que concluyeron y realizaron su servicio social cabalmente. El personal que debe de estar involucrado para llevar las acciones pertinentes e implementar las estrategias son: Los Jefes de los Programas Educativos del CESUES, así como cada uno de los Tutores que los Jefes de carrera asignen para la orientación debida a los alumnos; La Responsable del Área de Servicio Social como sus auxiliares. No se puede determinar una fecha de implementación específica, porque el seguimiento de los alumnos, al igual que la implantación de las acciones en la orientación del servicio social, como en su seguimiento hasta la terminación es constante y permanente.

CONCLUSIONES

Es importante resaltar los aspectos vistos durante su desarrollo, así como el análisis que se realizó del Servicio Social en sus diferentes modalidades y en los Planes de Estudio, específicamente en la Unidad Académica Hermosillo, se pueden dar recomendaciones para elevar la calidad de la Realización del Servicio Social en el CESUES. Cabe destacar, que los resultados obtenidos fueron los que se pretendían lograr y espero que esta pequeña contribución en el análisis desarrollado hasta las conclusiones, y las propuestas de solución sirvan para incrementar el número de alumnos que concluyan el servicio social cabalmente. Si bien es cierto, el Servicio Social es el conjunto de actividades orientadas a atender necesidades de la sociedad que los alumnos realizan en forma obligatoria y sin remuneración, el cual el

alumno realiza como parte complementaria en su formación académica, ¿Qué está sucediendo entonces con esta actividad tan importante?, ¿Las modalidades de servicio social que los estudiantes que cuentas con los créditos necesarios para realizarlo, de los distintos programas educativos del Plan de Estudios 2001, ha impactado con sus proyectos a su formación académica?, ¿De qué forma ha impactado a nuestra comunidad Sonorense?. Las preguntas anteriores, fueron el motor principal para realizar este estudio, sobre el servicio social y en especial en el CESUES.

La problemática y propuestas para el Servicio Social en el CESUES después de haberlo analizado el servicio social, nos arrojó las siguientes reflexiones. En México y por ende en Sonora, las Instituciones de Educación Superior, han venido transformando sus cuadros profesionales, elevando su calidad académica, es decir, al identificar las necesidades educativas y sociales para desarrollar nuestro país, el gobierno federal y estatal han implementado mecanismos de interacción entre los proyectos que nos llevan a la solución de problemas como en las áreas de salud, educación, vivienda, etc., a través de la atención de las comunidades más desprotegidas. Por lo anterior, es necesario impulsar, apoyar los programas de servicio social para involucrar a nuestros futuros profesionistas en el desarrollo de nuestra nación. Además, es significativo reactivar la elaboración y aplicación de problemáticas de comunidades marginadas, de ésta forma rescatarán las historia de las comunidades como se hacía en sus inicios, así como sus recursos y principalmente el potencial económico con el que cuenta, esto ayudará a realizar propuestas de interés para la comunidad como, campañas para elevar la calidad de vida, en lo social, alimentación, educación, educación ambiental, etc.

La propuesta para el CESUES, es que el Servicio Social sea realmente Comunitario, ya que nuestro centro de estudios, al igual que otras instituciones de educación superior ha realizado una labor sólida con profunda vocación social, y aunque han desarrollado diferentes mecanismos de vinculación que apoyen al desarrollo de proyectos enfocados a la solución de problemas en diferentes áreas, constituye así mediante el servicio social a mejorar la calidad de vida de muchas familias. El Servicio Social por su naturaleza en sus actividades, se ha convertido en un vehículo idóneo para vincular la Educación Superior, con la Sociedad. Ha puesto mucho interés en impulsar el servicio social en las comunidades más desprotegidas, ya que autoridades educativas se han percatado, que en las instituciones de educación superior, los estudiantes han carecido de orientación y motivación para la realización de su servicio social.

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M.A.N. Emma Vanessa Casas Medina, egresada del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora, en Comercio Internacional, estudio la maestra en Administración de Negocios en la Universidad del Valle, profesora de tiempo completo en el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora en la carrera de Comercio Internacional y actualmente estudia el, Doctorado en Logística y Dirección de la Cadena de Suministro. Universidad Popular Autónoma del Estado de Puebla. emma.casas@cesues.edu.mx.

M.E. Norma Lorena Arenas Mozqueda, egresada de la Universidad de Sonora, en Sociología, estudio la maestría en Educación en la Universidad del Valle de México, profesora de tiempo completo del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora en la carrera de Comercio Internacional. lorryam@hotmail.com

EVALUACIÓN DE UN PROGRAMA SOCIAL PARA ADULTOS MAYORES EN EL GOBIERNO DE CHIHUAHUA, MÉXICO.

Flor Rocío Ramírez Martínez, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México Luis Flores Padilla, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Fernando Uriarte Zazueta, Gobierno del Estado de Chihuahua Juana Trejo Franco, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Carmen Patricia Jiménez Terrazas, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez

ABSTRACT

La implementación de programas sociales tiene la finalidad de proteger y promover el bienestar de la gente convirtiéndola en su materia prima, de ahí la importancia de su correcta aplicación y evaluación ya que la inversión social busca mejorar la calidad de vida de sus usuarios. Sin embargo, las evaluaciones a programas sociales han prestado poca atención al hecho de que no alcanzan a la totalidad de su población objetivo. El propósito del presente estudio, fue determinar si el programa social implementado por el área de Fomento Social del Gobierno del Estado de Chihuahua para adultos $de \ge 70$ años en el año 2005, cumple para lo que fue creado. El diseño de investigación es descriptivo, retrospectivo, comprendiendo el periodo 2005-2008 con 4587 beneficiarios. Entre los resultados preliminares se detecta que el 34% tenía Seguro Popular y el 19% no contaba con Seguridad Social; se cancelaron 2029 becas económicas, por fallecimiento, cambio de residencia, mal uso de beca y duplicación. Entre las recomendaciones se sugiere la elaboración de manuales de operación del programa, necesarios para la inclusión adecuada de los beneficiarios y para lograr una óptima aplicación de los recursos existentes.

PALABRAS CLAVE: programa social, adultos mayores, evaluación.

ESTRATEGIAS DE LOS PEQUEÑOS PRODUCTORES AGRÍCOLAS PARA INSERTARSE EN LAS CADENAS DE SUPERMERCADOS

Gerardo Vera Muñoz, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla Carlos Arturo Torres Gastelú, Universidad Veracruzana Monserrat Vera Muñoz, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

RESUMEN

El objetivo de este trabajo es indagar las estrategias que han seguido dos pequeñas empresas agrícolas, una de ellas productora de champiñón orgánico y la otra de chía orgánicas, para sobrevivir en un escenario en donde las grandes cadenas de supermercados imponen las reglas del juego. El estudio se realiza en el contexto de la transformación radical que se ha observado en los sistemas alimentarios mundiales, como resultado de la acelerada expansión de los supermercados. A nivel mundial la cadena productiva de alimentos que hasta la mitad de los años 80 había estado manejada a través de una serie de relaciones de libre mercado, se transformó en una cadena productiva global "manejada por el comprador", donde los grandes comercializadores (los supermercados) ahora se encargarían de gobernar redes de producción descentralizadas en una variedad de países exportadores, comúnmente localizados en el Tercer Mundo (Gereffi, 2001). En el caso particular de América Latina, los supermercados aumentaron en diez años su cuota de ventas de alimentos en un porcentaje casi tan alto como el que Estados Unidos alcanzó en 50 años (FAO, 2004: 19). En esta perspectiva, la globalización de las industrias de la alimentación y la expansión de los supermercados presentan para los pequeños agricultores tanto una oportunidad para acceder a nuevos y lucrativos mercados, como un importante riesgo de aumentar su marginación e incluso de extremar su pobreza. Los resultados obtenidos de los dos estudios de caso, señalan puntualmente la capacidad de aprendizaje y de innovación como los factores esenciales sobre los que se han desarrollado estrategias que han logrado mejoras sustanciales en la calidad del producto, que van desde la certificación de producción orgánica y de inocuidad hasta mejoras sustanciales en su empacado y envoltura.

PALABRAS CLAVE: supermercados, globalización, productos, agrícolas

CARACTERIZACIÓN DEL NIVEL DE DESEMPEÑO EN LA GESTIÓN DE LOS PROCESOS EN IPS - CLÍNICAS Y HOSPITALES DE BUCARAMANGA Y SU AMB

Lupita Serrano Gómez, Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana Néstor Raúl Ortíz Pimiento, Universidad Industrial De Santander

RESUMEN

Este trabajo permite conocer el nivel de desempeño en la gestión de procesos en las Instituciones de prestación de servicios de salud. Para identificarlo, se seleccionaron 15 clínicas y hospitales de niveles de complejidad II y III, de la ciudad de Bucaramanga y su área metropolitana. Se estructuró un modelo que consta de 5 criterios, caracterizado cada uno según la percepción de los responsables de procesos y aplicando estadística descriptiva y análisis por conglomerados, se caracterizaron 3 grupos similares. El primer cluster, integrado por 6 Instituciones manifiestan estar en niveles avanzados y optimizados, contando con procesos alineados con los objetivos, procesos definidos, documentados y controlados con técnicas cuantitativas, y con estrategias claras y eficientes para la mejora del desempeño de los mismos. La segunda clusterización está conformada por 4 IPSs, jerarquizada en un nivel 3 – nivel de gestión controlada y el último conglomerado está conformado por 5 Instituciones que se podría categorizar en un nivel de gestión de sus procesos 2- nivel elemental, en razón a que no aplican estrategias claras para la mejora de sus procesos y si se hace es de manera improvisada, con base en las situaciones problemas presentadas en el día a día.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La gestión por procesos es una poderosa forma de creación de valor, basada en la estructuración y coordinación de las actividades administrativas y operativas de las empresas. Este modelo de gestión permite que las organizaciones, a menudo estructuradas en una jerarquía de unidades funcionales y gestionadas de manera vertical, eliminen las barreras entre las distintas unidades funcionales mejorando su gestión (ISO, 2008); de esta manera, el cliente final y las partes interesadas reciben realmente a satisfacción el resultado de los procesos y no se encuentran con los problemas propios de cada unidad funcional, cuando no se trabaja bajo este enfoque.En consecuencia, se puede entonces indicar que las organizaciones que se centran en la gestión por procesos cuentan con una estrategia integral global enfocada a una innovación continua, para dar una mayor confiabilidad a los clientes en el cumplimiento de sus requisitos (Harrington, 1993); buscando de manera sistemática el incremento en los niveles de productividad en dichos procesos, la disminución de costos, la reducción de inventarios, una mejor logística en sus procesos, mayores rentabilidades en sus operaciones, entre otros muchos beneficios.

En cuanto a la forma de mejora que se puede realizar en los procesos de una organización, esta puede ser de manera reactiva o proactiva. Estaría dada a nivel reactivo, cuando se logran cambios ocasionales en respuesta a los problemas presentados en el día a día en la empresa; y a nivel proactivo, cuando se hace un proceso más planeado cada cierto periodo de tiempo y estructurado que conlleva a mejoras importantes por medio del rediseño de los procesos o la reingeniería. Y en cuanto al grado de cambio dado en la mejora, este puede ser a nivel incremental o a nivel radical. El grado de cambio incremental es consecuencia o producto de las mejoras ocasionales o del enfoque basado en el rediseño de sus procesos, ya que las mejoras ocasionales aportan pequeños cambios como pueden ser la solución de problemas específicos de calidad del producto o servicio y en el rediseño de procesos se buscan lograr los resultados de las organizaciones satisfaciendo a sus clientes específicamente a través de la reducción de costos o de tiempos de ciclo en los procesos. Y en cuanto al grado de mejora radical es como consecuencia propia de llevar a cabo la reingeniería de procesos, generando nuevas estructuras

organizacionales, nuevas formas de gestión con orientaciones estratégicas muy innovadoras. Existe diversos autores (Davenport, 1990; Harrington, 1993; Elzinga et al., 1995; Zairi, 1997, Lee & Chuah, 2001; Chan & Spedding, 2003), que han realizado valiosos aportes en la gestión y mejora de procesos desarrollando metodologías y técnicas que abordan el tema como estrategia para que las empresas alinien sus operaciones con las prioridades estratégicas buscando mejorar su competitividad a largo plazo (Kaplan y Murdock, 1991; Garvin, 1998).

Se hace importante resaltar que las empresas del sector salud, a pesar de estar clasificadas dentro de las empresas del sector terciario: servicios, tienen particularidades, por su naturaleza de derecho consagrado para todas las personas y su actividad económica y social, que las diferencian de otras (Hernández, 2005). Dichos distintivos que posee el sector salud, hacen que llevar a cabo la gestión de sus procesos, se convierta en un reto y que en ocasiones los problemas se hagan más evidentes, que en otros sectores con problemas más complejos. Es así como el gobierno Colombiano decide emprender hace algunos años la privatización de algunas instituciones de salud públicas, para garantizar una mejor calidad en los servicios prestados por éstas, así como realizar seguimiento a su gestión (Min. Protección social, 2005).

Las particularidades y problemáticas del sector salud en general, dan la base para entrar a estudios particulares y específicos para caracterizar el nivel de desempeño en la gestión por procesos de las Instituciones Prestadoras de Servicios de Salud, de tal forma que sirva de insumo para generar proyectos que permeen en su administración y le den características diferentes dignas de tener en cuenta para buscar vías que permitan readaptar herramientas de gestión, como lo es la gestión de sus procesos, para centrarse en la satisfacción del paciente a partir de la búsqueda de soluciones que tengan en cuenta aquellos elementos que pueden influenciar en el buen funcionamiento y la eficacia de éstas Instituciones y todas las demás que hacen parte del sector salud.

El sector salud en Colombia está compuesto por tres (3) entes que son el estado, los aseguradores y los prestadores (supersalud, 2007). El estado, quien por medio del Ministerio de la Protección Social, la Superintendencia de Salud y la Comisión de regulación, se encarga de supervisar, coordinar y controlar todo lo concerniente al sector. Los aseguradores, como su nombre lo indica, son las entidades encargadas de asegurar a la población, al igual que administrar los prestadores de servicios y que los recursos proporcionados por el estado sean destinados para esta función. Los prestadores, quienes son las entidades encargadas de la prestación de servicios de salud a la población como tal.Dentro del sector salud se realiza una clasificación de los prestadores de servicios de salud –IPS-, según el Ministerio de Protección social, en donde se encuentran las clínicas, hospitales y laboratorios que pueden ser de tipo público, privado, civil, universitario o altruista. La clasificación realizada a las IPS por el nivel de complejidad contenida en los servicios y la atención médica proporcionada por estos, está dada en tres (3) niveles con las características propias que los diferencian.

METODOLOGÍA

El presente estudio siguió la metodología de una investigación cualitativa (Anguera, 1986), cumpliendo con una rigurosa descripción contextual de la situación objeto de estudio, las empresas de Instituciones prestadoras de servicios de salud. Dentro de los métodos y técnicas generales están las propuestas por Miles y Huberman (1994), en cuanto a la reducción de datos y el ciclo iterativo-deductivo-inductivo planteado por Pettigrew (1997).

El número de Instituciones prestadoras de servicios de salud clínicas y hospitales, IPS a nivel del Departamento de Santander es de 95 según su nivel de complejidad. Se determinó como objeto de investigación a las personas líderes encargadas de los procesos y/o de la mejora de procesos en las organizaciones bajo estudio. Una vez recolectada la información acerca de la percepción; se procedío a tabular, definiendo las técnicas estadísticas apropiadas, con ayuda del programa estadístico informático

SPSS, con sus módulos de Descriptive, Frequencies, Correlations y Cluster. De igual manera, se estructuró un modelo para identificar el nivel de desempeño en cuanto la gestión de sus procesos y determinar los requisitos para estar en un nivel y no otro. Se tomó como referente el modelo CMMI, de sus iniciales en inglés- Capability Maturity Model Integration-, el cual es considerado como punto de referencia en los programas de mejoramiento en las empresas de software (Romero et. al., 2007).

CARACTERIZACIÓN DEL NIVEL DE DESEMPEÑO EN LA GESTIÓN DE PROCESOS

Para el análisis de los datos y llegar a la caracterización del nivel de desempeño en la gestión de procesos en las IPS- clínicas y hospitales de Bucaramanga y su área metropolitana, se establecieron criterios y subcriterios, relacionados con la alineación estratégica de procesos con la estrategia de la organización, la identificación y documentación de los procesos de la empresa, el involucramiento del talento humano en la gestión de los procesos, la existencia de un plan de mejora de los procesos y su aplicación, y finalmente el criterio de seguimiento y medición, haciendo referencia a los controles, formas y demás que se utilizan para realizar el seguimiento y medición de la gestión y mejora de procesos.

Posteriormente se realizó un bosquejo del sistema de clasificación compuesto por cinco (5) niveles, donde cada nivel consta de una descripción general y de una serie de subcriterios que evidencian el cumplimiento o no de los requisitos claves que debe poseer la organización para estar en cierto nivel de desempeño en la gestión de sus procesos, a saber: Nivel I, Organización inexperta en la gestión de procesos. Nivel II, Organización con una gestión de procesos controlada. Nivel IV, Organización con una gestión de procesos avanzada y Nivel V, Organización con una gestión de procesos optimizada. El estudio muestra que la clasificación de las empresas de acuerdo a su tamaño y nivel de complejidad, se clasificaron en dos grupos: Pymes y Grandes empresas; y según su complejidad en empresas nivel de complejidad: II y III. Se encontró que las Pymes, grupo conformado por las pequeñas y medianas empresas del sector, lo constituyen un 52.6% y que el porcentaje restante (47,4) lo constituyen las grandes IPSs encuestadas.

En relación al criterio de Alineación estratégica, el cual buscaba identificar la forma en que las clínicas y hospitales manejan la mejora de procesos alineada a la estrategia de la organización, se puede determinar que: existen políticas claras establecidas que permitan evidenciar el compromiso hacía un mejoramiento de los procesos. Las acciones de mejora que se realizan alineadas a los objetivos estratégicos, en el 80 % de las clínicas y hospitales bajo estudio, según los encuestados, están en los niveles 4, 5 y el 20 % restante manifiestan estar en los niveles 2, 3. Sólo en las preguntas relacionadas con: la estrategia para evidenciar los errores presentados en los procesos e iniciar la mejora; y a la referenciación realizada con otras instituciones para llevar a cabo mejores prácticas en el mejoramiento de procesos, se observa que prevalecen los niveles menores demarcados en 1 y 2 principalmente, como se visualiza en la Figura 1.

Para identificar el nivel de mejoramiento en los procesos un criterio fundamental, es el enfoque de las IPSs en los procesos, en este criterio, las clínicas y hospitales entrevistadas, manifiestan estar en los niveles 4 y 5, es decir se considera que el enfoque en procesos que permite tener un punto de partida claro para la mejora de sus procesos está en nivel avanzado y optimizado. Otro factor determinante para la mejora de procesos en las organizaciones es su talento humano, por tanto, se indagó sobre este aspecto con el propósito de identificar el nivel de compromiso del personal a todos los niveles en la organización en este aspecto. Además, de conocer si son capacitados en temas relacionados, motivados e involucrados los empleados y directivas en actividades de mejora de los procesos. Se observa en la figura que el 20 % de las Instituciones, cataloga estar en este aspecto en un nivel 5 – Optimizado; el 74 % en un nivel 4-Avanzado y el 6 % restante, en un nivel 2-Elemental.

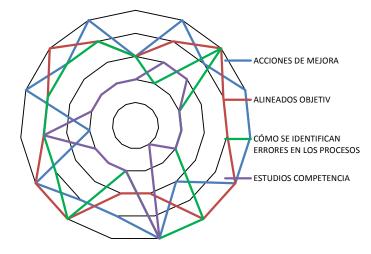


Figura 1: Nivel de Gestión de Procesos Criterio Alineación Estratégica

En la figura de radar se visualiza el nivel de desempeño logrado en el criterio y subcriterios referidos a la alineación estratégica por las de Instituciones prestadoras de servicios de salud clínicas y hospitales, siendo el nivel 1(desempeño inexperto) hasta el nivel 5 (desempeño optimizado).

Conocer si se hace seguimiento y medición a la mejora de procesos, a través de indicadores apoyados en los resultados de la toma de decisiones de mejora, se observa que el 100% manifiesta estar en un nivel 5 relacionado con actividades críticas según la percepción del cliente, aspecto favorable para el propósito de esta investigación; pero en relación a los indicadores para el seguimiento y medición y a los recursos para la prestación del servicio y para facilitar la mejora de procesos (ver figura 3), se observa que dos (2) instituciones manifiestan niveles 2 y 3, es decir su percepción en este aspecto es de nivel Elemental a Controlado. Focalizando el objeto de estudio en relación a el tipo de metodologías y herramientas que emplean las empresa para mejorar sus procesos. El 94% de las clínicas y hospitales responden estar en un nivel 5- Optimizado, sólo una manifiesta estar en un nivel 3- Controlado.

Sin embargo, al cuestionarles sobre el mejoramiento de procesos realizado con un enfoque en el rediseño de sus procesos, aspecto fundamental para estar en este nivel de desempeño optimizado, la percepción en su evaluación baja a un nivel 3- Controlado. Ahora, precisando en el conocimiento de metodologías para el rediseño de procesos, se encontró que el 80% de los responsables en la gestión de procesos, manifiesta no conocer metodologías. El 20 % de los encuestados restantes, que respondieron positivamente, se les indagó si las aplican en la IPS, para lo cual sólo una (1) institución manifiesta utilizarla. Para concretar cuál es la metodología aplicada, la respuesta hace referencia al Software SIHOS; el cual no es una metodología para el rediseño de procesos, sino un sistema de información que garantiza el cumplimiento del proceso de certificación y acreditación para las IPSs.

Como resultado final de la caracterización de las IPSs, clínicas y hospitales analizadas, se clusterizan, buscando particionar el conjunto de observaciones en grupos de tal forma que las IPSs que presentan características similares relacionadas con la gestión de sus procesos se aglomeren en un mismo grupo. Determinándose la matríz de distancias y se halló la distancia entre conglomerados por el método del centroide, dando como resultado tres (3) cluster. En un primer cluster, seis Instituciones están con valoraciones entre los niveles 4 y 5, manifestando contar con procesos alineados con los objetivos de la empresa, definidos y documentados claramente, controlados con técnicas cuantitativas, y con estrategias de manera adecuada que permiten medir, analizar y mejorar parcial o incrementalmente las actividades que componen cada proceso. El segundo cluster está conformado por cuatro IPSs, que según sus respuestas están en su nivel de gestión de procesos en un nivel 3 - Controlado, teniendo procesos enlazados con objetivos organizacionales, documentados, controlados y existen parámetros que permiten

medir su rendimiento. Se aplican estrategias de mejora de procesos que permiten obtener resultados de mejoras parciales o incrementales, pero al momento de implementarlas se presentan fallas o se aplican de manera parcial o incorrecta. El último cluster está conformado por cinco Instituciones y que según sus respuestas se podría categorizar en un nivel de gestión de sus procesos de nivel 2 o nivel Elemental, en razón a que estas organizaciones cuentan con procesos que no están documentados en su totalidad, no se aplican estrategias claras para la mejora de sus procesos y si se hace es de manera improvisada, con base en las situaciones problemas presentadas en el día a día de su actividad.

CONCLUSIONES

La gestión por procesos es una estrategia de gestión que le permite a las Instituciones Prestadoras de Servicios de Salud herramientas claras para focalizar su accionar en la satisfacción del paciente a partir de la búsqueda de soluciones que tengan en cuenta aquellos elementos que pueden influenciar en el buen funcionamiento, la eficiencia, la flexibilidad y la eficacia en sus resultados. El nivel de desempeño en la gestión de los procesos por parte de las IPSs Clínicas y hospitales de la ciudad de Bucaramanga y su AMB se encuentra inicialmente, según la percepción de los encuestados en un nivel 5- optimizado- en un 96%. Sin embargo, al evidenciar aspectos determinantes y concretos en la investigación realizada, que materializan dicho nivel se observa que realmente los subcriterios que se cumplen están jerarquizados en un nivel 3-controlado-. Que además, sólo 3 líderes de la mejora de procesos y sólo uno manifiesta aplicarla en su IPS, y que al indagar sobre dicha metodología, se encuentra que no lo es en su concepción, ya que es realmente un software que soporta dicha gestión.

Lo expuesto anteriormente, hace ver que según la percepción de los responsables de la gestión de procesos en las IPSs de Bucaramanga y su área metropolitana, su nivel de desempeño es el más alto. Pero, que al valorarlo teniendo en cuenta la aplicación de herramientas conceptuales e ingenieriles para dicha gestión se estaría en un nivel controlado y más aún que existe desconocimiento de metodologías para llevar a cabo dicha gestión.

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BIOGRAFIA

Lupita Serrano Gómez, es profesora de tiempo complete en la Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana Seccional Bucaramanga, Colombia. Facultad de Ingeniería Industrial. Integrante del grupo de investigación para el Desarrollo Empresarial Autosostenible IDEA. La profesora Serrano se puede contactar al correo: lupita.serrano@upb.edu.co.

Néstor Raúl Ortíz Pimiento, es profesor de tiempo completo de la Universidad Industrial de Santander, Colombia, de la Escuela de Estudios Industriales y Empresariales. Es el Director del grupo de investigación para la Optimización de Sistemas Productivos, Administrativos y Logísticos OPALO. El profesor Ortiz se puede contactar al correo:nortiz@uis.edu.co

DIAGNOSTICO PARA QUE EL PRODUCTOR AGRÍCOLA DEL ESTADO DE COLIMA PARTICIPE EN EL MERCADO EXPORTADOR

Aurelio Deniz Guizar, Universidad de Colima Jesus Otoniel Sosa Rodriguez, Universidad de Colima Oscar Bernardo Reyes Real, Universidad de Colima

RESUMEN

Con el propósito de realizar un diagnóstico administrativo que beneficie a productores agrícolas del estado de Colima, se estudiará la viabilidad de implementar estrategias que permitan que los productores incursionen en el ámbito exportador, así como también analizar mediante un diagnostico las fortalezas, oportunidades, debilidades y amenazas con los que cuenta para que puedan impulsar el desarrollo productivo y comercial de sus productos en mercado internacionales. Las estrategias administrativas propuestas se consideran acciones encaminadas a la asesoría, soporte logístico, comercial y legal que permita la orientación adecuada para la inclusión en el mercado exportador, como una opción adicional de comercialización y venta de productos agrícolas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Productor, exportar, diagnostico, negocios.

ABSTRACT

With the purpose of using a diagnosis that benefits the field producers of the state of Colima, we will study the feasibility of implementing strategies with the field producers to help them to export their agriculture products, it will be possible with a diagnosis of their SWOT analysis to identify their strengths weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, and on this do correct administrative strategies to consider to get in to the export business this actions will be concerning on staff. Logistic support, commercial and legal areas that will help to the producers be included in the exporting markets as another option of commercialization and sell of the agricultural products.

KEY WORDS: Producer, export, diagnosis, business.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La oportunidad existente en el mercado exportador colimense derivado del intenso proceso de globalización y las transformaciones demográficas han configurado un nuevo entorno para el sector agrícola en el estado de colima, el cual se caracteriza por cambios tecnológicos que redundan en mejoras de la productividad, nuevos cultivos que se ajustan a las exigencias de un mercado internacional, modificaciones genéticas que mejoran las variedades de los productos, nuevos esquemas organizacionales que dinamicen las formas de comercialización y modifican los métodos de inserción en el mercado mundial e incluso, el surgimiento de nuevos esquemas de desarrollo rural. El sector agrícola en colima ha enfrentado transformaciones profundas durante las tres últimas décadas, el continuo proceso de urbanización, Las tendencias del mercado mundial han influido de manera decisiva en la estructura del sector agrícola. Así, la producción adquiere un carácter mucho más comercial donde la competencia impone estándares de calidad y servicio, obligando a las unidades productoras a una continua modernización de sus procesos productivos, así como a la diversificación de productos y nichos de mercados. El sector agrícola representa un factor económico muy importante tanto para los colimenses como para el país. Por lo tanto para obtener un mejor desarrollo y crecimiento económico a través del sector agrícola es importante resaltar las ventajas competitivas con las que cuenta el estado de Colima

como: contar con variedad en productos agrícolas, la cercanía a uno de los puertos más importantes del país y los apoyos gubernamentales necesarios, entre otras; sin embargo, en los últimos años, no sólo su potencialidad productiva ha venido en decremento, sino también su capacidad para mejorar el bienestar de las familias rurales. En esta investigación se considera importante llevar a cabo el análisis de los factores del sector agrícola Colimense que limitan o impulsan la participación de éste en el mercado internacional y realizar un diagnóstico que nos permita asesorar a los productores mediante la entrega de estrategias que determinen e impulsen su actividad exportadora en el estado de Colima, motivo fundamental para llevar a cabo esta investigación. Una vez que se cuenta con la información necesaria, se realizó el análisis del mercado en general con cada una de las respuestas plasmadas por productores, en donde se han detectado las necesidades genéricas de los mismos, con todo esto, establecer, de acuerdo a los resultados, las propuestas logísticas, mercadotécnicas y legales que avudarán a mejorar las condiciones para exportar de los productores colimenses, identificando prioritariamente lo que representan oportunidades potenciales para incursionar en el ámbito exportador. Está claro que para obtener buenos resultados, el aspecto mercadotécnico no será lo único a modificar, tenemos muchas áreas de oportunidad, y gran parte de estas aparecieron en la encuesta, pero el presente trabajo solamente se abocará a los aspectos mercadotécnicos, logísticos y legales,

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Ante la gran variedad de necesidades del mercado, será preciso realizar un análisis de todos los factores externos e internos que se encuentran en el entorno del mercado, de esta manera establecer aquellos que serán vitales atender y que servirán para obtener ventajas con respecto al resto de la competencia que se encuentra dentro del mismo sector del mercado.

Utilizando la propuesta de Cabo (2000), la realización de un plan estratégico de mercadotecnia será una herramienta indispensable que nos ayudará a enfocar nuestras acciones de cara al futuro, el autor sugiere cinco fases o etapas dentro del plan; en la primer fase o fase analítica, se considera la realización de un análisis del entorno, tanto interno como externo, con la finalidad de detectar los puntos en los que se tiene una posición fuerte (fuerzas) y aquellos en los que puede existir alguna deficiencia (debilidades), así como también para establecer qué situaciones podrían ser favorables (oportunidades) y cuáles desfavorables (amenazas) para los productores del agro en el estado de Colima. En esta misma fase, se realizará un análisis FODA, en donde se relacionan de forma coherente y estratégica, las variables que se han obtenido en el primer paso, para aprovechar todas las oportunidades del mercado, teniendo siempre en cuenta los puntos fuertes con los que propiamente se cuenta, intentando conseguir aprovechar la oportunidad antes que la competencia.

La segunda fase es la estratégica, en la que con el análisis de los datos obtenidos, se balanceará lo positivo y lo negativo con que contamos o que nos afectará en un futuro, y entonces se diseñarán estrategias competitivas acordes a nuestras condiciones y objetivos que deseamos alcanzar.En la etapa o fase operativa, se aplicarán las diversas actividades que nos permitan desarrollar la planificación estratégicamente pensada. En esta tercer etapa se interrelacionan las variables básicas del mercadeo (producto, precio, comunicación y distribución) encaminadas a la satisfacción del cliente (potencial o actual) mediante las cuales pretende, realizar ajustes en nuestra oferta (ya sea servicio o producto), establecer precios, elegir los canales de distribución logística y las técnicas de comunicación más adecuadas para presentar un producto que realmente satisfaga las necesidades de los clientes, identificándose más con la posibilidad de venta de productos agrícolas en otros mercados y no estar sujetos a la venta de solo el mercado nacional. Durante la fase económica, la operatividad y la eficacia del plan deben ser medidas en términos económicos, en donde habrá que prever los costos y los resultados que se esperan de la aplicación de las acciones propuestas en dicho plan, de esta manera se obtendrán el cálculo del presupuesto requerido para la ejecución del proyecto. Finalmente, en la etapa de control, se establecerán las medidas de seguimiento y control necesarias para acreditar la existencia de errores en la

Figura 1: Etapas del Plan Estratégico



METODOLOGÍA

La Matriz FODA nos indica cuatro estrategias alternativas conceptualmente distintas. En la práctica, algunas de las estrategias se traslapan o pueden ser llevadas a cabo de manera concurrente y de manera concertada.

Figura No 2:

MATRIZ DAFO (FODA)-GENERACION	DE ESTRATEGIAS					
	ANALISIS DEL ENTORNO						
	OPORTUNIDADES	AMENAZAS					
	1 2	1 2					
ANALISIS INTERNO	3	3					
FORTALEZAS 1 2 3	ESTRATEGIAS OFENSIVAS (MAXI-MAXI)	ESTRATEGIAS DEFENSIVAS (MAXI-MINI)					
DEBILIDADES 1 2 3	ESTRATEGIAS ADAPTATIVAS (MINI-MAXI)	ESTRATEGIAS DE SUPERVIVENCIA (MINI-MINI)					

Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos obtenidos de la red mundial (2007).

(1) Estrategia FO (Maxi-Maxi). Las estrategias aquí establecidas, serán siempre las de mayor impacto, donde podemos maximizar nuestras fortalezas, y apoyándonos en éstas, lograr el óptimo aprovechamiento de las oportunidades identificadas en el entorno.

(2) Estrategia DO (Mini-Maxi). La implantación de estas estrategias, intentarán reducir las debilidades o limitaciones atribuidas al destino, esto se realizará con el máximo aprovechamiento de las oportunidades identificadas en el entorno del mismo destino. Aquí se puede correr el riesgo de optar por no considerar aplicar algún tipo de estrategia y dejar pasar la oportunidad, pero podría ser aprovechada por la competencia.

(3) Estrategia FA (Maxi-Mini). Este tipo de estrategias, se plantean con la finalidad de enfrentar los posibles impactos negativos de las amenazas que se identificaron en medio ambiente externo, ya sea minimizándolas o neutralizándolas, mediante el máximo aprovechamiento de las fortalezas.

(4) Estrategia DA (Mini-Mini).- En este "cuadrante" de la matriz, el propósito de las estrategias irán encaminadas a reducir tanto las debilidades como las amenazas, es la adopción de estrategias de "supervivencia", ya que conocemos y estamos viviendo con nuestras debilidades, y al mismo tiempo sabemos que se pueden agudizar con el impacto negativo de las amenazas.

Las estrategias que se generen deben tratar de aprovechar, simultáneamente, varias fortalezas y, actuar en el aprovechamiento (o reducción del impacto) de varias oportunidades (o amenazas).Para la presentación de las estrategias, se agruparon en grandes áreas de interés, éstas fueron:

- Recursos Humanos / Sociedad.
- Producto agrícolas
- Comercialización logística
- Infraestructura.
- Regulación y Normatividad.

Cada una de ellas a su vez, cuenta con diversas acciones, las cuales constituyen la parte operativa del Plan Estratégico y son instrumentos diseñados para enfrentar la problemática identificada y solucionar problemas particulares y/o aprovechar oportunidades concretas.Es importante resaltar que "Colima es uno de los estados más dinámicos del país, en los últimos años ha vivido una transformación radical de su economía para situarse a la vanguardia a escala nacional." En el sector agrícola Colimense existe una gran diversidad de productos pero, ¿cuáles son los productores del sector agrícola del Estado de Colima que podrían favorecer al incremento de exportaciones? Problema científico: La falta de estrategias adecuadas no permite a los productores del agro en Colima, ser parte del sector exportador.Objetivo General: Diseñar propuestas que permitan a la los productores sector agrícola incursionar en el ámbito del comercio exterior.

Objetivos Específicos: Conocer los principales productos agrícolas del Estado de Colima con viabilidad exportadora.Orientar a los productores agrícolas Colimenses en el ámbito exportador.Realizar un diagnóstico de los productores del sector agrícola del Estado de Colima interesados en incursionar en el ámbito exportador. Impulsar la cultura de la exportadora en el sector agrícola del estado de Colima, México.Orientar a los productores para que participen en el ámbito exportador

Objeto del estudio: Teórico: La competitividad y su aplicación en las PyMES del agro

Práctico: Los productores del sector agrícola en el estado de Colima, México.

Hipótesis de la Investigación: ¿Es posible y viable mejorar los las condiciones de los productores del agro en el estado de Colima, México para que incursionen en el ámbito exportador?

Métodos a utilizar en la investigación: En la investigación se utilizan los métodos documentales y de campo, dentro de ellos se realizará el análisis y la síntesis, la consulta de los productores agricolas, la observación, así como la aplicación de instrumentos. Técnicas a utilizar en la investigación: Reuniones

con productores, aplicación de encuestas, tormenta de ideas, entrevistas, sistemas estadísticos en la concentración de información, herramientas matemáticas.Los conceptos actuales de la competitividad en un entorno global y su interrelación con los conceptos aplicables a los productores, logrando su eficiencia y la calidad aplicable a entornos nacionales y estatales en particular al agro, esto tópicos fundamentarán el valor teórico de la investigación realizada.

Valor metodológico: Integra los marcos conceptuales y herramientas en las estrategias diseñadas, con posibilidad de aplicación de manera integral no solo en el agro, sino también de otro entorno empresarial.Valor Práctico: Está enfocado primordialmente en la factibilidad y pertinencia de aplicar las estrategias que permita obtener resultados satisfactorios y de perspectivas globales que permitan a los productores tomar en consideración los beneficios que se obtienen al lograr exportar sus productos.

Valor Social: Radica en la investigación de cómo mejorar e incrementar las posibilidades ser más competitivo y exportar, lo cual se traduce en mejores ingresos, optimización de recursos, posicionamiento empresarial, satisfacción al cliente y por su imagen en la sociedad.Desarrollo: De acuerdo con el análisis realizado y con los resultados obtenidos de la investigación de campo, el Estado de Colima, tiene presente la importancia que representan las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas en la generación de empleos y riqueza. Es por ello que el reto de fortalecer las condiciones que impulsan su competitividad, se convierte en una estrategia fundamental dentro del eje de acciones en materia económica. Las empresas salen al extranjero por varias razones todas las cuales tienen relación con el deseo de elevar las ventas y utilidades, o bien proteger las de la competencia.

En relación a la investigación de campo, la mayoría de los productores coinciden en que exportar sus productos les traería grandes beneficios tales como; mayores ingresos, mayores utilidades, expansión a nuevos mercados, para diversificarse o para obtener prestigio en el mercado interno, entre otros beneficios. Sin embargo a pesar de conocer las ventajas que trae consigo la exportación, los resultados obtenidos durante la investigación, cuando se preguntó a las empresas por qué no operan en los mercados internacionales, por lo general mencionaron las siguientes limitantes: el desconocimiento del mercado de exportación, la intensa competencia, el escaso margen de utilidad, la falta de calidad de los bienes o servicios, desconocimiento de procedimientos de pago y financiamiento, por ello se hizo necesario un análisis estratégico FODA (Fortalezas, Oportunidades, Debilidades, Amenazas), se desarrolló con el propósito de obtener un diagnóstico objetivo y preciso del sector agrícola Colimense que permita elaborar propuestas que ayuden a los productores del estado a incursionar en mercados extranjeros. La información que a continuación se presenta son los resultados arrojados por la investigación de campo realizada, en el diagnostico FODA a los productores agrícolas.

Tabla 1: Diagnostico FODA rea	lizado a los productores agrícolas.

Fortalezas	Oportunidades
 F1 Conocimiento de las ventajas de la exportación de productos agrícolas. F2 Experiencia del productor en el manejo del cultivo. F3 Concentración entre los 18 y 45 años, lo cual se considera como edad laboral. F4 Interés de llevar a cabo la exportación de productos agrícolas. F5 Conocimiento de organismos de apoyo para el financiamiento del proceso productivo. F6 Maquinaria y equipo adecuando para llevar a cabo el proceso productivo. F7 Sistema de riego adecuado. F8 Cuentan con medio de transporte propio para traslado de cosecha. F9 Cuentan con espacio propio para proceso productivo. F10 Capacitación de personal. 	 O1 Países industrializados demandantes de productos e insumos agrícolas. O2 Existen instituciones gubernamentales y no gubernamentales que brindan asesoría a los productores para llevar a cabo la exportación de productos agrícolas. O3 Mayores ventas y utilidades. O4 Reducción importante en los costos de producción, derivada de un mayor volumen en las compras de recursos materiales. O5 Creación de nuevos mercados. O6 México es una de las economías más abiertas que ha integrado una serie de acuerdos comerciales, resaltando los firmados con Estados Unidos, Canadá, Japón y la Unión Europea. O7 Mercados extranjeros de mayor crecimiento. O8 Existen instituciones gubernamentales y no gubernamentales que otorgan financiamientos para incentivar la actividad agrícola O9 Existen instituciones y centros de investigación y enseñanza agrícola de prestigio y con amplia experiencia en el país. O10 Canales de comercialización nacional. O11 Infraestructura carretera y portuaria adecuada. O12 Canales de comercialización internacionales. O13 Ingreso a nuevos mercados.
Debilidades	Amenazas
 D1 Bajo grado de información y asesoría respecto a la exportación de productos agrícolas. D2 Falta de visión de las tendencias de mercados globales. D3 Limitaciones económicas. D4 Descapitalización de los productores. D5 Falta de inversión que permita una diversificación de mercados. D6 La mayoría no reciben apoyos gubernamentales por diversas razones como la cultura del productor, burocracia, etc. D7 Falta de organización e integración de los productores para ser competitivos en volumen, precio y calidad. D9 La mayoría de los productores no cuentan con una logística tanto de aprovisionamiento como de distribución definida. D10 La comercialización de productos agrícolas es inadecuada e ineficiente. D11 La mayor parte de la producción se vende a intermediarios. D12 Falta de capacidad productiva. D13 Poca superficie para proceso productivo 	 A1 Riesgos meteorológicos. A2 Mayores barreras no arancelarias (sanitarias, inocuidad, alimentarias, bioterrorismo). A3 Legislación internacional altamente protectora. A4 Exigencia de mayor competitividad con respecto a calidad y buen precio al incursionar en mercados extranjeros. A5 Aumento en los costos de los insumos. A6 Reducción del poder de compra de los consumidores. A7 Tendencia internacional a la baja de precios en la mayoría de alimentos. A8 Poca difusión de apoyos gubernamentales para incentivar la actividad agrícola. A9 Poco apoyo para cubrir los requisitos de sanidad e inocuidad agroalimentaria que imponen los países importadores. A10 Demasiada burocracia para el otorgamiento de apoyos gubernamentales. A11 Competencia con otros productores a nivel nacional e internacional en cuestión de calidad y oportunidad.

RESULTADOS

A continuación se enlistan las propuestas fundamentadas en el diagnostico FODA y relacionadas con la estructura organizacional, logística, financiamiento, tecnología, asesoría, etc.

 D1, O2: Difundir información y asesoría para llevar a cabo la exportación de productos agrícolas colimenses. Conocer y obtener apoyos de los diferentes consejos del Estado de Colima como: el Consejo Estatal de Productores de Limón, Consejo Estatal de Productores de Tamarindo, A.C. Consejo Estatal de Productores de Melón, A.C, Consejo Estatal de Productores de Café, Consejo Estatal de Productores de Coco, Consejo Estatal del Mango, A.C., así como los diferentes organismos como Bancomext y SAGARPA proporcionan información y asesoría gratuita para llevar a cabo la exportación de productos agrícolas por lo que se recomienda la asistencia a algunas de estas dependencias para obtener dicha información.

Además existe el Programa de Soporte - Componente Promoción de Exportaciones y Ferias cuyos objetivos son los siguientes:

- Trámite y gestión de denominación de origen y obtención de certificación de origen.
- Integración de un Directorio de Agroexportadores.
- Certificación y uso de esquemas de calidad de productos agroalimentarios.
- Campañas de productos genéricos agroalimentarios.
- Misiones comerciales, ferias promocionales e integración de productores en marcas colectivas.
- Desarrollo comercial de proveedores del sector agroalimentario y desarrollo de capacidades de oferta exportable.
- Centros de distribución, acopio y comercialización de productos agroalimentarios.

Para información adicional consulte http://www.procampo.gob.mx/artman/publish/article_1646.asp.

- 2. D1: Difundir asesoría técnica para cumplir con los requisitos no arancelarios que afectan las exportaciones agrícolas y fortalecer las campañas sanitarias para evitar pérdidas de producción a causa de plagas o enfermedades, y sobre todo para que se garantice al mercado exterior la alta calidad sanitaria de los bienes que se producen en el campo mexicano. SAGARPA cuenta con un programa de Asistencia Técnica y Capacitación cuyo objetivo es apoyar la gestión técnica, económica y sanitaria de los productores que les permita una inserción sostenible de sus productos en los mercados. Además cuenta con el Servicio Nacional de Sanidad, Inocuidad y Calidad Agroalimentaria (SENASICA) este sistema se implementa bajo las modalidades de Empresas, Áreas Naturales e integrales y Áreas con aplicación de Buen Uso y Manejo Confiable de Agroquímicos con ello los productores y empacadores nacionales de productos de origen agrícola fortalecen sus actividades dando certeza al consumidor nacional e internacional de contar con la aplicación eficaz de un Sistema de Reducción de Riesgos de Contaminación apoyados en instrumentos legales, técnicos y científicos.
- **3.** A2, A9, D1, D7: Fortalecer y difundir el sistema nacional de certificación para apoyar a las organizaciones de productores en el conocimiento y la adopción de prácticas de certificación de sus procesos productivos, con el fin de garantizar condiciones de sanidad, inocuidad y calidad en la comercialización de sus productos. El Servicio Nacional de Sanidad, Inocuidad y Calidad Agroalimentaria (SENASICA) cuenta con un manual de Buenas Prácticas Agrícolas el cual es de gran utilidad ya que cuenta con las metodologías de minimización de riesgos de contaminación en las unidades de producción, de procesamiento y de empaque que permite la certificación de empresas facilitando con esto la exportación de productos agrícolas. El manual se puede consultar en la siguiente página http://www.senasica.gob.mx/?doc=14539.
- 4. D2: Brindar asesoría e información acerca de los beneficios que otorga el comercio de productos agrícolas en el extranjero así como las tendencias globales para que de esa manera se motiven y formen personas con altos niveles de conocimientos útiles, que cuente con capacidades tanto emprendedoras como innovadoras, y con competencias laborales adecuadas para participar en la

economía global y de esa manera lograr que el campo sea competitivo. Existen instituciones como Bancomext y SAGARPA las cuales proporcionan información y asesoría acerca de los beneficios que brinda el comercio exterior de productos del sector agrícola además ofrecen información acerca de las tendencias globales por lo que se recomienda la asistencia a algunas de estas dependencias para obtener dicha información la cual es gratuita.

- **5.** D3, A4, A11: Impulsar la modernización productiva, a través del cambio institucional (formas de hacer las cosas) e innovación tecnológica. La Secretaria de Desarrollo Rural cuenta con diversos programas que incentivan la modernización agrícola a través del otorgamiento de financiamientos los cuales se enlistan a continuación:
- Instalación de Sistemas de Riego Tecnificado
- Mecanización Agrícola (Tractores)
- Equipamiento Especializado para la Producción Primaria y Cosecha (Implementos)
- Establecimiento de Infraestructura y Equipamiento para el Acondicionamiento y Manejo de Pos cosecha
- Establecimiento de Infraestructura y Equipamiento para la Agroindustria
- Maquinaria Agrícola Especializada para Labranza de Conservación
- Material Vegetativo
- Infraestructura y Equipamiento para la Agroindustria Bajo Ambiente Controlado (Invernaderos, Casa Sombra, Viveros, etc.)

Para mayor información en cuanto a los requisitos de las convocatorias así como los conceptos de apoyo consultar la página http://seder.col.gob.mx/.

6. D4, D5, D6, A8, O8: Impulsar campañas que permitan el conocimiento a los productores colimenses acerca de los diversos programas gubernamentales que financian la actividad agrícola.

Los programas que tienen las diferentes instituciones gubernamentales como SAGARPA el cual proporciona el Programa Especial de Energía para el Campo en materia de Energía de uso Agrícola, Adquisición de Activos Productivos (Alianza para el Campo) y si el productor pertenece a alguna organización también puede tener acceso al Fomento a la Organización Rural el cual destina apoyos para organizaciones sociales que pretendan tener una profesionalización de personal, equipamiento, difusión y gastos operativos. PROCAMPO es otro programa cuyo objetivo es transferir recursos en apoyo de la economía de los productores rurales, CAPITALIZA permite el acceso anticipado a los recursos futuros a que tienen derecho los beneficiarios del PROCAMPO, a través de la contratación de un crédito en el cual los apoyos del programa representan la fuente del pago del mismo.

1. D8, D12, D13: Fomentar e impulsar a los productores del campo para que formen asociaciones u organizaciones económicas eficientes. Éstas deberán tener figuras jurídicas apropiadas a sus actividades productivas que ayuden a formar el capital social que requiere el sector rural para ser competitivo.

La organización es la mejor forma de acceder a tecnologías modernas y adecuadas a sus condiciones productivas, así como a servicios de asistencia técnica, capacitación y financiamiento en economías de escala reduciendo costos de producción, además de agregar valor a una producción de alta calidad y adquirir mayor capacidad de negociación. Los beneficios económicos que se obtengan les permitirán avanzar en su desarrollo integral, es decir, en los ámbitos económico, social, humano, cultural, político y ambiental. Existe el Programa de Fortalecimiento a la Organización Rural (ORGANIZATE) de SAGARPA el cual apoya esta alternativa. En la actualidad son muy pocos los productores que forman parte de alguna organización la investigación de campo arrojó que el 68% de los productores no pertenecen a ninguna organización agrícola. Dicha situación hace que los productores se encuentren menos informados de los apoyos ofrece el gobierno para convertir sus cosechas en productos competitivos.

2. D9: Propiciar un ambiente de confianza y cooperación para que los agentes económicos de una cadena de valor sean aliados y no adversarios; que trabajen juntos en desarrollar objetivos, metas y estrategias comunes que aseguren beneficios palpables para todos los implicados.

Actualmente existen asociaciones como el Comité Sistema Producto el cual establece programas de desarrollo consensuados entre todos los eslabones de las cadenas productivas de cada cultivo, además de que se llegan a integrar todos los eslabones del proceso como una organización con figura jurídica propia en la que todos los participantes obtienen beneficios.En relación con lo anterior SAGARPA cuenta con el Subprograma de Fortalecimiento de los Sistemas Producto el cual otorga apoyos a organizaciones productivas de Representación estatal, regional y nacional que participen en la integración y consolidación de los Sistemas Producto (SP). Los apoyos se destinan al desarrollo de congresos, seminarios, talleres, cursos y mesas de negocios; elaboración de planes estratégicos y de negocios, estudios de mercado y de oportunidades de negocios; contratación de servicios profesionales; creación de sistemas de información y promoción de productos. Para mayor información consultar la página http://www.sagarpa.gob.mx/agricultura/Programas/Paginas/SubprogramadeFortalecimientoalosSistemasProducto(SFSP).aspx.

3. D10, D11: Disminuir el intermediarismo mediante la venta directa.

Como se mencionó anteriormente el Programa de Soporte - Componente Promoción de Exportaciones ayuda a los productores a promocionar sus productos en ferias comerciales, ferias promocionales en donde pueden encontrar personas que estén interesados en sus productos y de esa manera realizar ventas al exterior de manera directa.

4. A3, O1, O3, O5, O6, O7, O13: Brindar información acerca de los Tratados de Libre Comercio de los que México sea parte para que los productores agrícolas colimenses aprovechen las preferencias arancelarias fomentando la incursión de estos en mercados extranjeros.

Actualmente México es parte de 11 Tratados de Libre Comercio y un Acuerdo Comercial con 43 naciones diferentes siendo uno de los países con mayor apertura comercial.

5. O9: Integrar un sistema de extensión rural, asistencia técnica, capacitación y asesoría que vincule a las asociaciones de agricultores y a las instituciones de educación e investigación; que provea de conocimientos y técnicas para mejorar los procesos productivos, comerciales, organizativos y empresariales en el sector rural para asegurar la conservación y sustentabilidad de los recursos naturales.

Es importante recalcar que la permanencia exitosa de un producto en un mercado exige una mejora continua en sus prácticas productivas, nuevos conocimientos y nuevos usos del producto o características adicionales, el Sistema Nacional de Investigación y Transferencia de Tecnología

(http://www.snitt.org.mx/) tiene como objetivo articular los proyectos, programas y recursos públicos y privados, en materia de Investigación, Transferencia de Tecnología e Innovación, de las cadenas productivas de los subsectores, a efecto de asegurar la participación y contribución de instituciones de investigación y educación superior, prestadores de servicios, organizaciones sociales y privadas, así como asociaciones de productores y gobiernos estatales y municipales, con el propósito de lograr la competitividad de las cadenas agroalimentarias, acuícolas y pesqueras.

6. O10, O11, O12, O14, A4, A11: Aprovechar y difundir las ventajas competitivas que ofrece la posición geográfica del Estado de Colima además de la infraestructura carretera y portuaria, las cuales permiten el traslado de mercancías nacional e internacionalmente.

El Puerto de Manzanillo está situado en el Estado de Colima, dentro de la República Mexicana, en la costa del Océano Pacifico. Colima y el Puerto de Manzanillo se distingue por su seguridad y paz social, lo cual les permite atraer mayores inversiones privadas, nacionales y extranjeras, incrementando así su capacidad instalada. El Puerto de Manzanillo se ha posicionado como la principal entrada para el manejo de mercancías en el Comercio Internacional, de las Zonas Centro y Bajío de la República Mexicana, que representan a su vez más del 67% del PIB del país y donde radica el 55% de la población nacional. Es indispensable tomar en cuenta estas cualidades que permiten posicionar los productos agrícolas a un precio más competitivo.

CONCLUSIONES

La investigación realizada permitió diseñar propuestas que permitan a los productores del sector agrícola, en el estado de Colima incursionar en el ámbito del comercio exterior, al detectar las fortalezas, oportunidades, debilidades y amenazas con las que cuentan estas empresas les permite, emplear estrategias que les permitan ser competitivos en mercados internacionales. Conocer de las principales debilidades del productor agrícola Colimense comparadas con los productores que si exportan, favorecerá a que la no participación de éste en el mercado extranjero disminuya. Esto se comprueba con los datos obtenidos mediante las encuestas aplicadas en donde podemos observar que el 97% de los productores no cuentan con certificaciones en sus procesos productivos, ya que, al introducirse en mercados extranjeros las exigencias en cuanto a calidad son mayores.

Por otro lado la falta de organización de los productores agrícolas es algo muy notable debido a que el 68% de los productores no pertenecen a ninguna organización lo que conlleva a la falta de capacidad productiva para abastecer mercados extranjeros además de no ser competitivos en cuanto a precios al enfrentarse con mayor competencia tanto nacional como internacional.El que los productores no reciban apoyos gubernamentales no se debe al desconocimiento de estos organismos debido a que los resultados reflejan que el 58% de los encuestados si tienen conocimiento de estos, las razones por las que no reciben apoyos se deben a que existe demasiada burocracia y corrupción en el otorgamiento de dichos apoyos. Por otro lado las oportunidades que presentan los productores Colimenses que exportan actualmente avudarían a que no lo hacen, a incursionar en el mercado extranjero.

Asimismo la investigación realizada nos permitió conocer la situación en la que se encuentra el campo Colimense, teniendo como resultado productos con poca capacidad de diferenciación frente a los productos extranjeros debido a que el 84% de los productores comercializan sus productos como fruta fresca, así como falta de información para hacer que los productos cosechados tengan una mayor calidad y puedan ser exportados, es por ello que la falta de preparación y la baja competitividad empresarial, constituyen una barrera de tipo cultural, propiciando una desventaja competitiva que cancela una oportunidad de expansión o una operación comercial en entornos mundiales, a pesar del panorama poco alentador, se encontró una gran oportunidad para este sector en los mercados extranjeros aunado a que los productores cuentan con la intención de exportar sus productos, lo único que hace falta es que ellos conozcan y pongan en práctica las herramientas estrategias que se les brindan como resultado de esta investigación, para que de esa manera se obtengan productos competitivos, así como una cultura exportadora, lo que les permitirá tener ingresos superiores a los que actualmente tienen.

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LA ACTIVIDAD OVINOCAPRINA EVALUADA A TRAVES DE LA CADENA DE VALOR

Gloria Muñoz del Real, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Lourdes Patricia Escobar Pérez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Juan Benito Vela Reyna, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Esta investigación tiene como finalidad demostrar la aplicación de los conceptos de la cadena de valor, a través de la revisión del caso de los ovinocaprinocultores (ganaderos de especies menores, específicamente, ovinos y caprinos) que recibieron apoyo económico gubernamental de parte del Programa de Desarrollo Rural de la Alianza para el Campo (2000 – 2005) en Baja California, México. Se plantearon los siguientes cuestionamientos: ¿porqué los ovinocaprinocultores (OVCAs) a pesar de contar con experiencia y ser apoyados económicamente, no son capaces de permanecer en la actividad?, ¿puede la aplicación de los conceptos de la cadena de valor otorgar a los ovinocaprinocultores la posibilidad de permanecer en el mercado y lograr con su aplicación una ventaja competitiva que los haga rentables?Los resultados obtenidos mediante la aplicación de la cadena de valor en la actividad ovinocaprina muestran en los productores limitantes en materia de capacitación empresarial, un desconocimiento total de su mercado y formas de comercialización. Se recomienda que lleven registro de sus operaciones contables, administrativas, y de producción para una toma de decisiones efectiva y que utilicen una estrategia de diferenciación que de valor agregado al producto al comercializarlo con condimentos típicos de la región.

LAS CERTIFICACIONES DE CALIDAD ISO 9001 DE 2000 COMO ESTRATEGIA PARA GENERAR VENTAJA COMPETITIVA EN EL SECTOR INDUSTRIAL DE IBAGUÉ

Luis Ignacio López Villegas, Universidad Nacional De Colombia Mario Montoya, Universidad Nacional De Colombia

RESUMEN

El estudio Muestra el impacto de la certificación en la norma ISO 9001 de una muestra de las empresas manufactureras de la ciudad de Ibagué Colombia, y como dicha certificación ha coadyuvado a una mayor competitividad de la Industria. Se analizan los impactos a partir de los clientes y la empresa. Como ha transformado la organización con la implementación de la mejora continua y la aplicación de los principios de la norma.

PALABRAS CLAVE: norma ISO 9000, mejora continua, principios del sistema de gestión de calidad.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Como respuesta a la apertura de los mercados de bienes y servicios, a la internacionalización de las economías, tratados de libre comercio entre países, es de gran importancia que las empresas posean la norma ISO 9001 /2000 como una herramienta hacia la competitividad y el mejoramiento continuo.

Los órganos de administración en las empresas han entendido que la certificación es una herramienta fundamental para la presentación de su empresa y de sus productos, donde el concepto de calidad puede significar una mejoría de sus procesos y gerencia de su cadena de valor. Se analizan los impactos en la competitividad y cambios organizacionales en las empresas medianas de la ciudad de Ibagué a partir del estudio de la implementación de la norma ISO 9001 / 2000, en las empresas del sector manufacturero y posteriormente recomendar la norma como mecanismo para mejorar o generar ventaja competitiva, entendiendo que una empresa con procesos certificados, genera confianza no solo en su ambiente interno, si no en ambiente externo.

REVISION LITERARIA

El modelo propuesto en las norma ISO 9001, es sin lugar a duda, una evolución natural de las demandas de las organizaciones públicas y privadas para contar con herramientas de gestión más sólidas y efectivas para hacerse al incierto mar de la internacionalización y capitalizar sus esfuerzos.Para que las organizaciones operen de una manera eficaz, deben definir claramente sus estrategias, como soporte para que esto ocurra surgen las normas de calidad ISO 90001 / 2000, que buscan que las empresas adopten una serie de principios, como lo son: Organización orientada al cliente, liderazgo, participación del personal, enfoque basado en procesos, enfoque de sistema para la gestión, mejora continua, enfoque basado en hechos para la toma de decisiones y la implementación mutuamente beneficiosa con el proveedor para minimizar costos y mejorar su competitividad(ICONTEC, 2005). Logrando desarrollar con el tiempo economías externas, donde se aumenta la competitividad de toda la industria y de los sectores de la economía que implementen dicha norma. De ahí la importancia que reviste el lograr determinar cuál es la relación que tienen estos procesos de certificación en la obtención de una ventaja competitiva sostenible.La implementación de las normas de la gestión de la calidad tiene el objetivo de mejorar el nivel de competitividad. Dentro de los conceptos más aceptados sobre competitividad esta:"Competitividad Nacional, la medida en que una nación, bajo condiciones de mercado libre y leal es capaz de producir bienes y servicios que puedan superar con éxito la prueba de los mercados internacionales, manteniendo y aún aumentando al mismo tiempo la renta real de sus ciudadanos" (

Ivancevich,1996); dicha definición se puede aplicar al ámbito empresarial, al considerar la competitividad organizacional en la medida que una empresa es capaz de producir bienes y servicios de calidad, que logren éxito y aceptación en el mercado globalizado.

El Mejoramiento Continúo

La literatura sobre mejora de la calidad señala un conjunto de principios comunes desde las varias escuelas de TQM hasta la "Fabricación de Clase Mundial". Entre estos principios se encuentran los siguientes: (a) En la gerencia recae la responsabilidad de la mejora de la calidad; (b) la mejora de la calidad debe concentrarse en mejorar la satisfacción del cliente; (c) la mejora suele ser dificil y requiere un esfuerzo, tiempo y disciplina intensos; (d) los esfuerzos deben dedicarse a el mejoramiento continuo de todo el sistema; (e) los gerentes y los empleados han de ser capacitados en el empleo de métodos y herramientas de análisis utilizadas para reducir los desperdicios y los costos, y mejorar los procesos, los productos y los servicios; (f) todos los miembros de una organización, incluidos los clientes y los proveedores cuando sea pertinente, deben formar parte de los programas de mejora de la calidad; y (g) las barreras entre departamentos y funciones deben ser eliminadas para permitir que los empleados compartan información y colaboren en las iniciativas de mejora (Wilson y Maizza, 1995).

"El mejoramiento continuo" expresa el principio central que subyace en la mayoría de los programas de mejora de la calidad y es un elemento central de la competitividad empresarial. El concepto constituye hoy día una pieza importante del sistema revisado de gestión de la calidad ISO 9001:2000. El mejoramiento continuo es un proceso según el cual los gerentes utilizan todos los recursos humanos y la información relevantes para producir una corriente constante de mejoras en todos los aspectos de valoración para el cliente. Este flujo continuo de mejoras cuenta con muchos atributos tales como la calidad, el diseño funcional, la entrega a tiempo, y otros – sin sacrificar los bajos costos. Los objetivos duales del valor siempre superior para el cliente a costos más bajos, hace que este enfoque sea formidable para la producción – y que también exija muchos esfuerzos para lograrlo (HILL, Charles.1996)

La gran fuerza competitiva del mejoramiento continuo reside en su capacidad de ofrecer un mayor valor para el cliente a un costo menor que el de la competencia. La revisión exhaustiva de los procesos reduce todas las formas de desechos/desperdicios – y por lo tanto los costos – mientras aumenta la calidad de los productos y servicios. El enfoque de mejora continua de la producción surgió dentro del sector manufacturero, pero esta lógica se está aplicando actualmente en todo tipo de industrias de servicios, de la atención sanitaria a la educación (Gyrna y Gyrna, 1999; Lopa y Marecki, 1999; McCamey y otros, 1999). Cuando los gerentes y su personal aprenden a usar herramientas analíticas tales como el control estadístico de procesos, los gráficos de columnas e instrumentos similares para identificar y eliminar las fuentes internas de problemas, generan datos importantes sobre aspectos concretos del proceso que pueden ser utilizados para mejorar el desempeño de tareas, la organización del lugar de trabajo y el diseño del producto y el proceso.

METODOLOGIA

La presente es una investigación exploratoria descriptiva, centrada en la industria manufacturera certificada con la Norma ISO 9000.La información fue recolectada mediante encuesta y apoyada en entrevista estructurada, aplicada a la totalidad de las empresas certificadas.La muestra ha sido escogida a criterio de los investigadores, dado el tamaño de la población, no permitía muestreo, pero se garantiza que las características de las empresas permiten los objetivos de la investigación.Se aplicó entrevista estructurada los directivos, administrativos y del personal encargado de los procesos de control y de gestión de calidad, en las empresas del sector manufacturero de la ciudad de Ibagué.

Categorías, Variables e Indicadores para la Medición del Impacto de la Norma ISO 9001/2000

Para la construcción del instrumento se establecieron las categorías y las variables asociadas y la respectiva pregunta (s), que permitieran identificar el comportamiento de la organización con respecto a ellas.

Principios De Calidad Categoria	Variable
Relaciones mutuamente beneficiosas con los proveedores	Proveedores claves, Mejoramiento logística de distribución Relaciones de largo plazo, Visión, asociatividad e integración
Organización Orientada al cliente	de la cadena Preferencias del consumidor, Variación de la devoluciones, Requerimientos especiales, Estándares de calidad
Liderazgo alta dirección	Objetivos en concordancia con los agentes, Valor al cliente, Resultados de la organización
Participación del personal	Capacitación personal, Plan de carrera, salarios de eficiencia y desarrollo de competencias
Enfoque de procesos	Procesos y actividades claves, Eficiencia y capacidad de los procesos, Reducción de costos y tiempos, Tiempo de ciclo
Enfoque de sistemas	Control de operaciones y procesos claves, Medición diaria de operaciones, La sinergia y la sistémica
Decisiones basadas en hechos	Método PHVA, Seguimiento de acciones, Mejoramiento de procesos y estándares, Mejoramiento de estándares e influencia en la competitividad
Mejora continua	
Categorias Y Variables Asociadas A La Organización Categoria	Variable
Costo de implementación de la norma	Presupuesto para control de calidad, Presupuesto de
Impacto del SGC en los mercados	mantenimiento, Presupuesto capacitación de personal Variación de ventas, Porcentaje de clientes que exige la norma Variación de las exportaciones, Tipo de exportaciones,
De calidad	Variación clientes internacionales Cumplimiento de especificaciones, Calidad de servicio pre y post venta, Calidad de información del producto, Adopción de
De entrega	tecnologías de punta, Atención requisitos especiales Cantidad, fecha y lugar ,Manejo y manipulación del producto
De costos	Sistemas Push y Pull, Inventarios y lotes Reducción costos de productos, Reducción Costos de transacción Reducción de costos de calidad y no calidad
De moral y ambiente de trabajo	Reducción de fallas internas y externas Accidentalidad , Ausentismo, Programas de mejoramiento a través de ideas, Motivación, Bienestar social, Impacto ambiental Relación con la comunidad
Impacto costumbres organizacionales	Cambios generados en costumbres, Nuevas costumbres Procesos para mejorar costumbres

Estimación de las correlaciones entre los principios de la NGC ISO 9001

principios	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1,0000	0,2928	0,2180	0,2860	0,2054	0,2219	0,2554	0,3227
2		1,0000	0,1367	0,2026	0,1981	0,2658	0,5831	0,3780
3			1,0000	0,5818	0,6277	0,2001	0,3177	0,4522
4				1,0000	0,4557	0,1960	0,3181	0,2412
5					1,0000	0,1993	0,1036	0,2183
6						1,0000	0,0946	0,1524
7							1,0000	0,5044
8								1,0000

Fuente: El autor. 2008. Estimadas por medio del paquete informático de estadística SPSS.

Solo se encuentra un grado de relación medianamente fuerte entre los principios del enfoque de sistemas con el principio participación del personal.La tabla nos indica una deficiente implementación de la norma, para un porcentaje muy importante de las empresas, evidencia un enfoque hacia la documentación, pero olvida la sostenibilidad del sistema especialmente en el uso del enfoque de procesos y mejora continua, a través del uso de la medición y retroalimentación del sistema

CONCLUSIONES

La hipótesis planteada por los investigadores en cuanto a que la implementación de la norma genera competitividad de las Empresas, no es totalmente concluyente, se evidencia incrementos moderados de las ventas y mantenimiento de su posición en el mercado, pero no hay fuerte correlación con los resultados económicos y la implementación de la norma.

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Luis Ignacio López Villegas, Administrador de Empresas, Especialista en alta Gerencia Con Énfasis en calidad, Mg En Administración, Phd (c) En sostenibilidad Tecnología y Humanismo. Profesor Asociado Universidad nacional de Colombia sede Manizales . email: <u>lilopezv@unal.edu.co</u>.

Mario Montoya. MBA en Administración Universidad Nacional de Colombia Sede Manizales

LA REALIDAD VIRTUAL INMERSIVA UNA PROPUESTA DE IMPLEMENTACIÓN EN LA FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS ADMINISTRATIVAS- DEL HOMOSAPIENS AL HOMOVIDENS?

Ricardo Ching Wesman, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Adelaida Figueroa Villanueva, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Sosima Carrillo, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ruth Catalina Ríos González, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Julieta Saldivar Gonzalez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

En el contexto actual y acorde al amplio panorama de recursos y herramientas tecnológicas y las grandes facilidades de acceso propiciadas por los avances en las telecomunicaciones, la educación superior tiene grandes posibilidades de desarrollo y las universidades aumentan su capacidad de ejercer y potenciar un verdadero impacto en las sociedades fomentando el crecimiento y desarrollo de las personas y por ende de las comunidades. Pero para poder dar lugar a un verdadero despunte de la educación mediante la aplicación de las nuevas tecnologías, es necesario dar lugar a un cambio en el paradigma educativo, a cambiar de la didáctica tradicional a una nueva concepción de la educación, donde se potencialice el aprendizaje colaborativo y a distancia, donde se confíe en la capacidad de los educandos de ser responsables de su propio aprendizaje y donde cambien los constructos alrededor de los roles y perfiles del profesorado además de los criterios y requerimientos estimados hoy para generar transformaciones en la relación e interacción enseñanza-aprendizaje cuando se combina la acción presencial profesor-estudiante, con actividades mediadas por entornos virtuales.

Aunado a lo anterior están las contingencias que afectan el desarrollo del calendario escolar como lo sucedido en Mexicali, baja California por el Terremoto de 7.2 grados que afecto severamente gran parte de los edificios de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, con lo cual surge también como una opción para sacar adelante el trabajo docente en estas contingencias. Por lo anterior expuesto se presenta la propuesta de implementar en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, dentro de la materia de Tecnologías de Información que se imparte a los alumnos de Lic. En Contaduría, Administración, Informática y Negocios Internacionales y la materia de Política y Legislación en Informática, para alumnos de Lic. En Informática de 7mo. Semestre, a través de una plataforma virtual como Second Life. Esta es una práctica común en universidades de otros países, sin embargo en México pocas universidades han llevado a cabo este tipo de experiencias de aprendizaje.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Un conocido proverbio chino muy antiguo dice así, "Lo único permanente es el cambio" y nada mas aplicable al mundo actual en que vivimos que cambia vertiginosamente en todos los aspectos, político, social, tecnológico y esa inercia de cambio nos envuelve a todos por igual. Pero a pesar de que todas las profesiones avanzan y se actualizan la docencia no ha cambiado significativamente a la par de las nuevas problemáticas originadas por la globalización y los tiempos modernos, por la violencia, la saturación de las aulas, las reformas escolares al vapor, el desarrollo tecnológico, etc. Parafraseando a Giovanni Sartori, 1 "El homo sapiens, un ser caracterizado por la reflexión, por su capacidad para generar abstracciones, se está convirtiendo en un homo videns, una criatura que mira pero que no piensa, que ve pero que no entiende."

Su análisis y soluciones incluyen considerar múltiples factores como el entorno social, político, económico y la búsqueda de nuevas respuestas a partir de nuevos enfoques. Es ahí donde podemos incluir la aplicación de nuevas tecnologías no solo como instrumento sino también como objeto de estudio de la pedagogía. Y no solo eso sino que las problemáticas actuales demandan enfoques interdisciplinarios para su solución. Dice Edgar Morín2 en su obra "La educación del futuro se ve confrontada a este problema universal,(los problemas clave del mundo) ya que existe una inadecuación cada vez más amplia, profunda y grave entre, por un lado, nuestros saberes desarticulados, parcelados y compartimentados y, por el otro, las realidades o problemas cada vez más polidisciplinarios, transversales, multidimensionales, transnacionales, globales, planetarios...".

En el contexto actual y acorde al amplio panorama de recursos y herramientas tecnológicas y las grandes facilidades de acceso propiciadas por los avances en las telecomunicaciones, la educación superior tiene grandes posibilidades de desarrollo y las universidades aumentan su capacidad de ejercer y potenciar un verdadero impacto en las sociedades fomentando el crecimiento y desarrollo de las personas y por ende de las comunidades. Pero para poder dar lugar a un verdadero despunte de la educación mediante la aplicación de las nuevas tecnologías, es necesario dar lugar a un cambio en el paradigma educativo, a cambiar de la didáctica tradicional a una nueva concepción de la educación, donde se potencialice el aprendizaje colaborativo y a distancia, donde se confíe en la capacidad de los educandos de ser responsables de su propio aprendizaje y donde cambien los constructos alrededor de los roles y perfiles del profesorado además de los criterios y requerimientos estimados hoy para generar transformaciones en la relación e interacción enseñanza-aprendizaje cuando se combina la acción presencial profesor-estudiante, con actividades mediadas por entornos virtuales.

REVISION LITERARIA

Antecedentes

El Plan Sectorial de Desarrollo3 en su objetivo 2 nos plantea las siguientes premisas: "Ampliar las oportunidades educativas para reducir desigualdades entre grupos sociales, cerrar brechas e impulsar la equidad." Y en el apartado 2.12 "Aumentar la cobertura de la educación superior y diversificar la oferta educativa." Y en el 2.13 primer inciso "Apoyar la expansión de la educación no presencial y a distancia con criterios y estándares de calidad e innovación permanentes, enfatizando la atención de regiones y grupos que carecen de acceso a servicios escolarizados." Observamos en esto un interés del gobierno en dos vertientes, la de mejorar la cobertura educativa y la aplicación de nuevas tecnologías en la educación.

A nivel estatal se plantea en el Plan Estatal de Desarrollo 4 (pag. 64) lo siguiente: "El gran reto para Baja California es mantener el ritmo de crecimiento de la matrícula y renovar y diversificar la oferta de planes y programas para extender los beneficios de la educación superior a quienes la demanden, y garantizar una educación de calidad que cumpla adecuadamente las expectativas de la sociedad. La llamada sociedad del conocimiento exige a las instituciones de educación superior ajustar su oferta educativa a tasas de innovación social nunca antes experimentadas. Esto significa un esfuerzo de renovación constante de los procesos didáctico-pedagógicos, así como de la complementariedad que plantean las nuevas tecnologías de la información y la comunicación como apoyo a los procesos de aprendizaje." Y mas especificacamente en el inciso 2.3.1.1.3 Tecnologías de la información y la comunicación en la educación superior." Nuestro estado actualmente cuenta con alrededor de 3 millones de habitantes de los cuales alrededor de 75,000 son estudiantes de educación superior de alguna de las 37 universidades públicas o privadas del estado. Al igual que a nivel federal, el satisfacer la demanda creciente de educación superior es una de las principales preocupaciones a nivel local y también buscan impulsar el uso de tecnologías para ampliar a cobertura. Sin embargo uno de los problemas medulares en cualquier

nivel es no solo aumentar la cobertura sino disminuir los índices de deserción, ya sea facilitando el acceso a la educación mediante una educación en línea, virtual o auto dirigida y se requiere multiplicar las alternativas en programas y modalidades educativas a disposición de los jóvenes interesados en cursar una carrera profesional. Es necesario buscar metodologías modernas que logren interesar al alumno a obtener competencias explotando sus capacidades para interactuar con la tecnología.

La Universidad Autónoma de Baja California en su Plan de Desarrollo Institucional 5 también comparte la necesidad de ampliar la cobertura en el punto 4 donde habla de que es necesario proporcionar a la comunidad una "Oferta educativa pertinente con calidad y equidad. Para la Universidad, es prioritario continuar con los esfuerzos tendientes a generar oportunidades de formación en condiciones de equidad. Esto requiere identificar tanto las áreas disciplinarias, como los ámbitos geográficos en los que se centrarán las tareas universitarias, con el propósito de ofrecer opciones de educación superior, en igualdad de condiciones, a la población de Baja California. Además, esta política también se orienta a ampliar y diversificar la oferta educativa, mediante modalidades educativas flexibles-presenciales, mixtas y no presenciales…"

Otro factor que incide en dar relevancia al uso de las nuevas tecnologías en la educación y refuerza la lógica de utilizar espacios virtuales es cuando se suscitan contingencias como las que han ocurrido debido al virus AH1-N1 o el terremoto del 4 de abril del 2010 de 7.2 grados en la escala de Richter que azotó a la región y paralizaron en gran medida las actividades en todos los ámbitos en la entidad. A causa del terremoto gran parte de los edificios de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California resultaron con severos daños estructurales por lo cual las clases no solo a este nivel sino en todos los niveles tardaron más de 4 o 5 semanas en reanudarse, por lo cual se implemento en muchas de las facultades de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California una capacitación masiva a los docentes para que todos impartiéramos nuestras materias en la plataforma Blackboard, con lo cual se salvo el semestre pero en muchos casos no se cumplió con el programa a su totalidad.

Es por lo anterior expuesto que se presenta esta propuesta educativa que involucra el uso de tecnologías de información, diseño de material didáctico y un enfoque basado en competencias donde el alumno sea capaz de auto-dirigir su aprendizaje, que trabaje en un ambiente colaborativo-virtual y donde sea evaluado no de una manera tradicional sino en base a sus competencias y habilidades adquiridas en este entorno educativo. Lo anterior no es nada fácil, requiere de inversión, capacitación sobre todo al docente y tiempo en especial para diseñar el material y las estrategias docentes que se han de aplicar a lo largo del curso, sin embargo una vez realizado esto se debe convertir en algo práctico tanto para el docente-facilitador como para el educando. Por lo tanto es importante hacernos nuevas interrogantes sobre la educación en el contexto actual como ¿Cuál es el significado actual de la educación para los jóvenes? ¿Cómo podemos aprovechar el know-how con que están dotadas las generaciones actuales que nacieron con las tecnologías de Información y Comunicación, para lograr en ellos un aprendizaje realmente significativo? O ¿Qué valor le dan las TIC a la educación actual mediante la eliminación de las barreras de espacio/ tiempo?

Estado del Arte

Cuando los desarrolladores Rikk Carey y Paul Strauss de Silicon Graphics inc. iniciaron un nuevo proyecto con el fin diseñar y construir una infraestructura para aplicaciones interactivas con gráficos tridimensionales a lo que llamaron Realidad Virtual, no imaginaron el alcance que podía tener su invención. Actualmente existen no solo la realidad virtual sino que se han conformado mundos virtuales o alternos donde es posible llevar una vida completamente diferente a la actual. Como ejemplo de ellos están los siguientes: World of Warcraft, lanzado en 2004 y con 8,5 millones de suscriptores. Estos números colocan a WoW en la primera posición de este ranking, en gran parte gracias a China, ya que el

país asiático contribuye con 4 millones de jugadores. Habbo Hotel, lanzado en 2000 y con 7,5 millones de usuarios activos. Este mundo virtual tiene su base en Finlandia y es muy popular entre los adolescentes. RuneScape, lanzado en 2001 y con 5 millones de usuarios activos. Esta comunidad está implementada en lenguaje Java y da la posibilidad de elegir entre una cuenta gratis y otra de pago. Club Penguin, lanzado en 2006 y con 4 millones de usuarios. Se trata de un MMO para niños cuyos juegos son similares a los de otras redes, como Habbo Hotel.

Webkinz, lanzado en 2005 y con 3,8 millones de usuarios activos. Webkinz también va dirigido a un público infantil y se caracteriza por su gran originalidad, que le ha permitido colocarse entre los cinco primeros. Gaia Online, lanzado en 2003 y con 2 millones de usuarios activos. No es del todo un MMO ni tampoco un sitio social, pero parece ser que están pensando enfocarlo finalmente como un sitio para jugar en red. Guild Wars, lanzado en 2005 y con 2 millones de usuarios activos. Se trata de otro MMO, aunque este no admite usuarios de Mac, cosa que sí hace RuneScape. Puzzle Pirates, lanzado en 2003 y con 1,5 millones de usuarios activos. Lo publica Ubisoft y lo ha desarrollado Indy king Three Rings; reúne a todos aquellos jugadores interesados en navegar los siete mares y ser el más temible de los piratas.

Lineage I/II, lanzado en 1998 y con 1 millón de suscriptores. Aunque en su día Lineage fue el más popular, los cambios que se han ido introduciendo y la aparición de otros mundos virtuales han hecho que haya ido cayendo.

Second Life, lanzado en 2003 y con 500.000 usuarios activos. Después de estar apareciendo constantemente en los medios desde su creación, Second Life ya no necesita ninguna presentación y seguramente su cifra de usuarios activos aumente como la espuma en los próximos meses.

El entorno virtual seleccionado para esta experiencia pedagógica es el de Second Life, ya que es relativamente sencillo de usar y es la plataforma que utilizan otros casos de éxito en el mundo, como la Universidad de Ohio, la Universidad de QueenLand, Harvard Law School UCLA, la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Perú, the loyalist College, entre otros. Sin embargo en el país no son muchas las universidades como la UNAM o la UIA han intentado hacerlo y en el estado seríamos pioneros en este movimiento.

Los mundos Virtuales ayudan a resolver muchos de los desafíos que encaran hoy en día las instituciones de educación. Actualmente existen muchas instituciones, colegios y universidades además de otras empresas que lo usan para capacitación, en todos los países que están incluyendo en su currícula elementos con componentes de aprendizaje virtuales o están llevando a cabo sus programas escolares por completo en estos ambientes inmersivos virtuales como Second Life. Este ambiente facilita el trabajo colaborativo tan necesario para que se dé el aprendizaje ya que los alumnos se sienten más libres de expresarse que cuando están frente al maestro y sus compañeros en una clase tradicional. Además el espacio de aprendizaje esta siempre disponible tanto para quienes geográficamente viven separados como para aquellos que se juntan regularmente en el mundo real.

Una experiencia de aprendizaje virtual puede aportar elementos de aprendizaje mas allá de las capacidades de la tecnología de videoconferencia o las herramientas web como Blackboard, ya que se pueden generar situaciones virtuales de entrenamiento donde los educandos mediante sus Avatar pueden tomar diferentes roles que difícilmente se darían en un salón de clases y que enriquecen el aprendizaje.

Dentro de este mundo virtual cada alumno deberá registrarse y confeccionar un Avatar, mismo que lo representara dentro del mundo virtual. Acudirá a un aula virtual donde habrá asientos, mesas de trabajo, computadoras, pantallas de proyección donde se expondrá el material didáctico, enlaces a internet, blog, etc. Se les asignarán tareas a desarrollar y llevaran a cabo foros y grupos de discusión sobre tópicos de la materia en donde ellos serán responsables de su avance, sin la presión del docente. Previamente, el facilitador deberá planear cada una de las sesiones y las actividades a desarrollar en el aula virtual. Sera necesario establecer canales de comunicación claros entre ambas partes ya que "La comunicación 6

consiste, básicamente, en la transmisión de un mensaje de una persona o grupo a otro, lo que requiere de la existencia de la voluntad de interacción entre ambas partes, es decir que se cree un proceso de influencia mutua y recíproca, mediante el intercambio de pensamientos, sentimientos y reacciones que se manifiestan a través del feed-back que se establece entre los comunicantes."

METODOLOGIA

Se aplicara un sondeo a los alumnos de la etapa terminal de la carrera de Licenciados en Informática sobre sus conocimientos sobre Second Life.con las siguientes preguntas: Sabes que es Second Life?

Lo has utilizado? (SI) (NO) Nota.-Si la respuesta es NO termina la encuesta Si la respuesta es SI enumera del 1 al 4 en orden de importancia cual es el uso que le has dado siendo el 1 el que ha sido más su uso.

```
()OCIO ()INVESTIGACION ()CAPACITACION ()OTRO
Aún está activo tu AVATAR?
```

Se llevará a cabo el desarrollo del material piloto para las materias de Tecnologías de Información que se imparte a los alumnos de Lic. En Contaduria, Administración, Informática y Negocios Internacionales, y para la materia Política y Legislación en Informática, misma que se imparte al séptimo semestre de la carrera de Licenciados en Informática, para llevar una de las sesiones en línea mediante esta modalidad, utilizando para ello un aula de capacitación pública en Second Life.

Se capacitara a los alumnos con las bases para interactuar en esta plataforma. Durante el semestre se llevara a cabo una investigación por parte de los docentes de este proyecto sobre los siguientes aspectos:

Como adquirir un terreno virtual

Como construir tanto el edificio como sus componentes a fin de poder crear un área de trabajo exclusiva de la facultad de Ciencias Administrativas

Como administrar dichas instalaciones virtuales

Evaluación del Semestre de la Materia de Tecnologías de Información que se imparte a los alumnos de Lic. En Contaduría, Administración, Informática y Negocios Internacionales, y como contraste a los alumnos de 7mo de la Carrera de Lic. En Informática en la materia Política y Legislación en Informática Informe Final del proyecto Second Life FCA.

CONCLUSIÓN

Educación e informática, educación y computación, TICs y Educación son binomios que actualmente se observan comunes y en muchos casos hasta indisolubles y alrededor de ellos se siguen hilvanando experiencias de aprendizaje y nuevos constructos teórico-práctico -metodológicos. Poco a poco ha sido posible comprender en toda su dimensión con mayor claridad el rol que actualmente pueden desempeñar las nuevas tecnologías de información en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje y también analizar las implicaciones sociales, culturales, económicas y políticas que involucra.

Lo anterior ha permitido potenciar recursos para promover nuevas experiencias educativas que permitan enriquecer la interacción y vincular el acontecer del aula con el mundo exterior, ampliar el acceso a los servicios educativos y asignar nuevos roles al docente y alumno buscando el aprendizaje significativo.

Ante este panorama, infinidad de organismos instituciones y proyectos se han empeñado en re expresar la forma en que el desarrollo tecnológico y la ciencia cognoscitiva pueden vincularse para afrontar un problema caracterizado como esencialmente pedagógico, proceso mediante el cual se han ido retroalimentando tanto la práctica educativa como el desarrollo de hardware, software y courseware más apropiados para educar.

La actitud que se adopte frente a las posibilidades que ofrece esta tecnología, será la que marque la diferencia. En el ámbito universitario encontraremos actitudes abiertas a la innovación llevando a cabo investigaciones pioneras o incorporando el aprendizaje sobre las posibilidades educativas que ofrecen los Mundos Virtuales, y posturas reacias que cuestionarán la aplicación de los mismos.

¿Podemos defender el modelo pedagógico de enseñanza online basado en la figura y el rol del tutor virtual, pero cuestionar las oportunidades para los diferentes tipos de aprendizaje (receptivo, descubrimiento, significativo) que ofrecen los Mundos Virtuales? Cabría preguntarnos cuál fue nuestra actitud ante los cambios que introdujeron en los modelos formativos presenciales las plataformas e-Learning, y las herramientas de comunicación de estas: chat y foros.

Podemos enfrentarnos a un problema de actitud y desconocimiento. Si todavía se confunden los Mundos Virtuales con la Realidad Virtual, o se desconocen algunos de los Mundos Virtuales disponibles, además de Second Life, o se piensa que es solo un videojuego, nos damos cuenta que aún hay mucho por hacer. Aún no sabemos si existirá una Internet 3D, en la que coexistirán diversos Mundos Virtuales, accesibles desde una misma herramienta de navegación, a través de una única identidad de avatar por usuario, ni se han establecido estándares para que un avatar funciones en diferentes mundos, quedan muchas cuestiones tanto técnicas como pedagógicas por resolver.

Solo resta preguntarnos: Hasta dónde llegará el HomoVidens? Solo el futuro nos lo dirá.

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AMBIGÜEDAD DE ROL EN INVESTIGADORES MEXICANOS

Deneb Elí Magaña Medina, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Edith Georgina Surdez Pérez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Carlos David Zetina Pérez, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco

RESUMEN

La ambigüedad de rol se conceptualiza como la falta de claridad en el trabajo que se está desempeñando. La finalidad del estudio es presentar resultados parciales de una investigación que tiene entre sus objetivos determinar el nivel de percepción de ambigüedad de rol que manifiestan los profesores investigadores de los cuerpos académicos (grupo de profesores investigadores que comparten líneas afines de investigación) de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco en México. El diseño del estudio en general es no experimental, transeccional descriptivo. Se seleccionó una muestra de 234 profesores investigadores empleando un muestreo aleatorio estratificado, en donde cada una de las Divisiones Académicas de la Institución fue un estrato. Los resultados dan cuenta de que el 23.5% de la población presenta un nivel alto de ambigüedad de rol y el 21.4% un nivel moderado, siendo las dimensiones más recurrentes la ambigüedad normativa y sobre procesos y tiempos.

JEL: I21; I23; M52

PALABRAS CLAVE: Ambigüedad de Rol, Investigadores, Cuerpos Académicos.

ABSTRACT

Role-ambiguity is conceptualized as the lack of clarity in the work that is being played. The purpose of the study is to present partial results of an investigation that has as one the objectives to determine the level of role-ambiguity perceived by professors from academic groups (researchers teachers who share similar lines of study) of the Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, México. The design of the study is in general non experimental, descriptive transectional. A sample of 234 researcher teachers was selected using a stratified random sampling, where each of the academic divisions of the institution was a stratum. The results show that 23.5% of the population has a high level of role-ambiguity and 21.4% a moderate level, the normative ambiguity, processes and times being the most recurring dimensions.

JEL: I21; I23; M52

KEYWORDS: Ambiguity role, researchers, academic groups

INTRODUCCIÓN

En la gran mayoría de los países, como consecuencia de la escasez de recursos económicos, se realizan procesos de evaluación en el ámbito de la educación. La productividad y su evaluación se convierte en el nuevo paradigma de la calidad académica (Soto, 1997). Entre los aspectos que se evalúan se encuentra el desempeño de los profesores investigadores a través de sistemas y programas y en base a los resultados se asignan incentivos económicos que complementen los salarios. Específicamente en México, a partir de la década de los años noventa se hacen importantes transformaciones en las políticas que rigen las condiciones de trabajo de los profesores investigadores, se modifican los criterios para la evaluación del desempeño y los componentes que integran sus ingresos. Es así que, con aplicación en todos los Estados de México, el rol del profesor investigador de las instituciones de educación superior se define a través de

indicadores de diversos sistemas de evaluación derivados de las políticas públicas que los rigen, tales como, el Programa de Mejoramiento al Profesorado (PROMEP) de la Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP, 2010), el Sistema Nacional de Investigadores (SNI) que opera el Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT, 2010) y los programas individuales de cada institución de educación superior para el Estímulo al Desempeño del Personal Docente (ESDEPED) (Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco [UJAT], 2011).

El PROMEP surge en 1996, y emana de la Secretaría de Educación Pública, organismo encargado de regir la política pública en materia de educación en México. Fue creado con el propósito de impulsar la superación sustancial en la formación, dedicación y desempeño de los grupos de investigación de las universidades, como un medio estratégico para elevar la calidad de la educación superior. Los tipos de apoyo consisten en: otorgar becas a profesores de tiempo completo, preferentemente, para realizar estudios en programas de posgrado de alta calidad, dotar de los implementos básicos para el trabajo académico a los profesores reconocidos con el perfil deseable en sus diferentes modalidades, apoyar el fortalecimiento de los grupos de investigación (SEP, 2010). Para obtener estos apoyos el profesor investigador debe reportar actividades y productos académicos que reflejen equilibrio en las funciones de docencia, investigación, tutorías y de gestión administrativa.

Con respecto al Sistema Nacional de Investigadores (SNI), fue creado por Acuerdo Presidencial publicado en el Diario Oficial de la Federación el 26 de julio de 1984, para reconocer la labor de las personas dedicadas a producir conocimiento científico y tecnología. El reconocimiento se otorga a través de la evaluación por pares y consiste en otorgar el nombramiento de investigador nacional. Esta distinción simboliza la calidad y prestigio de las contribuciones científicas. En paralelo al nombramiento se otorgan incentivos económicos a través de becas (CONACYT, 2010). Para estimular la labor de educación superior y fortalecer la enseñanza, el Programa de Estímulo al Desempeño del Personal Docente (ESDEPED), surge de la Unidad de Política y Control Presupuestario de la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público a través de la SEP, este programa tiene como objetivo fundamental valorar y estimular el desarrollo del personal académico para que realicen con calidad, dedicación y permanencia las actividades de docencia, investigación, tutorías y participación en cuerpos colegiados (UJAT, 2011). Los programas y sistemas citados, manejan indicadores, normatividad y requisitos heterogéneos que genera una diversidad de roles que debe cumplir el profesor investigador en México. Este panorama puede generar ciertos niveles de ambigüedad en los roles que desempeñan los profesores investigadores, es decir, dificultad para configurar con claridad su nuevo papel, por la diversidad de sistemas de evaluación que los rigen (De Arquer, Daza y Nogareda 1995; Magaña y Sánchez, 2008).

La importancia de los problemas de ambigüedad de rol radica en los efectos negativos que producen tales como la falta de productividad, agotamiento emocional e insatisfacción laboral entre otros (Meliá, Zarnoza, Sanz, Morte y González, 1987). A pesar de las implicaciones de la problemática, existe escasez de investigaciones empíricas que demuestren este fenómeno en el ámbito académico y se coincide con la afirmación de Boardman y Bozeman (2007) de que a pesar de que la teoría del conflicto y ambigüedad de rol tiene casi 50 años y parece pertinente a las complejidades de las carreras docentes y científicas, ha recibido sorprendentemente atención limitada en la investigación.

En este contexto la finalidad de este trabajo es presentar resultados parciales de una investigación que tiene como uno de sus objetivos determinar el nivel de percepción de ambigüedad de rol que manifiestan los profesores investigadores de los cuerpos académicos (grupos de profesores investigadores que comparten líneas afines de investigación) de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco y precisar las causas que los propician. El tipo y diseño del estudio es no experimental, descriptivo, transeccional, con enfoque mixto, cuantitativo a través de encuestas y cualitativo por medio de grupos de enfoque y entrevistas semiestructuradas. Los resultados de esta investigación permitirán aportar elementos, a través de una propuesta, para reducir los problemas de ambigüedad de rol identificados.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

En la década de los noventa se han llevado a cabo transformaciones en la coordinación de los sistemas nacionales de educación superior sustentadas en políticas públicas vinculadas con la evaluación y el manejo de financiamiento con controles de calidad y eficiencia que han dado pauta a nuevas formas de relación entre las universidades, el Estado y la sociedad. En este periodo el sistema de educación superior ha visto surgir instancias y procesos de evaluación y acreditación impensables en los años ochenta y que ahora ocupan gran parte de la vida cotidiana de las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES), dichas acciones de evaluación del desempeño docente y sus propósitos explícitos se encuentran identificados fundamentalmente con los programas de compensación salarial, y la evaluación docente es condición de acceso a estos programas (Rueda 2008).

El decremento de los salarios, "ha producido modificaciones de distinto orden en las condiciones de trabajo y de producción intelectual de los maestros, que varían según su nivel y condición contractual" (Fuentes, 1992, p.79, citado por Rivero y Cruz, 2008). Los profesores al tratar de acrecentar sus percepciones salariales, generalmente buscan otras plazas donde desempeñarse, aumentar la carga horaria o realizar otras actividades que los llevan a tener a una mayor carga de trabajo y por ende, menor tiempo para su recuperación física y mental. Si bien es cierto que los procesos de evaluación han generado efectos positivos para las IES, también se advierten distintos problemas reconocidos tanto por el gobierno federal como por la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES) y el sector académico (ANUIES, 2006; Rubio, 2006; Canales, 2008 citados por Rueda, Luna, García y Loredo 2010). Entre los problemas destacan la indefinición de los propósitos de las distintas acciones de evaluación, las dirigidas al apoyo, a las decisiones de mejora, a la rendición de cuentas a la sociedad y a la asignación de recursos adicionales. Así mismo se advierte una desarticulación e inclusive contradicciones entre los diversos criterios de evaluación aplicados. No obstante, con el propósito de apoyar al docente en su formación para realizar y dirigir trabajos de investigación científica necesarios para la generación y aplicación del conocimiento surge, en México, como una propuesta del Gobierno Federal la figura del Cuerpo Académico (CA).

Los Cuerpos Académicos

Los Cuerpos Académicos son grupos de Profesores de Tiempo Completo que comparten una o varias Líneas de Generación o Aplicación Innovadora del Conocimiento (LGAC) en temas disciplinares o multidisciplinares y un conjunto de objetivos y metas académicas. Se distinguen tres tipos de Cuerpos Académicos: Consolidados, En Consolidación y En Formación. En los CA Consolidados todos sus miembros cumplen con el perfil deseable, es decir, profesores que desempeñan en equilibrio las actividades de docencia, investigación, tutorías y gestión académica, dos o más de sus miembros son líderes académicos en sus disciplinas, de nivel nacional o internacional, y cuentan con la infraestructura básica necesaria para su trabajo. En los CA En Consolidación, la mayoría de sus miembros cumple con el perfil deseable y la tercera parte tiene el grado preferente, es decir, el doctorado y disponen con parte de la plataforma de infraestructura básica necesaria para su trabajo. Los CA En Formación tienen bien identificados a sus integrantes; por lo menos, uno de sus miembros tiene el perfil deseable con el grado preferente, o por lo menos la mitad tiene el perfil deseable con grado mínimo y están definidas las líneas que desean atender (Maldonado, Contreras, Alvarado y Maldonado, 2010).

La existencia de los cuerpos académicos se justifica en las características colegiadas del trabajo académico y en la necesaria vinculación de la generación y aplicación del conocimiento con el exterior de las instituciones de educación superior, por lo que es necesario que los profesores no deban funcionar como individuos aislados, ni tampoco como una masa indiferenciada sino en grupos de integrantes con conocimientos e intereses de investigación afines, lo que permita la reflexión y el actuar con eficacia y

rigor intelectual (Camargo, 2010). Ahora bien, estos cambios en la forma de realizar el trabajo, es decir de un trabajo individual a un trabajo colaborativo, aunado a los sistemas de estímulos con enfoques diferentes provocan problemas de rol, entre ellos la ambigüedad.

La Ambigüedad De Rol

Diversos estudios identifican seis factores que contribuyen a la ambigüedad de rol: equivocada descripción del trabajo, funciones contradictorias, metas vagas, desarrollo del personal ineficaz, falta de acuerdo entre el director y los administradores centrales y recursos inadecuados (Zepeda y Kruskamp, 2007).Podemos definir ambigüedad de rol como la falta de claridad sobre el trabajo que se está desempeñando, los objetivos de éste y el alcance de las responsabilidades. El empleado que presente ambigüedad de rol vive con la incertidumbre, no sabe qué se espera de él y si se produce una situación de incertidumbre que amenace los mecanismos de adaptación del individuo lo debilita (Soler, 2008; García, Cortés y Sánchez 2008).Cuando la ambigüedad de rol es alta, también sucede que el individuo se fijará libremente objetivos específicos difíciles que impresionen a los demás, especialmente a los mandos superiores, porque establecer metas difíciles de conseguir, indica la auto-eficacia y desempeño del empleado e implica la atención y cuidado de la organización (Yun y Takeuchi, 2007). Sin embargo, esta forma de trabajo podría envolver la conducta de la persona y obligarlo a redoblar esfuerzos para resolver problemas y de esta manera evitar las fuentes de tensión o usar mecanismos de defensa que tuercen la realidad de la situación (De Arquer, Daza y Nogareda, 1995).

El modelo más conocido para evaluar ambigüedad de rol es el de Rizo, House y Lirtzman (1970), que mide la claridad de los requisitos que sirven como guía para desempeño, es decir, la existencia de directrices y políticas para el trabajo que llevan al conocimiento de las atribuciones y competencias, objetivos, tareas y responsabilidades y contenido del trabajo, así como la forma de hacerlo y lo que se espera de quien realiza el trabajo.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

El diseño del estudio en general es no experimental, transeccional descriptivo (Hernández, Fernández, Baptista, 2006), ya que se pretende únicamente determinar la existencia de los niveles de ambigüedad en los roles de la población bajo estudio al momento de aplicar el cuestionario, con el objetivo de presentar un diagnóstico sobre la problemática.La población de estudio seleccionada, fueron los cuerpos académicos de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, que cuenta con 10 divisiones y 66 cuerpos académicos distribuidos en 9 de ellas. Los cuerpos académicos (CA) están compuestos por 462 profesores de los cuales 293 (63%) son hombres y 169 (37%) son mujeres.El muestreo empleado fue el Estratificado, tomando como estrato cada una de las divisiones académicas de acuerdo a la lista del PROMEP (SEP, 2008b). El número de muestra de cada estrato se determinó de forma proporcional (Scheaffer, Mendenhall, Oh, 1981), con un error de estimación del 5% y una confiabilidad el 95%. La selección de los profesores se realizó de manera sistemática con la finalidad de incluir en la muestra cuando menos un profesor de cada Cuerpo Académico. Es necesario precisar que aunque el muestreo se realizó de manera sistemática éste incluyó un 10% adicional a la muestra señalada, para garantizar la representatividad de la muestra por posible pérdida de datos (Tabla 1).

División Académica	No. De Integrantes	Muestra		Géne	ero		Datos p	erdidos
			Н	%	М	%	Ν	%
División Académica de Ciencias Agropecuarias (DACA)	55	28	16	57%	11	39%	1	4%
División Académica de Ciencias de la Salud (DACS)	56	28	7	25%	15	54%	6	21%
División Académica de Ciencias Económico Administrativas (DACEA)	38	19	9	47%	10	53%		0%
División Académica de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades (DACASyH)	36	18	8	44%	8	44%	2	11%
División Académica de Educación y Artes (DAEA)	53	27	7	26%	17	63%	3	11%
División Académica de Ingeniería y Arquitectura (DAIA)	53	27	16	59%	11	41%		0%
División Académica de Informática y Sistemas (DAIS)	61	31	15	48%	14	45%	2	6%
División Académica de Ciencias Biológicas (DACBiol)	53	27	13	48%	13	48%	1	4%
División Académica de Ciencias Básicas	57	29	18	62%	9	31%	2	7%
Total	462	234	109	47%	108	46%	17	7%

Tabla 3: Muestreo Estratificado de las Divisiones de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco por género

Sobre la población encuestada, se registró que el 28% son solteros y el 72 % son casados; el 42% posee el perfil del programa del Mejoramiento del Profesorado (PROMEP) de la Secretaría de Educación Pública; el 9% se encuentra en el Sistema Nacional de Investigadores (SNI) del Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT) y el 20% de los encuestados desempeña un cargo administrativo además de sus funciones académicas. Con respecto a la edad y la antigüedad, en la tabla 2 se presentan las frecuencias y porcentajes por rangos establecidos.

Rango de Edad	Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Rango de Antigüedad	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
30 a 40	61	26.1	1 a 10	53	22.6
41 a 50	86	36.8	11 a 20	83	35.5
51 a 60	67	28.6	21 a 30	84	35.9
61 a 72	15	6.4	31 a 45	10	4.3
Total	229	97.9	Total	230	98.3
Datos perdidos	5	2.1	Datos perdidos	4	1.7
Total Muestra	234	100.0	Total Muestra	234	100.0

Tabla 4: Rango de edad y antigüedad de la población bajo estudio.

Se aprecia que el mayor rango de edad se encuentra entre 41 a 50 años con el 36.8% y en cuanto a la antigüedad el mayor rango es de 21 a 30 años de labores en la institución. La media aritmética de la variable edad es de 47.38 con una desviación estándar de 8.55 con un valor mínimo de 30 y un máximo de 72. Con respecto a la antigüedad, la media aritmética fue de 17.64 y la desviación estándar de 8.36, con un valor mínimo de un año y un máximo de 45 años. Los valores registrados indican que, no es una población joven.Para fines de este estudio, se diseñó un cuestionario conformado por dos secciones. La primera parte incluyó variables socio demográficas y la segunda una traducción del cuestionario de Rizzo, House y Lirtzman (1970); sobre las preguntas que miden ambigüedad de rol.

En la primera parte del cuestionario se incluyeron las variables socio demográficas, dos con relación a la organización, que son: la antigüedad y la división académica; tres con respecto al individuo, que son: el género, la edad y el estado civil; y tres sobre acreditaciones y cargos, que son: acreditar el perfil PROMEP, pertenecer al Sistema Nacional de Investigadores y el desempeño de un cargo administrativo. La segunda parte incluyó las diez preguntas correspondientes a las 5 dimensiones que manejan Rizzo, House y Lirtzman (1970) para medir ambigüedad de rol. El cuestionario se estructuró en una escala tipo Líkert con cinco opciones de respuesta: totalmente en desacuerdo = 1, en desacuerdo = 2, ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo = 3, de acuerdo = 4, totalmente de acuerdo = 5.

RESULTADOS

Los puntajes obtenidos en la escala de ambigüedad de rol fueron analizados en primer término a través de la distribución de frecuencias, en esta se observa una distribución normal con un valor mínimo registrado de 10 y un valor máximo de 40, una curtosis de .215, una media de 21.01 y una desviación estándar de 4.97. Con la finalidad de establecer categorías de análisis se decidió identificar los cuartiles de la distribución y se derivan las categorías presentadas en la tabla 3.

Nivel de Ambigüedad	Percentil	Rango	%
Sin ambigüedad	25	Valores ≤ 18	31.2%
Bajo	50	19 - 21	23.9%
Moderado	75	22 - 24	21.4%
Alto	100	Valores ≥ 25	23.5%

Tabla 5: Niveles de Ambigüedad de Rol, rango de valores (escala 10-50)

Para establecer un criterio más preciso de la población que se puede considerar percibe ambigüedad entre los roles que debe desempeñar, se considerará únicamente la población registrada arriba del percentil 75 (23.5%). En consideración de la distribución y la escala de la prueba (10 - 50), el 23.5% de la población presenta un nivel alto de ambigüedad de rol, el 21.4% un nivel moderado por lo que poco menos del 50% de la población bajo estudio percibe cierta ambigüedad en los roles definidos para las dimensiones bajo estudio.Para analizar las dimensiones del cuestionario de ambigüedad de rol en relación a las variables socio demográficas se empleó el análisis de varianza ANOVA para la edad, la antigüedad y la división académica, y la prueba t para analizar el género, el estado civil, acreditación del perfil PROMEP, pertenencia al SNI y desempeño de algún cargo administrativo, ya que permite comparar las medias para dos grupos de casos como variables independientes (Mendenhall, 1990).

Las variables edad, género y el cuestionamiento sobre la pertenencia al Sistema Nacional de Investigadores, no registraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas. En cuanto a la antigüedad la tabla 4 presenta los resultados de un ANOVA para evaluar diferencias de medias poblacionales de la antigüedad laboral con relación a las dimensiones de la ambigüedad de rol.

Dimensión	Antigüedad	Ν	Media	Desviación típica	F	Sig.
Ambigüedad Auto	oridad y Responsabilida	des		•	1.099	.350
••	1 a 10	53	3.43	1.248		
	11 a 20	83	3.43	1.483		
	21 a 30	84	3.12	1.658		
	31 a 45	10	3.80	2.348		
Ambigüedad Norr	nativa	•			1.487	.219
	1 a 10	53	3.91	1.229		
	11 a 20	83	4.13	1.377		
	21 a 30	84	3.74	1.291		
	31 a 45	10	3.60	1.506		
Ambigüedad Cont	tribución				.979	.403
	1 a 10	53	4.09	1.079		
	11 a 20	83	4.39	1.146		
	21 a 30	84	4.12	1.186		
	31 a 45	10	4.20	1.476		
Ambigüedad Proc	esos y Tiempo				2.924	.035*
	1 a 10	53	4.60	1.714		
	11 a 20	83	4.49	1.959		
	21 a 30	84	3.90	1.428		
	31 a 45	10	5.00	1.826		
Ambigüedad en la	s Demandas	•			.715	.544
	1 a 10	53	5.43	1.623		
	11 a 20	83	5.34	1.959		
	21 a 30	84	5.01	1.904		
	31 a 45	10	5.10	1.449		

Tabla 6: Comparación de las medias poblacionales de cada dimensión del cuestionario de ambigüedad de rol por antigüedad

*<u>p≤.05</u>

Se observa una diferencia estadísticamente significativa para los rangos de antigüedad establecidos con respecto a la dimensión sobre procesos y tiempos siendo el rango entre 31 y 45 años de antigüedad el que reporta mayor ambigüedad de rol.Otra de las variables que registró diferencias fue el estado civil, específicamente para las dimensiones sobre ambigüedad normativa y ambigüedad en los procesos y el tiempo (Tabla5).

Tabla 7: Comparación de las medias poblacionales de cada dimensión del cuestionario de ambigüedad de rol por estado civil

Dimensión	Estado Civil	Ν	Media	Desviación típica	t	Sig. (bilateral)
Ambigüedad Autoridad y Responsabilidades				-	1.213	.226
	Soltero	66	3.52	1.581		
	Casado	167	3.25	1.459		
Ambigüedad Nor	mativa				3.464	.001*
	Soltero	66	4.36	1.399		
	Casado	167	3.72	1.232		
Ambigüedad procesos y tiempo				2.318	.021*	
	Soltero	66	4.50	1.350		
	Casado	167	4.11	1.055		
Ambigüedad Con	tribución				.564	.573
	Soltero	66	4.42	1.781		
	Casado	167	4.28	1.725		
Ambigüedad Den	andas				.621	.535
	Soltero	66	5.36	1.768		
	Casado	167	5.20	1.867		

**p*≤.05

Se observa que en ambas dimensiones los solteros registran valores más elevados de ambigüedad que los casados.Con respecto a la acreditación del perfil PROMEP, la diferencia se registra en la dimensión sobre ambigüedad en las demandas, que es mayor para los profesores que si acreditan el perfil (tabla 6).

Tabla 8: Comparación de las medias poblacionales de cada dimensión del cuestionario de ambigüedad de rol sobre la acreditación del perfil PROMEP

Dimensión	PROMEP	Ν	Media	Desviación típica	Т	Sig. (bilateral)
Ambigüedad Autor	idad y Responsabili	dades			-1.525	.129
	SI	99	3.15	1.181		
	NO	135	3.45	1.678		
Ambigüedad Norm	as				330	.742
	SI	99	3.87	1.226		
	NO	135	3.93	1.369		
Ambigüedad Contribución					.343	.732
	SI	99	4.25	1.110		
	NO	135	4.20	1.190		
Ambigüedad Proces	sos y el Tiempo				.108	.914
	SI	99	4.34	1.703		
	NO	135	4.32	1.769		
Ambigüedad Dema	ndas				2.304	.022*
	SI	99	5.56	1.965		
	NO	135	5.00	1.710		

*p≤.05

La tabla 7 presenta los resultados de la prueba t para los profesores que además desempeñan un cargo administrativo.

Tabla 9: Comparación de las medias poblacionales de cada dimensión del cuestionario de ambigüedad de rol sobre el desempeño de un cargo administrativo

Dimensión Ambigüedad Autor	Cargo Administrativo idad y Responsabilidades	Ν	Media	Desviación típica	t -1.040	Sig. (bilateral) .299
	SI	48	3.13	1.160	1.010	
	NO	186	3.38	1.566		
Ambigüedad en las	Normas				2.084	.038*
	SI	48	4.25	1.618		
	NO	186	3.81	1.205		
Ambigüedad Contribución					.607	.544
	SI	48	4.31	1.170		
	NO	186	4.20	1.152		
Ambigüedad Proces	sos y el Tiempo				.857	.392
	SI	48	4.52	1.845		
	NO	186	4.28	1.711		
Ambigüedad Demai	ndas				-1.348	.179
	SI	48	4.92	1.955		
	NO	186	5.32	1.804		

*<u>p≤.05</u>

Se observa que únicamente existe ambigüedad de rol en las normas para aquellos profesores que desempeñan un cargo administrativo además de sus funciones académicas.

CONCLUSIONES

Se puede concluir que el 23.5% de la población bajo estudio, maneja un alto nivel de ambigüedad en los diversos roles que desempeña, que en función a los resultados asociados a las demás variables, se asocia principalmente a la normatividad vigente. Se observa una diferencia estadísticamente significativa para los rangos de antigüedad establecidos con respecto a la dimensión sobre procesos y tiempos siendo el rango entre 31 y 45 años de antigüedad el que reporta mayor ambigüedad de rol. Al respecto se puede

comentar que los profesores con más antigüedad en la institución conocían perfectamente los esquemas normativos, el proceso y los tiempos establecidos para la realización de sus labores en los esquemas de los años 80 principios de los 90 del siglo pasado, sin embargo al configurarse un nuevo esquema de roles, aún no han logrado establecer con claridad la dinámica de operación de estos nuevos escenarios (Schulz y Auld, 2006).Un fenómeno observado en esta variable es la diferencia que se refleja para los niveles de ambigüedad con relación al estado civil, pues los solteros reportan niveles mayores de ambigüedad en relación a las normas, los procesos y el tiempo. Al respecto se requiere profundizar este hecho en futuras investigaciones pues no se tiene evidencia empírica de las causas que generan esta diferencia.

La ambigüedad en la demandas es mayor en los profesores que si acreditan el perfil PROMEP. Los criterios de evaluación sobre diversos aspectos que son evaluados en el PROMEP, no han sido los mismos para todas las áreas, a pesar de que son descritos con toda claridad y precisión en las normas de operación (SEP, 2010), los comités de evaluación aún no logran ser congruentes con algunos aspectos, pues mientras hay áreas en las que se es muy flexible, otras se apegan estrictamente a lo señalado en las normas de operación, dejando el criterio subjetivo de validación e interpretación con un margen muy estrecho de movimiento (Bajo y Martínez, 2006; Muñoz, 2008; Ramírez, Alonso y Mota, 2008).Por otra parte, aquellos profesores que además de sus labores como profesor universitario desempeña un cargo administrativo, paradójicamente reportaron mayor nivel de ambigüedad con las normas; hecho que se desprende de una normatividad difusa e incompleta para todas las funciones que desempeña este profesor al momento de ser evaluado, pues no siempre se compensa o se reflejan los niveles de responsabilidad que se asumen en estos cargos.Es necesario abundar más sobre las causas que están generando los altos niveles de ambigüedad, pues las consecuencias a la institución se han visto reflejadas en los indicadores de desempeño que se evalúan a nivel individual y de manera colectiva a la institución (Rosas, Magaña y Guzmán, 2008)

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BIOGRAFIA

Dra. Deneb Elí Magaña Medina es profesor investigador titular de tiempo completo de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Puede ser contactada en Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco – División Académica de Ciencias Económico Administrativas, en Av. Universidad S/N Col. Magisterial, Villahermosa, Centro, Tabasco, México. C.P. 86040. Correo Electrónico: deneb_72@yahoo.com

M.A. Edith Georgina Surdez Pérez es profesor investigador asociado de tiempo completo de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Puede ser contactada en Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco – División Académica de Ciencias Económico Administrativas, en Av. Universidad S/N Col. Magisterial, Villahermosa, Centro, Tabasco, México. C.P. 86040. Correo Electrónico: edith.2109@hotmail.com

Lic. Carlos David Zetina Pérez, estudiante de la Maestría en Administración de la Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Puede ser contactado en Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco – División Académica de Ciencias Económico Administrativas, en Av. Universidad S/N Col. Magisterial, Villahermosa, Centro, Tabasco, México. C.P. 86040. Correo Electrónico: carzeti@hotmail.com

RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL AL PAGO DE CONTRIBUCIONES

Alma Delia Inda, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Raúl González Núñez, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo de investigación tiene como objetivo: analizar el desarrollo empresarial y responsabilidad social en la forma y entero del tributo en el contribuyente formal, en el municipio de Mexicali del Estado de Baja California.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Dentro de la legislación fiscal se observa la obligación del pago del tributo, exceptuando en algunos momentos y dependiendo de la situación jurídica fiscal de los diferentes regímenes del impuesto, sin embargo no se debe omitir el pago que en algún momento se determine según el procedimiento que aplique para cada persona sujeta del impuesto.

En un sistema jurídico como el que rige a nuestro México, toma jurisdicción plena la Ley de Amparo que permite atacar aquellas imposiciones tributarias que quien las resienta no esté de acuerdo con la carga que esto conlleva, ya sea por no permitírsele aplicar determinado sector de la norma (equidad), o también por no restar de forma congruente con los elementos de integración en la obtención de la base (proporcionalidad) o por qué no respecto de los elementos básicos integrantes de la contribución (objeto y sujeto según ha determinado en su interpretación más moderna nuestra Honorable Suprema Corte de Justicia de la Nación); no obstante y en ocasiones ser inconstitucional la carga e imposición que esto genera en los casos concretos, hemos visto la evidente protección a la que ha llegado esta institución del Estado al fallar en sus diversas sentencias, situaciones que no sólo no resuelven las problemáticas constitucionales impositivas, sino que además sin así tener facultades, dicha Suprema Corte ha excedido ésta (su facultad) o ha sido temerosa al pronunciarse.

El presente trabajo de investigación tiene como objetivo: analizar el desarrollo empresarial y responsabilidad social en la forma y entero del tributo en el contribuyente formal, en el municipio de Mexicali del Estado de Baja California. De antemano conocemos que la cultura tributaria no se logra de un día para otro, para ello es necesario un proceso educativo que vava formando la conciencia del contribuyente y del Estado con respecto a la importancia y necesidad de que el mismo pueda tener impuestos acordes que le permitan cubrir las necesidades del colectivo por medio de su incorporación en el presupuesto nacional, estatal o municipal. Igualmente, hay un reconocimiento importante al hecho de asociar la cultura tributaria con el cumplimiento de sus deberes como ciudadano y con valores, creencias y aptitudes acerca de la tributación. Existe una percepción negativa y asociada a la antiética del uso de los recursos generados por los impuestos recaudados, aunado al hecho de no conocer el destino de los mismos. Esta situación se contrapone con la característica fundamental que debe tener una política fiscal por parte del Estado la cual debe estar revestida de la ética pública, y valores tales como: responsabilidad, solidaridad, transparencia, entre otros; todo ello nos lleva a revisar que tenemos nosotros como cultura fiscal al pago de contribuciones. Cabe destacar el rol desempeñado por los contadores o administradores de las empresas contribuyentes, así como de los medios de comunicación que son reconocidos como las fuentes mediante las cuales los dueños de establecimientos han obtenido información sobre los impuestos, lo cual indica la necesidad de fortalecer los programas de educación fiscal en los diferentes niveles de la población. Las principales recomendaciones se orientan hacia la educación, capacitación e investigación en relación a la ética y la cultura tributaria.

El destino del tributo tiene una aceptación muy vaga de parte de la sociedad, teniendo previo conocimiento de que en materia tributaria el entero debe de realizarse por la persona sujeta del impuesto a quien se le denomina sujeto pasivo y por consiguiente la contraparte se denomina sujeto activo, quien es el Estado, la persona jurídica que exige el tributo. Siendo el objeto el gravamen de alguna contribución, es decir, la materia impositiva de que se trate, y en espacio considero la época de pago, según fijen las disposiciones fiscales.

La opción legal en la materia impositiva, desde siempre, ha provocado controversia, debido a que frecuentemente nos vemos envueltos en el poder tributario del Estado, quien todavía nos considera súbditos en esta materia tributaria, derivado de este los contribuyentes, los asesores, incluso los deudores físcales (sujeto pasivo en éste caso de la relación tributaria) se dejan llevar por omisiones y la Ley nos destaca que se está ante la elusión o bien ante la evasión tributaria.

Hare hincapié, que con responsabilidad nos hablan algunos letrados mandatarios hacendarios del fraude a la Ley, no diré también de algunos representantes de organismos profesionales que aún recomiendan que la ley se cumple aunque vaya en contra de la legalidad, la más mínima legalidad.

Con frecuencia el tributarista no despierta hasta que es demasiado tarde. El engaño con el que desean manejar las situaciones tributarias, hace que el tributarista este en un estado apaciguo, de hamacamiento, estancado en sus horizontes pero sin ser el incondicional.

Es importante, que se conozca de manera cierta, pronta y oportuna, lo que significa aceptar las opciones Legales Tributarias, lo que también es conocido como la Economía de Opción en la Tributación, por lo que al aplicar las situaciones del comercio o la industria en la norma jurídica queda el eslabón perdido de la opción: La Economía de Opción.

Cuando el tributarista despierta a los conocimientos jurídicos y a la interpretación y aplicación de las Opciones Legales Fiscales, encuentra en ellas la realidad impositiva constitucional y doctrinal, ningún impuesto se establece para que las economías no crezcan, como el verdadero auxilio de las industrias y el crecimiento del empleo, y por ende de la economía nacional.

De ahí, se desprende, la importancia de que las Opciones Legales Fiscales sean aplicadas en las diversas operaciones que se realizan en nuestro país. La opción legal fiscal es la aplicación de la ley como lo marca la Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, lo contrario, simple y sencillamente es desconocer la legalidad que opera en nuestro país (Mora, 2008).

PROBLEMA DE INVESTIGACIÓN

Para las organizaciones la planificación tributaria es un conjunto de estrategias, guiadas por fases previamente establecidas, que les permite disminuir su presión fiscal mediante la aplicación de prácticas lícitas, a partir del uso de las exenciones, exoneraciones y "vacíos legales", sin entorpecer el habitual desarrollo de sus actividades. Adicionalmente, este instrumento administrativo persigue cambiar métodos de gerencia tradicionales, por enfoques innovadores, en congruencia con los vertiginosos cambios que se manifiestan en la sociedad del siglo XXI, impulsados por los sistemas de información.

Este tipo de planificación le permite a los sujetos pasivos cancelar la cantidad justa por concepto de impuestos, tasas o contribuciones, más no tiene como propósito evitar el cumplimiento de la obligación tributaria, al contrario se apoya en el principio de Justicia Tributaria, según el cual todos los ciudadanos deben contribuir con los gastos públicos a través del pago de los tributos, considerando siempre su capacidad contributiva atendiendo a principios constitucionales tributarios tales como el de legalidad, no confiscatoriedad, progresividad, generalidad entre otros.

Previendo además sanciones pecuniarias, cierres del establecimiento, penas privativas de libertad o cualquier otra sanción establecida en Código Fiscal de la Federación, que pueden mermar las actividades del negocio. Por consiguiente, esta herramienta se encuentra orientada al resguardo del patrimonio de la institución, permitiendo preservar sus actividades económicas.

Evidentemente, sobre los contadores públicos, licenciados en contaduría, profesionistas de la actuación jurídica fiscal contable y la alta gerencia recae la responsabilidad de que la planificación tributaria sea efectiva, acorde con la legalidad, transparente y comprometida respecto de funciones impositivas, con base en el mejoramiento de la sociedad a través del desarrollo empresarial y su crecimiento, por ello su conducta deberá estar sujeta en la práctica de valores afines a la honestidad, el respeto y compromiso hacia la profesión, el Estado y la comunidad. Es entonces, el sentido de responsabilidad social que debe imperar al momento de cumplir con el pago del tributo, la reflexión ética de dar observancia al "deber ser" para generar bienestar a la población, más aún, a los desposeídos quienes generalmente son los más beneficiados con la recaudación tributaria que realiza la nación.

La falta de cultura, de ética y de responsabilidad social al momento de enterar una contribución, que de antemano conozco que no es mía, sino que la simple generación de la misma implica un desembolso de mi economía, es por ende que existen un problema general en esta nación, los resultados de auditorías departe del Estado y la Federación han demostrado un rechazo total a contribuir al gasto público anqué sea ésta mi obligación. Por ello, las siguientes preguntas, como:¿Cómo desarrolla la implementación de política fiscal el SAT en el nuevo sistema de cobro de contribuciones al contribuyente?, ¿Es necesario un nuevo sistema a través del plan nacional de desarrollo para una fiscalización más minuciosa?, por mencionar algunas preguntas, para ello la presente investigación que nos ayudará a determinar, verificar, probar y comprobar si en realidad hay una falta de difusión, cultura, ética, apatía o rechazo total al plan de desarrollo a través del convenio establecido en Baja california en especial enfoque al municipio de Mexicali.

Puntos Relacionados

En la agenda política de los países latinoamericanos está presente la lucha contra la evasión tributaria y el contrabando, debido a su elevado impacto en la estabilidad económica, en las estrategias de desarrollo y en la gobernabilidad en general. De allí que en la mayoría de ellos se formulen estrategias de control o fiscalización tributaria, las cuales son fundamentales en dicha lucha, resulta claro que el esfuerzo por controlar el cumplimiento tributario y generar un riesgo creíble ante el incumplimiento no basta por sí solo para vencer las prácticas de evasión.

Es por ello, que no puede pretenderse solo el enfoque hacia lo económico financiero y legal, sino que es necesario ir mucho más allá y profundizar la relación que debe existir entre el Estado y el ciudadano, para ello es necesario desarrollar una cultura tributaria, que permita a los ciudadanos concebir las obligaciones tributarias como un deber sustantivo, acorde con los valores democráticos. Un mayor nivel de conciencia cívica respecto al cumplimiento tributario, junto a una percepción de riesgo efectivo por el incumplimiento, permitirá al país, a sus entidades federativas y por consiguiente a sus municipios de la región disminuir los elevados índices de evasión y contrabando existentes.

Teniendo claro tal como lo expresa Velarde (2006) que desarrollar dicha cultura no es, sin embargo, una tarea fácil, pues requiere la convergencia de políticas de control con políticas de carácter educativo. Para este autor, el objetivo debe estar orientado a la implementación de un conjunto de estrategias educativas por parte de las administraciones tributarias (nacionales, subnacionales e incluso locales) con la finalidad de desarrollar una cultura tributaria sólida, potenciando además sus acciones de fiscalización.

En este sentido, si la cultura es el conjunto de conocimientos, valoraciones y actitudes de un determinado grupo social, la cultura tributaria se refiere al conjunto de conocimientos, valoraciones y actitudes referidas a los tributos, así como al nivel de conciencia respecto de los deberes y derechos que derivan para los sujetos activos y pasivos de esa relación tributaria.

Lo anteriormente expuesto lleva a señalar igualmente que la existencia de una cultura tributaria, entre otros aspectos, facilita el cumplimiento de los deberes formales de los contribuyentes, por ello es necesario y conveniente su formación y desarrollo en el ámbito nacional y organizacional, lo cual constituye un factor de alto valor para lograr de manera voluntaria el aporte de los ciudadanos a los ingresos ordinarios por concepto de tributos.

De allí que el propósito de esta investigación es analizar la ética, la cultura tributaria, el desarrollo empresarial y la responsabilidad social en el contribuyente formal, mediante la identificación del nivel de conocimiento que tiene el contribuyente formal acerca de la ética y la cultura tributaria, así como conocer la opinión del contribuyente formal acerca del uso y manejo de ingresos provenientes de la aplicación de impuestos, además como promover la investigación en las instituciones de educación superior acerca de la ética y cultura tributaria como un aporte a la difusión de estos conceptos. Es importante mencionar y no dejar pasar por alto que la responsabilidad también estriba en aquellas personas del actuar jurídico fiscal contable, como despachos de contadores públicos que se respaldan a través de su respectivo código de ética.

Fundamentación Teórica

Según León (2006) la cultura es una riqueza, un capital social, que tiene su lógica. Si no se cultivó durante años, mejor aún durante siglos, no se puede ahora improvisar ni suponerla. Es un capital que hay que crearlo y lleva su tiempo. Pero se puede crear, sólo que hay que saber cómo hacerlo.

En primer lugar, los valores matriciales, y por lo tanto más importantes, en nuestra sociedad y cultura de conocimiento, son el conocimiento y la participación. Es, pues, sobre estos hay que crear y acumular la nueva cultura tributaria. No hay otro camino. Conocimiento aquí significa información total, transparencia, análisis riguroso, planteamiento de todos los escenarios posibles, valoración crítica de los mismos. Participación significa que los afectados, todos los ciudadanos, asuman parte en la definición del modelo de desarrollo humano como país, en la definición y elaboración de las políticas tributarias y en la decisión del sistema tributario que se necesita y conviene.

En tal sentido, la participación implica que, por municipios y regiones, todos tomemos parte tanto en la elaboración y aprobación del presupuesto nacional como en la determinación de los tributos a recolectar. Sobre estas prácticas culturales y sociales, antes de lo imaginado, contaremos con la cultura tributaria que ahora tanto echamos de menos. Pero nunca sin ellas.

A efecto de fortalecer la Cultura Tributaria, entendida ésta como el conjunto de valores, creencias y actitudes compartido por una sociedad respecto a la tributación y las leyes que la rigen, lo que conduce al cumplimiento permanente de los deberes fiscales, se requiere que la población obtenga conocimientos sobre el tema y comprenda la importancia de sus responsabilidades tributarias.

Esta comprensión se alimenta de información oportuna y de formación adecuada, las cuales deben conducir hacia la aceptación, derivada de la concienciación. Ésta es indispensable para lograr una recaudación firme y sostenible en el mediano y largo plazo, de manera que también sea posible cumplir los compromisos desde el punto de vista de planificación y recursos presupuestarios y fiscales

Los ejes centrales para la promoción de la Cultura Tributaria son la información, formación y concienciación, los cuales se articulan en torno a la razón como móvil deseable fundamental de la acción de tributar. En este orden de ideas, Méndez Morales y Aguilera (2005), señalan: si pagar impuestos es un

hecho individual de trascendencia social, entonces la cultura tributaria es la variable que engloba ambas dimensiones. A juicio de los autores mencionados, esa cultura no se decreta, no se despliega ni madura a instancias del poder estatal porque desde ese ámbito se concibe, entiende e identifica sólo con el pago de impuestos. De manera que la receta desde el Estado, luce así: cultura tributaria = pagar impuestos.

Por un lado, una cultura tributaria por su parte histórica, su propósito y carácter colectivo, es asunto singular y primordial de los ciudadanos, en particular de los contribuyentes; sólo ellos son los sujetos activos como sector o ente social y no los representantes del Estado ni tampoco un determinado gobernante o funcionario de turno. Por otro lado, una cultura tributaria se estudia, cualifica y cuantifica con parámetros y criterios precisamente socio-culturales y no por el lado de los aumentos, agregados o cálculos apegados a las cuentas y finanzas nacionales; ni tampoco a partir de las opiniones y noticias que manejan los funcionarios de las instituciones tributarias desde su parcial interés y curioso entender sobre esa cultura.

En segundo lugar, una cultura tributaria interesa, compromete y activa a la sociedad civil, a sus formas sociales de organización y asociación local (que no al Estado, ni a sus órganos burocráticos de poder, tales como gobierno, organismos tributarios, representantes, etc.).

Y en tercer lugar, estimar que la noción de cultura tributaria iría acompañada de otros conceptos y categorías de análisis conexos a la vida social, política y cultural de la sociedad mexicana; entre unas u otras escogencias teórico-conceptuales cabe destacar, por ejemplo, ciudadanía, deberes y derechos, servicios públicos, justicia social, símbolos y valores culturales, vida pública y vida ciudadana, legalidad y legitimidad, prácticas y representaciones sociales.

En el mismo orden de ideas, para Mendoza (2002) la cultura tributaria representa una parte de la cultura nacional, va a tener un contenido individual, al consistir en la creencia íntima que tiene cada persona miembro de una agrupación social que el impuesto constituye una aportación justa e imprescindible y de provecho al ser utilizado para satisfacer las necesidades de la colectividad de la cual forman parte. De la misma manera, Carrero (2007) expresa que la cultura tributaria es la forma en que los individuos de una sociedad construyen una imagen de los impuestos a partir de una combinación de información y experiencia sobre la acción y desempeño del Estado. Continua la autora indicando que no es solo el conocimiento de los ciudadanos sobre sus responsabilidades contributivas y su acción correspondiente, es una ecuación donde sus variables son la carga tributaria, el compromiso del contribuyente y la acción del Estado.

OBJETIVOS DE INVESTIGACIÓN

El objetivo primordial en este proyecto de investigación de corte cualitativo, cuantitativo, descriptivo y exploratorio es:

a) Analizar el desarrollo empresarial y responsabilidad social en la forma y entero del tributo en el contribuyente formal, además proponer e implementar la forma de concienciación hacia los sujetos pasivos en la entrega de sus contribuciones.

b) Demostrar y fortalecer la necesidad de programas de educación fiscal en los diferentes niveles de la población.

c) Investigar y calcular en la región de estudio (Municipio de Mexicali, B.C., México) las necesidades imperantes de educación capacitación e implementación de la cultura tributaria.

d) Demostrar con recopilación y análisis de información las improcedencias legales que no establecen opciones sino, más bien, mandatos irrevocables.

e) En su caso, demostrar la congruencia con los principios constitucionales que deben de cumplir cada una de las normas expresas dentro de una Ley de fiscalización.

f) Indagar e interpretar de la manera más clara y convincente posible sobre cuestionamientos como: ¿Cómo desarrolla la implementación de la política fiscal el SAT en el nuevo sistema de cobro de contribuciones al contribuyente?, por mencionar alguna de las interrogantes.

g) Realizar, operar y formar objetivos orientados a la implementación de estrategias educativas por parte de los administradores tributarios.

h) Desarrollar una cultura tributaria sólida, potenciando sus acciones de fiscalización.

i) Analizar la ética y la cultura tributaria en el sector empresarial que conlleva la responsabilidad social en un contribuyente formal.

j) Promover la investigación en las instituciones de educación superior acerca de la ética y cultura tributaria como aporte a la difusión de estos conceptos.

k) revisar y aportar al actuar de los colegios de contadores públicos los valores que deben de seguir al realizar una asesoría jurídica contable fiscal.

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EL DESAFÍO DE LAS COMPETENCIAS GERENCIALES Y LA COMPETITIVIDAD DE LOS NEGOCIOS INTERNACIONALES EN EL INSTITUTO DE ESTUDIOS UNIVERSITARIOS, (IEU) PUEBLA (MX)

Elías Sosa Sánchez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México. Adriana Soto Aguilar, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, Mexico

RESUMEN

La globalización cada vez para México, se vuelve más exigente y me parece que es muy sano formar parte de un escenario donde todo lo que ha de realizarse sea a través de una actitud, no tan solo más competitiva, sino con el mejoramiento continúo de los bienes y/o servicios que las instituciones desarrollan en un cheque al portador a favor del bienestar de los clientes, esto es, lo que nos demanda el proceso global, de ahí la importancia de abordar un tema que tenga que ver con la formación de recursos humanos con perfil altamente calificado y con un enfoque no tan solo competitivo, sino en un contexto global, que donde se desenvuelve genere un valor agregado, este es el análisis que se realizo en este estudio, analizar el dominio de las competencias gerenciales en los alumnos de posgrado del Instituto de Estudios Universitarios.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Competitividad, Competencias Gerenciales, Comunicación, Acción Estratégica, Planeación y Administración, Trabajo en Equipo, Globalización y Manejo de Personal.

ABSTRACT

Globalization increasingly for Mexico, becomes more demanding and I think that it is very healthy to form part of a scenario where everything that has to be done is through an attitude, not only more competitive, but with the improvement continued the goods and/or services that institutions are developing in a cheque to the bearer in please of the welfare of the customers, that is, what demand us the overall process, hence the importance of addressing an issue that has to do with the training of human resources with highly qualified profile and a competitive not only approach, but in a global context, that where it unfolds will generate an added value, this is the analysis that took place in this study, analyze the domain of management skills in the University students of graduate of the Institute.

KEY WORDS: Competitiveness, managerial skills, communication, strategic action, planning and administration, working in team, personnel management and globalization.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Este estudio identifica que las capacidades humanas son importantes, para el desenvolvimiento personal y profesional, sobre todo cuando forma parte de una organización o pretenden conformar una organización empresarial y por otro lado, ahora en este escenario global, surge la necesidad de ser ampliamente competitivo y sobre todo si se pretende ser muy versátil en el manejo de habilidades y capacidades que determinan la posición estratégica de la organización para darle un enfoque internacional y en la arena competitiva.

En este análisis que se desarrolla más adelante, se combinaran no tan solo las competencias gerenciales, que nos permitan determinar si existen o no desarrollo de las mismas para entrar a la competencia y por el

otro lado, saber si se está consciente que al proceso se le debe de dar la importancia requerida para estar en el escenario internacional.

Uno de los objetivos generales de esta investigación va apuntado a identificar si en el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios los alumnos de posgrado tienen las capacidades gerenciales que les permitan ser más competitivos a nivel regional, nacional o internacional, así como al interior de su organización.

Por el otro lado, otro objetivo para nuestro estudio es también importante; identificar si tienen las capacidades gerenciales que se encuentra en una puntuación de 75 y 89, entonces, están por encima del promedio de esta competencia y es sobresaliente. Es decir, podemos pensar que la persona es competitiva y puede llevar a mejores escenarios de competencia a su organización no tan solo, sino para que alcance sus objetivos, sino también para que se vincule en el escenario internacional.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Antes de proceder al análisis conceptual del término competitividad, según Lombana y Rozas (2008), es preciso determinar el nivel de análisis, es decir el espacio analítico en el cual se ubican los agentes económicos de acuerdo a su nivel de agregación, macro y micro, sobre el cual se va a enmarcar el estudio.

En el nivel macroeconómico, se pueden agrupar básicamente en tres enfoques las definiciones conceptuales propuestas por disímiles autores. El primer enfoque relaciona la competitividad con los resultados que registra una economía en su comercio exterior, en este sentido (Chesnais, 1981) refiere la competitividad como la capacidad de un país (o grupo de países) de enfrentar (to meet) la competencia a nivel mundial. Incluye tanto la capacidad de un país de exportar y vender en los mercados externos como su capacidad de defender su propio mercado doméstico respecto a una excesiva penetración de importaciones.

La definición expuesta anteriormente converge en asociar la competitividad al resultado generado a partir del comercio exterior, medidos cuantitativamente a través de su rendimiento comercial, balanza de pagos, comportamientos de la tasa de cambio, etc. Por otra parte Krugman (1994) impugna las definiciones de competitividad que suponen que el éxito en los mercados mundiales es el único elemento que determina el desempeño económico nacional, evidenciando además una interpretación errónea de la teoría del comercio internacional en que implícitamente incurrían al afirmar que las naciones estaban trabadas en un juego económico de suma nula, puesto que la ganancia de un país en participación de mercado se da necesariamente a expensas de otros países y el énfasis excesivo sobre la balanza comercial como único indicador del desempeño económico de una nación.

En el segundo enfoque se encuentran los conceptos que relacionan la competitividad con la contribución del comercio exterior al crecimiento y bienestar general, según (Zysman y Tyson, 1983; Scott, 1985; Cohen y Zysman, 1987; Porter, 1987; Jones y Teece, 1988; Comisión Industrial de los Estados Unidos, 1992; Tyson, 1992; Foro Económico Mundial, 1996; Coriat, 1997; Informe Europeo sobre Competitividad, Comisión Europea, 2000; Anuario de Competitividad Mundial, 2003) la competitividad se considera como la capacidad de producir, distribuir y proveer el servicio de los bienes en la economía internacional en competencia con los bienes y servicios producidos en otros países y hacerlo de una forma que aumente el nivel de vida.

Planteamiento Del Problema

Indudablemente, una vez que México se integró al proceso global, busco referentes de mejoramiento y competitividad económica para los sectores productivos, debido a que estos se encontraban muy empobrecidos y desarticulados por las crisis económicas recurrentes, de las cuales sus efectos siguen latentes, y aún, no hemos podido despegar como una economía competente, el incorporarse con muchas

desventajas a nivel mundial, derivó en el que muchas organizaciones desaparecieran del mercado, ya que el *laissez faire (dejar hacer ó el dejar pasar)*, establece determinadas eficiencias, lo cual, el que no es competitivo simplemente desaparece del escenario, y no tan solo busca eficientizar al sector productivo privado empresarial, sino también acude a buscar más eficiencias en el sector público, minimizando la participación del Estado.

Sin embargo, México buscando un referente de competitividad se integra a la OCDE, Ahora interpretando los indicadores que arroja la OCDE, en primer lugar descendimos ocho lugares, y nuestra puntuación bajo a 4.2, con respecto a 2007 y 2008. Teniendo en cuenta lo correspondiente a los doce pilares, el primero corresponde a las instituciones, transitamos en el rango 97, lo cual es muy desfavorable, a nivel de eficiencia, existe una fuerte ineficiencia burocrática, en lo correspondiente a la infraestructura, aún todavía queda mucho por hacer en este renglón, nos encontramos en el 3.5 de 7, en lo referente a la estabilidad macroeconómica, existen elementos que son claroscuros, como los índices de productividad a la baja, la inflación al alza y el descenso del PIB, finalmente la salud y la educación primaria, la primera convivimos con una pandemia llamada influenza, en la que dejo entrever las fallas del sistema de salud nacional que tiene este país, la educación primaria en el que si bien es cierto, andamos por encima del promedio (5.6) del rango, no garantiza una calidad, va que a todas "luces" refleja una deficiencia en conocimientos significativos y no fomenta la investigación e innovación. Si este es, el rubro de lo básico, y no lo alcanzamos favorablemente, los demás pilares, establecerán un "dejo" de que las cosas se pudieron haber hecho mejor. En lo correspondiente a la eficiencia tenemos lo que corresponde a la educación superior, la eficiencia del mercado y lo laboral, México es un claro ejemplo de ineficiencias, debido a la falta de estrategias que disminuyan estos rubros, ya que existe todavía un alto índice de deserción educativa por falta de recursos económicos, por otro lado, todavía existe un alto rezago de eficiencia terminal en educación superior y finalmente el mercado laboral existe una sobreoferta de mano de obra calificada provocando que el salario mínimo se mantenga bajo. Ahora en los otros tres restantes pilares como el mercado financiero, disposición de tecnología y tamaño del mercado, en estos rubros los negocios se ven favorecidos, porque algunos negocios tienen acciones en el mercado bursátil, se dedican a especular, en lo referente a la tecnología solo se utiliza la necesaria y el tamaño del mercado, lo tienen perfectamente delimitado y les es favorable. Finalmente, la innovación y sofisticación de negocios (3.6), este es el único renglón en el que se ven favorecidos los negocios y pueden desarrollarse, para incrementar su capital sin tanto personal. La innovación de acuerdo al puntaje no es una prioridad de los negocios, debido a que los mercados donde se dirigen sus productos no son tan sofisticados.

Ahora bien, una vez que hemos identificado el problema procederemos a evaluar y analizar si realmente los niveles de estudio de posgrado que ofrece el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios en sus programas de materias académicas en Administración e Ingeniería Administrativa, favorecen los procesos de formación profesional con perfil altamente competitivo y que a los alumnos les permitan alcanzar altos niveles de desarrollo ejecutivo para los negocios con un enfoque internacional con perfil global, y por el otro lado, si al alcanzar los niveles promedios de las competencias será un fundamento válido que les permita integrarse a los procesos productivos desde un punto de vista más competitivo, al igual que si ya se desarrollan en su institución u organización empresarial, elevará sus niveles de eficiencia profesional. *Hipotesis De Trabajo* Los alumnos participantes en los posgrados de Administración e Ingeniería Administrativa mejorarán sus niveles de competitividad profesional con un enfoque global en los Negocios Internacionales en sus áreas de influencia, donde se encuentran cursando dicho posgrado y además mejoraran los niveles de eficiencia profesional en los ámbitos público, privado o social donde se

desarrollen comprendido en los periodos del año 2008 al 2010.

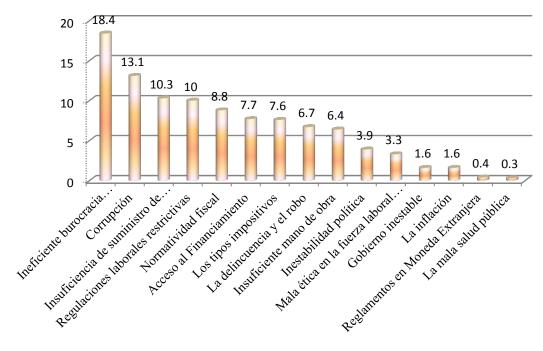


Figura 1: Factores más Problemáticos para hacer Negocios

FUENTE: FORO ECONÓMICO MUNDIAL, OCDE 2009

METODOLOGÍA

Es una muestra no probabilística, ya que depende en mucho de la asignación de grupos conformados para realizar dicho proceso de posgrado terminal llamado "curso de profundización", en donde el objetivo es debatir y diferenciar el control del desempeño efectivo, entendiendo a la mejora continua como una herramienta que requieren las organizaciones ante una resolución sistemática de problemas, de ahí se desprende la aplicación de cuestionarios basados en este autor con 95 preguntas reflejadas en las competencias gerenciales (Hellriegel; 2005) y otro cuestionario en 60 preguntas (Rodríguez Cobeller; 2004), partiendo que esta representación refleja en mucho las variables que se desean conocer en sus particularidades cualitativas y no tanto cuantitativas, es decir, no tan solo las herramientas de competencias gerenciales, sino algo que tiene que ver con las destrezas situacionales en donde se hace relevante la inteligencia emocional, en este caso tenemos la muestra dirigida y las conclusiones pueden generalizarse a la población. Si esto se hace se debe de realizar con mucha cautela. (Sampieri; 2000) con una muestra de 125 entrevistas realizadas en los periodos comprendidos del 2008 al 2010, en cuatro entidades federativas, Guerrero, Guanajuato, Veracruz y Oaxaca, por participación de sector productivo en el público y en el privado al igual que evaluarlo por género. Utilizando la escala de Likert, dándole una puntuación de:

Tabla1- Muestra

Poca	Gralmente	Está en el	Por Encima	Sobresaliente
Experiencia	Débil	Prom.	del Prom.	
20 - 39	40 - 59	60 - 74	75 - 89	90 - 100

RESULTADOS- EVALUACIÓN DE COMPETENCIAS GERENCIALES EN EL INSTITUTO DE ESTUDIOS UNIVERSITARIOS.

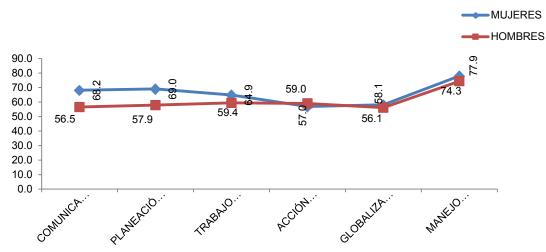
Ahora para tener una mejor comprensión de los resultados obtenidos en este trabajo lo hemos resumido en cuatro grandes ejes que darán una mejor explicación del fenómeno investigado siendo; por género, por participación en el sector público y privado, así como por Entidad Federativa y finalmente por año de acuerdo al levantamiento de información.

Tabla 2: Resultados

Géner	0	Se	ctor	Entidad		Año	
				VERACRUZ	58		
				OAXACA	31	AÑO 2008	37
MUJERES	66	SPB	101	GUERRERO	12	AÑO 2009	58
HOMBRES	59	SPP	24	GUANAJUATO	24	AÑO 2010	30
ENTREVISTAS	125		125		125		125

FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

Figura 2: Competencias Gerenciales por Género en el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios de 2008 - 2010



FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

Se observa en este cuadro la participación por género que el sexo femenino desarrolla mejor sus competencias gerenciales en las organizaciones, a excepción que reflejan dos competencias ambos géneros en los cuáles no son competitivos, es decir, son generalmente débiles, y que vienen siendo la Acción Estratégica y por el otro lado el proceso de asimilar la Globalización.

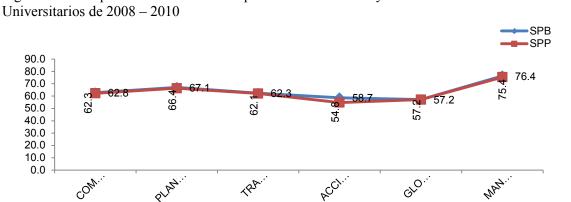


Figura 3: Competencias Gerenciales por Sector Público y Privado en el Instituto de Estudios

FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

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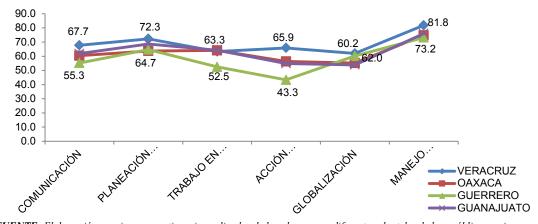
PLAN.

En lo correspondiente al cuadro siguiente nos encontramos la participación por sector y observamos que la aplicación de las competencias gerenciales realmente es muy similar, e inclusive existe una leve mejoría en una competencia gerencial en donde el sector público se encuentra por encima del sector privado y es Acción Estratégica, pero que a pesar de esta breve mejora los niveles en términos de competitividad siguen siendo muy débiles de acuerdo a la escala de Likert, o que se encuentra en el promedio, lo cual no lo hace relevante.

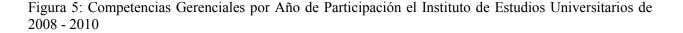
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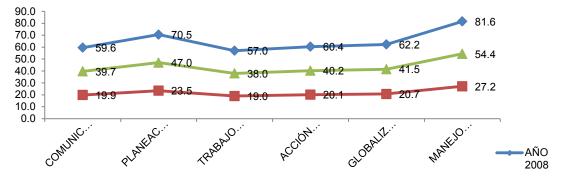
Ahora en lo referente a este cuadro tenemos que la participación por entidad federativa nos lleva al análisis de que el estado de Veracruz es el que mejor presento el manejo de competencias gerenciales, hay que reconocer que existe una gran preocupación de este personal que ocupa mandos medios sobre todo en la gran paraestatal mexicana llamada Pemex, que es donde gran parte de ellos pertenece, y esto lo llevamos simultáneamente a Guanajuato, que gran parte de los entrevistados se desarrollan como mandos medios en la refinería A mor de Salamanca, no siendo tan favorable para Oaxaca y Guerrero en el que la participación de los recursos humanos se encuentran más enfocadas a dependencias gubernamentales que a empresas paraestatales.

Figura 4: Competencias Gerenciales por Entidad Federativa en el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios de 2008 - 2010



FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

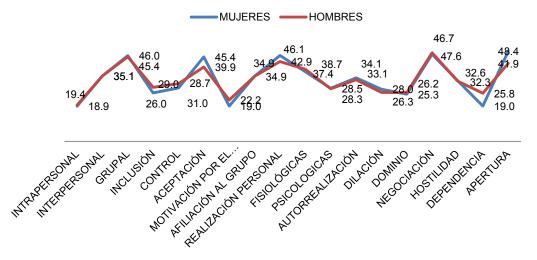




FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

En lo referente a este resumen observamos que el año 2008, fue donde se presentó un mejor manejo de las competencias gerenciales del personal estudiantil, posterior a ese año el grupo de personas que se entrevistaron reflejaron un vacío muy grandes de adolecer de manejar esta herramientas, fue tan bajo, que de acuerdo a la escala de Likert es que no tienen experiencia, y finalmente el año 2010, en donde se habla de que realmente son débiles en estas herramientas gerenciales en su aplicación.

Figura 6: Participación del Género en las Destrezas Situacionales en el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios

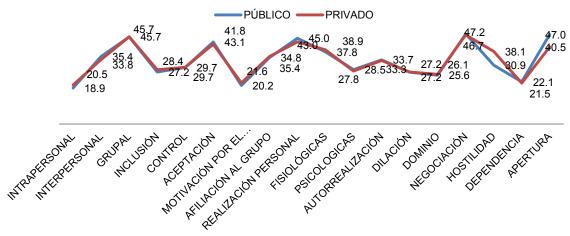


FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

En la explicación de este cuadro tenemos algunos indicadores que están construidos y que son la comunicación y la socialización, que comprende los primeros seis conceptos, y nos percatamos que el comportamiento entre hombres y mujeres en la organización la comunicación grupal es la predominante, pero en los procesos de socialización encontramos que existe la aceptación pero no la inclusión que corresponde a la integración de tareas y actividades en común. Por otro lado con respecto al los siguientes seis conceptos tenemos que la motivación del dirigente con respecto al poder , no es tan elemental, ya que

la mayoría sabe que la motivación por el poder no se da a través del trabajo, sino de relaciones humanas y sociales o políticas y con respecto a las necesidades del equipo se prioritariamente por las fisiológicas y por otra parte a la autorrealización y la afiliación se da como consecuencia de participar en una organización, por los beneficios sociales que esto trae. En cuanto al manejo de conflictos y comportamientos de los conflictos, es decir, los restantes seis conceptos tenemos que ambos géneros buscan la negociación en la mayor parte de sus asuntos laborales y practican un poco la dilación, y en lo referente a la hostilidad, en lo referente al final los hombres suelen ser más hostiles, más dependientes y menos a la apertura de ideas y prácticas profesionales.

Figura 7: Participación del Sector Público y Privado en las Destrezas Situacionales en el Instituto de Estudios Universitarios



FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

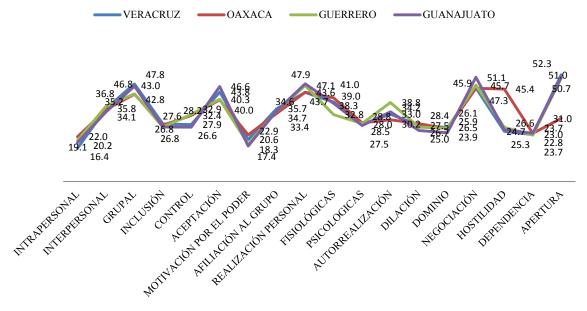
En lo correspondiente a este cuadro tenemos algo similar al cuadro anterior en donde las destrezas son similares, es decir, existe alta comunicación grupal, al igual que el proceso de socialización alta aceptación pero poca inclusión, baja motivación por el poder y un gran interés por la realización personal, en cuanto a las necesidades del equipo apunta a la autorrealización y fisiológicas, en lo referente al comportamiento ante el conflicto tenemos que priorizan negociar y establecer un poco de dilación y finalmente al final en lo referente a los comportamientos frente a los conflictos sucede que se da más la hostilidad en el sector privado que en el sector público, la dependencia es casi similar y en cuanto al sentido de apertura existe una mínima mayor apertura en el sector público frente al sector privado.

Este último cuadro nos resume el proceso por entidad federativa, en donde nos hace reflexionar cada una de las destrezas situacionales que se da en cada una de ellas, en lo que corresponde a la comunicación se da algo similar a los demás lo favorable es la grupal, se da mucha la aceptación pero no la inclusión y se aplica el control al menos eso refleja Oaxaca, en el siguiente indicador, la gran mayoría apunta a la realización personal, y en las necesidades del equipo también se ve reflejado la satisfacción de la necesidades fisiológicas al igual que las de autorrealización y finalmente atienden a negociar ante los conflictos, pero en Oaxaca se refleja una alta hostilidad ante el comportamiento de los conflictos y una menor apertura como consecuencia a diferencia de las otras tres entidades en donde disminuyen la hostilidad y tienen un mayor sentido de apertura.

Y que nos lleva a pensar que los alumnos refutan nuestra hipótesis de trabajo, en lo correspondiente a que difícilmente algún grupo en particular de algunos de estos planteles podrá satisfacer sus necesidades competitivas, no tan solo personal sino también profesional, y mucho menos los podrá vincular o

insertarse como personal calificado para las empresas o dependencias del gobierno con altos niveles de competitividad mundial.

Figura 8: Participación de las Entidades Federativas en las Destrezas Situacionales en el Instituto de Estudios Universitario



FUENTE: Elaboración propia con cuestionarios aplicados de los alumnos en diferentes planteles de la república mexicana

CONCLUSIONES

Proponer alternativas que nos lleva a replantear los valores, la misión y la visión institucional que le permita a la institución educativa mejorar sus planes académicos, a elevar el nivel de calidad docente la cual deberá estar participando en programas de CONACYT, desarrollando proceso de divulgación científica y publicaciones permanentes que les permitan estarse actualizando al igual que incorporar diplomados, seminarios, coloquios e intercambios culturales no tan solo institucionales sino también internacionales que enriquezcan la planta docente para hacerla más competitiva y permita elevar el nivel académico de los alumnos con una visión más global no tan solo en los negocios locales, regionales e internacionales sino también desde el puntos de vista de profesional.

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ABSTRACT

En este estudio cuantitativo no experimental transeccional tipo correlacional – causal. Se analizan cambios ocurridos en las variables independientes (Capacitación, financiamiento, nueva tecnologíamantenimiento, calidad de materiales) en relación con la variable dependiente (productividad) Las empresas investigadas fueron empresas de ciudad Juárez del ramo de maquinados, con la finalidad de auxiliar a las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas empresas a efecto de que incrementen sus niveles de productividad. Para ello se analizaron los factores que intervienen en la productividad, detectando los de mayor impacto, para que las empresas de maquinados se encuentren en posibilidad de convertirse en empresa más competitivas y con mayores posibilidades de éxito. Para esta investigación se tomo una muestra probabilística de 36 empresas las cuales se eligieron de manera aleatoria por medio del uso de los números Random. Para la recolección de los datos se empleo un cuestionario el cual constó de 5 categorías en función del número de variables analizadas. Para el análisis de los datos se empleo el Método de Correlación de Pearson (Correlación Lineal) cuyo objetivo primordial es medir la intensidad de la relación existente entre dos variables, empleándose el Software minitab.Las matrices de datos fueron relacionadas siguiendo los lineamientos establecidos en el sistema Mahalanobis – Taguchi (MTS).

PALABRAS CLAVE: Incremento de Productividad

INTRODUCCIÓN

En nuestro país existe mucho desempleo por lo que es de primordial importancia el analizar el desenvolvimiento económico de las MIPYMES considerando el entorno competitivo en el que se encuentran inmersas, debido principalmente, al movimiento global de los mercados internacionales, Ya que son las principales generadoras de empleo y constituyen la base de la economía. El sector de maquinados se caracteriza por estar conformado principalmente por micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, y debido a la globalización y los cambios que en consecuencia ha experimentado la economía nacional, las MIPYMES se enfrentan a situaciones de cambios drásticos en su entorno.

De acuerdo con la (CEPAL) los motores de crecimiento en América se han apagado y México registrara en el 2009 el crecimiento mas bajo de la región con una expansión económica de solo 0.5% agregando que por esta situación critica se generara un incremento en el desempleo. Los organismos gubernamentales mencionan generalmente que el crecimiento de la economía de un país está basado en el crecimiento de la productividad de las MIPYMES. Frente a este escenario, es que nace el interés por llevar a cabo esta investigación para contribuir a impulsar el desarrollo de las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas en México, dentro del sector de maquinados, ya que son estas empresas la bases fundamentales para el buen desarrollo y funcionamiento de la industria manufacturera en la ciudad.

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REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

La Micro, Pequeña Y Mediana Empresa.

Una empresa es toda organización que realiza actividades comerciales e industriales para proveer bienes y servicios.Las microempresas se pueden conceptuar como unidades económicas de carácter familiar, cuyas necesidades de financiamiento fundamentalmente para capital de trabajo y que normalmente carecen de registros contables. Para el Banco Multisectorial de Inversiones (BMI), las microempresas son definidas como aquellas cuyas ventas anuales no excedan los USD \$68,571.43 y/o cuenten con un máximo de 10 empleados._Las pequeñas empresas son unidades económicas que se han integrado, en cierto modo, a la economía formal y gozan de un mercado ya ganado al tener, por lo menos, dos años de funcionamiento. Sus necesidades de financiamiento no solamente se detectan en el activo corriente, sino en la financiación de activos fijos. Para el Banco Multisectorial de Inversiones (BMI), la pequeña empresa se define como aquella cuyas ventas anuales están entre USD \$68,571.43 y USD \$685,714.29, y/o posea de 11 a 49 empleados.

La mediana empresa es aquella unidad económica con la oportunidad de desarrollar su competitividad en base a la mejora de su organización y procesos, así como de mejorar sus habilidades empresariales. Para el Banco Multisectorial de Inversiones (BMI), la mediana empresa se define como aquella cuyas ventas anuales están entre USD \$685,714.29 y USD \$4,571,428.57, y/o posea de 50 a 199 empleados.

La gran mayoría de las empresas pequeñas están dedicadas a la actividad comercial o a la prestación de servicios y el resto a actividades de transformación, las cuales comercializan sus propios productos, descartando en lo posible a los intermediarios y logrando una relación más directa entre productor y consumidor. Se puede hablar de 3 tipos de empresas que todo pequeño empresario debe considerar:

- a) Empresas de transformación. Son aquellas que se dedican a la producción de bienes (fabrica de calzado),
- b) Empresas de servicio. Encargada de prestar servicio a la comunidad (bufete de abogados).
- c) Empresas de comercialización. La cual compra los bienes que una empresa de transformación produce para luego venderlos a sus propios clientes.

Industria De Maquinados

Mikell P. Grover (2007) define el maquinado como "*un proceso de manufactura en e cual se usa una herramienta de corte para remover el exceso de material de una pieza de trabajo, de tal manera que el material remanente sea la forma de la pieza deseada*". El maquinado se aplica más frecuentemente para la formación de materiales, y es este uno de los procesos de manufactura mas importantes. De lo anterior se puede deducir que la industria de maquinados es la que se encarga de realizar los procesos tendientes a la remoción de material para la elaboración de una pieza que será empleada en la elaboración de un producto por lo que se puede considerar como industria de maquinados a aquellos que realicen procesos de remoción de material

Productividad

Para iniciar es necesario que se defina el termino productividad, ya que en ocasiones suele confundirse con el termino producción, por lo que iniciaremos a explicar algunos de los antecedentes del termino productividad, mismo que fue empleado por primera vez en un sentido formal en un articulo de Quesney en el año 1766. Pero no fue hasta el año 1950, cuando la Organización para la Cooperación Económica Europea (OCEE) ofreció una definición mas formal del termino productividad, definiéndolo como "*el cociente que se obtiene al dividir la producción por uno de los factores de producción*".

La productividad entendida como la eficiencia con la que los insumos se convierten en productos, es importante porque nos ayuda a conocer la eficiencia económica de una unidad, industria, región o país. Existen dos medidas principales de productividad: la laboral y la multifactorial. La primera mide la producción por horas-hombre trabajadas, mientras que la segunda mide la producción por unidad combinada de insumos que principalmente son trabajo y capital, pero puede también incluir algunos insumos intermedios como los combustibles.

Como se ha mencionado anteriormente suele confundirse el término producción y productividad, ya que muchas personas piensan que a mayor producción mayor será la productividad. En esta investigación se define a la producción como la actividad de producir bienes y/o servicios, y a la productividad como la utilización eficiente de los recursos (insumos) al producir bienes y/o servicios (productos). Si lo vemos desde el punto de vista cuantitativo. La producción es la cantidad de productos que se produjeron, mientras que la productividad es la razón entre la cantidad producida y los insumos utilizados. Con frecuencia se confunden también entre si los términos productividad, eficiencia y efectividad, entendiéndose la Eficiencia como la razón entre la producción real obtenida y la producción estándar esperada, mientras que la Efectividad es el grado en que se logran los objetivos.

La definición del término productividad puede adquirir diversas acepciones o formas básicas, dentro de las cuales se encuentran: productividad parcial, productividad de factor total y productividad total. *La producción parcial* es la razón entre la cantidad producida y un solo tipo de insumo, por ejemplo, la productividad del capital, que es el cociente de la producción entre el insumo del capital, otro ejemplo es la productividad de los materiales, que resulta del cociente de la producción neta con la suma asociada con los factores de insumos de mano de obra y capital. Para efectos del concepto de productividad de factor total entenderemos el término producción neta, al total de producción menos los servicios y bienes intermedios comparados. *La productividad total* es la razón entre la producción total y la suma de todos los factores de insumo. Como se puede apreciar en la productividad total se refleja el impacto conjunto de todos los insumos empleados en la fabricación de un producto.

A continuación se presenta como se calculan Los valores de productividad parcial, de factor total y productividad total:

Productividades Parciales

Productividad humana =	<u>producción</u> Insumo humano	Productividad Capital =	producción Insumo de capital
Productividad energía = _ I	producción nsumo de energía	Productividad otros gastos	= <u>producción</u> Insumo de otros gastos
Productividad materiales = In	Producción sumo materiales		
-	producción neta = umo (mano de obra +	producción total – materiales capital) Insumos (r	y servicios comprados nano de obra + capital
Productividad Total = p <u>rod</u> Insu		producción total nos (humanos+materiales+cap	ital+energía+otros gastos)

A pesar de que las tendencias de empleo y productividad de la mano de obra en México que reporta INEGI (2004) desde 1993 –bajo la nueva metodología- han sido positivas, la generación de empleo es todavía insuficiente para dar abasto a la creciente oferta de mano de obra en el país. El estancamiento en

la generación de empleo en parte tiene su origen en falta de competitividad. De acuerdo al "Reporte de Competitividad Global" elaborado por el Foro Económico Mundial en Suiza, México perdió competitividad pasando del lugar 42 al 48 en tan sólo tres años (Porter et al, 2002; WEF, 2005). En parte, se reporta como un problema de falta de innovación y tecnología, así como de barreras burocráticas para iniciar negocios y mercados fragmentados (Vial et al, 2002); sin embargo, también es un problema de instituciones públicas, del estado de derecho y de corrupción (Porter et al, 2002).

Capacitación: La capacitación como lo señala William B. Weryher Jr. (2000), a todos niveles constituye una de las mejores inversiones en recursos humanos y una de las principales fuentes de bienestar para el personal de toda organización, de ahí la importancia que tiene en el desarrollo de una empresa, por lo que antes de iniciar con el presente apartado es de considerable importancia definir ciertos conceptos que se encuentran entrelazados, tales como adiestramiento, entrenamiento y capacitación.

De lo cual tenemos que el *adiestramiento*, es la acción destinada a desarrollar las habilidades, destrezas y aptitudes del trabajador, con el propósito de incrementar la eficiencia en su puesto de trabajo. Lo anterior nos lleva al siguiente concepto, que es la *aptitud* la cual es considerada como la potencialidad del individuo para aprender; condición o serie de características que le permiten adquirir, mediante algún *entrenamiento* especifico, un conocimiento o una habilidad. La *capacitación* es la acción destinada a desarrollar las aptitudes del trabajador con el propósito de prepararlo para desempeñar eficientemente un trabajo. Dicho de otra manera, es un conjunto de actividades de enseñanza-aprendizaje para la adquisición o actualización de las habilidades y de los conocimientos relativos a un puesto o trabajo y cuya reunión conforma el programa de capacitación y adiestramiento.

La capacitación y adiestramiento debe estar debidamente documentada y contener los lineamientos y procedimientos a seguir en materia de capacitación y adiestramiento, respecto de cada centro de trabajo y que supone una ordenación general de actividades, para presentar una visión integral de los programas que lo componen. Para la elaboración de un plan de capacitación es necesario primeramente que se determinen cuales son las necesidades de capacitación, los objetivos, el contenido y los principios sobre los cuales se elaborara el plan o programa de capacitación.

Financiamiento: El financiamiento es la obtención de los recursos externos o internos, a corto, mediano o largo plazo, que requiere una empresa para el sostenimiento, crecimiento y generación de mayores utilidades. El Instituto Mexicano de Contadores Públicos en el boletín No. 2 dice: "Las finanzas de una empresa constituyen la actividad por la cual el administrador provee, planea, organiza, integra y controla la inversión y la obtención de los recursos materiales. La función financiera comprende la adquisición, utilización y custodia de los fondos de la empresa, por lo tanto. El financiamiento es de vital importancia para el desarrollo de las actividades de muchas empresas

Calidad: En un producto manufacturado, la calidad tiene dos aspectos: las características del producto y la carencia de deficiencias. *Las características del producto* son los aspectos del producto que provienen del diseño, son características funcionales y estéticas del artículo que pretender atraer y aportar satisfacción al cliente. *La carencia de deficiencias* significa que el producto hace lo que se supone debe hacer (dentro de las limitaciones de sus características de diseño) y que esta exento de deficiencias y de condiciones fuera de lo tolerable, se dice que cuando un producto está libre de deficiencias significa que se apega a las especificaciones de diseño. Mikell Groover (2007)

La competitividad de una empresa esta determinada por la calidad, el precio y el tiempo de entrega de sus productos o servicios. Se es mas competitivo se puede ofrecer mejor calidad, a bajo precio y en un menos tiempo de entrega. Existen varias definiciones de calidad, únicamente se citaran 3. Juran dice que "Calidad es que un producto sea adecuado para su uso. Así la calidad consiste de ausencia de deficiencias y de aquellas características que satisfacen al cliente" (Juran, 1990). La American Society por Quality

Control (ASQC), afirma que "la calidad es la totalidad de detalles y características de un producto o servicio que influye en su habilidad para satisfacer necesidades dadas". Las Normas Oficiales Mexicana de Control de Calidad (NOM-CC) definen calidad como "el conjunto de propiedades y características de un producto o servicio que le confieren la aptitud para satisfacer las necesidades explicitas o implícitas preestablecidas".

Mantenimiento Industrial

Mantenimiento es el conjunto de acciones para mantener o restablecer un bien. Los principales objetivos del mantenimiento, manejados con criterio económico y encausado a un ahorro en los costos generales de producción son:

- Llevar a cabo una inspección sistemática de todas las instalacio9nes, con intervalos de control para detectar oportunamente cualquier desgaste o ruptura, manteniendo los registros adecuados.
- Mantener permanentemente los equipos e instalaciones en su mejor estado para evitar los tiempos de parada que aumentan los costos.
- Efectuar las reparaciones de emergencia lo mas pronto, empleando métodos mas fáciles de reparación.
- Prolongar la vida útil de los equipos e instalaciones al máximo.

El mantenimiento puede ser Preventivo, Predictivo y correctivo. *El mantenimiento preventivo* es el efectuado a un bien siguiendo un criterio con el fin de reducir las posibilidades de falla. Dentro de este se puede hablar a su vez de un mantenimiento sistemático que es el efectuado según un programa establecido de acuerdo con el tiempo de trabajo u otro factor. El *mantenimiento predictivo* es el efectuado de acuerdo a información dada por un aparato de control permanente. *El mantenimiento correctivos* el mantenimiento efectuado después de una falla.

MATERIALES Y METODOS

El empleo de método cuantitativo tal como señala Hernández Sampieri (2003) el enfoque cuantitativo de una investigación "usa recolección de datos para probar hipótesis con base en la medición numérica y el análisis estadístico para establecer patrones de comportamiento", es decir que con la investigación se obtuvieron datos analizados desde un punto de vista estadístico. La investigación que se realizó es del tipo descriptivo-correlacional, en virtud de que se trata de especificar las propiedades o características del fenómeno que se encuentran bajo la investigación, midiendo conceptos y recolectando datos sobre estos, y del tipo correlacional, toda vez que el análisis de datos se hizo, mediante la medición de la relación que existe entre las variables independientes para con la dependientes, es decir, se midió el grado de relación existente entre la productividad y la capacitación, financiamiento, empleo de nueva tecnologíamantenimiento y el uso de un sistema de calidad de materiales.

El diseño de la investigación es de tipo No Experimental- Transeccional, ya que no se llevó a cabo una manipulación intencional de las variables, sino que se observó el fenómeno de la investigación tal y como se desenvuelve en su entorno natural y la recopilación de información se hizo en un momento determinado, es decir, que no se tomo como base de la investigación datos obtenidos a través del tiempo, de los años, sino que se realizó para conocer cuál o cuáles son los factores que influyen en los niveles de productividad de una Mipyme de maquinados en un momento determinado, sin relacionarse con los acontecimientos acaecidos en el pasado.

Dentro de las categorías que se observan en el estudio no experimental transeccional, la investigación encuadra en el diseño transeccional correlacional, ya que se midió la relación existente entre la variable dependiente, en este caso la productividad y sus variables independientes, a decir, capacitación,

financiamiento, empleo de nueva tecnología-mantenimiento y el uso de un sistema de calidad de materiales.

Población Y Muestra

En este apartado se determinó cual es la población objeto de estudio, entendiéndose esta como un conjunto de elementos que concuerdan o comparten una serie de especificaciones y características tanto de contenido, lugar y tiempo. Por lo anterior, la población de esta investigación está compuesta por todas y cada una de las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas empresas que se encuentran establecidas en Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua y registradas en el Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano (SIEM), con una actividad industrial del ramo de maquinados, arrojándose un total de 39 Mipymes. Una vez que se definió la población objeto de estudio se procede a determinar el tamaño de la muestra que se tomó para la recolección de datos, para tales efectos, se entiende por muestra, aquel grupo representativo de la población, en base a la cual se van a generalizar los resultados obtenidos empleandose el método probabilístico, siendo este, un subgrupo de la población en el que todos los elementos tienen la misma posibilidad de ser elegidos.

A continuación se desarrolla la fórmula empleada para la determinación de la muestra:

n = Z2 P Q N (N-1) E2 + Z2 P Q Donde: n = Tamaño de la Muestra Z = Nivel de Confianza (95%) en valores de z (1.96). P = Proporción de los que poseen el atributo (50%) Q = Proporción de los que no poseen el atributo (50%) E = Error de Muestreo (0.05) N = Población (39 empresas)

Por lo anterior se determina que la muestra consistió en un total de 36 empresas, que serán elegidas de manera aleatoria, a fin de que todas las empresas se encuentren con igual posibilidad de ser elegidas. Para efecto de seleccionar las empresas de nuestra investigación se utilizó el método denominado Números Random o números aleatorios, para lo cual al número a las 39 Mipymes de maquinados que se encuentran establecidas en esta Ciudad y registradas en el SIEM, le fue asignado un número determinado, a fin de emplear el cuadro de números Random.

Para efectos de recolectar los datos necesarios para la investigación que nos ocupa se utilizó como instrumento de recolección de los datos, un cuestionario que constó de 5 (cinco) categorías, es decir, una categoría para cada una de las variables que fueron precisadas en el capitulo respectivo, independientes y dependiente y para el análisis de los datos obtenidos se empleo el Software denominado *MINITAB*, aplicándose a cada una de las preguntas y sus datos un Diagrama de Pareto y Prueba de Normalidad, lo anterior a fin de conocer la normalidad de los datos obtenidos, por lo que una vez analizados los datos se procedió a aplicar el formulario correspondiente a la Correlación de Pearson, para conocer la correlación existente entre las variables y obtener de tal manera las matrices de datos, que posteriormente fueron desarrollados siguiendo los lineamientos establecidos en el Sistema Mahalanobis–Taguchi (MTS).

El sistema Mahalanobis – Taguchi (MTS), es una tecnología de información de patrones, el cual ha sido utilizado ampliamente en diferentes aplicaciones de diagnóstico para la realización y toma de decisiones cuantitativas, construyendo una escala multivariable de mediciones utilizando métodos analíticos de análisis de información. En la aproximación en el sistema MTS, la distancia de Mahalanobis (una medición multivariable) es utilizada para medir el grado de anormalidad de los patrones y los principios

de los métodos de Taguchi son utilizados para la evaluación de la precisión de las predicciones basándose en la escala construida, la ventaja de la distancia de Mahalanobis es que esta toma en consideración las correlaciones entre las variables y esta consideración es muy importante para el análisis de patrones.

El objetivo consiste en realizar los comparativos con el método MTS con diferentes números de atributos y diferentes tamaños de muestra. El procedimiento del sistema Mahalanobis – Taguchi (MTS), consiste en nueve pasos básicos.

1. Se obtienen las matrices de Correlación de cada una de las matrices y se observan los valores de cada una de ellas para ver si las variables no están correlacionadas entre si, entre mas los valores se acerquen a cero es menor su correlación entre si.

2. Se obtienen las matrices Inversas de cada una de las matrices de correlación de las diferentes combinaciones dadas.

3. Se estandarizan las matrices originales para obtener las matrices de vectores estandarizados para cada combinación de variables.

4. Ya obtenidos todos los datos anteriores, se procede a calcular las distancias de Mahalanobis de cada una de las matrices de las variables a analizar utilizando la formula.

$$\begin{split} MD &= D^2 = \frac{1}{k} Z_i C^{-1} Z_i^T \\ \text{donde}: \\ Z_i &= \text{Vector estandarizado} \\ Z_i &= \frac{X_i - m_i}{s_i} \qquad X_i = \text{Valor de la i - ésima característica} \\ m_i &= \text{Media de la i - ésima característica} \\ s_i &= \text{Desviación estándar de la i - ésima característica} \\ k &= \text{Número de características/variables} \\ T &= \text{Transpuesta del vector} \\ C &= \text{Matriz de correlación} \end{split}$$

5. Se aplica la formula para la obtención de las distancias, para cada una de las matrices propuestas

6. Una vez obtenidas todas las distancias de mahalanobis de todas las matrices de combinaciones se obtiene una tabla de valores.

7. Ya obtenidas las distancias, se procede a calcular la razón de la señal de ruido para cada renglón.

Razón S/N =
$$\eta_q = -10 Log\left[\frac{1}{t}\sum_{i=1}^{t} \left(1/D_i^2\right)\right]$$

8. Una vez que se obtuvieron las señales de ruido se procede a hacer el análisis para discriminar por grupos (-1 Presencia, 1 Ausencia) de acuerdo al arreglo factorial fraccionado, y se procede a realizar las sumas aritméticas de las señales de ruido para cada renglón obteniendo una tabla de valores.

9. Ya que fueron realizadas las sumas aritméticas de las señales de ruido de acuerdo a un modelo factorial se procede a realizar las diferencias de las señales de ruidos de ambos grupos de variable para poder así obtener los valores de significancia de las variables en cuestión.

RESULTADOS

En base a los datos obtenidos las variables con mayores valores en las diferencias son las de mayor significancia, así es que podemos decir que: Los factores que mas infieren en el nivel de productividad (éxito) de las Mipymes del ramo de maquinados en Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, son las identificados como P01, P27, P04, P19, P03 Y P23(ver figura 1), es decir; La antigüedad de la empresa, el porcentaje de aceptación del producto por los clientes, las horas diarias de uso en la maquinaria, la frecuencia con que se realiza la capacitación continua a los empleados, la antigüedad de las maquinas empleadas en el proceso de producción, y el ente que proporciona el financiamiento externo a la empresa. Los factores que más impactan en el crecimiento de la productividad son:

1) La capacitación de los empleados efectivamente tiene una relación estadísticamente significativa con los niveles de productividad de una MIPYME de maquinados.

2) El financiamiento de la empresa efectivamente tiene una relación estadísticamente significativa con los niveles de productividad de una MIPYME de maquinados.

3) El empleo de nueva tecnología-mantenimiento efectivamente tiene una relación estadísticamente significativa con los niveles de productividad de una MIPYME de maquinados.

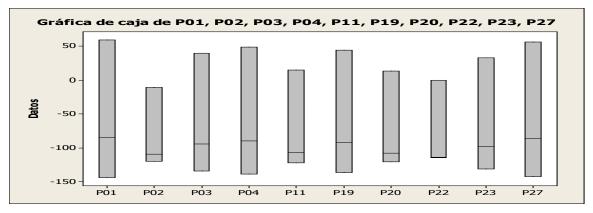
4) El empleo de un sistema de Calidad de Materiales efectivamente tiene una relación estadísticamente significativa con los niveles de productividad de una MIPYME de maquinados.

Jerarquización De Los Resultados Obtenidos

	antiguedad de la empresa	% de aceptación del producto por los clientes por la calidad de los materiales	horas diarias de uso de la maquinaria	frecuencia de capacitación a empleados	antiguedad de las maquinas empleadas en producción	financiamiento externo de la empresa
Exitosas	-84.7376	-86.1092	-89.7686	-92.2825	-94.3784	-97.6786
No exitosas	-143.7535	-142.3818	-138.7225	-136.2086	-134.1127	-130.8125
EFECTO	59.0159	56.2726	48.9539	43.9261	39.7343	33.1339

Lo anterior se ilustra en la Figura 1

Figura 1: Gráfica de Box de Resultados obtenidos.



CONCLUSIONES

Debido a lo anterior y considerando la hipótesis que fue: "La falta de financiamiento y de capacitación, así como la falta de controles de calidad y mantenimiento de maquinaria para las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas provoca bajos niveles de productividad" tenemos que la misma se acepta en virtud de que de la conclusión general de la investigación se desprende que diversos factores que encuadran en la variable financiamiento, capacitación, mantenimiento y calidad, efectivamente tienen un grado de significancia con respecto a la productividad (éxito) de una Mipyme del ramo de maquinados en Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua.

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BIOGRAFIA

Leticia Morales González, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (Imoralesitcj@yahoo.com.mx

Karen Paola De La Rosa Andáosla, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (lic.karendelarosa@gmail.com),

Manuel Rodríguez Medina, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad. Juárez (Manuelrodriguezitcj@yahoo.com),

Alberto Cárdenas Valenzuela, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez (aproma2004@yahoo.com.mx).

El SUPERETE: FORMA COMERCIAL EMERGENTE EN CARTAGENA DE INDIAS COLOMBIA

Emperatriz Londoño Aldana, Universidad de Cartagena María Eugenia Navas Ríos, Universidad de Cartagena

RESUMEN

La dinámica comercial de productos de gran consumo en Colombia y de hecho en Cartagena, ha mostrado en las dos últimas décadas una polarización entre las denominadas grandes superficies y el comercio tradicional. Los pequeños comerciantes, si bien no cuentan con la capacidad de negociación, la logística y las estrategias necesarias para competir en el mercado, sí poseen, en conjunto, la mayor participación en el mercado y se han constituido en los principales competidores de los grandes minoristasEl Comercio Tradicional ha estado compuesto principalmente por establecimientos de tamaño pequeño con bajos niveles de incorporación tecnológica y con poco o ningún nivel de negociación; en su mayoría es comercio de proximidad como tiendas de barrio y un bajo porcentaje de Autoservicios o Minimercados. A partir de la segunda mitad de la década de dos mil, se observa en la ciudad el resurgimiento de pequeños y medianos autoservicios, conocidos en el mundo del retail como superetes. Estos establecimientos, avanzan como forma intermedia entre grandes supermercados y tiendas de barrio, ofreciendo a sus compradores una buena combinación de las ventajas que les aportan tanto los pequeños establecimientos de comercio como los almacenes de cadena.La réplica de los superetes en diferentes barrios de la ciudad y en el área de influencia de los grandes minoristas ha permitido definir una investigación conducente a establecer las ventajas de este formato comercial desde la percepción del consumidor, en el marco de las teorías que explican la evolución de la venta al detalle.La investigación ha permitido establecer la tendencia del consumidor a preferir hacer sus compras de productos de gran consumo en los pequeños autoservicios que le aportan: comodidad, cercanía, calidad y variedad de productos en pequeñas presentaciones y atención personalizada. Para el análisis se recurrió a análisis univariado, bibariado y multivariado con utilización del software Dyane. Diseño y análisis de encuestas, versión 4.

PALABRAS CLAVE: superete, consumidor, comercio minorista, cercanía.

BIOGRAFIA

Emperatriz Londoño Aldana, Universidad de Cartagena. Doctora en Ciencias de la Dirección. Docente Titular en el Programa de Administración de Empresas Facultad de Ciencias Económicas de la Universidad de Cartagena.

María Eugenia Navas Ríos, Universidad de Cartagena. Doctora en Ciencias de la Educación Docente Titular en el Programa de Administración de Empresas - Facultad de Ciencias Económicas de la Universidad de Cartagena.

DIAGNÓSTICO DEL CLIMA LABORAL EN UNA EMPRESA PYMES DEL SECTOR SERVICIOS:CASO "DISTRIBUIDORA JULIE"

Nemecio Lorenzo Valenzuela Salazar, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Julián Martínez Espinosa, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Clara Patricia Buentello Martínez, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila Esperanza Guadalupe Ramírez Ojeda, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila

RESUMEN

La interacción de valores, actitudes y conductas compartidas por todos los miembros de una empresa u organización es conocida como clima laboral, parte fundamental de una empresa. En cuanto al clima laboral es contingente ya que en la manera en que se desarrolle dependerá mucho la situación organizacional, del ambiente, de la tecnología empleada de la concepción en la organización de las relaciones laborales. Por lo que a medida que estos factores cambian, cambia el clima laboral. Esta investigación es un análisis del clima laboral, plantea los problemas, condiciones y actitudes de los empleados de una empresa de servicios basándose en 6 variables: Condiciones de trabajo, Políticas empresariales, Relaciones sociales, Desarrollo de personal, Desempeño de tareas, Relaciones con la Autoridad. Se realizo un diagnostico utilizando un cuestionario basado en la escala de Likert. Uno de los objetivos primordiales fue determinar que tanto incidían las condiciones y actitudes en el clima laboral de dicha empresa, determinado que "las condiciones y actitudes si están relacionadas con el clima laboral incidían las condiciones so están relacionadas con el clima laboral incidían las condiciones de tareas de la clima laboral de la empresa de dicha empresa, determinado que "las condiciones y actitudes si están relacionadas con el clima laboral", por lo que se plantearan acciones para el mejoramiento del clima laboral de la empresa investigada.

PALABRAS CLAVE. Clima Laboral, Diagnostico, Organización.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Planteamiento del Problema

"Una organización solo existe cuando dos o más personas se juntan para cooperar entre sí y alcanzar objetivos comunes, que no pueden lograrse mediante iniciativa individual" (Chiavenato, 1994) Partiendo de la cita anterior, se debe destacar que el logro de esos objetivos comunes sólo puede concretarse sí las personas que interactúan en las organizaciones, establecen un contrato psicológico lo suficientemente fuerte que les permita desenvolverse en la misma, actuando de manera armónica con las normas, valores, estilos de comunicación, comportamientos, creencias, estilos de liderazgo, lenguajes y símbolos de la organización.

El conjunto de elementos citados en el párrafo anterior, conforman lo que se conoce como Cultura Organizacional o Cultura Corporativa, Serna define la Cultura Organizacional, resaltando que es "... la manera como las organizaciones hacen las cosas, como establecen prioridades y dan importancia a las diferentes tareas empresariales" (Serna, 1997)

En cuanto al clima laboral es contingente ya que en la manera en que se desarrolle dependerá mucho la situación organizacional, del ambiente, de la tecnología empleada de la concepción en la organización de las relaciones laborales. Por lo que a medida que estos factores cambian, cambia el clima laboral.

Objetivo General.: Establecer mediante el análisis del clima laboral si existe un medio ambiente, afectivo, cálido y físico en el trabajo cotidiano que influya en la satisfacción de los trabajadores y por lo tanto en la productividad de la empresa.

Objetivos Específicos: Primero, determinar si estas seis variables influyen directamente en el clima laboral de la empresa. Segundo, medir el impacto físico y afectivo que tienen las variables del clima laboral de la empresa sujeta de investigación. Tercero, implementar un sistema que permita mejorar las variables antes citadas.

Preguntas de investigación. (1)¿Considera usted que la organización es un buen lugar para trabajar?
(2) ¿Recomendaría a algún familiar o amigo trabajar en la organización? (3)¿Comparado con el año pasado, su calidad laboral ha mejorado?

Justificación: En la actualidad en las microempresas se hacen más competitivas dentro de su ramo y cada vez adoptan más estrategias a fin de garantizar el éxito. Estas organizaciones están adoptando herramientas de optimización, gestión estratégica y modelos de medición de gestión, en las Teorías de Calidad y de Gestión del Servicio, a fin de alcanzar el éxito a corto, mediano y largo plazo con el propósito de establecerse metas que permitan el alcance de los planes estratégicos del negocio, enfocados al cumplimiento de su visión, misión y valores.

Elementos que conjugados comprometen tanto a empleados como supervisores a la identificación con la organización, a través un sentimiento de compromiso para alcanzar los objetivos de la misma. La necesidad de plantear la evaluación en cada uno de loes elementos de la organización incidirá en la optimización de los mismos, ya que mediante su análisis se podrán establecer los lineamientos a seguir en cuanto a mejorar el clima laboral en beneficio de la "distribuidora Julie". esto con el fin de que esta pequeña empresa en los 12 años que tiene pueda continuar siendo una de las más fuerte en su ramo.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Antecedentes

"En toda organización, el trabajo debe implicar un alto grado de compromiso y ofrecer grandes satisfacciones. Debe ser reflejo de una vida agradable..." (Phegan, 1998)La vida agradable y el grado de compromiso a la que se hace referencia en la cita, sólo puede ser logrado a través de una efectiva proyección cultural de la organización hacia sus empleados y, por ende, determinará el clima organizacional en el que se logrará la misión de la empresa.

Para comprender la importancia del tema propuesto en este trabajo de investigación, se deben aclarar los conceptos referidos al clima organizacional y.La cultura a través del tiempo ha sido una mezcla de rasgos y distintivos espirituales y afectivos, que caracterizan a una sociedad o grupo social en un período determinado. Engloba además modos de vida, ceremonias, arte, invenciones, tecnología, sistemas de valores, derechos fundamentales del ser humano, tradiciones y creencias.

Este término fue definido por otros investigadores del tema como la interacción de valores, actitudes y conductas compartidas por todos los miembros de una empresa u organización. A continuación se citan diversos investigadores sobre el tema que coinciden en la definición del término. (Granell, 1997)Define el término como "... aquello que comparten todos o casi todos los integrantes de un grupo social..." esa

interacción compleja de los grupos sociales de una empresa está determinado por los "... valores, creencia, actitudes y conductas."

(Valle, 1995) Establece que la cultura de una organización es "... fruto de la experiencia de las personas y de alguna manera, conforman las creencias, los valores y las asunciones de éstas."

(Garcia y Dolal, 1997)Definen la cultura como "... la forma característica de pensar y hacer las cosas... en una empresa... por analogía es equivalente al concepto de personalidad a escala individual..." (Guedez, 1998)La cultura organizacional es el reflejo del equilibrio dinámico y de las relaciones armónicas de todo el conjunto de subsistemas que integran la organización."

Teorías Relacionadas con el Clima Laboral

Clima organizacional subyace una amalgama de dos grandes escuelas de pensamiento: escuela Gestalt y funcionalista. Escuela Gestalt, la cual se centra en la organización de la percepción, entendida como el todo es diferente a la suma de sus partes. Esta corriente aporta dos principios de la percepción del individuo: a) Captar el orden de las cosas tal y como éstas existen en el mundo b) Crear un nuevo orden mediante un proceso de integración a nivel del pensamiento. Según esta escuela, los sujetos comprenden el mundo que les rodea basándose en criterios percibidos e inferidos y se comportan en función de la forma en que ven el mundo. Esto quiere decir que la percepción del medio de trabajo y del entorno es lo que influye en su comportamiento.

Para la escuela funcionalista, el pensamiento y comportamiento de un individuo dependen del ambiente que lo rodea y las diferencias individuales juegan un papel importante en la adaptación del individuo a su medio. Es pertinente mencionar que la escuela gestaltista argumenta que el individuo se adapta a su medio porque no tiene otra opción, en cambio los funcionalistas introducen el papel de las diferencias individuales en este mecanismo, es decir la persona que labora interactúa con su medio y participa en la determinación del clima de éste.

Como regla general, cuando la escuela gestaltista y la funcionalista se aplican al estudio del clima organizacional, estas poseen en común un elemento de base que es el nivel de homeostasis (equilibrio) que los sujetos tratan de obtener en la institución que trabajan. Las personas tienen necesidad de información proveniente de su medio de trabajo, a fin de conocer los comportamientos que requiere la organización y alcanzar así un nivel de equilibrio aceptable con el mundo que le rodea, por ejemplo: si una persona percibe hostilidad en el clima de su organización, tendrá tendencias a comportarse defensivamente de forma que pueda crear un equilibrio con su medio, ya que, para él dicho clima requiere un acto defensivo.

Likert sostiene que en la percepción del clima organizacional influyen tres grupos de variables. La primera de ella son las causales referidas a: estructuras de la organización y su administración: reglas, decisiones, competencias y actitudes entre otras. Referente a las variables intermediarias, se tiene que estas reflejan el estado interno y la salud de una empresa educativa y constituyen los procesos organizacionales; al respecto se mencionan las siguientes: motivación, actitud, comunicación, toma de decisiones, entre otras. Las variables finales son el resultado obtenido de las dos anteriores e impacta fuertemente a la organización en la productividad, ganancias y pérdida (Brunet, 1999)

Principales Precursores del Clima Laboral

Los orígenes de la preocupación por el clima organizacional se sitúan en los principios de la corriente cognitiva en psicología, en el sentido de que el agotamiento de las explicaciones del comportamiento humano desde la perspectiva conductista produjo una reconciliación de la caja negra en que se había

convertido a la persona. Ello plantea razonar acerca de la medida en que la percepción influye en la realidad misma. Esta idea comenzó a moverse por todos los campos en los que la psicología tenía su papel, entre los que se halla, por supuesto, el campo del clima laboral.

Al respecto, Rensis Likert, menciona que la reacción ante cualquier situación siempre está en función de la percepción que tiene ésta, lo que cuenta es la forma en que ve las cosas y no la realidad objetiva.

Entonces, la preocupación por el estudio de clima laboral partió de la comprobación de que toda persona percibe de modo distinto el contexto en el que se desenvuelve, y que dicha percepción influye en el comportamiento del individuo en la organización, con todas las implicaciones que ello conlleva. Desde 1960, el estudio acerca de clima laboral se ha venido desarrollando, ofreciendo una amplia gama de definiciones del concepto. Así pues tenemos a diversos autores que han definido este campo.

(Forehand y Gilmer, 1964) Definen al clima laboral "como el conjunto de características que describen a una organización y que la distinguen de otras organizaciones, estas características son relativamente perdurables a lo largo del tiempo e influyen en el comportamiento de las personas en la organización".

(Tagiuri, 1968) Como "una cualidad relativamente perdurable del ambiente interno de una organización que experimentan sus miembros e influyen en su comportamiento, y se puede describir en términos de los valores de un conjunto específico de características o atributos de la organización".

(Schneider, 1975) Como "Percepciones o interpretaciones de significado que ayudan a la gente a encontrarle sentido al mundo y saber cómo comportarse".

METODOLOGIA

La base de este estudio es exploratorio, se tomó conocimiento in situ de la realidad social en la que se llevó la investigación concluyente a fin de identificar a los actores y determinar el problema de investigación.

Investigación Explicativa buscan encontrar las razones o causas que ocasionan ciertos fenómenos. Su objetivo último es explicar por qué ocurre un fenómeno y en qué condiciones se da éste.

"Están orientados a la comprobación de hipótesis; esto es, identificación y análisis de las causales (variables independientes) y sus resultados, los que se expresan en hechos que brindan los datos que pueden ser verificables (variables dependientes).

Los estudios de este tipo implican esfuerzos del investigador y una gran capacidad de análisis, síntesis e interpretación. Asimismo, debe señalar las razones por las cuales el estudio puede considerarse explicativo. Su realización supone el ánimo de contribuir al desarrollo del conocimiento científico así como al brindar información del tema".

Formulación de la Hipótesis

H_o = Las condiciones y actitudes son independientes del clima laboral (hipótesis nula)

 H_1 = Las condiciones y actitudes están relacionadas con el clima laboral (hipótesis alternativa)

Sujeto de Estudio: Distribuidora Julie es una empresa 100% de tradición familiar conocida como Ofelias's Beauty Supply en la década de los 70's. inicio operaciones a partir de 1994, como Distribuidora, de servicio de venta de productos para estéticas, peluquerías y academias de belleza de la región.

Población: La empresa citada, cuenta con 36 empleados incluyendo a los propietarios por lo cual todos fueron encuestados.

El Sistema Likert como Herramienta para medir el Clima Laboral

Una escala de Likert consta de un gran número de ítems, que se consideran relevantes para la opinión a evaluar. Estas afirmaciones no deben ser ambiguas y expresan aprobación o rechazo al objeto de estudio. Los sujetos responden a estas afirmaciones seleccionando un punto en una gradación del continuo asentamiento-rechazo (aprobación total, aprobación con ciertos reparos, posición no definida, desaprobación en ciertos aspectos, desaprobación total). El índice total de actitud se obtiene con la suma de las actitudes parciales vertidas en cada respuesta.

Los pasos principales que se siguen para la construcción de una escala de Likert, según (Briones, 1990) son los siguientes:

- a. Definición nominal de la actitud o variable que se va a medir.
- b. Recopilación de ítems o indicadores de esa variable.
- c. Determinación de las Puntuaciones dadas a las categorías de ítems.

Definición Nominal de la Actitud a Medir

Para el propósito de la encuesta que se propone, se define el clima organizacional como las características del medio ambiente de trabajo, las cuales son percibidas directa o indirectamente por los trabajadores que se desempeñan en ese medio ambiente. El clima tiene repercusiones en el comportamiento laboral, de igual forma es una variable interviniente que media entre los factores del sistema organizacional y el comportamiento individual. Estas características de la organización son relativamente permanentes en el tiempo, se diferencian de una organización a otra y de una sección a otra dentro de la misma empresa. El clima, junto con las estructuras y características organizacionales y los individuos que la componen, forman un sistema interdependiente altamente dinámico. Para la medición del clima organizacional se propone una escala de medida ordinal, empleando un instrumento de 40 ítems, el cual corresponde a una escala de frecuencia con seis categorías.

<u>Recopilación de ítems:</u> Para esta encuesta se seleccionaron cuarenta ítems utilizando una escala de medida ordinal. Para cada variable se asignaron cinco ítems con actitud positiva y cinco ítems con actitud negativa. Según (Padua, 1994) y (Nunnally, 1995), los ítems seleccionados deben tener las siguientes características:

Determinación de las puntuaciones dadas a las categorías de ítems.

Las respuestas que los sujetos pueden entregar ante cada afirmación son las siguientes: siempre, casi siempre, algunas veces, muy pocas veces, nunca. Los puntajes para los ítems implican una alta o baja frecuencia, de acuerdo a como se percibe el clima organizacional.

Tabla 1: Puntuación

	Siempre	Casi Siempre	Algunas Veces	Muy Pocas Veces	Nunca
Items Positivos	5	4	3	2	1
Items Negativos	1	2	3	4	5

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Una distribución de frecuencia es una lista de calificaciones posibles y la cantidad de sujetos que obtiene cada una. Cuando el rango de las calificaciones en una prueba es amplio, es conveniente agrupar las calificaciones en intervalos.

Las distribuciones de frecuencias pueden completarse agregando las frecuencias relativas y las frecuencias acumuladas. Las frecuencias relativas son los porcentajes de casos en cada categoría y las frecuencias acumuladas son lo que se va acumulando en cada categoría, desde la más baja hasta la más alta.

Una forma gráfica útil de representar una distribución de la frecuencia de las calificaciones es diagramar la distribución en un histograma, polígono de frecuencia y gráficas circulares.

Los ítems utilizados se refieren a la escala de frecuencias de Likert, en un continuo de cinco opciones posibles (Siempre, casi siempre, muchas veces, muy pocas veces, nunca), que desde la perspectiva estadística posee más fiabilidad que una escala de dos opciones.

RESULTADOS

Se aplicó la prueba de bondad de ajuste para: $H_o = Las$ condiciones y actitudes son independientes del clima laboral (hipótesis nula) $H_1 = Las$ condiciones y actitudes están relacionadas con el clima laboral (hipótesis alternativa) gl=(r-1)(k-1) = (2-1)(6-1)=5 Grados de libertad X^2 critica = (gl=5, $\alpha = 0.01$) =15.09 Valor de tabla $X^2 = \sum (f_0 - f_e)^2 / f_e$ Estadístico de prueba $= (132-150)^2 / 150 + (84-66)^2 / 84 + \dots + (80-110)^2 / 80 = 40.1$ (1)

Como el estadístico de prueba es mayor que el valor de tabla se concluye que: "Las condiciones y actitudes si están relacionadas con el clima laboral"

Variable 1.- Condiciones de Trabajo: El resultado del estudio refleja que en la empresa Distribuidora Julie, sienten una gran seguridad dentro de su área de trabajo, la cual les permite realizar sus tareas de manera adecuada:

Variable 2.- Políticas Administrativas: Dado que según los datos observados muestran que la mayoría de los empleados conocen las políticas de la empresa se deberá difundir políticas que permitan al personal involucrarse y participar en el proceso cultural de la organización. Las políticas deberán proyectarse por toda la organización a fin de captar al personal para trabajar sobre la importancia de la cultura organizacional.

Variable 3.- Relaciones Sociales: En cuanto a esta variable se observa que la mayoría de los empelados consideran que el ambiente de trabajo es ideal para desempeñar sus funciones por lo tanto permite que la mayoría cumpla con la función que le corresponde así como el que puedan convivir fuera de su lugar de trabajo, sin embargo se recomienda que existan actividades que fomenten la participación como equipos de trabajo en las diferentes aéreas de trabajo y algunas actividades extra laborales.

Variable 4.- Desarrollo Personal: En La distribuidora Julie apoya a la mayoría de los empleados en su desarrollo profesional sin embargo no existen programas de actualización y desarrollo que alienten al empleado a no dejar la empresa por lo que recomienda ,diseñar y poner en práctica un verdadero programa de inducción que permita al empleado visualizar un escenario donde tenga un futuro deseable para él y su familia .así ismo se deberá realizar un seguimiento de la inducción a los nuevos empleados y a los que ya tienen tiempo, a fin de fortalecer su desarrollo profesional.

Variable 5.-Desempeño de Tareas: La mayoría del personal si tiene las herramientas para desempeñar sus actividades dentro de la organización.

Los trabajadores perciben que sus tareas son valiosas para la empresa y que conocen por lo general los puestos a los que pueden aspirar, y eso hace que se sientan valiosos dentro de la misma.

Se recomienda elaborar un manual de operación para puedan no solamente conocer sino corregir las desviaciones en la realización de sus tareas

Variable 6.-Relación con la Autoridad: Existe una buena relación entre el personal y sus jefes, esto es porque existe claridad dentro de los puestos y una adecuada información de las tareas y responsabilidades, se recomienda que se implemente un buzón de sugerencias y se elabore una descripción de puestos y un organigrama para mejorar esta variable

CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES

Conclusiones: El clima organizacional o laboral de la Distribuidora es clave para el éxito por que condiciona las actitudes y el comportamiento de sus trabajadores. Por ello las empresas y organizaciones requieren contar con mecanismos de medición periódica de su clima organizacional. Este estudio permitio conocer cómo dichas variables tienen una relación determinante en el clima laboral de dicha empresa ya que la hipótesis que fue realizada comprobó que si éxito tal relación.

Recomendaciones: Ante los planteamientos expuestos en esta investigación se hace necesario considerar, por parte de la organización las siguientes recomendaciones; pensando que del debido análisis de ellas se pueda mejorar el clima de trabajo con el propósito de lograr la pertinencia plena de los empleados con su organización y mejorar los procesos que llevan a lograr la misión.

Limitación: Los alcances de la siguiente investigación están limitados por distintos factores que hacen especifica esta investigación de los cuales podemos nombrar los siguientes: su zona geográfica: el Norte de Coahuila, su periodo en el tiempo: el año 2010, el giro de la empresa: servicio y venta de productos de belleza, y de su tamaño una empresa de servicios que cuenta con 36 empleados.

ANEXOS

Tabla A: Base de Datos

Condiciones Y Actitudes	Clima Laboral			
	De Acuerdo O Mas	Indeciso O Menos	Total	
Condiciones De Trabajo	132	84	216	
Políticas Empresariales	82	62	144	
Relaciones Sociales	119	61	180	
Desarrollo De Personal	168	48	216	
Desempeño De Tareas	120	60	180	
Relación Con La Autoridad	280	80	360	
Total	901	395	1296	

Esta tabla presentala la base de datos de los resultados obtenidos de las encuestas realizadas.

Tabla B: Frecuencias esperadas (Fe = Fr Fk /N)

Condiciones y Actitudes	Clima Laboral			
(Variables)				
	De Acuerdo O Mas	Indeciso O Menos	Total	
1 Condiciones De Trabajo	150	66	216	
2 Políticas Empresariales	100	44	144	
3 Relaciones Sociales	125	55	180	
4 Desarrollo De Personal	150	66	216	
5 Desempeño De Tareas	125	55	180	

6 Relación Con La Autoridad	250	110	360	
Total	901	395	1296	

Esta tabla presenta el conjunto de variables que conforman el Clima Laboral, donde se definen las frecuencias esperadas de la variable, la matriz y dimensión de dónde se obtuvieron los datos, así como su conceptualización. Fuente: Elaboración propia.

BIOGRAFIA

Los profesores Lorenzo Valenzuela Salazar, autor (nlvs20000@yahoo.com.mx.) Julián Martínez Espinosa, coautor (julian_julian2010@hotmail.com) coautora Clara Patricia Buentello Martínez (clara_buentello@hotmail.com) son catedráticos de la Facultad de Administración y Contaduría de la Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila.

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VALORACIÓN DE EMPRESAS EN CRISIS

Elbar Ramírez, Universidad Nacional de Colombia Margot Cajigas Romero, Universidad Autónoma de Occidente, Universidad Nacional de Colombia Pedro Jiménez Estévez, Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha

RESUMEN

Producto de la investigación "modelo para reiniciar empresas cerradas o en riesgo de cierre, mediante la participación de emprendedores e inversores como nuevos socios" surge este artículo, centrado en valorar empresas en crisis, frente necesario si se evalúa el grado de necesidad existente en los mercados por evitar la desaparición definitiva de las empresas en dificultades y aún las cerradas que han generado dinámica económica y productividad. El modelo se construye mediante el método social, la unidad de análisis son las opiniones de un panel de expertos recogidas en una encuesta estructurada sobre variables administrativas, siendo seleccionadas aquellas que alcanzaron una puntuación igual o superior al 60%, las cuales fueron cruzadas analítica y estadísticamente para hallar su convergencia, lográndose construir un modelo de doce variables, con las que es posible realizar el due diligence que permita valorar una empresa en crisis para reorganizarla contando con la participación de emprendedores e inversores empresariales, a quienes se aporta adicionalmente los elementos claves para que consigan la convergencia de intereses sobre la base de la confianza surgida del buen gobierno empresarial. El trabajo recomienda diagnosticar, reestructurar y reorganizar a las empresas en crisis para evitar su desaparición y el crecimiento de la pobreza.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Valoración de empresas, crisis empresarial, reorganización empresarial.

ABSTRACT

Research product "model to restart businesses closed or at risk of closure, through the participation of entrepreneurs and investors as new partners" comes this article, focused on evaluating companies in difficulty, necessary if we evaluate the degree of need in the market to prevent the disappearance of businesses in difficulty and still sealed that have generated economic dynamics and productivity. The model is constructed by social method, the unit of analysis are the opinions of a panel of experts gathered in a structured survey on administrative variables being selected those who achieved a score above 60%, which were crossed and analytical statistically to find convergence, we build a model of twelve variables, it is possible to perform due diligence on which to assess a company in crisis to reorganize with the participation of entrepreneurs and business investors, who are additionally provides the key elements to achieve convergence of interests on the basis of trust emerged in corporate governance. The recommended diagnostic work, restructure and reorganize businesses in crisis to prevent its disappearance and the growth of poverty.

JEL: G33

KEYWORDS: Business valuation, business crisis, corporate restructuring.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La investigación, fundamento de este trabajo, tuvo como destino primario proponer un modelo conceptual, diagramático, capaz de servir de guía para valorar empresas en crisis, el modelo se representa en un esquema de 12 variables, denominado "modelo de reorganización empresarial". Los resultados de la investigación se presentan en seis apartados, siendo esta introducción la primera; en segundo lugar el marco teórico donde se destaca como las empresas en crisis han sido poco estudiadas por los expertos en

valoración de empresas pero son punto focal de las legislaciones en los distintos países centradas en evitar la desaparición definitiva de las empresas. El tercer espacio entrega la metodología social empleada, basada en la Investigación Acción Participativa (IAP) y el método Delphy; en cuarto lugar se presentan los resultados alcanzados, partiendo de exponer los principios para invertir en una empresa cerrada o en riesgo de cierre y terminando con la presentación del modelo estructurado. El quinto apartado analiza los resultados y el sexto esgrime la conclusión central la cual precisa que se logró proponer un modelo técnico, cualitativo, dotado con una formula y unos fundamentos de la ciencia administrativa, que precisan como una empresa en crisis se puede reorganizar observando que cumpla doce criterios, sobre los cuales es dable hacerla funcionar generando valor y demostrándose así que las empresas en crisis tienen valor y son sujeto valido de inversión.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

El área de estudio y práctica profesional sobre "la valoración de empresas" se orienta a empresas en marcha, presenta diversos métodos, desde los contables estáticos, hasta los intuitivos y subjetivos, Caballer y Moya (1997), Brilman y Maire (1990), Quemada (2009) pasando por los más sofisticados, los cuales consideran estadísticas internas de la empresa, del sector industrial y de la bolsa de valores, (García, 2003), (Mascareñas, 2005) y (Fernández, 2002) buscando establecer el potencial generador de valor futuro, esto es, la generación de beneficios y flujo de caja libre a perpetuidad de una empresa para con ello establecer su precio de venta y/o compra. De esos autores, solo Jean Brilman y Claude Maire, junto a Juan Mascareñas, dedican espacio a empresas en riesgo de cierre, reconociendo que es factible salvarlas, evitando "un enorme desperdicio de potencialidad" a los conglomerados sociales, pues "tanto las personas como la sociedad y la economía se ven seriamente afectadas, e incluso devastadas por la muerte prematura de las empresas", (De Geus, 1999, p.107-126) por lo que se las debe rescatar, ajustándolas a los cambios del mundo, adaptándolas a sus nuevas realidades, cambiando incluso si es necesario su portafolio de producto. Por su parte, el marco jurídico de las economías en desarrollo, como lo demuestra la legislación colombiana, comienzan ajustarse a las legislaciones avanzadas del mundo en materia de preservar la empresa, como el caso de los Estados Unidos de América, donde a través del Código de Bancarrota, bajo el capítulo 11, se incentiva la reorganización de las empresas en dificultades para evitar su desaparición, alentando o permitiendo la "Bancarrota preempacada".

MÉTODO DE INVESTIGACIÓN APLICADO

Se entrevisto mediante un cuestionario a seis expertos en materia empresarial, bien por la práctica, la teoría o ambos aspectos, quienes respondieron calificando de cero (0) o nada significativo, a diez (10) lo más relevante, frente a cada variable de las que les fueron expuestas, como medio para establecer aquellas variables que, por obtener una calificación igual o superior al 60 por cien deberían considerarse aptas o validas para ser aplicadas a manera cada una de un principio a seguir para invertir en una empresa cerrada o una en riesgo de cierre. El cuestionario se estructuro con cuatro secciones, la primera, se enfoco a los determinantes técnicos para invertir en una empresa en crisis a activar o fortalecer, con 30 variables a calificar. La segunda se dirigió a conocer los factores con los cuales identificar el posible valor que pudiesen guardar las empresas cerradas, con 22 variables; mientras el tercer bloque busco establecer los criterios con los cuales se podría conocer el potencial para generar riqueza que pudiese existir en empresas operando pero con riesgo de cierre. El cuarto grupo busco establecer los principios humanos o de buen gobierno que una empresa a reorganizar debe ofrecer a potenciales inversores y emprendedores, empleando 20 variables a ponderar.

El análisis se hizo tabulando las calificaciones del panel, tomando como variables validas para valorar empresas en crisis aquellas que obtuviesen una media de 60 por ciento o más. La Tabla 1, relaciona las variables y se vincula las que comunican una idea o sentido similar mediante letras iguales para

identificar su convergencia, pudiendo ser total, si se haya presente en las tres columnas, o parcial, si esta solo en dos.

Tabla 1: Convergencia de Variables Calificadas

	Principios o Determinantes Técnicos Para Invertir En Una Empresa A Activar O A Fortalecer	Variables Para Definir el Valor de la Empresa Cerrada e Invitan a Invertir En ella.	Variables Para Definir El Valor De La Empresa En Riesgo De Cierre E Invitan A Invertir En Ella
1	Margen de contribución alto o competitivo (A)	Activos fijos poseídos son productivos (H)	Activos fijos poseídos son productivos (H)
2	Tamaño del mercado potencial	Activos fijos permiten igual eficiencia de	Activos fijos permiten igualar eficiencia
3	Tamaño del mercado objetivo (B)	competidores (F)(G) Productos apropiados a activos fijos y con demanda interna y externa (E)	de competidores (F)(G) Los activos fijos permiten producir bienes con alta demanda
4	Tamaño de la participación en el mercado	Empresas sin procesos jurídicos (I)	Empresas sin procesos jurídicos (I)
5	Valor de la inversión total requerida (C)	Si se está en proceso concursal ello es	Anticiparse al cierre y pérdida de valor
6	Acceso del sector a crédito	conveniente Aunque no esté en proceso concursal se puede invertir	consiguiendo inversores El valor de la empresa equivale al de sus activos aplicables a producción
7	Cantidad y fortaleza de competidores (D)	Se puede comprar barato por ser empresa cerrada	El valor de fallos depende de si la causa es estructural o coyuntural
8	Acceso a mercados extranjeros (E)	El valor de la empresa son activos productivos menos sus pasivos totales	Los activos son aptos para producción innovadora con aceptación en mercados nacional y extranjero (E)
9	Capacidad de cambiar estructura del sector	Margen de contribución alto del portafolio (A)	Margen de contribución alto (A)
10	Crecimiento anual de la demanda y competidores	Pocos competidores directos e indirectos (D)	Pocos competidores directos e indirectos (D)
11	Capacidad de innovar o actualizar portafolio	El sector presenta alta demanda (B)	Alta demanda (B)
12	Posibilidad de crecer participación en el mercado	Montar empresa nueva vale entre un 50% al 100% más que la cerrada (C)	Montar empresa nueva vale entre un 50% al 100% más que sanear la que tiene riesgo (C)
13	Disponibilidad de capacidad instalada similar a rivales	El costo de generar marca de empresa nueva es igual o superior a pleitos +pasivos +activos de empresas cerradas	Si una empresa saludable equivalente a la que presenta dificultades vale una o más veces que esta se debe adquirir la enferma
14	Capacidad de producción a iguales costos que la competencia (F)	Si se puede igualar en breve tiempo el FEL y EBIT y el EBITAD de la empresa en marcha equivalente es mejor comprar la empresa cerrada	
15	Posibilidad de cubrir costos fijos usando		
16	del 5 al 15% de la capacidad instalada (G) Capacidad de contar unas estrategias competitivas definidas		
17	Capacidad de negociar con proveedores		
18	igual a competidores Capacidad de generar mercados sustitutos		
19	Disponibilidad de recursos mas económicos de infraestructura		
20	Tasa de retorno superior al costo de capital		
21	Capacidad de generar valor		
22	Capacidad de gestión de los responsables del proyecto		

Esta tabla recoge las variables que obtuvieron un 60% o más de calificación por parte del panel de expertos.

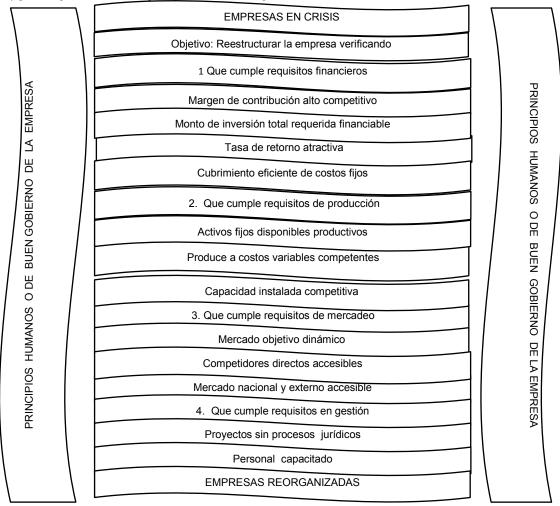
El Modelo Para Valorar Empresas En Crisis

De las variables de la Tabla 1 se dedujo las doce variables técnicas convergentes, que unidas a las variables en pro de conseguir la unión de nuevos socios para las empresas a reflotar sobre pilares de buen gobierno empresarial, permiten presentar el modelo buscado, el cual así reúne los factores básicos sobre

los cuales un inversor racional podría interesarse en conocer para considerar y efectivamente decidir invertir sus recursos en una empresa en crisis a reorganizar.

Figura 2: Diagrama	dal Madala da	Doorgonigooión	Emprogenial
rigula 2. Diaglaina	del Modelo de	Reorganización	Empresanar

La figura 2 esquematiza el due diligence para valorar una empresa en crisis.



Ese diagrama está indicando el due diligence o diligencia debida que debe practicarse a la empresa en crisis, por parte de sus directivos y propietarios, primeros en conocer su realidad, por lo cual deben dar el primer paso hacia la solución, preparando una hoja de ruta hacia la reorganización de la empresa, en cuyo epicentro estaría este modelo, empleado para elaborar el documento soporte que convoque a emprendedores e inversores, en el objetivo de conseguir el socio estratégico, en capacidad de aportar conocimiento, trabajo y capital para redireccionar la empresa hacia el grupo de empresas viables y estables. A partir de ese modelo, se obtiene el valor de la empresa, entendido como una cifra aproximada sobre la cual negocian los agentes interesados en reorganizar la empresa en crisis.

Estimación Del Valor De La Inversión Total Necesaria Para Reorganizar La Empresa En Crisis

Los inversores podrían tener mayor disponibilidad mental a invertir al entregárseles con claridad el valor de la inversión total demandada, la cual quedaría expresada dentro de una ecuación cuyas variables son: activos productivos presentes (APP) ; inversión en capital de trabajo (IKT) e inversión en generación de

marca (IGM) las cuales nunca podrían ser cero; y una serie de variables las cuales pueden tomar el valor de cero, de no contarse o requerirse de sus componentes, como inversión en mejora de activos (IMA); inversión en saneamiento jurídico (ISJ) e inversión en pago de acreencias (IPA); ello junto a cuentas por cobrar (CC) a favor de la firma; activos improductivos (AI); e incluso inventarios disponibles (ID) tales como mercancías disponibles para la venta, materias primas y hasta producción en proceso. Así, la ecuación de inversión quedaría:

$$IT = APP + IMA + (IKT - CC - ID) + IGM + ISJ + (IPA - AI)$$
(1)

Hasta aquí se puede concluir que ambos tipos de empresa, cerrada u operando en riesgo de cierre, guardan coincidencias en el origen y destino de sus problemáticas, por lo cual deben valorarse mediante una sola ecuación, que bien podría denominarse "ecuación para definir el valor de la empresa reorganizada" la cual pasa por definir el valor de la inversión total necesaria para reflotar a organizaciones en crisis.

Tal ecuación para definir el valor presente de la empresa reorganizada (VER), surgiría de restar al flujo de caja libre descontado (FCLD) el valor futuro de los pasivos totales presentes (VFPTP), considerando que las deudas o parte de ellas por alguna razón no se pudieron amortizar durante el proceso de reorganización y por ello un monto determinado debió dejarse para su pago posterior, derivado ese pago del flujo de caja operacional de la empresa. La fórmula entonces queda:

$$VER = FCLD - VFPTP \tag{2}$$

La ecuación (2) se formaliza presentándola en todos sus componentes, simplemente reemplazando la conocida ecuación para hallar el valor de una empresa en correcta operación, esto es, el flujo de caja libre descontado, y la ecuación para llevar a un valor futuro una suma presente, así:

$$VER = \left(\frac{FCL_2}{(1+K_0)} + \frac{FCL_2}{(1+K_0)^2} + \frac{FCL_2}{(1+K_0)^2} + \dots + \frac{FCL_n}{(1+K_0)^n} + \frac{VR}{(1+K_0)^n}\right) - P(1+i)^n$$
(3)

Donde: el Valor presente de la empresa reorganizada es el conocido Valor Actual de la Empresa (VAE), el cual es igual a la actualización de los distintos flujos de caja libre (FCL) a una tasa de descuento (K_0), más el Valor Residual (VR) de la empresa en el momento *n*, también actualizado al momento presente a la tasa K_0 . A ese resultado se resta el resultado del valor futuro del pasivo presente (P) que pudiese persistir después de las negociaciones de rescate de la empresa, a la tasa de interés (i) y por el periodo (n) que se pacte con los acreedores con los que no fue posible negociar el comprar la deuda o su incorporación como socios a la empresa reorganizada.

CONCLUSIONES Y LIMITACIONES

Se ha propuesto un método técnico, cualitativo, para establecer el valor de la empresa en crisis, estructurado sobre fundamentos teóricos y la opinión calificada de expertos, el cual precisa las variables criticas para reorganizar a una empresa en crisis, estando dotado de una fórmula para determinar el valor de la empresa en una cifra aproximada, la cual puede quedar afectada por todo o parte de las deudas anteriores, cuyo pago se deba diferir, con lo que se pudo cumplir el objetivo superior de demostrar, que dadas unas proyecciones del futuro de la empresa a un plazo de tres a cinco años, hechas con rigor por ajustarse a su capacidad de producción, y la realidad del mercado, se demuestra que la empresa tomara un valor al cabo de ese tiempo que resarce el esfuerzo de inversión monetaria y trabajo en ella aplicados a una fecha presente. Ese es justamente el cometido de valorar la empresa en crisis mediante el modelo conceptual y la fórmula halladas, demostrar en cada caso, que se podrá retornar la inversión en un tiempo

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DETERMINACIÓN DE LOS FACTORES INFLUYENTES SOBRE LOS ÍNDICES DE REPROBACIÓN Y EFICIENCIA TERMINAL MEDIANTE LA METODOLOGÍA MTS EN UNA INSTITUCIÓN DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR (IES).

Manuel A. Rodríguez Medina, Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez Manuel Iván Rodríguez Borbón, Nuevo México State University Jorge Hernández Palomino, Instituto Tecnológico de Cd. Juárez José Luis López Galván, Instituto Tecnológico de Ciudad Juárez

ABSTRACT

En las instituciones de educación superior en México, existen varios problemas, tales como, deserción escolar, reprobación, fracaso escolar y eficiencia terminal, entre otros. Los organismos evaluadores y de acreditación de las carreras dentro de estas IES, exigen criterios de selección del alumnado, y por supuesto el diagnóstico elaborado sobre las variables que influyen sobre los problemas antes mencionados. Este documento incluve una investigación realizada en una IES mexicana en el norte de la república, en la frontera con loe E.U. Hasta el momento, el único criterio de selección existente es un examen del sistema educativo mexicano, en este caso de la Dirección General de Educación Superior Tecnológica, o los exámenes del CENEVAL, pero están restringidos a evaluación de conocimientos mínimos necesarios y algunas pruebas psicometrías, sin considerar otras variables de importancia como el tipo de bachillerato realizado, la preparatoria de origen, características socioeconómicas, y algunas más que consideramos de importancia. Taguchi, Jugulum y Taguchi (2004) proponen una metodología mediante la cual puede construirse una escala de medición multivariable para comprender el comportamiento de diferentes modelos, los cuales, en su oportunidad, ayudan a medir o predecir varias condiciones de los sistemas multivariables de tal manera que el observador puede hacer inferencias apropiadas en relación a la importancia de las variables. Este documento hace uso de la metodología de Mahalanobis-Taguchi y de modelos lineales generalizados para hacer un estudio comparativo y determinar la importancia de las variables en su influencia sobre los indicadores más importantes en las IES: la reprobación y la eficiencia terminal.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Análisis Multivariable, IES, Sistema MTS, Distancia de Mahalanobis

INTRODUCCIÓN

Describir cualquier situación real, como por ejemplo, las dimensiones físicas de una persona, las características funcionales de un producto, la capacidad de un individuo como sujeto de crédito o las características que motivan a un comprador para la compra de equipo, requiere tener en cuenta varias variables de manera simultánea. El análisis de datos multivariables comprende el estudio estadístico de varias variables medidas en elementos de una población con los siguientes objetivos:

Resumir los datos mediante un pequeño conjunto de nuevas variables, a través de transformaciones de las variables originales, buscando la mínima pérdida de información.

Encontrar grupos en los datos, si estos existen.

Clasificación de nuevas observaciones en grupos existentes.

Establecer relaciones entre dos conjuntos de variables.

En las instituciones de educación superior en México, existen varios problemas, tales como, deserción escolar, reprobación, fracaso escolar y eficiencia terminal, entre otros. Los organismos evaluadores y de acreditación de las carreras dentro de estas IES, exigen criterios de selección del alumnado, y por supuesto el diagnóstico elaborado sobre las variables que influyen sobre los problemas antes mencionados.

Hasta el momento, el único criterio de selección existente es un examen del sistema, en este caso de la DGEST, o los exámenes del CENEVAL, pero están restringidos a evaluación de conocimientos mínimos necesarios y algunas pruebas psicometrías, sin considerar otras variables de importancia como el tipo de bachillerato realizado, la preparatoria de origen, características socioeconómicas, y algunas más que consideramos de importancia. Todo esto, no con el fin de negar la entrada a una institución pública, sino con el fin de establecer acciones para el mejoramiento, buscando áreas de oportunidad, tales como programas de trabajo para el mejoramiento del área de ciencias básicas en algunas preparatorias o programas de apoyo de transporte para alumnos que viven en colonias muy alejadas y que salen en horarios posteriores a las 21:00 horas Esta consideración en Cd Juárez es de suma importancia, debido a que actualmente esta ciudad es considerada la más violenta del mundo.

Lo anterior conlleva a tener que determinar cuáles son los factores que inciden en los índices de reprobación de los alumnos en una IES en la frontera con los E.U, en la ciudad considerada más violenta del mundo, para, por supuesto establecer acciones que reduzcan estos índices, como establecer un programa de apoyo para las preparatorias de origen, creación de medio de transporte para los alumnos que viven en zonas más conflictivas, etc.

REVISION LITERARIA

Hacer predicciones aproximadas basadas sobre información existente es también importante en el mundo de los negocios de hoy como incrementar el {área de mercados mediante el aumento de la confianza de los clientes. Algunas veces, estas predicciones podrían también ayudar a crear mercados. Generalmente, las predicciones tienen que estar basadas sobre la información de características múltiples (o variables) definiendo los sistemas. Tales sistemas son llamados sistemas multidimensionales. Un sistema multidimensional podría ser un sistema de inspección, un sistema educativo, un sistema de diagnóstico de la compañía. Siempre que tratemos con estos sistemas, diagnósticos o predicciones poco aproximadas podrán ocurrir debido a las capacidades de medición multidimensionales inadecuadas.

Taguchi, Jugulum y Taguchi (2004) proponen una metodología mediante la cual puede construirse una escala de medición multivariable para comprender el comportamiento de diferentes modelos, los cuales, en su oportunidad, ayudan a medir o predecir varias condiciones de los sistemas multivariables de tal manera que el observador puede tomar acciones correctivas apropiadas.Ellos utilizan la distancia de Mahalanobis, la cual mide distancias en sistemas multivariables mediante la consideración de correlaciones entre las variables, para la construcción de la escala, y los principios de ingeniería robusta o Metodología de Taguchi es utilizada para estimar la aproximación de la escala. De aquí que esta técnica sea referida como Estrategia Mahalanobis-Taguchi (MTS por sus siglas en inglés: Mahalanobis-Taguchi Strategy). También se describe una forma de validar la escala de medición. El uso de tal escala permite determinar cuando un producto particular deberá ser retirado del mercado, cuando un paciente necesita cirugía inmediata, cuando alguna cosa anormal está sucediendo, o cuando vale la pena invertir en una compañía. Diferente a algunos de los métodos, MTS es análisis de datos, lo que significa que MTS puede ser aplicado de manera independiente del tipo de variables de entrada y sus distribuciones.

Limón, Rodríguez, Báez y Tlapa (2011) evalúan la robustez del Sistema Mahalanobis Taguchi (SMT) a los diferentes arreglos ortogonales que pudieran utilizarse para discriminar las variables consideradas en un estudio. Para esto se utilizaron diferentes niveles de fraccionado de un diseño factorial, así como todas

las fracciones posibles para cada nivel, para evaluar si el resultado variaba dependiendo del arreglo empleado. Para ese análisis se usaron los datos del estudio del cáncer de mama de Wisconsin reportados en una publicación, en cuyo análisis utilizaron un Arreglo Ortogonal (AO) L12. En este trabajo en lugar de este AO se realizó el análisis con diseños 29-k (k=0,1,2,3,4 y 5) y todas las fracciones posibles para cada valor de k, generadas con el software Minitab 15. Para el análisis se generó un programa en Matlab y los resultados obtenidos demostraron que esta técnica no es robusta a los diferentes arreglos que pudieran utilizarse.

El Sistema Mahalanobis Taguchi

MTS es una técnica de análisis de modelos, la cual es usada para hacer predicciones a través de una escala de medición multivariable. Los modelos son difíciles de representar en términos cuantitativos y son extremadamente sensibles a las correlaciones entre las variables. La distancia de Mahalanobis, la cual fue introducida por un estadístico Hindú, P.C. Mahalanobis, mide distancias de puntos en espacios multidimensionales. Esta distancia ha sido extensivamente usada en áreas como aplicaciones espectro gráficas y de agricultura y ha probado ser superior a otras distancias multidimensionales como la distancia de Mahalanobis (actualmente una forma modificada de la distancia original) para representar diferencias entre modelos individuales en términos cuantitativos.

Uno de los principales objetivos de MTS es introducir una escala basada sobre todas las características de entrada para medir el grado de anormalidad. En el caso de diagnósticos médicos, por ejemplo, el objetivo es medir el grado de severidad de cada enfermedad basada sobre esta escala. Para construir esto se usa la escala MD, la cual es una distancia cuadrática (también denotada D2) y es calculada usando la siguiente fórmula:

$$MD = D^{2} = \frac{1}{k} Z_{i} C^{-1} Z_{i}$$
(1)

donde Z_i es el vector estandarizado mediante la estandarización de los valores de X_i (i = 1, ..., k)

 $Z_i = (X_i - m_i)/s_i;$ $X_i =$ Valor de la *i*-ésima característica

 m_i = Media de la *i*-ésima característica

 s_i = Desviación estándar de la *i*-ésima característica

k = Número de características/ variables

T = transpuesta del vector

 C^{-1} = Inversa de la matriz de correlación

Se puede ver que MD en la ecuación (1) se obtiene mediante escalado (esto es mediante la división por k) de la distancia original de Mahalanobis. Este escalado puede ser considerado como la desviación media cuadrática (MSD) en espacios multidimensionales. En MTS estamos interesados en definir un grupo normal (o grupo saludable), llamado espacio de Mahalanobis (MS).

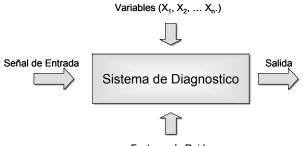
La definición del grupo normal o MS es lo que un grupo de especialistas en un campo determinado considerará lo ideal. MS es la población única en MTS. En el caso de diagnóstico médico, el MS es constituido solamente por la gente saludable y en el caso de un sistema de inspección de manufactura, el MS es constituido por productos de calidad alta. De aquí, el MS es una base de datos para el grupo normal consistente de las siguientes cantidades:

 m_i = media del vector s_i = Desviación estándar del vector C^1 = Inversa de la matriz de correlación

Dado que las MD's son usadas para definir el grupo saludable llamaremos a este grupo el espacio de Mahalanobis. Se puede demostrar fácilmente (con valores estandarizados) que el MS tiene punto cero cuando la media del vector y el MD promedio son unitarios. Debido a que el MD promedio del MS es unitario, el MS es también llamado el espacio unitario. El punto cero y la distancia unitaria son usados como puntos de referencia para la escala. La escala podrá ser también colocada para identificar la condición anormal. Con el fin de asegurar aproximación de la escala, diferentes clases de condiciones anormales conocidas con diferente grado de severidad tendrán que ser revisadas. Si la escala es buena, la condición anormal tendrá valores grandes de MD. En esta aplicación, las condiciones anormales no son consideradas como un grupo (población) separado debido a que la ocurrencia de cada anormalidad es único (por ejemplo, un paciente podrá ser anormal debido a su presión sanguínea alta o debido a su alto contenido de azúcar). Debido a esta razón, la misma matriz de correlación es usada para calcular la distancia de Mahalanobis de las condiciones anormales; la MD de una condición anormal (punto) es la distancia del punto al centro del MS.

En la siguiente fase del MTS, OA's y razones S/N son usadas para elegir las variables de importancia. Hay diferentes clases de razones S/N dependiendo sobre el conocimiento previo sobre la severidad de los anormales. Un sistema típico multidimensional usado en MTS es como el que se muestra en la Figura 1.

Figura 1. Sistema de diagnóstico multidimensional





Pasos en MTS. MTS puede ser aplicado a un sistema multidimensional en cuatro etapas. Los pasos en cada etapa son listados enseguida:

Etapa I: Construcción de una escala de medición con un espacio de Mahalanobis (Espacio Unitario) como referencia.

- Defina las variables que determinan la condición de anormalidad de un sujeto.
- Coleccione los datos sobre todas las variables del grupo saludable.
- Calcule los valores estandarizados de las variables del grupo saludable.
- Calcule los MD's de todas las observaciones.
- Use este espacio como el punto de referencia para la escala de medición.

Etapa II: Asegure la aproximación de la escala de medición

 Identifique las condiciones anormales. En aplicaciones de diagnóstico médico, las condiciones anormales se refieren a los pacientes que tienen diferentes clases de enfermedades.

- Calcule los MD's correspondientes a estas condiciones anormales siendo normalizadas usando la media y las desviaciones estándar de las variables correspondientes en el grupo saludable. La matriz de correlación (o conjunto de coeficientes vectoriales Gram-Schmidt, si el método de Gram- Schmidt es usado) correspondiente al grupo saludable es usado para encontrar los MD's de condiciones anormales.
- Si la escala es buena, los MD's correspondientes a las condiciones anormales deberán tener valores más altos. De esta manera la aproximación de la escala es asegurada.

Etapa III: Identificar el conjunto de variables útiles (etapa de desarrollo)

Encontrar el conjunto de variables útil usando arreglos ortogonales (OA's) y razones S/N. La razón S/N, obtenida de los MD's anormales, es usada como la respuesta para cada combinación de OA. El conjunto útil de variables se obtiene mediante la "ganancia" en razón S/N.

Etapa IV: Diagnóstico futuro con variables útiles

 La condición del paciente/entidad es monitoreada con la ayuda del conjunto de variables útiles sobre la escala desarrollada con MD's. Basándose en los valores de los MD's se deberán tomar acciones correctivas adecuadas. La decisión para tomar las acciones necesarias dependerá de los valores límites. Este método utiliza la función de pérdida cuadrática para calcular límites.

En el caso de diagnósticos médicos los pasos anteriores tienen que llevarse a cabo para cada clase de enfermedad en las subsecuentes fases de diagnóstico.

Determinación de la dirección de los anormales

Una de las principales razones para usar la Distancia de Mahalanobis es su habilidad para medir la severidad de las anormalidades en varios casos de diagnóstico multivariado. Algunas veces queremos estimar la anormalidad en ambas direcciones, positivo y negativo, como en el caso de diagnóstico de una compañía. Estos tipos de anormalidades están también presentes si consideramos el sistema de admisión de estudiantes graduados. En este caso un estudiante muy malo es anormal y un estudiante extremadamente bueno también es anormal. Por lo tanto, es importante identificar la dirección de la anormalidad. Esto no puede ser hecho si el MD es calculado usando la inversa de la matriz de correlación. Sin embargo, esto puede hacerse si usamos el proceso de ortogonalización de Gram-Schmidt (GSP) para calcular la MD.

METODOLOGÍA

En la determinación de los factores influyentes en el índice de reprobación se consideraron los siguientes: la carrera en la cual el estudiante está inscrito, la colonia donde vive, genero preparatoria de origen, estado civil, ciudad de origen, condición de empleo, número de integrantes de la familia, orden en el nacimiento, grados de escolaridad de los padres, ingreso mensual en el hogar, medio de transporte, etc.

Para el análisis se tomó el arreglo ortogonal $L_{16}(2^{15})$, donde el 1 significa la presencia del factor y el 2 significa la ausencia. De este arreglo se eligieron cada una de las 16 combinaciones para el cálculo de las distancias de Mahalanobis y posteriormente las razones de señal a Ruido.

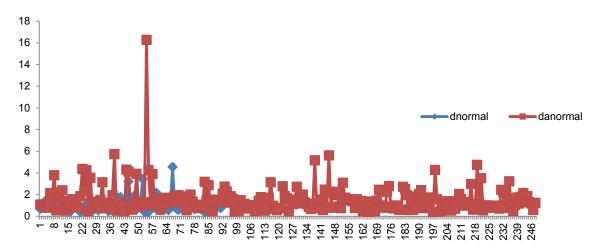
Arreglo Ortogonal $\left[L_{16}\left(2^{15}\right)\right]$

1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 2 2		$ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{array} $	1 1 2 2 1 1		$\begin{array}{c}1\\1\\2\\2\\2\\2\\2\end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		1 2 1 2 1 2	1 2 1 2 2	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c}1\\2\\2\\1\\1\\2\end{array}$	$1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 1$	1 2 2 1 2
1	2 2	2	2	1 2	1 1	2	$\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 2 \\ 1 \end{array}$		2	1 2	$ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array} $	2	1	1
1	2 1		2 2	2 1	2 2	1	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{array}$		2 2	1 1	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{array}$	1 2	2	2 2
2 2	1		2	1	2	1 1	2 1 2 2		2	2		2	2	2
2	1		2	2	1	2	1 1		2	1	2 2	1	2	1
2	1		2	2	1	2	1 2		1	2	1 1	2	1	2
2	2		1	1	2	2	1 1		2	2	1 1	2	2	1
2	2		1	1	2	2	1 2	1	1		2 2	1	1	2
2	2		1	2	1	1	2 1		2	2	1 2	1	1	2
2	2	1	2		1	1	2 2		1	1	2 1	2	2	1

La Tabla 1 muestra los resultados en decibeles de las razones S/N, donde se toman como significantes únicamente los valores positivos, es decir los factores cuya presencia influye sobre el índice de reprobación.

В	С	D	Ε	F	G	Н
9.5645	-28.9287	-22.9299	-24.0523	-25.7928	-29.2932	-26.5999
-32.832	-23.4679	-29.4667	-28.3442	-26.6037	-23.1034	-25.7966
13.2675	-5.4608	6.5368	4.2919	0.8109	-6.1898	0.6411
	T	V	т	М	N	0
25.877	J 23.6846	-26.307	<u> </u>	<u>M</u> 20.1836	30.3568	19.4068
26.518	-28.712	26.0895	30.9238	-32.213	22.0397	32.9898
0.6411	5.0724	-0.2175	9,4511	12.0294	-8.3171	13.583

Figura 1. Gráfica del comportamiento de los factores anormales contra normales



Factores significantes: B, D, E, F, H, I, J, L, M, O Factores Fuertes: O, B, M, L, D

Lo cual significa que los factores más influyentes en el índice de reprobación (factor B) son los ingresos familiares, la escolaridad de los padres, el lugar en la familia, la edad, el trabajo, la carrera, el semestre, el estado civil y la ciudad de origen.

Es necesario concluir que los resultados de la investigación podrían ser mejorados mediante la mejora de las escalas y, a pesar que el tamaño de la muestra fue de 600 personas encuestadas, algunos de los encuestados no aportaron información confiable. Además sería muy conveniente el validar los resultados en diferentes instituciones de educación superior, incluyendo universidades tecnológicas, universidades politécnicas e inclusive instituciones de educación media superior.

Parte de la problemática podría resolverse mediante la mejora de los estudios socioeconómicos y el otorgar becas a quien verdaderamente lo necesitara. Algo que es importante mencionar es que los maestros consideraban que la preparatoria de origen era uno de los factores que más influían en el índice de reprobación, y sin embargo el estudio muestra lo contrario.

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APROXIMACIÓN SOCIOECONÓMICA EN UNA COOPERATIVA DE PRODUCCIÓN PESQUERA DIVERSIDAD Y SUSTENTABILIDAD ORGANIZATIVA

Rosiluz Ceballos Povedano, Universidad del Caribe

RESUMEN

Este documento presenta un diagnóstico socioeconómico a una cooperativa de producción pesquera. El propósito es identificar las diferencias entre el desempeño real y el deseado de sus integrantes. El diagnóstico contempla el contexto social, desde la perspectiva del comportamiento de los integrantes de la organización y dentro de ésta establece aspectos financieros cuantificando aquellos costos que no se registran en los instrumentos financieros tradicionales de las empresas, llamados costos ocultos. La información se recabó a través de entrevistas semi-estructuradas y se contó con documentos y registros de la empresa, así como de observación directa. A partir de esta técnica se hace una reflexión sobre su pertinencia metodológica en los estudios organizacionales. Se explora desde la crítica de la Teoría de la Organización hasta la visión de los estudios organizacionales, para discutir sobre la intervención en las organizaciones a través de estudios cualitativos. Durante la aplicación del método se logró conocer el trabajo de los pescadores y la percepción que ellos tienen sobre su organización y su desempeño.

PALABRAS CLAVE: costos ocultos, cooperativa pesquera, estudios organizacionales

ABSTRACT

This document presents a socio-economic diagnosis to a cooperative of fish production. The purpose is to identify the differences between the actual performance and the desire of its members. The diagnosis provides the social context, from the perspective of the behaviour of the members of the Organization and within that establishes financial aspects quantifying those costs that are not recorded in traditional financial instruments firms, called hidden costs. The information was collected through interviews semi-estructuradas and he had documents and registers of the company, and direct observation. A reflection on its methodological relevance in organizational studies is as this technique. It explores from the critique of the theory of the Organization to the vision of the organizational studies, to discuss the intervention in the organizations through qualitative studies. During the implementation of the method was known the work of the fishermen and the perception that they have on your organization and its performance.

KEYWORDS: fishing cooperative, organization studies, hidden cost

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este documento se muestra la primera parte del diagnóstico socioeconómico desarrollado por el ISEOR, se aclara que el alcance de la metodología abarca más de un año de trabajo conjunto con la organización. En esta ocasión sólo se plantea el primer paso que es la parte de cercanía y conocimiento a través de sus actores. Esta metodología cualitativa y que se asienta en el cálculo de costos que no se ven de manera cotidiana en registros financieros comunes, permite analizar y enriquecer el trabajo realizado en las organizaciones.

Durante la revisión literaria se entabla una discusión sobre la ubicación y pertinencia de la Teoría Socioeconómica en los estudios organizacionales. Se hace un desarrollo desde la Teoría de la Organización hasta los enfoques actuales de los estudios de las organizaciones como una aportación al conocimiento y descubrimientos de factores al interior de ellas.

En la metodología se plantea la forma en la que se llega a estos resultados y en éstos se establecen los hallazgos a través de los individuos, ¿cuánto dejan de hacer y cuál es el costos de este abandono. Se concluye que este ejercicio permite a las organizaciones conocer su propio desempeño aún si este no presentara dificultades de conducción siempre hay algún tema que mejorar.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La Teoría Socioeconómica y el modelo de Intervención

El diagnóstico socio económico en las organizaciones, se lleva a cabo por el Instituto de Socio economía de las empresas y las organizaciones ISEOR. Desarrolla la teoría de gestión socio económica llamada cuali-cuantitativa, su propósito es establecer una intervención en las organizaciones a través de procesos de análisis de cambio y del desempeño global durable. El aspecto cualitativo está basado en la obtención de disfuncionamientos hipertrofiados que recaen en costos hipertrofiados llamados costos ocultos. Esta relación se refleja en estructuras y comportamientos atrofiados.

Los disfuncionamientos hipertrofiados son las diferencias entre las estructuras de la organización y los comportamientos de los integrantes. Estas disfunciones se agrupan en seis categorías: condiciones de trabajo, organización del trabajo, comunicación-coordinación-concertación, gestión del tiempo, formación integrada e implementación de la estrategia.

Ubicación de la Teoría socioeconómica en los estudios organizacionales

La teoría socioeconómica propone la creación de nuevo conocimiento cimentada en las investigacionesinterventivas. El trabajo del grupo de ISEOR se compara con otros métodos de cambio organizacional. En este sentido toma de la metodología cualitativa la vocación de no anteceder una respuesta hacia el contexto de una organización para su intervención y toma, tal como lo hace el postmodernismo, la introducción al caso a través del individuo, a final de cuentas ¿quiénes formas las organizaciones? La diferencia del enfoque socioeconómico radica en que no se circunscribe en el relato y el uso del lenguaje para percibir la realidad de los actores de las organizaciones sino que utiliza un enfoque aportado por la Teoría Crítica en el sentido de enfocarse hacia áreas funcionales.

Esta función se logra ya que todos los integrantes de la organización son involucrados para ejercer un cambio al interior, con esto no se sesga el estudio a un solo grupo élite de la organización, así como también todas las aportaciones son usadas en términos de aplicación práctica, son el propósito de su descubrimiento. Con el cambio en la organización es posible observar las diferentes formas en la que los individuos se organizan y más allá de intervención también se genera conocimiento organizacional al conocer la organización desde sus individuos.

METODOLOGÍA

El proceso de intervención se llevó a cabo en la Sociedad Cooperativa de Producción Pesquera "Por la Justicia Social". Esta cooperativa inicia sus actividades en 1981, su capital humano está integrado por 22 socios y 40 asalariados o aspirantes, dentro de sus funciones principales se encuentran las actividades productivas propias de la pesca y las funciones directivas de los órganos de gobierno. Su actividad principal es la captura de escama de: mero, boquinete, pargo, coronado, sierra, langosta y pulpo, solo en los periodos permitidos, ya que en bases publicadas existen períodos de veda de las especies.

Para realizar el diagnóstico socioeconómico en la cooperativa se realizó una entrevista al Presidente de la cooperativa, exponiéndole la metodología del ISEOR, posteriormente se entregó una carta en la que se expusieron los pasos de intervención, esta carta se le entregó a los socios cooperativistas que serían entrevistados. Se les aclaró que el documento se les expondría en asamblea a los socios y que se elaboraría la primera etapa de intervención: el diagnóstico, con el propósito de establecer los disfuncionamientos.

Según la arquitectura de intervención, se entrevistaron 14 personas en 10 entrevistas: Entrevistas individuales a dos directivos, el Presidente y el vocal financiero; a dos socios y a cuatro miembros del equipo directivo. Dos entrevistas grupales, la primera a tres socios que componen la tripulación de una embarcación y la segunda a tres asalariados-aspirantes que pertenecen a tripulaciones de diferentes embarcaciones.

RESULTADOS

La intervención a la SCPP en la fase de diagnóstico presentó los objetivos de intervención siguientes: Involucrar a todos los socios cooperativistas en los procesos de dirección y conservación de la SCPP; determinar los días de trabajo por socio y la aportación a la cooperativa

Asistir a la SCPP en mejorar el manejo de información sobre productividad individual de los socios y general de la cooperativa; transferir conocimiento a todos los socios sobre el origen de la cooperativa y su conservación Manifestar valores sobre la sucesión o el relevo generacional

Estos objetivos fueron posibles debido a las entrevista que se realizaron y al efecto espejo. El objetivo que marcaron como más importante para la intervención fue el de transferir conocimientos entre socios. En el efecto espejo estuvieron presentes todos los socios y se les presentó la siguiente información:

- Una propuesta de trabajo conjunto basada en Entrevistas
- Observación directa al trabajo
- Grupos de información
- Proyectos de investigación financiados
- Redacción de libro

Respecto a los días de trabajo los socios afirmaron que faltaban normalmente los lunes, en la gráfica puede observarse que es uno de los días que más se trabaja. Durante el reflejo espejo los socios afirmaron que esos datos eran parciales ya que había días de trabajo que no se realizaba captura pero servía de preparación, así como otros días en los que se trabaja pero en captura de escama. Este ejercicio permitió establecer los procesos de registro de la cooperativa y el proceso de trabajo que de otra manera no se hubiera recuperado.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados obtenidos a través del diagnóstico socioeconómico, parten del estudio de la realidad de una organización, de su contexto y de su ambiente interno, no involucra postulados fuera de lugar, sus mismos integrantes a través de las entrevistas fueron quienes propusieron las acciones. Los cooperativistas han observado el trabajo diferente entre las generaciones de socios que van entrando y se dan cuenta de que a esta sucesión no se le agrega el conocimiento de las anteriores.

El efecto espejo, es la aportación mayor en este documento, se realizó ante el presidente de la cooperativa y ante los 22. Los resultados de esta reunión fueron los siguientes:

Los socios se sorprendieron de los días de la temporada que salía a trabajar y la diferencia en producción por lancha, ver los resultados plasmados en la presentación los llevó a una reflexión que compartieron entre todos. También aclararon que el reporte que administración proporcionó para el cálculo del los días era una información parcial ya que además se tienen registros libres y por escama.

1.- los pescadores registran captura de langosta libre y en remanente, para el cálculo no se incluyó la libre. Es importante aclararlo pues los resultados son diferentes, se trabajará más adelante con estos resultados.

2.- Aunque la cooperativa se dedica a la captura de langosta también extrae productos de escama y algunas embarcaciones se dedican más a la pesca de escama, es por eso que sólo se reportan 13 embarcaciones y que algunas tienen una pesca muy baja.

3.- El día registrado de trabajo equivale a los días de captura pero hay días de trabajo, de acomodo de trampas que no se registra, ellos no tienen un control

Todas estas indicaciones fueron aclaradas durante el efecto espejo, lo que confirma se una estrategia por demás útil en la elaboración del diagnóstico.

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Licenciada en Economía, UADY. Maestra en Economía Industrial, actualmente estudiante del doctorado en Estudios Organizacionales de la UAM-I. Profesora Investigadora de la Universidad del Caribe, Departamento de Economía y Negocios. SM 78, Mza. 1, Lote 1 Esq. Fracc. Tabachines. Cancún Quintana Roo. México. rosiluzc@gmail.com

INNOVACION Y CAMBIO ORGANIZACIONAL EN SIEMENS-MÉXICO

Ma. Del Carmen Domínguez Ríos, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla Michele Alexandra Corona Domínguez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

RESUMEN

En esta investigación se analiza la trayectoria tecnológica de la empresa SIEMENS fundada en México desde 1894, como parte de la multinacional alemana creada en 1847. La historia de la empresa muestra su capacidad para crear y desarrollar nuevos productos y servicios en hitos de innovación que comenzaron desde sus primeras etapas de operación. Debido a los conocimientos técnicos de sus fundadores, SIEMENS ha realizado desarrollos puntuales para dar respuesta a las necesidades de finales del siglo pasado. La metodología aplicada es el estudio de caso de la empresa en México, se utilizó el árbol tecnológico de la empresa. Los resultados revelan los procesos de cambio/ adaptación en la tecnología de producto, procesos y organización y las características de la innovación que le han permitido a SIEMENS-México mantenerse como una subsidiaria viable y como nodo vital en la red global de innovación en el sector de la energía.

PALABRAS CLAVES: innovación, árbol tecnológico, capacidad de adaptación al cambio, SIEMENS

ABSTRACT

This research analyzes the technological path of SIEMENS. This firm was founded in 1894 as part of a German multinational created in 1847. The history of the firm shows its capacity to create and develop new products and services. Innovation has been always present. Due to technical knowledge of its founders, SIEMENS has made a lot of products that satisfy the needs of consumers in the last century. The applied methodology is the case of study of the firm in Mexico. The technological tree of the firm was elaborated. The results reveal the processes of change/ adaptation in product technology, as well as in processes of the organization. The features that have made SIEMENS- México a leader with constant innovation are exposed. Therefore, this firm has become very important in the energy sector at global level.

KEYWORDS: *innovation, technological tree, change/adaptation skills, SIEMENS*

INTRODUCCIÓN

Análisis estratégico de la innovación tecnológica en la empresa

Se recurre a la noción de las tecnologías claves o esenciales (Dussauge, Hart y Ramantsoa, 1992). Estas se entienden como la posesión y dominio de tecnologías criticas para otorgarle a sus procesos y productos, sean estos bienes o servicios, atributos que los hacen mejores que los que ofrecen la competencia para los consumidores.

Las tecnologías esenciales son tecnologías básicas o genéricas, en la medida en que constituyen el saber hacer fundamental para producir el tipo de bienes o servicios que le permite a cualquier empresa ingresar y permanecer en un mercado específico. Estas tecnologías que de una parte, están obligadas las empresas que actúan en el negocio; de otra parte, este saber contiene altas potencialidades tecnológicas en la medida en que les facilita a las empresas desarrollar productos que les permiten desenvolverse en uno o en distintos sectores. El estudio del árbol tecnológico permite establecer el desarrollo del potencial de las tecnologías básicas de las empresas y su alcance en la aplicación en diferentes mercados o sectores. No obstante, desde una perspectiva estratégica, la indagación se orienta a determinar si en la empresa han existido desarrollos de ese saber fundamental que le hayan permitido diferenciarse tecnológicamente y si además, en la explotación de esas capacidades tecnológicas diferenciadas se han generado ventajas competitivas en diferentes mercados o sectores. El análisis y el desarrollo de las capacidades distintivas, o competencias centrales, como una forma de alcanzar la competitividad sostenible, es desarrollada por Tidd (2000), sin embargo, escapan a los objetivos y alcances del presente trabajo, centrado en la identificación de las características de la innovación Prahalad y Hamel (1990).

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Capacidades y gestión tecnológica de las empresas desde una perspectiva funcional

La evolución y desarrollo de las prácticas en que se materializan tanto la gestión como las capacidades tecnológicas de la empresa, constituyen el contexto tecnológico micro en el cual se realizan los procesos de innovación, su análisis proporciona elementos para la comprensión de la innovación.

El referente evolutivo que orienta este trabajo también se revela en la percepción de que el conjunto de prácticas en que se expresan las capacidades tecnológicas de la empresa tiene niveles de desarrollo y de complejidad ascendentes.

Las capacidades tecnológicas se agrupan en capacidades de inversión, de producción y de vinculación. Las capacidades de inversión se refieren a aquellas habilidades necesarias antes de crear una nueva instalación o de expandir una planta existente, como por ejemplo, las habilidades para identificar, seleccionar y negociar la tecnología necesaria; determinar los costos de capital del proyecto, la convivencia de la escala y la diversidad de productos; comprender las tecnologías básicas implicadas. Estas capacidades afectan la eficiencia con la que operara la planta.

Las capacidades de producción van desde las habilidades básicas (por ejemplo, control de calidad, operación y mantenimiento), las habilidades un poco más avanzadas (como la adaptación del equipo, su mejoramiento o su uso en otras aplicaciones), hasta aquellas más existentes (investigación, diseño e innovación). Dentro de estas capacidades se encuentran las tecnologías de procesos de producto. Estas habilidades determinan que tan bien se aplican las actividades internas para absorber las tecnologías que se adquieren o se copian de otras empresas, así como para operar y mejorar algunas de ellas.

Las capacidades de vinculación son necesarias para transmitir y recibir información, habilidades y tecnología de agentes externos, como proveedores, asesores, subcontratistas, consultores, entre otros. Estas capacidades se pueden tomar como el marco para estudiar la subcontratación, la cooperación, las alianzas estratégicas, entre otras. Las relaciones con el entorno afectan la eficiencia productiva de la empresa, la difusión de la tecnología en la economía y profundización de la estructura industrial. Las capacidades de eslabonamiento de las empresas se concentraran en sus relaciones interempresariales y con otras instituciones, vistas estas desde la perspectiva de su articulación con el sistema nacional de innovación (Freeman, 1995; Lundvall, 1992 y Nelson, 1993).

Desde este enfoque se considera que la empresa hace parte de una red de agentes e interacciones que propician la creación, uso y difusión del conocimiento económicamente útil, así como los ritmos de las innovaciones. La empresa se articula a ellos con el fin de efectuar por la vía de la cooperación sus actividades de desarrollo tecnológico.

El marco presentado permite analizar el proceso de desarrollo de las tecnologías básicas y de conversión en tecnologías esenciales, esto es, estratégicas, en la medida en que se constituyen en fuentes de diferenciación y de ventajas competitivas; también permite analizar el desarrollo de las capacidades tecnológicas, vistas estas desde una perspectiva funcional; este contexto facilita el análisis de los procesos puntuales y de la trayectoria que sigue la innovación en la empresa. El marco teórico descrito brinda elementos que permiten caracterizar la innovación, identificar los factores que inciden en su dinámica y sus efectos en el terreno competitivo, tecnológico y en las habilidades mismas para innovar.

METODOLOGÍA

Siemens se fundo en México en 1954, como subsidiaria de la multinacional alemana creada en 1847 y caracterizada a través del tiempo por su elevado nivel de innovación en productos y servicios relacionados con sus áreas de negocio.

La historia de la empresa muestra su capacidad para crear y desarrollar nuevos productos y servicios en hitos de innovación que comenzaron desde sus primeras etapas de operación. Debido a los conocimientos técnicos de sus fundadores (Ernest Werner von Siemens y Johann Halske), Siemens se encargo de hacer desarrollos puntuales para dar respuesta a las necesidades de finales del siglo XIX. Su actividad se inicia construyendo telégrafos con interruptores automáticos que eran productos de muy poca difusión en ese momento. Von Siemens estableció una red de telégrafos en Rusia, desarrollo cables de telégrafo instalados bajo el mar y fundo la ingeniería de alto voltaje con la invención del generador en 1866. Halske realizo importantes invenciones que sirvieron de base para los avances en el ámbito de la física atribuidos a Ernest Werner von Siemens y Johann Halske.

Partiendo de los antecedentes históricos, el caso que se presenta pretende mostrar las manifestaciones de la innovación, sus características y sus determinantes en Siemens, Así mismo, busca mostrar que si bien es cierto las políticas globales de la compañía son determinantes en las posibilidades formales de investigación y desarrollo, las manifestaciones de las actividades innovadoras en Siemens son evidentes, tienen rasgos propios y le permiten la creación de nuevas características en los productos y servicios para mantenerse como una subsidiaria viable y como un nodo vital en la red global de innovación de la empresa matriz.

El caso se enfoca a la indagación de los aspectos relacionados con la innovación en el negocio de energía, con sus plantas de transformadores de potencia y distribución y que hacen parte dentro de la organización multinacional de Siemens.

Siemens opera en siete áreas de negocio alrededor de todo el mundo: Automatización y Control, Información y Comunicaciones, Soluciones Medicas, Energía, Transporte, y Servicios Financieros e Inmobiliarios.

Productos y servicios

El negocio de energía de Siemens tiene como propósito la producción de bienes y servicios para los sectores de generación y transformación de energía en todo lo que tiene que ver con potencia y distribución. Su oferta abarca productos y servicios relacionados con la planificación, diseño, suministro, montaje, pruebas y puesta en servicio de instalaciones eléctricas de alta tensión para uso interior e intemperie; encapsuladas y de técnica convencional, líneas de transmisión, centros de despacho, tableros de potencia, equipos de mando, centros de control de monitores y sistemas de medición de energía y servicios asociados con el mantenimiento, entrenamiento, supervisión de montaje, reparación y elaboración de manuales..

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Cultura organizacional

A partir del marco teórico de esta investigación, la empresa se puede caracterizar como: Extrovertida: enfoque hacia fuera, responde a estímulos externos Sensible: se mantiene al tanto de las actualidades, esta pendiente de los detalles Racional: depende de procedimientos impersonales y principios Rigurosa: prefiere las cosas claras y definitivas, busca normas.

Teniendo en cuenta este perfil puede decirse que la organización posee vocación al crecimiento a gran escala, sabe crecer, asume sus reglas, tiene definidas sus responsabilidades y sus procedimientos son lógicos y consistentes. Controla los detalles. Tiene rigurosidad en los procesos concretos, específicos y cuantificables. Se considera el tiempo como recurso valioso. Tiende a ser una organización jerárquica. Los procesos se encuentran estandarizados y sus actividades están coordinadas por cronogramas detallados, evitando dejar situaciones a la deriva. Es una organización creativa pero con poca inclinación a los cambios drásticos y repentinos. No son proclives a hacer innovaciones radicales de productos o servicios, pero a pesar de esto cuando es necesario lo hacen en forma eficiente y a tiempo.

Esta caracterización de la empresa definida con base en el resultado de la encuesta sobre cultura, proporciona una visión general de la organización que pudo ser contrastada con la realidad percibida en el proceso de recolección de información y las entrevistas. En las concordancias de la caracterización teórica con las observaciones realizadas se destaca la presencia en la práctica de procedimientos, estándares y lineamientos que orientan la operación. Desde el punto de vista teórico parecería que existen limitaciones en los espacios para la innovación, pero en la realidad de la empresa se observa que, a pesar de la presencia de procedimientos rigurosos para todas las tareas, la disposición a cuestionarlos y plantear alternativas de cambio son bien recibidas, construyendo un clima propicio para el pensamiento innovador.

RESULTADOS

Innovaciones en el proceso productivo a partir de las metodologías de mejoramiento continuo

Los conocimientos regionales en el periodo posterior a la apertura económica trajeron consigo cambios en las políticas de manufactura en la planta. En primer lugar, por el establecimiento de acuerdos de subcontratación y, en segundo lugar, por la aplicación sistemática de metodologías de mejoramiento continuo, con las que se buscaba encontrar la máxima eficacia posible en el uso de recursos. Es así como, a partir de 1998, se comenzó a utilizar la metodología *kaizen*.

Se considera la aplicación del *kaizen* como una precondición para la innovación en procesos, que ha significado para la empresa la incorporación permanente de mejoras organizadas en las propuestas de los equipos de trabajo. El propósito de esta aplicación ha sido la consolidación de un sistema global de producción, orientado al manejo eficiente de los recursos a partir de las mejoras locales en cada uno de los procesos.

La compañía destina los recursos en tiempo, personal y requerimientos adicionales para que equipos de trabajo conformados por personas de distintas áreas y niveles dentro de la organización dediquen cierto tiempo una semana completa al mejoramiento de una función del proceso.

El proceso de *kaizen* en general comprende: la asignación de diferentes tareas a los miembros del grupo, definición de posibles puntos o procesos críticos, construcción de propuestas de solución y consulta de la vialidad de las mismas con los especialistas del proceso. En la misma semana se efectúan la mayoría de las modificaciones acordadas, y para las tareas que no puedan ser desarrolladas en forma inmediata se determina un cronograma de trabajo para su futura ejecución. Una vez evaluados los efectos, se documenta el proceso, se difunde la información entre las áreas relacionadas con la operación y se

incorpora en una biblioteca de trabajo de la intranet, que luego puede ser consultada por los miembros de la compañía en cualquier lugar del mundo.

Innovaciones en el proceso de comercialización

El proceso de innovación comercial se ha enmarcado dentro de una estrategia global denominada APP (*Account Plan Process Plus*), que busca mantener un crecimiento sostenido en los niveles de ventas de la compañía, haciendo más eficiente la labor comercial y evitando las duplicidades que se presentaban en la atención a clientes por ser abordados simultáneamente desde diferentes divisiones.

La implementación de APP implico la creación del área de mercadeo y el rediseño de muchos procedimientos. Exigió que las personas relacionadas con esta área adquieran un conocimiento global del negocio y pudieran pasar de ser agentes comerciales a asesores integrales en soluciones tecnológicas. Se han desarrollado equipos de trabajo interdivisionales que buscan ofrecer soluciones integrales a clientes estratégicos para la compañía. La visión de esta estrategia es conseguir que Siemens se convierta en un socio estratégico de sus clientes y sea mucho más que un proveedor ocasional. En general la estrategia apunta al desarrollo de un proceso de comunicación permanente entre la empresa y los clientes para conseguir la traducción de sus requerimientos en soluciones integrales aprovechando las ventajas competitivas de la empresa.

CONCLUSIONES

Capacidades tecnológicas en Siemens

Los procesos de actualización tecnología están claramente enfocados hacia la parte de diseño en la línea de fabricación de transformadores.

En las etapas iniciales de operación en la planta, cuando el diseño era realizado manualmente, se contó con los dispositivos, herramientas e implementos que facilitaban la realización de este trabajo altamente técnico y preciso, pero manual. En la segunda etapa, se busco incorporar programas de computador enfocados hacia el diseño en dos y tres dimensiones. La incorporación de estas herramientas computarizadas buscaba hacer mucho más eficiente el proceso de diseño y reducir la posibilidad de incurrir en errores. La ultima etapa correspondiente a un periodo con desarrollos propios de los ingenieros de la empresa para crear plataformas que faciliten el trabajo en quipo, tanto en el interior de la planta como en otras plantas del mundo, aprovechando el *know-how* de toda la organización. La búsqueda de flexibilidad (reflejada en la posibilidad de desarrollar nuevos proyectos con base en proyectos anteriores) y la modularizacion (reflejada por la manipulación de parámetros de diseño en vez del diseño en si mismo), permiten la creación de nuevas ventas competitivas para el desarrollo de proyectos con tiempo de entrega mas cortos y costos mas competitivos.

El manejo tecnológico ha estado sujeto a procesos de formalización y definición de procedimientos claros y verificables, pero los lineamientos generales provienen de la casa matriz. Los procesos de investigación y desarrollos formales no se adelantan y cuando se presentan corresponden mas a un mecanismo de solución de problemas que a una política planificada de investigación. Se resalta el ambiente de generación de ideas, evaluación e implementación de las mismas en todos los niveles de la organización, además de la inclusión de conocimiento proveniente de otras partes del mundo: capacitación, visitas a otras plantas, comunicación directa vía intranet, etc.

Las decisiones de inversión tecnológicas se toman de acuerdo con evaluaciones rigurosas para medir el impacto de la misma, aunque en los últimos años se ha buscado el manejo eficiente de los recursos tecnológicos disponibles, antes de la adquisición de nuevos equipos. Se considera la tecnología como una herramienta fundamental al momento de ofrecer mejores servicios a los clientes, por lo que se han hecho

importantes esfuerzos en el mejoramiento de las plataformas informáticas y la infraestructura computacional disponible.

En cuanto al tema de incorporación de tecnología, la planta tiene la posibilidad de realizar indagaciones en el ámbito internacional o puede recibir recomendaciones avaladas por persona expertas de los centros de I&D en el mundo. El conocimiento de las tecnologías de punta es muy rápido y la planta evalúa la conveniencia de su incorporación, de acuerdo a las necesidades en cada momento

Los procesos de selección de tecnología se evalúan de acuerdo a los estándares mundiales, en los últimos años el enfoque ha sido la utilización más eficiente posible de los recursos disponibles. La negociación y transferencia tecnológica se realiza desde otras instituciones hacia Siemens y desde esta hacia sus proveedores y aliados estratégicos. Gran parte de los contratos de *out-sourcing* se establecieron con empresas cuya tecnología básica hasta parte de Siemens y les fue transferida para poder aprovechar el conocimiento conjunto de los procesos y las posibilidades de especialización que de esta forma se obtenía. En el mismo sentido, la integración de la empresa con instituciones académicas ha permitido la solución de problemas específicos de sus productos y procesos.

La parte de uso y explotación de la tecnología muchos de los desarrollos tecnológicos que poseen la compañía, especialmente en el que el área de diseño, han sido generados internamente como aplicaciones propias que utilizan consolidar ventajas sostenibles en el tiempo y de difícil adquisición por parte de empresas competidoras.

En investigación y desarrollo la empresa cuenta con los beneficios de las actividades I&D desarrolladas en los centros de investigación de Siemens en el mundo. No existe un procesos formal de investigación. Aunque se han realizado desarrollos importantes, no corresponden a un proceso sistemático sino que son respuestas a necesidades puntuales en momentos de dificultades de distinta índole en la empresa.

En la parte de innovación se hace referencia a las mejoras en todo lo relacionado con los procesos productivos y de ofrecimiento de soluciones integrales de ingeniería para proyectos energéticos. Los productos que fabrica la empresa se encuentran en etapas maduras de su desarrollo en donde las innovaciones se dirigen a la consecución de procesos. Los proceso de mejoramiento continuo, fortalecimiento del diseño, utilización de tecnología informática, implementación de nuevos y mejores servicios integrales para los clientes, han servido para consolidar un portafolio de opciones con las que se esta concursando en los procesos licitatorios dentro del mercado.

La salvaguardia tecnológica, la empresa utiliza tres tipos de conocimientos tecnológicos que tiene claramente diferenciados y para los cuales realiza un manejo totalmente ajustado: 1) conocimiento que es de dominio común dentro del sector y no requiere ningún tipo de protección, 2) conocimiento proveniente de la casa matriz, pero que ha sido patentado a nivel internacional, cuya protección esta fuera del alcance de la compañía y, 3) conocimiento desarrollado al interior de la planta, pero que no cuenta con protección legal y que es celosamente reservado.

Para la capacitación tecnológica se adjudica la calificación más alta, debido a que los procesos de difusión de conocimiento se consideran como un aspecto muy importante dentro de la empresa. De la misma manera por el reconocimiento mundial que posee la planta en muchos aspectos, en ocasiones sirve como planta difusora de capacitación para miembros de la empresa provenientes de otras partes del mundo.

Finalmente, en lo relacionado con eslabonamiento tecnológico, es interesante ver los procesos de integración entre Siemens y sus proveedores de bienes y servicios. Para el caso de muchos insumos y procesos, los proveedores adoptan los lineamientos ofrecidos por Siemens para sus procesos de producción, al igual que las metodologías de mejoramiento desarrolladas al interior de la planta. El eslabonamiento se presenta también con los acuerdos para el manejo de inventarios en consignación que mantienen los proveedores y que significan reducciones importantes en los costos de la empresa por la

disminución de las cantidades de dinero invertidas en inventarios. En ciertas ocasiones la integración con algunas instituciones académicas y la conformación de grupos interinstitucionales para la solución de problemas, ha permitido el desarrollo de mejoras en los productos y procesos.

Utilizando la escalera tecnológica, como marco de análisis, se puede observar que en Siemens se lleva a cabo procesos claros de desarrollo tecnológica que van desde la adquisición de tecnología hasta la generación de avances propios, que tienen como base la tecnología adquirida en el mercado, y que en la empresa se perfeccionan de acuerdo con las aplicaciones necesarias para su propia operación. El desarrollo tecnológico ha pasado por varias etapas que no son simultáneas en las diferentes áreas de la empresa.

Desde el punto de vista de la transferencia y el aprendizaje tecnológico se percibe la difusión de conocimiento presentes en Siemens. Vale la pena resaltar la conexión permanente con plantas de transformadores en el mundo, con quienes se comparte la información que agiliza la solución de problemas y la toma de decisiones. Los programas de capacitación a nivel nacional, regional y mundial promueven la implementación de desarrollos de vanguardia generados en cualquier parte del mundo, siempre y cuando demuestren su grado de impacto positivo en el desempeño del negocio.

En general, Siemens se encuentra en el estadio mas alto de la escalera tecnológica, calificando como de complejidad avanzada. Se evidencia que su negocio corresponde a la venta de asesorías integrales en servicios de ingeniería para proyectos de infraestructura eléctrica durante las etapas de definición de requerimientos, diseño, fabricación, pruebas de funcionamiento, transporte, montaje, garantía postventa y reparación de equipos propios o de otros fabricantes. En esta instancia se utiliza el *know how* y el *know why* de toda una red global de innovación que se encuentra potencialmente disponible para el desarrollo de proyectos de cualquier dimensión, utilizando herramientas tecnológicas de vanguardia y sistemas efectivos de comunicación que facilitan ambientes de trabajo colaborativo, en algunos casos de naturaleza virtual.

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BIOGRAFÍA

Ma. Del Carmen Domínguez Ríos.

Doctora en Administración de Organizaciones UNAM. Economista. Línea de investigación: Competitividad e innovación. Catedrática de la Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla. E-mail: delcar59@yahoo.com.mx

Michele A. Corona Domínguez.

Economista. Estudiante de Maestría en Administración de empresas de la Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla. Asistente de investigación.

E-mail: macd2707@hotmail.com

ANALISIS DE LOS DETERMINANTES DE LA PARTICIPACION FEMENINA EN EL MERCADO LABORAL DE LA CIUDAD DE LA SERENA, CHILE

Erico Wulf Betancourt, Universidad de La Serena

ABSTRACT

This paper, is focused in the analysis of variables which might be considered to be relevant to explain female decision to participate into the labor force, in a small regional labor market. The methodology applied, includes a preliminary descriptive approach, taking into consideration a sample based on income, age, education and place of living. Then, in an exploratory stage, it is used econometric tools to verify the robustness of the hypothesis stated to be checked. The main conclusions goes on the same direction of previous research, which validated education and fertility as related to the probability of labor force participation. While, Age and cultural factors are no relevant in the probability of labor force participation decisions.

KEY WORDS: Labor force participation, time allocation

INTRODUCCION

El objetivo de esta investigación es identificar cuáles son las determinantes de la participación laboral o no de la mujer, para el año 2010, aplicando un análisis descriptivo y econométrico que permita medir la relación existente entre las diferentes variables que inciden en la decisión de participar de la mujer en el mercado laboral. Las principales conclusiones establecen que entre estas variables hay que considerar las condiciones del mercado laboral (rigideces V/S flexibilidad).Del mismo modo, se valida la importancia de la educación y la fertilidad como determinantes de la participación de la mujer en la Fuerza de trabajo. La primera sección se refiere a la revisión de la literatura en el tema, la siguiente sección explica la metodología utilizada, datos, hipótesis y resultados. Se realiza una investigación descriptiva y posteriormente exploratoria. La última sección presenta las conclusiones mas relevantes. Destaca el rol de la fertilidad y educación en la probabilidad de participar en la fuerza de trabajo, mientras que la edad y los factores culturales no tienen relevancia en dicha probabilidad.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

La participación laboral de las mujeres en Chile, ha evolucionado positivamente en los últimos años, aumentando desde un nivel de 36% en la década del noventa, a 46% en la década del 2000.

Según Schkolnik(2004), una de las principales razones para incorporar y aumentar las tasas de participación de la mujer en la fuerza laboral, es que por una parte el sistema previsional no tiene como responder a las demandas futuras y por otra, el envejecimiento de la población, trae consigo que la única manera de otorgar pensiones decentes a un conjunto de trabajadores y jubilados, es ampliando la base de contribuyentes del sistema de pensiones.

Desde un punto de vista económico, la vinculación de número de mujeres a la fuerza de trabajo es un acontecimiento positivo, eleva la calidad de trabajo ya que es seleccionada de una reserva más amplia de mano de obra disponible, lo cual aumenta la productividad y el crecimiento. Asimismo tiene implicaciones macroeconómicas significativas en el hogar, comenzando por elevar el poder adquisitivo y la seguridad financiera, además de aumentar la injerencia de la mujer en las decisiones en materia de gastos y la asignación del tiempo entre los distintos miembros de la familia, incluidos los hijos.

En el contexto del desarrollo económico, el aspecto más relevante del trabajo remunerado de la mujer es su impacto potencial en la reducción de la pobreza. El hecho que existan mayores oportunidades de empleo para la mujer, conlleva beneficios directos para su propio bienestar y el de su hogar a través de un mayor ingreso. (BID 1998).

Por otra parte, la mujer al controlar una parte de los ingresos, toma mejores decisiones sobre la asignación de recursos dentro del hogar, ya que con este poder económico, le permite elevar el rendimiento de las inversiones en la infraestructura social y el capital humano de la familia. Es posible substituir el tiempo propio que es más caro, por el tiempo de personal de servicio (mas barato), con impacto directo en la productividad de los recursos utilizados, (Becker (1976)).

La evidencia empírica, demuestra que el aumento del aporte de ingresos al hogar por parte de la mujer mejora considerablemente el bienestar social y familiar, dado que es más probable que ella invierta más en el capital humano de los hijos que su contraparte masculina. (Thomas, 1991; Handa 1994). Esta realidad se deja en evidencia en la última Encuesta CASEN (Caracterización socioeconómica 2006), en la cual muestra que en el 36% de los hogares de Chile trabaja, tanto el jefe de hogar como su cónyuge o pareja. Esta inserción laboral de un segundo miembro de la familia, se relaciona con la posibilidad de los hogares de salir de su situación de pobreza. Para los sectores medios y altos en cambio, la incorporación a la fuerza de trabajo de un segundo miembro de la familia, se relaciona con la posibilidad de acceder a la creciente oferta de bienes de consumo y nuevos servicios. En consecuencia, el aporte económico de la mujer está siendo cada vez más importante, ya que ha permitido una mejora socioeconómica, clave para la superación de la pobreza en los hogares con menores ingresos. Esto cobra mayor relevancia tras la investigación realizada por el Banco Mundial, la cual determinó que si "la tasa de participación laboral de la mujer en Chile aumentará a un 50% sería posible eliminar cerca del 15% de la pobreza total y un 20% de la pobreza extrema".

Más allá de su impacto económico, el acceso al trabajo remunerado también ha generado otros cambios en las relaciones de género. El mayor poder adquisitivo, ha permitido que la mujer tome decisiones estratégicas, como posponer la edad en que se casa, invertir en educación de post grado o tener hijos. En lo que respecta a las tasas de participación laboral femenina, de acuerdo a un estudio realizado por la Oficina Internacional de Trabajo, para los países del Mercosur y Chile, dan cuenta que la tasa de participación de las mujeres presenta patrones diferenciados según el nivel socioeconómico. "Las mujeres provenientes de hogares de menores ingresos encuentran mayores dificultades para insertarse en el mercado de trabajo, por lo que sus niveles de participación son inferiores que los de aquellas que pertenecen a hogares de ingresos medios o altos", siendo en Chile el caso más acentuado. No obstante, el patrón de baja participación laboral de las mujeres pertenecientes a hogares de bajos ingresos está cambiando rápidamente, ya que el mismo estudio arroja que la tasa de crecimiento anual de la población económicamente activa de las mujeres de estrato bajo, fue superior a la de los otros grupos.(Tabla N°1)

Países	Bajo		Medio		Alto		Total	
	1991	1998	1991	1998	1991	1998	1991	1998
Argentina	29.8	41.7	45.5	48.9	57.7	58.1	44.6	49.4
Brasil	32.3	37.6	42.7	48.6	51.6	52.7	40.0	44.7
Chile	21.2	27.3	34.9	43.0	46.4	52.5	31.3	38.1
Uruguay	37.9	42.7	46.1	46.9	52.3	52.8	43.7	46.1
Promedio América atina	29.0	36.2	42.6	48.3	52.2	55.4	39.0	44.7

Tabla 1: Tasa de participación laboral femenina

Fuente OIT 2004

Algunos autores suelen distinguir entre la inserción laboral de naturaleza más "estructural" y las incorporaciones de carácter más bien cíclico. Marinakis (1999),traza una distinción entre las mujeres que se incorporan de modo más permanente al mercado de trabajo ,y aquéllas que lo hacen de manera coyuntural o transitoria. Esta última modalidad, estaría asociada a la necesidad de compensar la baja de ingresos del proveedor principal del hogar ,y/o a la aspiración de evitar que la familia disminuya sus ingresos a niveles cercanos o bajo la línea de pobreza .

Por otro lado, Abramo(2004) señala que el trabajo que realiza la mujer es una fuente secundaria. Esto se explica, en torno a la concepción de una familia nuclear, en la cual el hombre es el único proveedor y la mujer es responsable exclusiva de la esfera doméstica, entonces cuando ocurre la inserción laboral de la mujer, si la hay, es un aspecto secundaria de su proyecto de vida, de la constitución de su identidad y de sus posibilidades reales.

En consecuencia, la inserción laboral de la mujer, también por definición, sería una inserción laboral complementaria, eventual, inestable. En una palabra secundaria.

Si bien, es cierto que la mujer se ha incorporado a la fuerza laboral, por razones económicas, dado que los ingresos del jefe de hogar pueden ser insuficientes para satisfacer las necesidades del grupo familiar, esto está cambiando en las nuevas generaciones, en donde los factores culturales que antes impedían a la mujer insertarse al mundo laboral han ido cambiando, principalmente porque la mujer busca una mayor independencia y autonomía, la realización personal y el desarrollo como profesional.

Esto lo ratifica, Gálvez y Sánchez, quienes argumentan que la incorporación de las mujeres a la fuerza de trabajo se manifiesta como una tendencia de largo plazo y de carácter estructural, ya que los- patrones de comportamiento de las generaciones más jóvenes de mujeres, tienen nuevos modelos e identidades laborales, donde los proyectos laborales son cada vez más centrales en su vida, por lo que su tasa de participación laboral continuará creciendo.

Finalmente, el nivel de actividad económica que presenta la economía de un país en un determinado momento, también incide en la motivación de la mujer para participar en forma remunerada en la producción de bienes y servicios. En un contexto de expansión de la economía, disminuyen las tasas de desocupación, se eleva el valor del trabajo, y aumenta el costo alternativo del tiempo. Según la hipótesis del trabajador desincentivado, en estas condiciones, las mujeres pueden mostrarse más interesadas en la búsqueda de un empleo.

Factores que influyen en la decisión de trabajar o no de las mujeres

En Chile existen varios estudios que intentan encontrar los principales factores que influyen en la decisión de trabajar o no de las mujeres. Por un lado están las hipótesis tradicionales que explican la baja inserción femenina en el mercado laboral, las cuales están ligadas al patrón cultural predominante, es decir, la familia tradicional; "hombre proveedor", "mujer cuidadora", el que implicaría una falta de apoyo en el cuidado de los hijos y en las actividades domésticas, que desincentiva o impide a las mujeres a incorporarse al trabajo. A lo anterior, se suma la constatación de que las mujeres que tienen más baja participación en el mundo laboral son las que tienen hijos menores de 6 años, debido a la baja cobertura en las empresas de salas cunas y jardines infantiles. Una carencia que tendría un claro desincentivo en el caso de las mujeres más pobres, para las cuales el costo de dejar a sus hijos al cuidado de un tercero o de una institución puede ser mayor o cercano a su ingreso laboral. A esto, finalmente, se agrega la realidad cultural del país que trasmite y retransmite patrones culturales tradicionales, actitud que hace que en las escuelas se discrimine a las mujeres y no se le entregue apoyo en la definición de proyectos laborales.

Una de las variables más cercanamente relacionadas con la decisión de participación laboral es el nivel de escolaridad .La mayor escolaridad provee niveles de capital humano más avanzados, que permiten

acceder a una mayor remuneración en el mercado del trabajo y que tornan más atractiva la decisión de trabajar fuera del hogar. El mayor ingreso del trabajo, facilita también sustituir las labores de la mujer en el hogar por la adquisición de bienes o servicios que reemplaza su trabajo en el hogar como son el servicio doméstico, los jardines infantiles y los bienes electrodomésticos. Una mayor escolaridad también incide en otros factores relacionados con aumentos en la participación de la mujer, como son la reducción en la tasa de fertilidad, la formación de normas sociales y preferencias individuales más favorables al trabajo remunerado, así como una mayor calidad del stock de capital humano.

El cuidado y la formación de los hijos han sido tradicionalmente encargados a la mujer. Esta actividad puede ser altamente intensiva en tiempo, en particular en el caso de los hijos de menor edad, y representar un factor que restringe o dificulta la participación de las madres en el mercado del trabajo. La relación entre fertilidad y participación laboral está mediada por variables tales como la flexibilidad de los empleos en jornada y lugar del trabajo, número de hijos, acceso a sustitutos en el cuidado de los hijos y otras relacionadas.

Mizala, Romaguera y Henríquez (1999), al estimar una oferta laboral para mujeres, encuentran que en general los hijos (de 0 a 15) desincentivan la entrada al mercado laboral, pero el hecho de tener hijas mujeres entre 19 y 24 tiene un efecto positivo en la participación. Esto se relaciona con el hecho de que las mujeres y no lo hombres, pueden más probablemente sustituir a la dueña de casa en los quehaceres domésticos y en el cuidado de los niños pequeños.

Perticara (2006), en su estudio de los determinantes de la decisión de pasar a la inactividad de las mujeres, muestra, que el nacimiento de los niños aumenta el riesgo de que la mujer abandone su empleo.

Mizala y Romaguera (2004), destacan que la legislación laboral chilena de las últimas décadas, ha tenido un carácter rígido, sin considerar la heterogeneidad existente en su interior y la necesidad de adaptarse rápidamente a situaciones que son muy dinámicas. Por ejemplo, no se le ha dado la relevancia que ameritan los temas de flexibilidad laboral y las modalidades de contratación alternativas (teletrabajo).

Por otra parte, están las características propias del mercado laboral chileno, las que también desincentivan a las mujeres a incorporarse a la fuerza laboral , ya que se trata de un mercado con diseño que no es neutro en cuanto a género, con largas jornadas de trabajo y baja productividad. A esto se suma la falta de flexibilidad de jornadas, horarios y lugares de trabajo, un escaso reconocimiento económico y una brecha de remuneraciones entre hombres y mujeres, así como la exclusión de cargos directivos (El 50% de los profesionales chilenos son mujeres. De ellas, solo el 24% desempeña altos cargos en Empresas. PNUD "Informe de Desarrollo Humano". 2003)

Además el mercado está ligado a prejuicios sobre los mayores costos de contratación de las mujeres (esto, por concepto de maternidad y cuidado infantil, factores que en nuestro país son de exclusiva responsabilidad de las mujeres trabajadoras).

METODOLOGÍA, HIPÓTESIS Y DATOS DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Diseño del Instrumento de medición

Se realizo una encuesta divida en 4 partes. La primera, con objetivo de identificar, edad, sector (clasificado por distrito censal) y la actual ocupación de la encuestada, esta última utilizada como pregunta filtro, puesto que de acuerdo a la investigación se descartan las mujeres que realizan trabajos independientes.

La segunda parte titulada "Trabajo y Familia" está constituida por 7 preguntas, las cuales sirven para la elaboración del perfil de la mujer de la ciudad de La Serena, y a su vez la identificación de las variables que influyen en la participación de la mujer desde el punto de vista del hogar.

La tercera parte llamada "Mercado Laboral", consta de 16 preguntas; de las cuales se encuentran preguntas del tipo dicotómicas y selección múltiple; enfocada a definir el perfil de la mujer de la ciudad de La Serena, y la interacción de las variables que influyen en la participación femenina al mercado laboral. Por último, la cuarta parte "Percepción sobre el mercado laboral y la Participación Femenina", está compuesta por 9 afirmaciones o percepciones sobre distintas materias del mercado laboral, en donde se le pide a la encuestada contestarlas de acuerdo a una escala de likert. Esta parte tiene como fin, determinar los factores culturales que influyen en la participación femenina al mercado laboral.

Elemento Muestral: Personas de sexo femenino que están dentro del rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años, que viven en los sectores urbanos de la ciudad de La Serena en el período junio-julio 2010 considerando datos del censo de 2002.-

El método de muestreo utilizado para la aplicación de la encuesta, consistió en un muestreo estratificado por zona censal, para asegurar la representatividad de la muestra, y con ello lograr reducir el error muestral de la investigación.

Para ello la población en estudio, se dividió en grupos homogéneos con respecto a la zona censal, asignando a cada distrito una cuota o número de mujeres de forma proporcional al tamaño de la población.El estudio consistió en realizar 256 encuestas en la ciudad de La Serena, a través de un muestreo aleatorio simple, realizado a partir de la proporción de cada distrito censal.

Definición de hipótesis de la investigación

En base a los objetivos de esta investigación y los estudios realizados para analizar las condiciones del mercado de servicios laborales en Chile, se definen cuatro hipótesis de trabajo, las cuales se analizan considerando los resultados de las encuestas, además de la prueba estadística (Ji cuadrado). Las hipótesis se enumeran a continuación:

 H_01 : La mayor parte de las mujeres pertenecientes al grupo etáreo de 20 a 29 años que participan en el mercado laboral de la ciudad de La Serena, presentan una creciente preferencia por consolidar su vida laboral.

 H_02 : Los determinantes de la participación femenina en el mercado laboral de la ciudad de La Serena, son variables significativas para explicar el comportamiento de la participación de las mujeres pertenecientes al rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años.

 H_03 : Los factores culturales influyen negativamente en la decisión de las mujeres, pertenecientes al rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años, de participar en el mercado laboral de la ciudad de La Serena.

 H_04 : En promedio la mayor brecha de acceso para la incorporación al trabajo de la mujer del rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años, en el mercado laboral de la ciudad de La Serena corresponde a condiciones del mercado.

DATOS Y RESULTADOS DE ENCUESTA

Del total de las mujeres encuestadas un 73% tienen hijos. A medida que aumenta la edad, aumentan las mujeres que tienen hijos e igualmente el número de hijos, siendo la tasa de fecundidad 2 hijos por mujer. La mayor proporción de mujeres con hijos se encuentran en el tramo de edad de 30 a 34 años (57% de la muestra), lo cual reafirma el hecho que la mujer decide postergar su maternidad y privilegiar la realización personal como profesional, siendo el promedio de maternidad de las mujeres encuestadas, la edad de 33 años.

La postergación de la maternidad se debe a que la mujer decide perfeccionarse, es decir, cursar estudios superiores, incrementar su dotación de capital humano. Es importante destacar que si bien el tener hijos en décadas pasadas, por lo general limitaba a las mujeres jóvenes seguir con estudios, podemos darnos cuenta que se ha producido un cambio significativo, puesto que la mayoría de las mujeres encuestadas continúan con estudios superiores, en parte, porque la mayoría de las mujeres jóvenes que son madres, siguen viviendo bajo un núcleo familiar que le complementa.

En cuanto al nivel educacional, a mayor nivel, menor es la cantidad de hijos, lo cual es un determinante que explicaría el descenso en la fecundidad. De acuerdo al estado conyugal, entre las mujeres solteras el promedio de hijos es 1,6 por mujer, en tanto que entre las mujeres que viven con su pareja, el promedio es de 2,1 hijos por hogar.

	C2 - C3	ABC1-C2-C3	С2-С3-D	C3-D
Promedio de edad	33	34	31	33
Promedio de años de estudios	14	17	13	13
E Civil Soltera	42%	42%	45%	45%
E Civil Casada y Convivientes	49%	37%	45%	45%
Presencia de Hijos	70%	77%	64%	76%
Fecundidad*	1,3	1,4	1,4	1,6
Fecundidad**	1,9	1,9	2,1	2,1

 Tabla 2: Resumen variables Demográficas por Nivel Socioeconómico

Tasa de hijos ** Tasa de hijos por mujeres que tienen hijos. Fuente Cuadro elaboración propia en base a la encuesta

La mayor parte de las mujeres encuestadas, poseen un alto nivel educacional. Un 39% de ellas posee o ha realizado estudios superiores o se encuentra realizándolo, un 34% posee solamente educación media completa, y por último, sólo un 18% de la muestra, posee escolaridad incompleta.

Las mujeres que poseen educación profesional sea completa como incompleta, corresponden a los grupos de edad de 30 a 44 años, mientras que la mayoría de las mujeres más jóvenes se encuentran cursando educación universitaria.

A partir de la encuesta se desprende información relevante con respecto a los factores culturales que afectan en la participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral, y que es pertinente de considerar en el análisis posterior. Se identifican tres parámetros relacionales para medir la característica cultural de las mujeres, independiente de su estado de ocupación ,y se evalúan en función de nueve (9) percepciones.

a.-El primer parámetro, mide si una mujer es clasificada como machista, para ello se han empleado las siguientes percepciones: "Considerando lo bueno y lo malo, la vida familiar se reciente cuando la mujer trabaja" (Percepción 5), "La labor del hombre es ganar dinero, la labor de la mujer es cuidar del hogar y la familia" (Percepción 9) respectivamente. Desde el punto de vista del rango etáreo, en la primera percepción el 37% de las mujeres encuestadas se encuentran en acuerdo, el 24% está ni en acuerdo ni desacuerdo y el 39% se encuentra en desacuerdo. Mientras que el 83% de las mujeres se encuentran en desacuerdo con la percepción 9. Por lo tanto, según los resultados las mujeres no son clasificadas como machistas, tendencia que es más clara en mujeres que realizan trabajos de forma dependiente.

b.-El segundo parámetro relacional es para saber si la mujer se clasifica como conservadora o medianamente conservadora con respecto a la familia y a los hijos, para ello se utilizaron las siguientes percepciones: "Es probable que un niño en edad preescolar sufra si su madre trabaja" (Percepción 2), "Si la mujer no trabaja, los hijos tienen mejor rendimiento escolar" (Percepción 4), "Las mujeres que no

trabajan se aburren en la casa y se impacientan con los hijos (Percepción 6) y por último "La mujer que se queda en casa es mejor madre" (Percepción 8) respectivamente. Al analizar estas afirmaciones desde el punto de vista de edad, educación y ocupación, nos muestra que para el caso de la percepción 2, las respuestas se encuentran proporcionales, y la mayoría de las mujeres que se encuentran en desacuerdo tienen hijos y ha trabajado de forma dependiente. En la percepción 4, la mayoría de las mujeres se encuentran casadas o conviviendo y con hijos. En relación a la percepción 6, las mujeres se encuentran en acuerdo con esta afirmación, puesto que una parte de las mujeres se desmotivan al estar tanto tiempo en el hogar, así como también otra parte de las mujeres que se quedan descuidan más a los hijos. Por último, en la percepción 8, el 77% de las encuestadas se encuentra en desacuerdo con esta afirmación.

c.-El tercer parámetro relacional, se refiere con los alcances del trabajo de la mujer en el mercado laboral, para esto se usaron las siguientes afirmaciones: "La mujer que trabaja es más independiente" (Percepción 1), "La mujer que trabaja es más organizada y responsable" (Percepción 3) y "Si la mujer que trabaja es más probable que la pareja se separe" (Percepción 7). Usando como determinante la edad, ocupación y estado civil de las encuestadas, las respuestas para la primera percepción es que gran parte de las mujeres señalan que están totalmente de acuerdo tanto para mujeres que trabajan o no. Esta respuesta también se repite en la percepción 3, mientras que el 34% de las mujeres se encuentra en desacuerdo con esta afirmación. Y en relación a la séptima percepción, el 63% de las respuestas se encuentran en totalmente desacuerdo.

Limitantes de acceso al mercado laboral: Brechas relevantes

Pese a que las mujeres en Chile tienen en promedio mayor nivel educacional que los hombres, sus oportunidades de empleo son de más baja calidad. Esto quiere decir, que en los distintos grupos de ingresos, de estudio y de edad, se enfrentan a las brechas salariales, un ejemplo claro de lo anterior es que esta brecha se acentúa en mujeres que poseen más años de preparación, las cuales ganan en promedio un 25% menos que los hombres, por lo tanto esta es la primera brecha de acceso que enfrentan las mujeres al insertarse en el mercado laboral.

Una segunda brecha de acceso que se ha identificado, es que el trabajo de las mujeres se encuentra dividido en actividades o sectores de baja remuneración, por lo que sus contratos son más precarios, contando con un menor nivel de protección social.

Una tercera brecha surge de las condiciones legales que configuran el mercado laboral. Bajo este contexto se ha detectado que las políticas públicas laborales, son la principal causa de la baja participación e inserción de la mujer, es decir, no existe una política que fomente la flexibilidad laboral relacionada con los horarios y las jornadas laborales, en segundo lugar se encuentra la baja orientación a mejorar los actuales sistemas de cuidado infantil, y finalmente políticas que impidan la discriminación de la mujer al momento de ser contratada.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Análisis de las Hipótesis de Investigación

A partir del análisis descriptivo e inferencial con respecto a la hipótesis de investigación H_01 , podemos llegar a la conclusión de aceptación de la hipótesis nula.La mujer de hoy en día, presentan una gran diferencia con respecto a las mujeres de generaciones anteriores, siendo relevante nuevas prioridades en su vida, como lo es mejorar su capital humano para insertarse al mercado laboral mejor preparada y con ello asegurar una mejor calidad de empleo y de vida, tras las pruebas de hipótesis realizadas observamos que existe una relación de causalidad entre el nivel educacional, estado civil y fecundidad, en donde la mujer con mayor educación esta prolongando sus estudios, postergando la unión y tiene preferencia por

un hijo, y por otra parte, es una mujer autónoma e independiente que ocupa su propio esfuerzo para generar recursos e invertir en su capital humano como así ayudar en el sustento del hogar.

De acuerdo la H_o2 , aceptamos la hipótesis nula, puesto que las determinantes expuestas anteriormente explican el comportamiento de las distintas generaciones frente a la participacion en el mercado laboral, especialmente en el tramo de 20 a 29 años. La situacion es completamente diferente en las mujeres del tramo de 30 a 44 años, donde se observan las siguientes relaciones;

Menor nivel educacional Mayor cantidad de hijos Empleos de menos calificacion de acuerdo a su nivel educacional Mayor desempleo Mayor proporción de inactividad

En relación a la H_o3, se rechaza la hipótesis nula, ya que al analizar las variables que son consideradas como factores culturales (machismo, alcances del trabajo, cuidado de los hijos) se ha demostrado que no son consideradas causas de la baja participación femenina, y que no son factores que inciden en la separación o divorcio de las parejas. Además se demuestra que la mujer en la actualidad ha cambiado su percepción o forma de pensar con respecto a ciertos temas. Asi mismo, se observa que las mujeres al trabajar consideran que el cuidado de los hijos no es un obstáculo y que además la percepción que se tiene con respecto a "madre cuidadora" ha cambiado y con mayor significación en los rangos más jóvenes. A esto se suma, que hoy en día la mujer que trabaja se considera más organizada, independiente y más responsable, elementos que afectan directamente en la vida personal y familiar de la mujer.

Al analizar la H_04 , se acepta la hipótesis nula, en donde se ha demostrado que en promedio la mayor brecha de acceso para la incorporación al trabajo de la mujer del rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años de la ciudad de La Serena, corresponde a condiciones del mercado laboral. De acuerdo a ello se ha detectado que la falta de flexibilidad laboral en relación a los horarios y jornadas de trabajo sería la principal causa tanto de la baja participación como de la inserción laboral de la mujer. En segundo lugar se encuentra la falta de sistemas u organismos de cuidado infantil y legislaciones que impidan la discriminación de la mujer a la hora de ser contratadas.

Análisis de Regresión

El objetivo de este análisis consiste en proponer un modelo que permita explicar el comportamiento de la participación femenina en el mercado laboral a través de las determinantes clásicas de la participación "Edad, Estado Civil, Número de Hijos y Educación". Se ha elegido como variable dependiente la situación ocupacional de la mujer en el presente, codificando las respuestas como, 0 no participan (Mujeres Inactivas o que han trabajado) y 1 participan (Ocupadas y Desempleadas), convirtiendo a la variable dependiente en una variable dicótomica, lo cual implica que el modelo de regresión lineal standard presenta limitaciones estadísticas y de interpretación. Para resolver este problema, se usará la "Regresion Logística" la cual tiene como objeto modelar como influye la probabilidad de aparición de un suceso, "la probabilidad de la mujer de participar en el mercado laboral" de acuerdo a la presencia de diversas variables explicativas, las cuales serían las "determinantes clásicas de la participación laboral". Para garantizar que el modelo de regresión logística construido sea idóneo y refleje de forma adecuada los datos utilizados, hemos utilizado varios modelos de prueba(cinco) pero aceptando solamente dos, pues los demas no superaron las pruebas del coeficiente de correlación, para la aceptación del modelo. De acuerdo a este análisis, podemos concluir que la variable "Número de Hijos" y "Años de Educación" son variables significativas que explicarían de mejor forma la probabilidad de participar de la mujer en el mercado laboral, no obstante, ambas variables resultan ser significativas sólo cuando se plantean modelos simples, es decir, de una variable, ya que al proponer un modelo con todas las variables resultan que sólo la educación es la variable explicativa con mayor significancia, de acuerdo a ello y despues de varias pruebas de selección, los modelos propuestos son;

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Y (Número de Hijos): \beta 0 + \beta 1*Número de Hijos + \mu
Y (Años de Escolaridad): \beta 0 + \beta 1*Años de Escolaridad + \mu
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Modelo 1: Y (Número de Hijos)= 2,251 – 0,389*Número de Hijos

Modelo 2: Y (Años de Escolaridad)= -1,16 + 0,214*Años de Escolaridad

La interpretación de estos modelos seria la siguiente;

Modelo 1: El número de Hijos influye negativamente en la participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral, es decir, a mayor número de hijos, menor es la probabilidad de la mujer de participar. Modelo 2: Los años de escolaridad influyen positivamente en la participación de la mujer en el mercado

laboral, es decir, a mayor escolaridad, mayor es la probabilidad de participar en la fuerza de trabajo.

Regresion Logística Binaria

Para confirmar que las determinantes mencionadas son variables explicativas de la participación laboral, se uso el análisis de regresión, a través del modelo de "Regresión Logístico", el cual permite predecir la probabilidad de que la mujer participe en el mercado laboral de acuerdo a ciertos condicionantes.

Modelo 1: Y(X₁, X₂, X₃, X₄): $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * X_1 - \beta_2 * X_2 - \beta_3 * X_3 + \beta_4 * X_4 + \mu$ Donde:

Y: Variable Dependiente Binaria, se ha clasificado las respuestas como:

0 : Ausencia de participación femenina en el mercado laboral (Dado por mujeres que se encuentran inactivas o que nunca han trabajado)

1: Presencia de participación en el mercado laboral (Mujeres ocupadas o que se encuentras desempleadas).

X₁: Edad

Variable Codificada de acuerdo a los rangos de edad

Signo positivo, puesto que se espera una relación directa entre la edad y la participación de la mujer

X₂: Estado Civil

Variable Dicotómica: Asume valores 0 ausencia de pareja y 1 presencia de pareja Signo negativo, puesto que se espera una relación negativa entre las mujeres que tienen pareja y la participación al mercado laboral.

X₃: Número de hijos

Variable Categórica que va de 0 ausencia de hijos hasta 4 hijos o más Signo negativo, puesto que se espera una relación negativa entre el número de hijos y la participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral.

X₄: Años de Escolaridad

Variable Categórica que va desde los 8 años a los 17 años de educación

Signo positivo, puesto que se espera una relación positiva entre los años de estudios y la participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral.

Tabla 3: '	Variables	en la	ecuación
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		<u>B</u>	<u>E.T.</u>	Wald	<u>gl</u>	<u>Sig.</u>	<u>Exp(B)</u>
Paso 1(a)	Edad	,113	,150	,566	1	,452	1,119
	Estado Civil	-,270	,382	,502	1	,479	,763
	N° Hijos	-,265	,202	1,727	1	,189	,767
	Años de Escolaridad	,174	,073	5,750	1	,016	1,190
	Constante	-,324	1,105	,086	1	,769	,723

a Variable(s) introducida(s) en el paso 1: Edad, Estado Civil, Nº Hijos, Años de Escolaridad.

Modelo 1: $Y(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4) = -3,24 + 0,113 \times X_1 - 0,27 \times X_2 - 0,265 \times X_3 + 0,174 \times X_4$

De acuerdo al estadístico Wald, podemos concluir que sólo la educación es la variable que explicaría de mejor manera la probabilidad de participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral, puesto que el estadístico de prueba(5,75) es superior a 4 (valor aceptado). Las demás variables no son significativas para explicar la probabilidad de participación de la mujer en el mercado laboral. No obstante, al analizar de acuerdo a los signos esperados, estos confirman la relación existente entre las variables explicativas y la participación femenina el mercado laboral.

CONCLUSIONES

La presente investigación ha tenido como objetivo principal analizar las características y determinantes que influyen en la participación femenina en el rango etáreo de 20 a 44 años en la ciudad de La Serena. A partir de los resultados obtenidos por la aplicación del instrumento de medición se extraen las siguientes conclusiones :

1.- Los principales resultados de la encuesta son;
Estado civil predominante : "Mujeres solteras".
Promedio de años de estudios : 14 años.
Tasa de Natalidad : 0,58 hijos por mujer.
Promedio de hijos : 1,3 hijos por mujer.

Tipo de hogar : "Extenso biparental".

La maternidad de la mujer, se concentra alrededor de los 33 años, confirmando la tendencia de las nuevas generaciones por posponer el ciclo reproductivo y consolidar sus proyectos personales.

De acuerdo a la información anterior, se puede describir el perfil de la mujer como: "La mujer de hoy en día ha fortalecido su sentido de independencia y responsabilidad, apostando por mejorar sus capacidades y capital humano, tomando decisiones de vida de carácter estratégico, como lo son; posponer la edad en que se casa y tiene hijos, y por otra parte, prolongando los años de estudios. Además, es una mujer autosuficiente, capaz de conciliar una vida laboral para sostener sus estudios y aportar con ingresos a su hogar, equilibrando el rol de madre, independiente del apoyo de una pareja, esto último, principalmente porque son mujeres que aún viven bajo un núcleo familiar que posibilita la prolongación de estudios superiores".

2.-Los tipos de hogares, principalmente corresponden al tipo biparental, es decir, que se organiza en torno a un jefe de hogar. Al mismo tiempo existe un porcentaje significativo (37% de la muestra) de hogares que se organizan bajo una estructura mono parental, donde la mujer debe ejercer el rol de jefa de hogar y proveedora principal, especialmente en el grupo de edad de 40 a 44 años.

3.-Con respecto al análisis realizado por sectores y al nivel socioeconómico al que pertenecen las mujeres de la muestra, se concluye que existen brechas educacionales y de la estructura familiar entre los sectores de más bajos ingresos con respecto a los más altos; en los niveles socioeconómicos C3-D(ingresos bajos), el promedio de educación corresponde a 13 años, la tasa de natalidad es más alta (2 hijos por mujer), y los tipos de hogares corresponden principalmente a los mono parentales, mientras que en el nivel socioeconómico ABC1-C2-C3,(ingresos medios-altos), alcanza como máximo los 17 años de estudios, la natalidad corresponde a un hijo por mujer y los hogares en su mayoría son biparentales.

4. La edad de la mujer no es una variable relevante que explique la participación de la mujer al mercado laboral, ya que esta presenta trayectorias discontinuas en su ingreso de acuerdo a su ciclo de vida (Estudiar, tener hijos, formar una familia).

5.-Las mujeres ocupadas son principalmente mujeres solteras y jefas de hogar, quienes tienen una mayor presión para ingresar al mercado laboral, dado que deben cumplir con la obligación de mantener a su familia, como así sustentarse económicamente, caso contrario a las mujeres que tienen pareja quienes se incorporan por distintas motivaciones, de las cuales destacan; necesidad económica, mejorar la situación económica del hogar, lograr autonomía e independencia del jefe del hogar, entre otros. En consecuencia, esta variable no tiene una relación concreta con la inserción de la mujer al mercado laboral, principalmente porque está condicionada al ciclo de vida de la mujer o la coyuntura económica del hogar.

6. La educación es la variable que mejor explica la participación laboral de la mujer, dándose una relación positiva entre la educación y participación, es decir, a mayor nivel educacional mayor es la probabilidad de ingresar al mercado laboral, esto se confirmado por que la mayor proporción de mujeres ocupadas corresponden a aquellas que poseen un mayor nivel educacional. En tanto que las mujeres inactivas y que nunca han trabajado, poseen un menor nivel educacional. A esto se suma la existencia de una relación entre el nivel educacional de la mujer y la fecundidad, puesto que a mayor nivel educacional, menor es el número de hijos por mujer.

7.- La fecundidad o también llamado comportamiento reproductivo de las mujeres, es una variable relevante para explicar la participación de la mujer al mercado laboral. De los resultados obtenidos, se advierte una relación negativa entre el número de hijos y la participación de la mujer al mercado laboral, porque a mayor número de hijos, menor es la probabilidad de la mujer de participar en el mercado laboral. De acuerdo a los resultados, el 73% de las mujeres de la muestra tiene hijos, existiendo la preferencia por un hijo, lo cual permite conciliar las labores domésticas con las del trabajo. Por otra parte, esta variable tiene una estrecha relación con la edad, ya que a medida que aumenta la edad, se incrementan las mujeres que tienen hijos y el número de hijos.

8.-Los factores culturales no influyen negativamente en la decisión de participar de la mujer en el mercado laboral de la ciudad de La Serena, por ello esta variable no es considerada una brecha de acceso al mercado laboral. La mayor brecha de acceso corresponde a condiciones típicas que configuran el mercado laboral, puesto que no existe una política o ley que fomente la flexibilidad laboral relacionada con los horarios y las jornadas laborales, en segundo lugar se encuentra la baja orientación a mejorar los actuales sistemas de cuidado infantil así como también políticas que impidan la discriminación de la mujer al momento de ser contratadas.

9.-La brecha de acceso salarial, está directamente relacionado con el nivel educacional y la edad de la mujer, un ejemplo claro de esta situación se acentúa en mujeres que poseen más años de preparación, las que ganan en promedio un 25% menos que los hombres.

10.- El tipo de trabajo al cual accede la mujer, se encuentra dividido en actividades o sectores de baja remuneración, principalmente en actividades terciarias, es decir, la mayoría de las mujeres se desempeñan

realizando trabajos de oficina, como vendedoras, o en servicios personales, lo cual deja en evidencia además que existe un escaso alcance de las mujeres en cargos administrativos y directivos. Teniendo como consecuencia contratos más inestables y un menor nivel de protección social para la mujer.

11.-Las variables más influyentes que explican el comportamiento de la participación al mercado laboral, son: estado civil, educación y fecundidad.Para confirmar que estas determinantes son variables explicativas de la participación laboral, se uso el análisis de regresión, a través del modelo de "Regresión Logístico", el cual permite predecir la probabilidad de que la mujer participe en el mercado laboral de acuerdo a ciertos condicionantes. Tras la evaluación de los resultados, la educación tiene mayor relevancia en explicar la participación laboral femenina en la fuerza de trabajo.

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NORMA ISO 9001: 2008 Y EL PROGRAMA INSTITUCIONAL DE TUTORÍAS: MODELO DE CONVERGENCIA PARA LA MEJORA DE LA CALIDAD EDUCATIVA INSTITUCIONAL-CASO DE ÉXITO EN CESUES UAM MAGDALENA

Refugio Samaniego Badilla, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora Unidad Magdalena

RESUMEN

En la Unidad Académica de Magdalena, se llevó a cabo un estudio orientado a analizar el impacto de la Norma ISO 9001:2008 en convergencia con el Programa Institucional de Tutorías (PIT) durante los periodos escolares 2010:1 y 2010:2, espacios en los cuales se trabajó bajo el modelo que presenta la Norma. Además se realizó una investigación de tipo documental de logros en los periodos escolares 2008:2, 2009:1 y 2009:2 con el fin de detectar el nivel de cumplimiento en la Norma en la administración del Proceso.

Los resultados denotan avance en el Nivel de Maduración del programa de tutorías, de igual manera se detectan oportunidades de mejoras al programa. El esquema de trabajo por acompañamiento de la Norma ISO 9001:2008 mejora el trazo de la reestructuración de los procesos administrativos al apoyar ésta a la creación de una nueva cultura laboral, al rompimiento de viejos paradigmas en el proceso de ejercicio de un PIT, y a conducir por rutas alternativas el logro de los retos propios que un PIT exige.

Así, el interés y fundamento principal del presente estudio es exponer a los asistentes los resultados obtenidos en este caso de éxito y de cómo el esquema que plantea la Norma ISO 9001:2008 puede entrar en correlación con un PIT, y desde nuestros logros, aportar un marco de referencia que oriente dos procesos de origen distinto, pero que al integrarlos, convergerlos y dinamizarlos en una única simbiosis, directamente generan un tercer constructo dentro de la estructura interna Institucional, asegurando como resultado, argumentos firmes para la constante mejora de la calidad educativa institucional.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Norma ISO 9001:2008, Mejora Continua, Cultura de la Calidad y el PIT.

INTRODUCCION

Las razones para la elección del presente tema son el mostrar que la Norma ISO 9001:2008, como modelo administrativo, impulsa, fortalece y mejora el servicio de Tutorías, y además de ello, transmitir y sensibilizar a los involucrados en tutorías de que la Norma, antes de ser tal, es un proceso donde interviene la condición humana y cuyo objetivo es por lo tanto, humanizar la sinergia de un PIT.

Al comenzar a implementar y ejecutar la *Cultura de la Calidad* en la Institución, se conocía lo que implicaba hacer toda esta labor. Por ello, a inicios del año dos mil diez se concibió un proyecto denominado *Implementación de la Cultura de la Calidad en la Unidad Académica de Magdalena*, el cual fue aprobado por la Dirección de Programas Especiales y dirigido a todos los involucrados en el Sistema de Gestión de Calidad, incluyendo el servicio de Tutorías que estaba próximo a certificarse. Así, la empresa de generar la Cultura de la Calidad en la Unidad se lleva a cabo bajo un *status* de alta prioridad hasta hoy en nuestros días en la Institución.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

El *tutor* es un modelo de aprendizaje a seguir por parte del alumno. Éste tiene la experiencia de lo que sucede al exterior y ha tenido la habilidad para triunfar y adaptarse a los cambios que le han sucedido; esa

sabiduría producto del recto esfuerzo, es lo que espera el alumno. En la actualidad existen muchos modelos de aprendizaje cognoscitivos. Según Anita Woolflk (2002), la mayoría de ellos tiene en común lo siguiente:

- la mayoría observan a un experto (por lo general, al profesor) y así modelar su comportamiento.

- en todo el sistema de tutoría, la figura del tutor es el eje principal, algo así como en la familia.

- él tiene que desarrollar una gran variedad de estrategias pedagógicas y de colaboración para que presenten beneficios a sus tutorados.

En concreto, el tutor tiene el deber, más no la obligación, de apoyar a los alumnos en el desarrollo de actitudes positivas hacia la capacitación, el mejoramiento de su aprendizaje y la toma de conciencia acerca de su futuro.

La Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES, 2001) emite y señala las características deseables en un tutor: *poseer un equilibrio entre la relación afectiva y la cognoscitiva, para una delimitación del proceso de tutoría*.

Para el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora (CESUES), *las tutorías son una parte esencial para obtener resultados favorables y generar condiciones al alumnado con resultados en una mejor formación académica*. Estos lineamientos son los que se tomaran en cuenta con el objetivo de establecer un marco de una serie de características que ayudará a desempeñar el trabajo de manera adecuada, no solo en cuanto al perfil esperado, sino también por los compromisos adquiridos al participar en este programa.

Todo proceso administrativo tanto en el sector privado y público requiere ser administrado de manera eficiente, es por eso que desde los lineamientos de la Norma ISO 9001:2008, ésta se centra en la eficacia del sistema de Gestión de Calidad para satisfacer los requisitos del *cliente*, siendo este caso, los alumnos que están recibiendo el servicio de Tutorías. Un aspecto fundamental para comprender el sentido de la administración con calidad, es la comunicación, esto implica que todos los involucrados en el proceso conozcan y manejen con claridad el mismo lenguaje, que hablen un mismo idioma, de esta manera la información será clara y precisa, bien lo comento Confucio, *si se carece de un lenguaje no se sabrá cuál es la ruta*.

METODOLOGIA

Los objetivos que se trazaron en la investigación son los de reunir todos los elementos necesarios que conduzcan a evidenciar los beneficios de la Certificación y transmitir a todos los involucrados, que a través del seguimiento y cumplimento de los requisitos de la Norma ISO 90021:2008 en el servicio de Tutorías, ello nos conducirá a detectar oportunamente, necesidades, problemáticas y áreas de mejoras en el servicio brindado. En base a esto, se planteó lo siguiente: Al implementar el Modelo Administrativo que plantea la Norma ISO 9001:2008, se plantean tres cuestionamientos centrales que definen la ruta de búsqueda de la verificación del proyecto de convergencia propuesto: ¿habrá avances en el nivel de madurez en el programa de Tutorías? y por consiguiente ¿mejorará el desempeño académico en los alumnos?, y si lo anterior se concreta, ¿ello conducirá a una mejor evaluación al programa y Tutores por parte de los alumnos?

Se empleó la metodología de *Triangulación de Variables* para el análisis de los datos que se obtuvieron de los registros hechos en los reportes presentados en el servicio de Tutorías y de los resultados emitidos a nivel Institucional en lo concerniente a la evaluación del programa, Tutores y comentarios de los alumnos. En el tratamiento de los datos se utilizaron *SPSS 11.0* para *Windows* y las técnicas estadísticas descriptivas.

La investigación realizada, de tipo documental y exploratoria, aborda un tema o problemática que aún no ha sido afrontada. Así mismo, ésta adquiere carácter provisional en cuanto se realiza en su primera etapa para obtener un primer conocimiento sobre el evento a investigar, con un enfoque cualitativo y cuantitativo en relación al nivel de cumplimiento de los requisitos de los modelos administrativo presentado en la Norma ISO 9001:2008.

Con la metodología de *Triangulación de Variables*, se investigó, analizó y definió el comportamiento en el servicio brindado en Tutorías en relación al cumplimiento del modelo que presenta la Norma ISO 9001:2008.

Esta investigación se clasifica en dos etapas desde donde se extrajeron los datos que dan substancia a la problemática de análisis. La primera, comprende los periodos 2008:02/2009/01/2009:2 y una segunda que abarca los periodos 2010:01/2010/02. En la primera parte se levantó información básica y relevante para hacer una aproximación real y modelarla con respecto a la Norma, ello condujo a acceder a un panorama más claro en los principios regidos en el servicio, y a la vez se detectaron las potencialidades, alcances, avances; limitaciones y propuestas de mejora al servicio. En la segunda etapa se detectaron las mejoras alcanzadas en función al cumplimiento de los requisitos de la Norma y se determinó el grado de maduración del Servicio de Tutorías según Norma ISO 9004:2009.

Los resultados obtenidos por periodos se analizaron de manera cualitativa y cuantitativamente, obteniendo un panorama global por etapas (en este caso, dos). En ambas fases se determinó el nivel de cumplimiento de los requisitos de la Norma ISO 9001:2008, se realizó un comparativo de ambos resultados, se concluyó, y se realizaron propuestas de mejora y recomendaciones para su cumplimiento.

Técnicas estadísticas e Instrumentos de Recolección de Datos

En cada periodo, se revisó, clasifico, cuantifico y analizó la información generada en el servicio, tomando como base los resultados finales semestrales en lo concerniente a la evaluación del programa de Tutorías y Tutores, encuesta de comentarios de alumnos, aprovechamiento escolar, administración de los registros y documentación.

RESULTADOS

Como se muestra en la Tabla 1, denota un resultado favorable de manera global en la madurez del servicio de Tutorías, existe avance significativo en algunos requisitos de la Norma, más sin embargo, hay otros que requieren atención urgente.

Los resultados que se presentan tienen un gran valor y muestran el estado actual en el cual se encuentra el proceso administrativo de Tutorías en la Unidad Académica.

El trabajar con el esquema que presenta la Norma ISO 9001:2008, ha ayudado a fortalecer el programa de Tutorías, fortalecido la relación Tutor-alumno, el servicio de atención hacia los alumnos, el proceso administrativo y lo más importante se visualiza con claridad el camino que se debe seguir en el PIT de la U.A.M

Determine el nivel de cumplimiento de la Norma ISO 9001: basándose e				en ios p		0.2/ 2009.1/	2009.2
Prácticamente no se realiza, valor (1)		8					
Se realiza parcialmente. valor (2)							
Se realiza generalmente. valor (3)							
Se realiza sistemáticamente. valor (4)							
Se realiza siempre y de forma total. valor (5)							
	ERIODOS	5					
REQUISITOS NORMA 9001:2008	2008-2	2009-1	2009- 2		2010-1	2010-2	
4 Sistema de Gestión de Calidad.			2				
4.2.3 Control de documentos.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
4.2.4 Control de registros.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
5 Responsabilidad de la Dirección.							
5.3 Política de Calidad.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
5.4.1 Objetivos de Calidad.	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
5.5.3 Comunicación interna	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
6 Gestión de recursos.							
6.2.2 Competencia, formación y toma de conciencia.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
6.3 Infraestructura.	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
6.4 Ambiente de trabajo.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
7 Realización del producto.							
7.1 Planificación de la realización del servicio.	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
7.2 Procesos relacionados con el cliente.	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
7.2.1 Determinación de los requisitos relacionados con el	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
servicio.							
7.2.2 Revisión de los requisitos relacionados con el servicio.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
7.23 Comunicación con el cliente.	1	1	1	1	3	3	3
7.5.1 Control y de la prestación del servicio	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
7.5.3 Identificación y trazabilidad.	1	1	1	1	3	3	3
7.5.4 Propiedad del cliente.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
8 Medición, análisis y mejora.							
8.2 Seguimiento y medición.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
8.2.1 Satisfacción del cliente.	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
8.2.3 Seguimiento y medición de los procesos.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
8.2.4 Seguimiento y medición del producto.	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
8.3 Control del producto no conforme.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8.4 Análisis de datos	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8.5.1 Mejora continua.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8.5.2 Acción correctiva.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
8.5.3 Acción preventiva.	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
NIVEL DE MADURACION				1.6			2.32

Tabla 1: Descripción de nivel de cumplimiento en la Norma ISO 9001:2008 por periodos

Esta tabla presenta el avance en el cumplimiento en los requisitos de la Norma ISO 9001:2008, en el proceso administrativo llevado del PIT, además denota su avance en el grado de madurez según la Norma ISO 9004:2009 en una escala de seis.

CONCLUSIONES

La presente investigación hasta el momento ha cumplido con su meta inicial: aportar soluciones, detectar mejoras desde el campo de la Calidad, y ver la solución y presentación de los problemas bajo una nueva óptica, en donde se vea que todo está relacionado y aportar en la Culturización en Calidad.

Se tiene certeza de que los viejos paradigmas para abordar las actividades en el servicio de Tutorías están cambiando, eso indica que los requisitos de la mencionada Norma no dan vida al proceso, ante la ausencia del factor humano de la responsabilidad y el compromiso de motivar los requisitos de la Norma desde el espectro de la movilización de la voluntad humana para generar esquemas reales de comportamiento que apoyen a la validez, cambio y mejora de las esta propuesta de convergencia entre lo académico y lo administrativo, y como enlace entre ambos, la condición humana.

Todo trabajo realizado para *Culturizar en Calidad* lleva su tiempo, puesto que requiere una gran gestión del liderazgo, de consolidación de las relaciones públicas, estudiar la condición humana, y tener eterna paciencia, todo, bajo un claro panorama del tipo de rol que juega cada elemento constituyente de algo que ya puede ser considerado como fenómeno educativo institucional, en este caso en el PIT y dicha convergencia.

Y por último, en la Unidad Académica de Magdalena estamos avanzando en Calidad y vamos en búsqueda de más variables, ya que esto lo requieren los alumnos principalmente y no los demanda con urgencia la Sociedad, y qué mejor plataforma de salida que el proyecto que aquí se manifiesta.

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PMAC. Refugio Samaniego Badilla. Trabaja como Coordinador del área de Planeación y Enlace del Sistema de Gestión de Calidad en el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora cuya dirección es Avenida Guerrero # 923 final Sur. Colonia San Martin. Email: resaba_14@hotmail.com

ESTADO DE POSICIÓN FINANCIERA AMBIENTAL

María Antonieta Monserrat Vera Muñoz, Benemérita: Universidad Autónoma de Puebla Gerardo Vera Muñoz, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla Ana Cecilia Rivera Jiménez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

ABSTRACT

Para la contabilización del daño ecológico las empresas cuentan con la Contabilidad Ambiental, ésta rama de la contabilidad es poco conocida por los profesionales de la contaduría, al aplicarla se genera información que al igual que en la Contabilidad Financiera se ve reflejada en los Estados Financieros; señalando que la Contabilidad Ambiental se puede aplicar, para reconocer en la información financiera las actividades de cuidado y conservación al medioambiente que realicen las empresas independientemente de que su actividad sea considerada como no contaminante.Por lo anteriormente mencionado en el presente trabajo se pretende dar a conocer la existencia de la Contabilidad Ambiental, y la adecuación de los Estados Financieros producto de la Contabilidad Financiera, en Estados Financieros Ambientales en particular el Estado de Posición Financiera, con apoyo de las Normas de Información Financiera, para que en él se vean reflejadas las acciones empresariales en torno al cuidado y conservación del medio ambiente. Permitiendo conocer de manera clara las los activos, pasivos y capital que pongan de manifiesto el compromiso de la empresa con el medio ambiente.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Contabilidad, Estado de Posición Financiera, Contabilidad Ambiental.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Actualmente la mayoría de los empresarios reconocen la existencia de un compromiso social y ambiental nivel externo e interno de la organización. El deterioro del medio ambiente es latente en el mundo actual y afecta a toda la humanidad, por lo que se hace presente la exigencia de revertir el daño ambiental, con acciones no únicamente personales, sino empresariales. Al hombre por lo general le interesa contar todo, por ejemplo cuántos años tiene, cuántos hijos, cuántos bienes, cuantas deudas, pero no se ha ocupado de contabilizar el daño ecológico.

Para la contabilización del daño ecológico las empresas cuentan con la Contabilidad Ambiental, ésta rama de la contabilidad es poco conocida, y gira en dos dimensiones, la interna y la externa. La dimensión interna comprende la administración de recursos humanos, la protección del trabajo y la realización de actividades de producción y/o comercio, respetando y siguiendo normas de protección del ambiente en la realización de las mencionadas actividades y en las condiciones de trabajo de sus empleados. La dimensión externa aborda las relaciones de la empresa con los diferentes actores de su entorno como son: socios, proveedores, clientes y gobierno.

Por lo que implica para los contadores un compromiso dar a conocer la existencia de la Contabilidad Ambiental y por consiguiente la información producto de la aplicación de la misma; señalando que no únicamente aplica a las grandes empresas o bien a las empresas cuya actividad es señalada como contaminante, sino que se puede aplicar a cualquier empresa sin importar su tamaño para reconocer en la información financiera las actividades de cuidado y conservación al medioambiente que realicen las empresas, independientemente de que su actividad sea considerada como no contaminante.

Por lo anteriormente mencionado en el presente trabajo se pretende dar a conocer la existencia de la contabilidad ambiental y el resultado de su aplicación, reflejado en los Estados Financieros Ambientales en particular en el Estado de Posición Financiera. El trabajo se estructura en dos partes, la primera es la

obtención de la información documental que enmarque el tema con la revisión de la literatura existente y que es hasta donde se ha avanzado, por último su aplicación en un trabajo de campo.

Justificación

Los efectos del deterioro al medio ambiente son cada vez más visibles y las repercusiones de ello se hacen presentes de manera mediata o inmediata, es tarea de todos responsabilizarse por echar atrás el deterioro ambiental. Los que ejercen la profesión contable tienen una responsabilidad con la sociedad y deben ocuparse dentro los requerimientos actuales en materia contable de las empresas de los problemas ambientales. Por lo que ha surgido la Contabilidad Ecológica para apoyar a las empresas hasta donde es posible, en la no fácil tarea de poder traducir datos ambientales, tanto en unidades físicas como en unidades monetarias.

El tema de la Contabilidad Ambiental, es de gran interés para el gobierno y para las empresas, para cumplir con las exigencias en materia ambiental que les son requeridas y/o para manifestar su compromiso medioambiental y social. Sin embargo con la de aplicación de la Contabilidad Ambiental se pueden presentar las acciones que empresas responsables con el medio ambiente realizan para apoyar a la restauración y conservación del medio ambiente y que a la vez le permiten disminuir sus costos ambientales y generales, generando nuevas oportunidades de mercado, financiamiento, imagen y una mejora de la empresa en general.

Lo anterior se concreta con la elaboración de Estados Financieros Ambientales, producto de la aplicación de la Contabilidad Ambiental iniciando en el presente trabajo con el Estado de posición financiera, las empresas podrán evidenciar todas las actividades que muestren su responsabilidad con el medio ambiente tanto en el interior como en el exterior de las mismas y los contadores participaran también en la parte que le corresponde a la profesión que ejercen en la conservación y mantenimiento del medio ambiente. Buscando con ello beneficios medioambientales, empresariales y sociales.

Planteamiento

La contabilidad ha apoyado el quehacer empresarial desde hace ya mucho tiempo, proporcionando información que sea útil para la toma de decisiones y en ese transcurrir del tiempo ha cubierto las necesidades de información que se han ido presentando en las empresas, actualmente existe la necesidad de información respecto a las acciones que la empresa realiza a favor del mantenimiento y conservación del medio ambiente, para poder demostrar que es una empresa socialmente responsable.

Por lo que la contabilidad denominada Financiera se ha ramificado apareciendo en el escenario empresarial; la Contabilidad de Costos, la Contabilidad de Sociedades, y las Contabilidades Especializadas como son: Contabilidad Agrícola, Contabilidad ganadera, Contabilidad Avícola, Contabilidad de Hospitales, Contabilidad de Hoteles, etc.. Contabilidades, cada una de las anteriores con tareas y participación empresarial claramente definidas. Llegando a surgir la contabilidad Ambiental, y a través de la aplicación de la misma poder manifestar con hechos expresados en los Estados Financieros Ambientales el interés de las empresas en asumir su responsabilidad ante la sociedad y el medio ambiente. Pregunta de investigación ¿Cómo se debe integrar el Estado de Posición Financiera derivado de la aplicación de la Contabilidad Ambiental para transformarlos en Estado de posición financiera Ambiental?

Objetivo General:Identificar las partidas que deben integrar el Estado de Posición Financiera al aplicar la Contabilidad Ambiental transformándolo en Estado de Posición Financiera Ambiental.

Objetivos Particulares:

- 1. Conocer los conceptos básicos de la Contabilidad Ecológica como una herramienta para el cuidado del medioambiente.
- 2. Examinar las partidas que deben ser consideradas por la Contabilidad Ecológica.
- 3. Mostrar cómo se integran los Estados Financieros (Estado de Posición Financiera de acuerdo a las Normas de Información Financiera (NIF).
- 4. Explicar cómo los efectos contaminantes forman parte de los estados financieros propios de una empresa.

<u>REVISIÒN LITERARÌA</u>

La Contabilidad

No hay una fecha exacta de la aparición de la contabilidad, se cree que surgió cuando el hombre se convirtió en sedentario, realizó operaciones cotidianas y quiso llevar cuenta de esto; por supuesto, era una forma muy lejana a la contabilidad actual. La contabilidad fue evolucionando con el tiempo hasta surgir de manera formal. Se puede decir que ello sucedió con la aparición de la partida doble atribuida a Fray Lucca Pacciolli.

La evolución de la contabilidad tiende a dar respuesta a las necesidades de los diferentes usuarios. Así, surgen por ejemplo: la Contabilidad Financiera, la Contabilidad Administrativa, la Contabilidad de Costos, la Contabilidad de Sociedades, la Contabilidad Fiscal y la Contabilidad Gubernamental (Ablan y Méndez, 2004).

Particularizando aún más en las necesidades de lo usuarios aparecen entre otras: la Contabilidad de Hospitales, la Contabilidad de Hoteles, la Contabilidad Agrícola y la Contabilidad Bancaria (Gertz, 1999). En general la contabilidad se define como la técnica que se utiliza para producir sistemática y estructuralmente información cuantitativa expresada en unidades monetarias de las transacciones que realiza una entidad económica y de ciertos eventos económicos identificables y cuantificables que le afectan, con objeto de facilitar a los diversos interesados la toma de decisiones en relación con dicha entidad.

"La contabilidad es el lenguaje de los negocios, la forma por medio de la cual las entidades comunican su situación financiera, el resultado de sus operaciones, los cambios en la situación financiera y la inversión de los propietarios o patrocinadores, por ello la información financiera es todo tipo de información que comunique la posición y desempeño financiero de una entidad económica, cuyo objetivo esencial es ser de utilidad al usuario general durante el proceso de toma de decisiones económicas (Romero, 2006)." El Centro de Investigación y Desarrollo (CID) del Consejo Mexicano para la Investigación y Desarrollo de Normas de Información Financiera (CINIF), en la NIF A-1 "Estructura de las Normas de Información Financiera", para definir la contabilidad, parte del supuesto de que esta es una técnica y así lo expresa en su párrafo 3 (2011):

La contabilidad es una técnica que se utiliza para el registro de las operaciones que afectan económicamente a una entidad y que produce sistemática y estructuralmente información financiera, las operaciones que afectan económicamente a una entidad incluyen transacciones, transformaciones y otros eventos.

La Contabilidad Ambiental

Dentro de las diferentes necesidades cubiertas por la contabilidad, surge una nueva necesidad a cubrir y de ello se encarga la "Contabilidad Ambiental", la cual recibe también los nombres de: Contabilidad de Recursos, Contabilidad Verde, Contabilidad del Desarrollo Sustentable , Contabilidad Ecológica

La Contabilidad Ambiental se puede definir como la técnica que registra y cuantifica las operaciones realizadas por la entidad enfocándose en la contribución de los recursos naturales al bienestar económico, los costos por el desgaste de los activos ecológicos y el reconocimiento de los pasivos contingentes relacionados con restauraciones ocasionadas por el daño al medio ambiente (Barraza, 2005).

La Contabilidad Ambiental se compone de cuentas ambientales y cuentas convencionales, las primeras registran los impactos de la empresa en el medio ambiente en términos físicos (kilogramos o litros de residuos) y las cuentas convencionales para medir los impactos de la empresa en el medio ambiente en términos monetarios (Reyes Solano A. y Reyes Solano M., 2010). De la anterior definición se puede concluir que la contabilidad ambiental se encuentra estrechamente relacionada con el medio ambiente, entendiéndose por éste el conjunto de circunstancias físicas que rodean a los seres vivos y, por extensión, el conjunto de circunstancias físicas , culturales, económicas, sociales y políticas que rodean a las personas (Brañes, 1987, pág. 84).

Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo Sustentable

EL medio ambiente, en la actualidad, representa un foco de alerta para la humanidad. El desarrollo que el ser humano ha logrado, también ha propiciado un deterioro ambiental, del cual toma conciencia el ser humano de forma más notable en la década de los ochenta. Ante esta realidad, la Organización de las Naciones Unidas (ONU) cuenta con una comisión (Economic and Social Council ECOSOC), cuya misión es realizar actividades enfocadas a estudios y propuestas sobre la protección del medio ambiente.

Fuertemente ligado al medio ambiente encontramos el desarrollo sustentable, el cual según La Comisión Mundial del medio Ambiente y del desarrollo, (1992), se puede definir como: El desarrollo que satisface las necesidades de la generación presente sin comprometer las capacidades de las generaciones futuras para satisfacer sus propias necesidades.

Cabe aclarar que en los países desarrollados se utiliza la expresión desarrollo **sostenido**, debido a que ellos han alcanzado ya un nivel que deben mantener, combinándolo con la conciencia ecológica; en los países en vías de desarrollo se habla de desarrollo **sustentable** para denotar un avance posible y con una conciencia ambiental a lo largo del tiempo (Atristain y Álvarez, 1999).

Términos empleados en la contabilidad ambiental

Para desarrollar la actividad de la contabilidad ecológica, el contador requiere del manejo de algunos términos comunes como son:

<u>Actividades ambientales.</u>-Tienen como objetivo principal prevenir, reducir o reparar el daño al medio ambiente.

<u>Activos ambientales</u>.- Aquello bienes que son incorporados al patrimonio de la entidad de forma duradera con la finalidad de reducir o controlar el impacto ambiental existente o futuro; y aquellos bienes que son recursos naturales, los cuales son propiedad de la nación y utilizados en procesos productivos de la entidad.

<u>Pasivos ambientales</u>.- Son pasivos estimados y contingentes, no se conoce con claridad al reclamante, ya que puede ser cualquier persona que se vea afectada por las actividades de la entidad. La estimación realizada varía constantemente, por lo que hay que realizar una permanente revisión de la estimación. Respecto de los pasivos contingentes y las estimaciones, las Normas de Información Financiera (NIF) apoyan al contador (Durán, 2005).

<u>Capital natural.</u> Se presenta cuando los recursos naturales son mayores que sus activos, por lo que es el factor menos cuantificado de la producción, es muy difícil asignarle un valor a los recursos naturales, los cuales no tienen precio en el mercado.

Dentro del capital total es importante incluir el capital natural como información prioritaria. Para su manejo, éstos se ven involucrados en una problemática surgida de la cuantificación o revelación de las partidas ambientales y, por supuesto, de las partidas de G*astos Relacionados con medidas ambientales* como son; Los gastos de inversión de capital en partidas ambientales; los gastos de investigación y desarrollo para medidas ambientales; los gastos de administración y planeación ambiental; los gastos de monitoreo del cumplimiento de las regulaciones ambientales; los gastos de restauración al medio ambiente.

De la contabilidad emana información cuantitativa, expresada en unidades monetarias y la cual se manifiesta en los estados financieros.

Concepto de los estados financieros

Los Estados Financieros son documentos que prepara una empresa para conocer su posición económica y el resultado de sus operaciones. Los estados financieros son parte importante para una empresa ya que ellos representan el diagnóstico de una evaluación económica mensual y el cumplimiento de los objetivos planteados, representa la primera fase de medición a hechos fortuitos donde al tomar decisiones claras y objetivas se planean acciones correctivas para llegar a las metas estipuladas.

En los estados financieros se comunica información útil a los usuarios en forma resumida del ciclo económico de la empresa, el cual deberá contener todos los acontecimientos y transacciones de ella no se debe incluir información en exceso, van acompañados de notas que son la explicación detallada de información relevante que amplían el origen de los datos. Los estados financieros son documentos que presentan la situación financiera, el resultado de las operaciones o actividades y los cambios en la situación financiera de una entidad económica de acuerdo con las (NIF, 2011), es decir, son representaciones estructuradas de la situación financiera y desarrollo financiero de una entidad.

"Los Estados Financieros son los documentos que proporcionan informes periódicos a fechas determinadas, sobre el estado o desarrollo de la administración de una compañía, es decir, la información necesaria para la toma de decisiones en una empresa". (http://www.mitecnologico.com/Main/EstadosFinancierosConceptoYFinalidades,21/Abril/2009). Los Estados financieros presentan a pesos constantes los recursos generados o utilidades en la operación, los principales cambios ocurridos en la estructura financiera de la entidad y su reflejo final en el efectivo e inversiones temporales a través de un periodo determinado. De León, 2007.

Los Estados financieros son la representación estructurada de la situación y desarrollo financiero de una entidad. El objetivo de los estados financieros es proveer información de una entidad acerca de la posición financiera, que son útiles al "usuario general". Consejo Mexicano para la Investigación y Desarrollo de Normas de Información Financiera, A.C. (CINIF, 2011).

Para satisfacer este objetivo, los estados financieros proveen información sobre la evolución de; a) los activos, b) los pasivos, c) el capital o patrimonio, d) los ingresos y egresos, incluyendo los ordinarios y no ordinarios, e) Los cambios en el capital o patrimonio, f) los cambios en la situación financiera o en los flujos de efectivo.

Los Estados Financieros que responden a las necesidades del usuario general son: Balance General o Estado de Situación o Estado de Posición Financiera; Estado de Resultados; Estado de variaciones en el Capital Contable. Estado de Flujos de Efectivo o Estado de cambios en la Situación Financiera.

Objetivos de los estados financieros.

- a) Mostrar la situación financiera de la entidad en cierta fecha.
- b) Mostrar los resultados de sus operaciones en un periodo.
- c) Mostrar los cambios en la situación financiera en el periodo contable terminado en dicha fecha.
- d) Mostrar los cambios en la inversión de los propietarios durante el periodo.

La presentación del balance general o estado de posición financiera, estado de resultados, estado de flujo de efectivo o estado de cambios en la situación financiera, y estado de variaciones en las cuentas de capital contable, permiten al accionista mejorar la compresión de las operaciones y actividades de la empresa.

Importancia de los estados financieros

Lo importante de los estados financieros es la interpretación de las cifras que motivan a evaluar por diferentes razones la información y tomar las decisiones adecuadas para la entidad involucrando los objetivos planteados por la empresa y el consejo de administración. Pero la dirección o consejo de administración debe interesarle en todos los aspectos el análisis financiero que utilizan los oferentes externos de capital al evaluar la empresa.

Dentro de las entidades lucrativas se mueven muchos intereses el cual uno de ellos son los bancos, proveedores, clientes, acreedores, inversionistas, trabajadores; quienes de acuerdo al fin que persiguen les interesa la liquidez de la entidad, la solvencia, la rentabilidad y actualmente las acciones que la empresa realiza a favor del medio ambiente para demostrar su responsabilidad con el medio ambiente y que la entidad puede reflejar en los estados financieros. El nivel de rentabilidad proporciona información a los accionistas para tomar decisiones de inversión y crédito, están interesados en medir la rentabilidad para asegurar la obtención de un rendimiento y la recuperación de la inversión.

La posición financiera proporciona la evaluación de solvencia y liquidez así como la capacidad de generar recursos para afrontar las deudas o préstamos otorgados. La capacidad financiera de crecimiento evalúa el origen de los recursos financieros y el rendimiento de los mismos. Se mide la eficiencia y la eficacia de los recursos tanto la aplicación y el origen de ellos del cual están interesados en conocer de qué recursos financieros dispone la entidad para llevar a cabo sus fines y como fueron obtenidos.

En la actualidad los empresarios manejan los estados financieros como la obligación fiscal, pero realmente se han olvidado de lo importante de la información financiera y la exigencia de convertir en términos monetarios las acciones a favor del medioambiente que realiza la empresa (CINIF, 2011).

Las características de los estados financieros

De acuerdo con el CID del CINIF en la NIF A-4 2011 define las características de la información financiera de la siguiente manera:

Se dividen en:

- a) Características primarias. Las características primarias de la información financiera son confiabilidad, relevancia, comprensibilidad y comparabilidad.
- b) Características secundarias. Las características secundarias están orientadas: 1) Confiabilidad y son la veracidad, la representatividad, la objetividad, la verificabilidad y la información suficiente: 2) Relevancia son la posibilidad de predicción y confirmación de la importancia relativa.

Confiabilidad.- La información financiera posee esta cualidad cuando la información presentada es congruente, de las transacciones, transformaciones internas y eventos sucedidos y el usuario final la utiliza para tomar decisiones basándose en ella.

Relevancia.- La información financiera posee esta cualidad cuando influye en la toma de decisiones económicas de quienes la utilizan. Para que la información sea relevante debe: a) Servir de base en la elaboración de predicciones y en su confirmación (posibilidad de predicción y confirmación); b) Mostrar los aspectos más significativos de la entidad reconocidos contablemente (importancia relativa).

A continuación se abordan cada uno de los estados financieros brevemente y se deja en último lugar al estado de posición financiera ampliando la información del mismo para proponer el estado de posición financiera ambiental.

Estado de resultados o de pérdidas y ganancias

El estado de resultados es un estado financiero que muestra los ingresos, identificados con sus costos y gastos correspondientes y, como resultado de tal enfrentamiento, la utilidad o pérdida neta del periodo contable. (Romero 2006).

De acuerdo con el CID del CINIF en la NIF A-3 2011 define al estado de resultados: El estado de resultados o de actividades es un estado financiero que muestra la información relativa al resultado de las operaciones en un periodo y por ende de los ingresos, gastos; así como de la utilidad (pérdida) neta o cambio neto en el patrimonio contable resultante en el periodo.

Se integra por:1) Ingresos, costos y gastos:2) Utilidad o pérdida neta

Estado de variaciones en el capital contable.

Es un estado financiero que refleja los aumentos o disminuciones de las aportaciones del capital contable de la entidad en un periodo determinado, es un estado financiero sencillo pero que permite identificar saldos iníciales y finales en un ejercicio.

Estado financiero que muestra los cambios en la inversión de los propietarios en el periodo. (Romero 2006).

De acuerdo con el CID del CINIF en la NIF A-5 2011 define al estado de variaciones en el capital contable: Son cambios al capital contribuido de una entidad, durante un periodo contable, derivado de las decisiones de sus propietarios, en relación con su inversión en dicha entidad.

Estado de flujo de efectivo

El estado de flujo de efectivo es un estado financiero que comunica los cambios en los recursos de una entidad y sus fuentes en un periodo, mostrando las actividades de operación, financiamiento e inversión y su reflejo en el efectivo. (Romero 2006).

De acuerdo con el CID del CINIF en la NIF A-3 2011 define al estado de estado de flujo de efectivo o estado de cambios en la situación financiera: Contiene información acerca de los cambios en los recursos

y las fuentes de financiamiento de las entidades en el periodo clasificados por actividades de operación, financiamiento e inversión.

Balance general o estado de situación o estado de posición financiera

"El balance general es un estado financiero que muestra los recursos de que dispone la entidad para la realización de sus fines (activo) y las fuentes externas e internas de dichos recursos (pasivo más capital), a una fecha determinada. De su análisis e interpretación podemos conocer, entre otros aspectos la situación financiera y económica, la liquidez y la rentabilidad de una entidad". (Romero, 2006, p. 257).

De acuerdo con el CID del CINIF en la NIF A-3 2011 define al balance general: El balance general, también llamado estado de situación financiera o estado de posición financiera, muestra información relativa a una fecha determinada sobre los recursos y obligaciones financieras de la entidad; es decir, información referente a los activos en orden de su disponibilidad, revelando sus restricciones; los pasivos atendiendo a su exigibilidad, revelando sus riesgos financieros; así como el capital contable o patrimonio contable a dicha fecha.

Los elementos que integran el balance general o estado de situación financiera son los siguientes:

Activo: Un activo es un recurso controlado por la una entidad, identificado, cuantificado en términos monetarios, del que se esperan fundamentalmente beneficios económicos futuros, derivado de operaciones ocurridas en el pasado, que han afectado económicamente a dicha entidad (NIF A-5, 2011). Atendiendo a su naturaleza los activos pueden ser de diferentes tipos: Efectivos y equivalentes, derechos a recibir Efectivos y equivalentes, derechos a recibir Bienes o Servicios, bienes disponibles para la venta o para su transformación y posterior venta, bienes destinados al uso o para su construcción y posterior uso y aquellos que representan una participación en el capital contable o patrimonio contable de otras entidades

Pasivo: Es una obligación presente de la entidad, virtualmente ineludible identificada, cuantificada en términos monetarios y que representa una disminución futura de beneficios económicos, derivada de operaciones ocurridas en el pasado, que han afectado económicamente a dicha entidad (NIF A-5, 2011). Atendiendo a su naturaleza los pasivos pueden ser de diferentes tipos: Obligaciones de transferir efectivo o equivalente, obligaciones de transferir bienes o servicios, obligaciones de transferir instrumentos financieros emitidos por la propia entidad.

Capital Contable: Es el valor residual de los activos de la entidad, una vez deducido todos sus pasivos (NIF A-5, 2011). Tipos de capital contable: Capital contribuido conformado por las aportaciones de los propietarios de la entidad; Capital ganado conformado por las utilidades y pérdidas integrales aculadas, así como por las reservas creadas por los propietarios de la entidad.

METODOLOGIA

Poco se ha trabajado lo referente a la Contabilidad Ambiental y los Estados Financieros producto de la misma, por lo que la investigación tiene un carácter exploratorio y descriptivo.

Para realizar el presente trabajo de investigación en lo que respecta a la investigación documental se recurrió a la obtención de información secundaria por medio de selección de literatura, lectura de la misma, elaboración de resúmenes, para poder integrar el marco conceptual y referencial del trabajo y a tomar como fuerte apoyo las NIF.

La investigación de campo se apoyará en la investigación inductiva que lleva de lo particular a lo general, por lo que se procederá a la tarea de obtener información primaria, por medio de la técnica de entrevistas y observación a las lavadoras de ropa localizadas en Tehuacán Puebla, tomando a una de ellas como caso de estudio.

RESULTADOS

La presentación de la información financiera se refiere al modo de mostrar adecuadamente los estados financieros y sus notas. Y en el presente trabajo se referirá únicamente a la presentación del estado de posición financiera. La presentación es de dos formas las cuales se mencionan de la siguiente manera de acuerdo con Romero (2006): a) En Forma de Reporte, y b) En Forma de Cuenta.

En forma de reporte, de esta forma las cuentas se presentan en forma vertical aplicando la formula C=A-P de tal manera que se pueda restar el importe del pasivo al importe del activo y obtener por diferencia el capital contable. A continuación un ejemplo (Romero 2006: p.261) ver figura 1. En esta presentación se observa que las cuentas contables que componen el Estado de posición Financiera o Balance General están en forma de lista.

Figura 1. Balance General en forma de reporte.

		CO,S A.			
	BALANCE GENERAL	AL 30 DE J	UNIO 20X1		
	ACTIVO				
CIRC	ULANTE				
1)	Caja		\$15,000		
	Bancos		100,000		
2)	Clientes	\$80,000			
31	Estimación p/ctas. De cobro dudoso IVA acreditable	5,000	75,000		
4)	Mercancías		120,000	\$315,000	
-	IRCULANTE		120,000	\$313,000	
	EBLES, MAQUINARIA Y EQUIPO				
5)	Terrepo		\$90,000		
6)		\$140,000	\$90,000		
0,	Depreciación acumulada	70,000	70,000		
7)	Mobiliarios y equipo	\$50,000			
-	Depreciación acumulada	25,000	25,000	\$185,000	
INTA	NGIBLE				
8)	Gastos de constitución		\$5,000		
	Amortización acumulada		2,500	2,500	\$502,500
	PASIVO				
~					
CIRC	ULANTE				
	Proveedores		\$95,000		
9)	Documentos por pagar Impuestos y derechos retenidos por enter		7,500 3,000		
10)	Impuestos y derechos retenidos por enter Impuestos y derechos por pagar	a	5,000	\$110,500	
-	IRCULANTE			\$110,000	
11)	Documentos por pagar Acreedores hipotecarios		\$12,000 20,000	32,000	1 42,500
		_	20,000	32,000	142,500
	CAPITAL CONTABL	<u>E</u>			
CAPI	TAL CONTRIBUIDO				
	Capital social			\$200,000	
	TAL GANADO				
12)	Utilidad neta del ejercicio		\$60,000		
	Utililidades acumuladas		95,000		
	Reserva legal		5,000	160,000	\$360,000
	LAS NOTAS QUE SE A				
			FINANCIERO		
	AUTORIZADO POR			BORADO PO	-
	LIC. ÁLVARO DAVID PÉREZ		C.P. JUAN MAI		
	DIRECTOR GENERAL			ADOR GENER	
			00141		

En forma de cuenta, obedece a la formula A=P+C donde permite apreciar de una manera más objetiva la dualidad económica de la empresa, ya que en la parte izquierda aparecerán los recursos de que dispone la entidad (activo) y en la parte derecha las fuentes tanto externas como internas (pasivo y capital contable), ver figura 2, ejemplo como lo ilustra Romero 2006; p. 265.

EL CASCANUECES, S.A. DE C.V. BALANCE GENERAL AL 31 DE DICIEMBRE DE 20X1 CIFRAS EN MILES DE PESOS ACTIVO PASIVO **CIRCULANTE** CIRCULANTE Proveedores \$125,426 Caia Bancos \$75,200 Acreedores 72,987 Clientes \$85,000 110,700 Documentos por pagar 91,111 \$289,524 Estimación para cuentas de cobro dudo:_ 4,250 80,750 NO CIRCULANTE 155,160 \$421,810 Documentos por pagar a largo plazo 125,000 \$414,524 Almacén NO CIRCULANTE CAPITAL CONTABLE INMUEBLES, MAQUINARIA Y EQUIPO CAPITAL CONTRIBUIDO \$8.000 \$15.000 Mobiliarios y equipo Capital social Depreciación acumulada 800 \$7,200 Prima en venta de acciones 5,000 \$20,000 \$4,000 Equipo de transporte Déficit Depreciación acumulada 1,000 3,000 10,200 Pérdida neta del ejercicio (2,476) 17,524 INTANGIBLE 1,300 Gastos de constitución 40 Amortización acumulada \$2 38 <u>ACTIVO</u> 432,048 PASIVO + CAPITAL CONTABLE 432.048

Figura 2. Balance general en forma de cuenta

El estado de posición financiera ambiental, se elabora considerando los conceptos de: Activos <u>ambientales</u>: inventarios, <u>Pasivos ambientales</u>: provisiones para riesgos y gastos. <u>Capital natural</u>, ver figura 3.

CONCLUSIONES PREVIAS Y RESULTADOS ESPERADOS

El medio ambiente se deteriora día con día y llevar cuenta de ello podría ayudar a tener más conciencia de la situación, sobre todo si esto se ve reflejado en la información financiera de las empresas privadas o entidades públicas.

Cada empresa de acuerdo con su entorno, ya sea en desarrollado o en vías de desarrollo ha tomado medidas por voluntad o por obligación para registrar y reflejar los aspectos ecológicos, pero señalando algunos nombres para agrupar estas apartidas como: Activos_ambientales, Pasivos ambientales y Capital natural. Pero sería interesante que en las empresas privadas se aplicara la contabilidad Ambiental para cuantificar y reflejar en la información financiera dichas medidas. Sin que esta presentación vaya en contra a lo que disponen las NIFS.

Los resultados que se esperan obtener con la investigación son: precisar la normatividad y términos utilizados en Contabilidad ambiental, demostrar la utilidad y beneficios al utilizar la Contabilidad ambiental en la PYMES.

Figura 3. Estado de posición financiera.

Empresa "B", S.A de C.V ESTADO DE POSICIÓN FINANCIERA AL 31 DE DICIEMBRE DEL 20XX

ΑСΤΙVΟ		PASIVO	
CIRCULANTEEFECTIVO EN CAJABANCOS0.00INVERSIONES0.00INSTRUM. FINANCIEROS DERIVADOS0.00CLIENTES0TROS DEUDORES Y ANTICIPOSANTICIPO PROVEEDORES0.00INVENTARIOS0.00I.V.A POR ACREDITARISR A FAVORISR A FAVOR0.00DEPOSITO EN GARANTIA0.00GARANTIA FIANZA PTU	0.00 0.00 0.00	CIRCULANTE PROVEEDORES INFONAVIT APORTACION ISR RET. SOBRE HONORARIOS IMSS CUOTAS RETENIDAS IMPUESTO SOBRE NOMINA PROVISIONES PARA GASTOS PROVISIONES POR SERVICIOS CUOTAS SINDICALES COMEDOR PROV INTERESES BANCARIOS HONMORARIOS POR PAGAR IVA POR PAGAR ANTICIPOS DE CLIENTES0.00 SUMA PASIVO CIRCULANTE	\$ 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.0
CON LA AFECTACION ECOLOGICA INVENTARIOS	0.00 \$		
SUMA ACTIVO CIRCULANTE		\$	
FLJO TERRENO0.00EDIFICJIO (NETO)0.00MAQUINARIA Y EQUIPO (NETO)EQUIPO CONTRA INCENDIO (NETO)EQUIPLABORATIO (NETO)0.00EQUIP COMEDOR (NETO)0.00MOB. DE OFICINA (NETO)0.00EQUIP COMPUTO (NETO)0.00EQUIP COMPUTO (NETO)0.00	0.00 0.00	A LARGO PLAZO PRESTAMOS BANCARIOS INTERESES DE PRESTAMOS BANCARIOS <u>CON AFECTACION ECOLOGICA</u> 0.00 PROVISIONES PARA RIESGOS Y GAS <u>TOS</u> SUMA PASIVO A LARGO PLAZO	\$ 0.00 0.00 0.00 \$
EQUIPTRANSPORTE (NETO)0.00ACTIVOS EN CONSTRUCCION0.00		CAPITAL CONTA	BLE
SUMA ACTIVO FIJO DIFERIDO SEGUROS PAGADOS POR ANTICIPADO 0.00 OTROS CARGOS DIFERIDOS 0.00	\$	\$ CAPITAL SOCIAL RESERVAS UTILIDADES EJERCICIOS ANTERIORES FUTUROS AUMENTOS DEL CAPITAL RESULTADODEL EJERCICIO CAPITAL NATURAL SUMA DEL CAPITAL	\$ 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 \$
CON AFECTACION ECOLOGICAINVESTIGACION Y DESARROLLO0.00\$			
SUMA ACTIVO DIFERIDO \$			
SUMA TOTAL ACTIVO	\$	- SUMA PASIVO + CAPITAL \$	
C.P "X" DIRECTOR GENERAL		C.P "Y" DIRECTOR DE FINANZAS	

Fuente Elaboración propia 2011

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María Antonieta Monserrat Vera: Profesor investigador de la Facultad de Contaduría Pública de la BUAP de 1986 a la fecha e integrante del Cuerpo académico Contabilidad Empresarial.

Gerardo Vera Muñoz: Profesor investigador de la Facultad de Contaduría Pública de la BUAP de 1986 a la fecha e integrante del Cuerpo académico Contabilidad Empresarial.

Ana Cecilia Rivera Jiménez: alumna de la licenciatura de la Facultad de Contaduría Pública de la BUAP.

IMPACTO DEL TRATADO DE LIBRE COMERCIO DE AMÉRICA DEL NORTE, LA UNIÓN EUROPEA Y EL TRATADO DE LIBRE COMERCIO PARA REPÚBLICA DOMINICANA Y CENTRO AMÉRICA EN LAS EXPORTACIONES DE PUERTO RICO

Ailín Padilla González, Universidad Interamericana de Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

La creciente apertura comercial de los países y la integración en tratados y bloques comerciales, tradicionalmente se han considerado características indispensables para el crecimiento de las economías. Entre los acuerdos comerciales más importantes en el nivel regional y global se encuentran el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte (TLC), Tratado de la Unión Europea (TUE) y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América (CAFTA- DR). Puerto Rico, en su relación con los Estados Unidos, participa de estos acuerdos por lo que su economía, en especial su renglón propulsor la manufactura, puede encontrar grandes oportunidades aunque también enfrentar amenazas.

El objetivo de esta investigación fue estudiar el impacto del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América sobre las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Para desarrollar el estudio se utilizaron preguntas de investigación e hipótesis que establecieron los cambios ocurridos en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC, TUE y el CAFTA. Los datos para el estudio provinieron los informes anuales de Estadísticas de Comercio Exterior publicados por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico. Se utilizó modelos de serie de tiempo que permitirá analizar el comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC, UE y el CAFTA - DR.

Los resultados de los modelos de serie de tiempo reflejan un cambio significativo en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el TLC, la UE y el CAFTA - DR. El estudio concluye que se ha registrado un aumento significativo en el ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países de TLC y el CAFTA – DR luego de la firma de ambos tratados y a partir del año 1997 hacia los países de la Unión Europea.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Exportaciones, Tratados Comerciales, Crecimiento Económico

INTRODUCCIÓN

La globalización y la interdependencia económica actual, han colocado al sector exterior en el vórtice donde se encuentran las oportunidades y restricciones para cualquier economía nacional. A través del sector exterior, un país puede ampliar su horizonte económico mediante relaciones comerciales y financieras con otros países. La política de comercio exterior que adopten los países tiene una influencia decisiva sobre múltiples variables y cuestiones económicas como: el consumo, la inversión, el ahorro, el empleo, la asignación de recursos y los precios, entre otros.

El comercio exterior o internacional, además de ser el lazo que nos une con el resto de las economías, ofrece grandes ventajas a la economía nacional. La mayoría de los países luchan por participar en el comercio internacional con el fin de elevar el nivel de vida de sus ciudadanos y conseguir el máximo bienestar para la sociedad. Otras ventajas que obtienen las economías nacionales del comercio exterior

son: importan y exportan bienes, servicios y capital; piden y conceden préstamos a extranjeros; imitan tecnologías extranjeras; venden nuevos productos a otros países y sus ciudadanos viajan por todo el mundo por motivos de negocios y placer. El objetivo de expandir el comercio internacional ha cobrado una creciente importancia en las últimas décadas ya que prácticamente todos los países del mundo han observado cómo se fomenta la eficiencia y acelera el crecimiento económico. Actualmente algunas economías exportan más de la mitad de su producción nacional (Samuelson y Nordhaus, 2006 y Parkin M., Esquivel G. y Muñiz M., 2005).

Los beneficios del comercio exterior han aumentado el grado de interdependencia económica entre los países y por consiguiente, su apertura. A los países les resulta beneficioso participar en el comercio internacional por las diferencias regionales con respecto a las condiciones de producción, los costos decrecientes de producción y las diferencias en los gustos (Samuelson y Nordhaus, 2006 y Parkin M., Esquivel G. y Muñiz M., 2005).

FUNDAMENTOS TEÓRICOS

Puerto Rico posee una de las economías más dinámicas y abiertas en la región del Caribe. En materia de comercio exterior, Puerto Rico mantiene un alto intercambio comercial con mercados de gran importancia a nivel tanto americano como europeo y asiático los cuales son el destino de la mayoría de las exportaciones de la Isla, ellos también considerados los principales mercados de origen de sus importaciones. Se destaca Estados Unidos que al año 2009 fuel el destino del 71.6% de sus exportaciones y el origen del 46.9% de las importaciones transformándose en el principal socio comercial de Puerto Rico, Otros mercados importantes son Bélgica, Alemania y los Países Bajos. La Balanza Comercial de Puerto Rico para el año 2009 representó un superávit de \$20,156 millones. El intercambio valor total de las exportaciones para Puerto Rico en ese año fue de \$60,807 millones. Las exportaciones de Puerto Rico se redujeron en un 4.92% en comparación con el año fiscal 2008 (Banco de Desarrollo para Puerto Rico http://www.bdepr.org/>, Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico http://www.jp.gobierno.pr/, Compañía de Comercio Exterior y Exportación http://www.puertorico.cl/ipr perfil.html>).

Entre los principales producto que Puerto Rico exporta se destacan los bienes manufacturados. Del total de exportaciones de año 2008 que ascendieron al \$63,954 millones, el 71.4% corresponde a productos de la industria química, 6.98% a la industria de alimentos y 3.56% a productos computacionales y electrónicos, siendo los sectores más representativos de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. El restante 18.06% lo ocupan equipos eléctricos, enseres, ropa, maquinaria, equipo de transporte, productos plásticos, entre otros. Los productos más exportados fueron: preparaciones farmacéuticas, extractos y preparaciones para dar sabor, partes y piezas para artículos ortopédicos, artículos computacionales, unidades de memoria para computadores, marcapasos y otras fracciones de sangre (Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico http://www.jp.gobierno.pr/ y la Compañía de Comercio Exterior y Exportación http://www.comercioyexportacion.com).

La manufactura, sector industrial robusto y diversificado, es responsable de prácticamente la totalidad de las exportaciones de mercaderías registradas. Las exportaciones de la industria de manufactura representan el 98.87% de las exportaciones totales registradas de Puerto Rico. Es el sector más importante de la economía de Puerto Rico por su aportación al producto interno bruto y al empleo. Durante el año fiscal 2008, dicho sector aportó \$3,457.7 millones al producto interno bruto para una participación relativa del 41.2 %. El mismo ha prevalecido como el sector de mayor participación absoluto y porcentual del producto interno bruto, aunque los empleos en este sector han disminuido. Los empleos en la manufactura representan el 10.59% del número d personas empleadas en Puerto Rico (Informe Económico al Gobernador, 2009).

En los últimos años, el sector de la manufactura en Puerto Rico ha sufrido cambios y se ha debilitado. Ante este panorama es evidente que la industria de la manufactura en Puerto Rico enfrenta serios retos por lo que es imperativo buscar nuevas oportunidades.

Puerto Rico, en su integración económica a la economía norteamericana enfrenta nuevos escenarios para sus exportaciones, situación que se debe explorar ampliamente. Entre estos escenarios destaca la globalización y la regionalización de los mercados. La globalización y regionalización que se manifiesta en la creciente integración de los mercados a través de la formación y consolidación de bloques regionales comerciales, presenta para muchos gobiernos y economistas un vehículo de fortalecimiento para sus economías. Entre los acuerdos comerciales más importantes en el nivel regional y global se encuentran el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte (TLC), la Unión Europea (UE) y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América (CAFTA). Puerto Rico, en su relación con los Estados Unidos participa de estos acuerdos por lo que su economía, en especial su reglón impulsor la manufactura, puede encontrar grandes oportunidades aunque también enfrentar serias amenazas.

OBJETIVO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Esta investigación estudio tiene el propósito de estudiar el impacto Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Representa un intento de analizar cuantitativamente el impacto del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América en las exportaciones en Puerto Rico en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. El principal objetivo de esta investigación será contestar las siguientes preguntas:

- 1. ¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, luego del tratado?
- 2. ¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América luego del tratado?
- 3. ¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico los países que componen la Unión Europea en los últimos 13 años?

Mediante el uso de modelos de series de tiempo, se espera una relación positiva en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América.

METODOLOGÍA

El propósito de esta investigación es estudiar el impacto del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Para desarrollar el estudio se utilizaron las preguntas de investigación e hipótesis que se encuentran en la Tabla 1.

La población objeto de este estudio la componen los datos recopilados en los informes anuales de Estadísticas de Comercio Exterior publicados por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico. Estos informes de comercio exterior incluyen los datos relacionados al ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América. La Junta de Planificación es la agencia que provee los datos oficiales sobre la condición económica y social del país. Los datos

publicados por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico tienen gran validez y confiabilidad ya que la junta en el organismo que recopila, maneja y presenta datos e información para todas las agencias del gobierno en especial la Oficina del Gobernador.

Tabla 1. Preguntas de investigación e hipótesis del estudio

Preguntas de Investigación	Hipótesis
Pregunta de Investigación 1:	Ho: No existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de	Puerto Rico hacia el TLC.
Puerto Rico hacia el TLC?	Ha: Existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
	Puerto Rico hacia el TLC.
Pregunta de Investigación 2:	Ho: No existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico	Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA -DR.
hacia el CAFTA – DR?	Ha: Existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
	Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA -DR.
Pregunta de Investigación 3:	Ho: No existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
¿Qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto	Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea.
Rico hacia la Unión Europea?	Ha: Existirán cambios significativos en las exportaciones de
	Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea.

El análisis utilizó una muestra de 26 años correspondientes del 1984 al 2009. El estudio comprendió una muestra de 26 años para poder establecer las diferencias entre las exportaciones antes y después de los tratados debido a las diferencias en la firma de los tratados. Los estudiosos en este campo recomiendan una de muestra de veinte años. La muestra debe comprender veinte datos, en este caso años, ya que un periodo mayor de estudio se puede afectar por infinidad de variables las cuales serían difíciles de explicar y presentar en un solo modelo. De esta forma, para guardar la relación entre las variables se deben seleccionar periodos de estudios de veinte años (Ramanathan 1998). La muestra no es aleatoria, sino en serie ya que se utilizaron modelos de serie de tiempo para analizar los datos.

ANÁLISIS DE LOS DATOS

Para el análisis de los datos se sometió el ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico los países del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte, Tratado de la Unión Europea y el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América a un modelo de serie de tiempo que tomó en consideración el efecto antes y después de los tratados. En el caso de la Unión Europea, Estados Unidos no tiene un tratado de libre comercio sino varios acuerdos de comercio por lo que su análisis se hizo comparando los ingresos 13 años y después de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico.

Los resultados de estas regresiones permitieron analizar el comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC, CAFTA – DR y la UE y determinar si hubo cambios significativos en las mismas. La variable dependiente en los modelos de serie de tiempo es el ingreso de las exportaciones de la industria de la manufactura de Puerto Rico hacia los países del TLC, CAFTA – DR y la UE. Las exportaciones, consisten de bienes o servicios que se producen en un país y se venden en otro. Comprende el comercio de mercancías y servicios (Samuelson y Nordhaus, 1993). La variable independiente en los modelos de serie de tiempo es el tiempo transcurrido a partir de 1984 para el TLC, CAFTA – DR y la UE. Los modelos utilizaron las variables cualitativas TLC y CAFTA – DR como variables independientes para evaluar el efecto de los tratados. En el caso de la Unión Europea, se utilizó el crecimiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico antes y después del 1997.

Modelo de serie de tiempo para el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte

Ecuación: $Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_1 + \beta_3 X_2 + \beta_4 X_3 + U$ Y = Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico al TLC (1)

 X_1 = tiempo X_2 = TLC X_3 = tiempoTLC U = término de error

El modelo de serie de tiempo que tomó en consideración el TLC utilizó como variable dependiente los ingresos de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC. Como variable independiente, se utilizó la variable tiempo medido en años a partir del 1984. El modelo utilizó la variable cualitativa TLC, como variable independiente para evaluar el efecto del TLC en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Esta variable toma un valor de 0 antes del TLC (antes del 1993) y un valor de 1 con posterioridad al TLC (posterior al 1994). Además, el modelo utilizó como variable independiente el tiempo y el producto del tiempo * TLC, llamada tiempoTLC.

El coeficiente de la variable tiempo, mide la razón de crecimiento del ingreso de las exportaciones antes y después del TLC y que posiblemente hubiera continuado luego del mismo. Su coeficiente utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones sin TLC. El coeficiente de la variable TLC recoge cualquier impacto directo ocurrido en el año cuando entró en vigor el Tratado (1994). El coeficiente de la variable tiempoTLC recoge el cambio en la razón de crecimiento de las exportaciones luego del TLC. Su coeficiente se utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones con el TLC. Al evaluar los resultados, la hipótesis nula sería aceptable, si los coeficientes de TLC y tiempoTLC fueran estadísticamente cero. En cambio, la hipótesis alterna se mantiene si estos coeficientes con significancia estadística son diferentes de cero.

Modelo de serie de tiempo para el Tratado de Libre Comercio para República Dominicana y Centro América

Ecuación: $Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_1 + \beta_3 X_2 + \beta_4 X_3 + U$ Y = Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico al CAFT - DR $X_1 = \text{tiempo}$ $X_2 = \text{CAFTA - DR}$ $X_3 = \text{tiempoCAFTA -DR}$ U = término de error

El modelo de serie de tiempo que tomó en consideración el CAFTA - DR utilizó como variable dependiente los ingresos de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA - DR. Como variable independiente, se utilizó la variable tiempo medido en años a partir del 2003. El modelo utilizó la variable cualitativa CAFTA - DR, como variable independiente para evaluar el efecto del CAFTA - DR en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico. Esta variable toma un valor de 0 antes del TLC (antes del 2002) y un valor de 1 con posterioridad al TLC (posterior al 2003). Además, el modelo utilizó como variable independiente el tiempo y el producto del tiempo * CAFTA – DR, llamada tiempoCAFTA - DR.

El coeficiente de la variable tiempo, mide la razón de crecimiento del ingreso de las exportaciones antes y después del CAFTA - DR y que posiblemente hubiera continuado luego del mismo. Su coeficiente se utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones sin CAFTA - DR. El coeficiente de la variable CAFTA - DR recoge cualquier impacto directo ocurrido en el año cuando entró en vigor el Tratado (2003). El coeficiente de la variable tiempoCAFTA - DR recoge el cambio en la razón de crecimiento de las exportaciones luego del CAFTA - DR. Su coeficiente se utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones con el CAFTA - DR.

(2)

Al evaluar los resultados, la hipótesis nula sería aceptable, si los coeficientes de CAFTA - DR y tiempoCAFTA - DR fueran estadísticamente cero. En cambio, la hipótesis alterna se mantiene si estos coeficientes con significancia estadística son diferentes de cero.

Modelo de serie de tiempo para la Unión Europea

Ecuación:

(3)

$$\begin{split} Y &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_1 + \beta_3 X_2 + \beta_4 X_3 + U \\ Y &= \text{ Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico a la UE} \\ X_1 &= \text{ tiempo} \\ X_2 &= \text{UE} \\ X_3 &= \text{ tiempoUE} \\ U &= \text{ término de error} \end{split}$$

El modelo de serie de tiempo que tomó en consideración la UE utilizó como variable dependiente los ingresos de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea. Como variable independiente, se utilizó la variable tiempo medido en años a partir del 1997. Se decidió dividir arbitrariamente el análisis de los datos en 13 años, antes y después 1997. Estados Unidos no tiene un tratado de libre comercio con la Unión Europea, pero tiene acuerdos de comercio por áreas firmados a través del tiempo. El modelo utilizó la variable cualitativa UE, como variable independiente para evaluar el cambio en las en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico a partir del año 1997. Esta variable toma un valor de 0 antes del UE (antes del 1997) y un valor de 1 con posterioridad al UE (posterior al 2007). Además, el modelo utilizó como variable independiente el tiempo y el producto del tiempo * Unión Europea, llamada tiempoUE.

El coeficiente de la variable tiempo, mide la razón de crecimiento del ingreso de las exportaciones antes y después del 1997, y que posiblemente hubiera continuado luego del mismo. Su coeficiente se utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones.

El coeficiente de la variable Unión Europea recoge cualquier impacto directo ocurrido en el año a partir del año 1997. El coeficiente de la variable tiempoUE recoge el cambio en la razón de crecimiento de las exportaciones luego del 1997. Su coeficiente se utiliza para obtener una proyección de las exportaciones luego de año 1997. Al evaluar los resultados, la hipótesis nula sería aceptable, si los coeficientes de UE y tiempoUE fueran estadísticamente cero. En cambio, la hipótesis alterna se mantiene si estos coeficientes con significancia estadística son diferentes de cero.

RESULTADOS

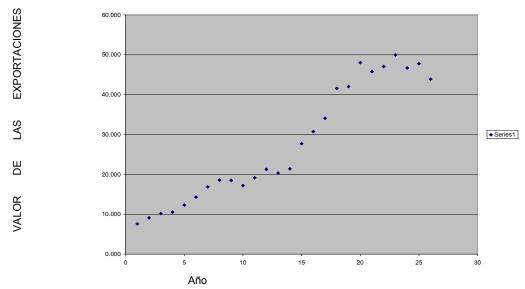
Para contestar la primera pregunta de investigación el modelo de serie de tiempo permitió establecer la relación entre las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC. Se utilizaron los datos del ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el TLC partir del año 1984 hasta el 2009. Los datos aparecen en Tabla 2 y la Figura 1.

Año	Año Real	Valor de las Exportaciones
1	1984	7,591,356,785
2	1985	9,103,617,789
2 3	1986	10,155,206,992
4 5	1987	10,555,711,521
5	1988	12,315,439,178
6	1989	14,299,720,250
7	1990	16,868,521,524
8	1991	18,577,039,152
9	1992	18,495,440,226
10	1993	17,181,033,692
11	1994	19,161,089,146
12	1995	21,271,801,194
13	1996	20,330,157,734
14	1997	21,398,926,838
15	1998	27,692,128,524
16	1999	30,736,400,832
17	2000	34,075,138,164
18	2001	41,582,387,003
19	2002	42,015,682,792
20	2003	48,019,345,412
21	2004	45,783,762,386
22	2005	47,052,573,836
23	2006	49,975,131,582
24	2007	46,701,289,179
25	2008	47,784,305,978
26	2009	43,903,810,957

Tabla 2. Exportaciones de Puerto Rico al TLC

*Datos provistos por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico

Figura 1. Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC



Los resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo para las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia TLC se presentan en la Tabla 3.

Model: Ordinary I	Model: Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimates using 26 observations (1984 – 2009)					
Dependent Variab	le: TLC					
Variable	Coefficient	Stderror	T Stat	2P(T>ITI)		
Const	6.62178	2.709	0.012825	0.012825 **		
TLC	-10.6419	-2.133	5.03526	0.046132 **		
Time	1.23431	3.424	0.360440	0.002425 ***		
TTT	0.971391	2.284	0.425389	0.32416 **		

Tabla 3. Resultados del	modelo de serie de	tiempo para	a el TLC
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Adjusted R- squared = 0.934533

F- statistic (3, 22) = 119.956 (p-value < 0.00001)

La estimación del comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC se representa con en las siguientes ecuaciones:

Exportaciones TLC (hasta 1994) = 6.62178 + 1.23431 * tiempo*Exportaciones TLC (luego de 1995)* = 6.62178 - 10.6419 + (1.23431 + 0.971391) tiempo

Los datos de la Tabla 2 indican que antes de TLC, las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del TLC aumentaban a razón de 12.6% anual ((100(17.8 - 7.59) / (7.59 * 10) = 12.6)). Esto implica un aumento total de 9.59 billones en 10 años o de un 126% ((100(.703 - .263) / (.263 * 20) = 44, 44/5.26 = 8.36)).

Luego del Tratado, el crecimiento de las exportaciones hacia los países del TLC aumentaron a razón de 9.93% anual ((100(47.78 - 19.16)/19.16) = 149, 149/15 = 9.93%). Los datos implican un aumento de 28 billones en 15 años o un 149% (9.93 * 15 = 148.95).

El modelo refleja que el total de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del TLC, luego del Tratado aumentaron en 2.2 millones (.971391 + 1.23431), un incremento en la razón de cambio de las exportaciones de 79% ((100 * .971) / 1.23) = 78.94). Utilizando la ecuación del modelo, Exportaciones TLC (luego de 1995) = 6.62178 - 10.6419 + (1.23431 + 0.971391) tiempo, las exportaciones proyectadas hacia los países del TLC el año 2010, son de aproximadamente 55 billones ((-4.02012 + 2.205701) * 27 = 55.53).

Pregunta de investigación 2:

Para contestar la segunda pregunta de investigación el modelo de serie de tiempo permitió establecer la relación entre las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA - DR. Se utilizaron los datos del ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen el CAFTA – DR partir del año 1984 hasta el 2008. Se eliminaron los datos del año 2009 para mejorar la eficiencia del modelo. Los datos de año 2009 resultaron ser valores extremos que afectaban significativamente los resultados del modelo. Los datos del atos datos aparecen en Tabla 4 y la Figura 2.

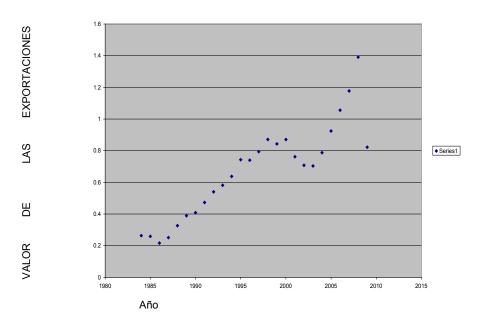
Los resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo para las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia TLC se presentan en la Tabla 5.

Año	Año Real	Valor de las Exportaciones
1	1984	263,777,460
2	1985	258,980,361
3	1986	216,740,363
4	1987	251,169,324
5	1988	326,379,939
6	1989	389,405,651
7	1990	408,546,984
8	1991	473,234,708
9	1992	540,090,657
10	1993	581,749,193
11	1994	637,530,387
12	1995	743,045,760
13	1996	740,015,419
14	1997	793,808,627
15	1998	870,772,876
16	1999	843,023,503
17	2000	870,461,060
18	2001	761,693,536
19	2002	707,733,872
20	2003	703,545,005
21	2004	787,195,915
22	2005	924,525,501
23	2006	1,055,447,526
24	2007	1,177,371,858
25	2008	1,391,043,045
26	2009	821,816,742

Tabla 4. Exportaciones de Puerto Rico al CAFTA – DR

*Datos provistos por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico

Figura 2. Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA - DR



Model: Ordinary Lea	ast Squares (OLS) estimate	s using 25 observations (19	984 – 2008)	
Dependent Variable:	CAFTA - DR			
Variable	Coefficient	Stderror	T Stat	2P(T>ITI)
Const	0.213168	0.040522	5.069	0.0000051 ***
CAFTA – DR	- 2.65154	0.978678	-2.709	0.013136 **
Time	0.3330033	0.00334903	9.943	<0.00001 ****
CCC	0.118847	0.0416951	2.850	0.009581 ***

Tabla 5. Resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo para el CAFTA – DR

Adjusted R- squared = 0.905603

F- statistic (3, 21) = 77.7485 (p-value < 0.00001)

La estimación del comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA - DR se representa con en las siguientes ecuaciones:

Exportaciones CAFTA - DR (hasta 2003) = 0.213168 + 0.0333003 * tiempo*Exportaciones CAFTA - DR (luego de 2004)* = 0.213168 - 2.65154 + (0.0333003 + 0.118847) tiempo

Los datos de la Tabla 4 indican que antes de CAFTA – DR, las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del CAFTA - DR aumentaban a razón de 8.36% anual ((100(.703 - .263) / (.263 * 20) = 44/5.26 = 8.36)). Esto implica un aumento total de 440 millones en 20 años o de un 167%.

Luego del Tratado el crecimiento de las exportaciones hacia los países del CAFTA – DR aumentaron a razón de 19.66% anual ((100(1.391 - .703) / (.703 * 5) = 68.8 / 3.5 = 19.66%)). Esto implica un aumento de 604 millones en sólo 5 años o un 98% (19.66 * 5 = 98.3).

El modelo refleja que el total de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países de CAFTA – DR, luego del Tratado aumentaron en .152 millones (.118847 + .033303), un incremento en la razón de cambio de las exportaciones de 357% ((100 * .118847) / .0333 = 356.9)). Utilizando la ecuación del modelo, Exportaciones CAFTA – DR (luego de 2004) = 0.213168 – 2.65154 + (0.0333003 + 0.118847) tiempo, las exportaciones proyectadas hacia los países del CAFTA – DR para año 2010, son de aproximadamente 1,664 millones ((-2.65154 - .213168) + (.0333003 + .118847) * 27)).

Pregunta de investigación 3:

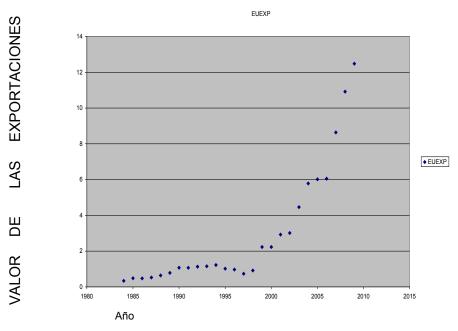
Para contestar la segunda pregunta de investigación el modelo de serie de tiempo permitió establecer la relación entre las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea. Se utilizaron los datos del ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen la Unión Europea partir del año 1984 hasta el 2009. Para propósitos del estudio se decidió evaluar el impacto de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países que componen la Unión Europea partir del año 1984 hasta el 2009. Para propósitos del estudio se decidió evaluar el impacto de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países de la Unión Europea en los últimos 13 años (1997 – 2009). Los datos aparecen en Tabla 6 y la Figura 3.

Año	Año Real	Valor de las Exportaciones
1	1984	263,777,460
2	1985	258,980,361
3	1986	216,740,363
4	1987	251,169,324
5	1988	326,379,939
6	1989	389,405,651
7	1990	408,546,984
8	1991	473,234,708
9	1992	540,090,657
10	1993	581,749,193
11	1994	637,530,387
12	1995	743,045,760
13	1996	740,015,419
14	1997	793,808,627
15	1998	870,772,876
16	1999	843,023,503
17	2000	870,461,060
18	2001	761,693,536
19	2002	707,733,872
20	2003	703,545,005
21	2004	787,195,915
22	2005	924,525,501
23	2006	1,055,447,526
24	2007	1,177,371,858
25	2008	1,391,043,045
26	2009	821,816,742

Tabla 6. Exportaciones de Puerto Rico a la Unión Europea

*Datos provistos por la Junta de Planificación de Puerto Rico

Figura 3. Ingreso de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea



Los resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo para las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia TLC se presentan en la Tabla 7.

Tabla 7. Resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo para la Unión Europea

Model: Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimates using 26 observations (1984 – 2009)					
Dependent Variable: UNI	ON EUROPEA				
Variable	Coefficient	Stderror	T Stat	2P(T>ITI)	
Const	0.35147	0460298	0.765	0.452375	
EU	0.0693450	0.0579920	1.196	0.244517	
Time	-13.5430	1.26657	-10.693	<0.00001 ***	
EEE	0.845650	0.0820131	0.0820131	< 0.00001 ***	

Adjusted R- squared = 0.946367

F- statistic (3, 22) = 148.044 (p-value < 0.00001)

La estimación del comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia LA Unión Europea se representa con en las siguientes ecuaciones:

Exportaciones Unión Europea (hasta 1996) = (0.352147 + 0.0693450) * tiempo *Exportaciones Unión Europea (luego de 1997)* = (0.352147 - 13.5430) + (0693450 + 0.845650) tiempo

Los resultados del modelo de serie de tiempo mostró que el ingreso de las exportaciones representado por la variable tiempo no fue estadísticamente significativa al explicar el comportamiento de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia Unión Europea con un coeficiente de 0.0693450 y un p-value de .2444517. La variable Unión Europea fue estadísticamente significativa, en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la unión Europea en 1997, con un coeficiente de -13.5430 y un p-value < .000001. La variable tiempo UE fue estadísticamente significativa al explicar las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea con un coeficiente de 0.0820131 y un p-value < .00001.

Los datos de la Tabla 6 indican que antes de 1997, las exportaciones Puerto Rico hacia los países de la Unión Europea aumentaban a razón de 14.36% anual ((100(.972 - .339) / (.339 * 13) = 63.3 / 4.36 = 14.36)). Esto implica un aumento total de 633 millones en 13 años o de un 186.7% (14.36 * 13 = 186.68). Luego del año 1997 el crecimiento de las exportaciones hacia los países de la Unión Europea aumentaron a razón de 91% anual ((100(12.48 - .972) / .972 = 1,184; 1,184 / 13 = 91.08). Esto implica un aumento de 1,151 millones en 13 años o un 1,184% (91.08 * 13).

El modelo refleja que el total de las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países de la Unión, luego del año 1997 aumentaron en .909 billones (.845650 + .063450), un incremento en la razón de cambio de las exportaciones de 1,408% ((100 * .845) / .06 = 1,408.33)). Utilizando la ecuación del modelo, Exportaciones Unión Europea (luego de 1997) = (0.352147 - 13.5430) + (0693450 + 0.845650) tiempo, las exportaciones proyectadas hacia los países de la Unión Europea el año 2010, son de aproximadamente 11,514 millones ((.352147 - 13.548530) + (.0693450 + .845650) * 27) = 11.514012).

CONCLUSIONES

La primera pregunta de esta investigación analizó: ¿qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el TLC? El modelo de serie de tiempo y el análisis de los datos, son congruentes en sus resultados y permiten concluir que el Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte aumentó significativamente las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del TLC, luego del Tratado.

El modelo y el análisis de los datos indican que el aumento en las exportaciones luego del TLC, fue de 149% en comparación con un 126% antes del Tratado. El modelo indica que en los años previos al

tratado las exportaciones aumentaban, pero que luego del TLC se incrementó el aumento a una razón de crecimiento de 79%. La segunda pregunta de esta investigación analizó: ¿qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia el CAFTA - DR? El modelo de serie de tiempo y el análisis de los datos, son congruentes en sus resultados y permiten concluir que el CAFTA - DR aumentó significativamente las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países del CAFTA - DR, luego del Tratado.

El modelo y el análisis de los datos indican que el aumento en las exportaciones luego del CAFTA - DR, fue de 98% en comparación con un 167% antes del Tratado. El modelo indica que en los años previos al tratado las exportaciones aumentaban, pero que luego del CAFTA – DR, se incrementó el aumento a una razón de crecimiento de 357%. Esta razón de crecimiento es impresionante porque indica que el ritmo al cual las exportaciones aumentan luego de CAFTA – DR es de 3 veces mayor desde el Tratado.

La tercera pregunta de esta investigación analizó: ¿qué cambios han ocurrido en las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia la Unión Europea? El modelo de serie de tiempo y el análisis de los datos, son congruentes en sus resultados y permiten concluir que luego de 1997 aumentaron significativamente las exportaciones de Puerto Rico hacia los países de la Unión Europea.

El modelo y el análisis de los datos indican que el aumento en las exportaciones luego 1997, fue de 1,184% en comparación con un 187% antes del 1997. El modelo indica que en los años previos al 1997 las exportaciones aumentaban, pero que luego de este año se incrementó el aumento a una razón de crecimiento de 1,408%. Esta impresionante razón de crecimiento implica que las exportaciones a la Unión Europea desde 1997 y en la actualidad son 14 veces mayor a lo registrado antes de 1997. Los resultados del modelo y el análisis de los datos reflejan lo expuesto por la teoría económica la cual establece que a los países les resulta beneficioso participar en el comercio internacional por las diferencias regionales con respecto a las condiciones de producción y las diferencias en los gustos (Samuelson y Nordhaus, 2006).

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La Dra. Ailín Padilla González, ostenta el rango de Catedrática Asociada en la Universidad Interamericana de Puerto Rico, Recinto de San Germán. Posee un Doctorado en Desarrollo Empresarial con concentración en Estudios Internacionales e Interregionales de la Universidad Interamericana de Puerto Rico. Obtuvo una Maestría en Gerencia y un Bachillerato en Administración de Empresas con concentración en Gerencia Industrial en la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Recinto de Mayagüez. Actualmente participa en el Curso UGLU – Caribe, conducente al Diplomado en Gestión y Liderazgo Universitario, auspiciado por la Organización de Universidades Interamericanas con cede en la Universidad Simón Bolívar de Caracas, Venezuela.

NECESIDAD ESTRATÉGICA DE INTERNACIONALIZACIÓN ANTE LA REALIDAD EXPORTADORA DE LAS COOPERATIVAS OLEÍCOLAS DE CASTILLA-LA MANCHA-MÉXICO MERCADO POTENCIAL

José Manuel Quesada Rubio, Universidad de Granada Francisco May Hernández, Universidad del Caribe Cancún Ignacio Ruiz Guerra, "Fundación Caja Rural de Toledo" & Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha

RESUMEN

Dada la globalizada situación en la que se encuentran inmersos los mercados desde hace unos años, han surgido sectores que han quedado escasamente conectados a la velocidad que requiere la nueva metodología comercial del planeta. Las cooperativas agroalimentarias de Castilla-La Mancha, tras años en los que sus esfuerzos se centraron en el desarrollo y aplicación de las nuevas tecnologías en los procesos productivos por una clara apuesta por los productos de calidad, se ve en la necesidad de hacer un nuevo esfuerzo de inversiones para crear nuevos canales de comercialización que den salida a las producciones, aún y cuando no se hayan terminado de amortizar las deudas adquiridas por la implantación de esas nuevas tecnologías; pero sobre todo, obligadas por los cambios en el modelo en el que se comercializan las mercancías en el mercado globalizado de hoy día. Las necesidades de inversión se ven frenadas por las dificultades para encontrar crédito en las entidades financieras comerciales, lo que de alguna manera termina repercutiendo en las mismas a la hora de poder cobrar los préstamos aprobados anteriormente a esas cooperativas, ya que si no hacen la inversión para mejorar la comercialización, la producción no se vende, y si no se vende la producción, las deudas no pueden pagarse, lo que conlleva a la ruina al sector, tanto agroalimentario como el financiero. El presente trabajo trata de mostrar la importancia que puede tener para el sector cooperativo de Castilla-La Mancha la cercanía, sobre todo cultural, con una de las economías más pujantes del continente americano: México. Las relaciones comerciales y políticas han sido y son muy importantes y cercanas, pero sobre todo tienen una importante pujanza para el futuro. No se omite puntualizar la necesidad de una planificación estratégica que tenga vínculos en diferentes ámbitos de la realidad, es decir, que sea una estrategia transversal poque ésta que afecta a diferentes ámbitos de la sociedad castellanomanchega, desde lo económico hasta lo social.

Palabras clave: Cooperativas, Agroalimentario, Globalización, inversión, Comercialización.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Lo inicial en este trabajo ha sido la necesidad de conocer la realidad del sector de manera global, (territorialmente hablando), a través de los niveles de producción de las últimas campañas de producción y también, de qué manera se han desarrollado las actuaciones comerciales del sector agroalimentario, en concreto, el mercado del Aceite de Oliva, y su modo de reaccionar ante las nuevas tendencias de los mercados, aunque el dato más significativo que se baraja, es la dificultad de vender a un buen precio, ya que al estar el sector inmerso en una economía de libre mercado, éste se supedita de acuerdo a la obtención de un mejor coste de producción para competir bajo el esquema de precios o bien, por valores diferenciados que otorguen una ventaja competitiva al producto ante los competidores (Ruiz, 2010).

Es por ésto necesario determinar de qué manera podría llevarse a cabo una estrategia de internacionalización de las cooperativas, ya que éstas tradicionalmente han desarrollado su actuación

principal y han esperado a que su producción sea comprada, antes que pensar, cómo habían de venderla. Se hace necesario para la internacionalización, el conocer los modos de entrada en los mercados internacionales, reconociendo el concepto de modo de entrada como la forma en que una empresa organiza sus actividades en los mercados internacionales (Hill et al., 1990). Parece sencillo, como complicado es llevarlo a cabo y las decisiones que lleva detrás. Según Sharma y Erramili (2004) necesitan buscar el lugar que aporte mayor ventaja competitiva para la comercialización.

El idioma y la cultura sin duda alguna pueden representar una barrera de entrada o bien, una puerta para la misma. En todo caso, el internacionalizar el producto extraído y procesado por las cooperativas de Castilla la Mancha más allá de los mercados tradicionales ubicados en el continente europeo principalmente Italia, se presenta como el próximo objetivo a alcanzar, por lo que América podría parecer un mercado "natural", ya que a excepción de Brasil, el idioma es una barrera ya superada desde antes de pensar siquiera en internacionalizar los productos.

El enfoque gradualista que define la internacionalización como un proceso secuencial en el que las empresas, a través de un proceso de aprendizaje, adquieren conocimiento sobre los mercados exteriores lo que les permite incrementar su nivel de compromiso en los mismos (Johanson y Vahlne, 1977, 1990; Bilkey y Tesar, 1977; Cavusgil, 1980); hace patente la necesidad de que, para lograr una internacionalización ad-hoc al mercado destino, se requiera adentrarse en las características del mismo para adquirir un compromiso real para con él, por lo que se analizará a detalle el mercado mexicano a fin de determinar el potencial para introducir el aceite de oliva de la región de Castilla la Mancha.

Siendo la globalización un proceso de integración de mercados nacionales en un mercado mundial, apoyada en una profunda transformación que trasciende las fronteras regionales, la economía castellanomanchega ha de aprovechar esta situación, cuanto más si se considera que la región de Castilla-La Mancha entre los años 1997 y el año 2006 ha multiplicado casi por dos veces el valor de las exportaciones de sus empresas, llegando a un crecimiento máximo del 103%. Mientras que la tasa de crecimiento anual media del PIB (Producto Interior Bruto) de Castilla-La Mancha entre 2000 y 2006 en términos reales fue del 3,52%, cifra ubicada por encima de la media nacional del 3,34%, las empresas de la zona dedicadas a la exportación sumaban en total 2.174, sin embargo entre los años 2003 y 2005 la cifra se ubicó tan sólo en 833 empresas que tenían exportación de manera regular, es decir hubo una reducción en razón del 61.68%, lo que podría ser tomado como una señal alarmante dentro de la industria y el sector oleícola.

Los lugares de destino de las exportaciones de Castilla-La Mancha hasta 2005 fueron países como Portugal, Francia, Alemania y Estados Unidos, siendo 234 las empresas dedicadas a la exportación de bebidas de todo tipo, excepto zumos. De acuerdo con los datos provistos por el Informe Socioeconómico del Consejo Económico y Social de Castilla-La Mancha del año 2009, en la que afirma que la competitividad de las empresas ha ido sufriendo un constante deterioro que claudicó ante la situación de crisis del año 2008, y que ha provocado en los siguientes 3 años, y hasta el día de hoy, que la situación de las empresas en Castilla-La Mancha se haya visto mermada con un cierre masivo de empresas, de cancelación de operaciones mercantiles de exportación, por un descenso acentuado del consumo (Informe Socioeconómico CES C-LM 2009).

Tabla 1. Producción de aceitunas por tipo de olivas y periodo.

	2004	2005	2006	2007
Aceituna de mesa	455,4	375,4	395,7	438,6
Aceituna de almazara	4744,6	3646,3	5283,3	5701,7
Total	5200	4021,7	5679	6140,3

Fuente: Ministerio de Medio Ambiente y Medio Rural y Marino.

En cuanto a la internacionalización, en el caso concreto de las cooperativas, nos encontramos que están en las fases más tempranas del proceso y pueden estar influidas por las características del sector, en concreto, por la fase del ciclo de vida en la que se encuentre (Andersson, 2004), y sobre todo, por un marcado carácter conservador e inmovilista. Mientras tanto la empresa exportadora ha avanzado y ya necesita gestionar el conocimiento experimental como algo imprescindible para el desarrollo de su actividad internacional (Johanson y Vahlne, 1977, 1990; Ericsson, y cols.,1997; Blomstermo y cols., 2004; Forsgren, 2000, 2001). Las dificultades que encuentran las cooperativas parten de la base de la desleal competencia que otros modelos empresariales desarrollan en su entorno, así como la necesidad de la existencia de nuevos fondos financieros que les permitan afrontar los nuevos escenarios mediante inversión en I+D+i y la contratación de personal profesional dedicado a la comercialización.

PRODUCCIÓN Y EXPORTACIÓN DE ACEITE DE OLIVA

El comportamiento en cuanto a exportación del producto, pese al panorama de la reducción por arriba del 61% mencionado anteriormente en el número de unidades productivas, no ha impactado de manera significativa al promedio exportable, por el contrario, con sus vaivenes, la industria muestra una tendencia alcista, contrario a las importaciones que muestran una tendencia a la baja. En la siguiente tabla (Tabla 2) se presenta el comportamiento de la balanza comercial del sector en los últimos 18 años:

	Aceite de Oliva Comercio exterior		Aceite de Oliva virgen Precios percibidos por los agricultores (euros/100kg)						
Años		o exterior ladas)	Extra	Extra	los por los agriculto Fino	es (euros/100kg) Corriente			
	Importación	Exportación	hasta 0,5°	de 0,5 a 1°	de 1 a 1,5°	de 1,5 a 3°			
1990	21.107	270.059	171,31	164,39	157,43	151,35			
1991	64.506	379.342	194,43	181,45	167,65	157,41			
1992	78.741	164.765	182,24	174,91	165,43	163,12			
1993	54.341	225.862	200,97	194,56	188,70	181,93			
1994	125.579	266.440	-	233,46	228,44	219,09			
1995	145.216	158.307	-	288,82	283,15	276,25			
1996	98.153	213.636	-	374,08	362,29	355,22			
1997	70.568	458.629	-	257,04	215,18	200,92			
1998	57.496	426.999	-	197,42	170,56	159,17			
1999	148.582	273.244	-	243,36	234,54	215,63			
2000	38.083	437.257	-	199,30	187,39	186,32			
2001	50.287	509.770	-	297,12	281,36	274,74			
			Extra	hasta 1º	Fino de 1 a 2°	Corriente de 2,1 a 3,3°			
2002	16.346	699.288		197,15	184,55	180,78			
2003	71.169	573.121		225,22	215,92	200,89			
2004	82.697	672.216		243,90	234,92	227,16			
2005	114.556	549.626		305,03	299,84	288,28			
			Ex	tra	Virgen	Lampante			
2006	132.928	509.677		564,32	370,08	158,20			
2007	80.130	690.813		581,10	474,68	136,82			

Tabla 2. Balanza comercial del sector oleícola

Fuente: Agencia Aceite de Oliva (AAO).

Cabría en todo caso cuestionarse si con la reducción del número de Unidades las restantes acapararon el mercado y crecieron en consecuencia para poder satisfacer la demanda existente; y la respuesta se basa en que la caída de las cifras es tan importante como el incremento en volumen de negocios y está claro que las fusiones ha contribuido a ambas cosas (Dunn, 2002).

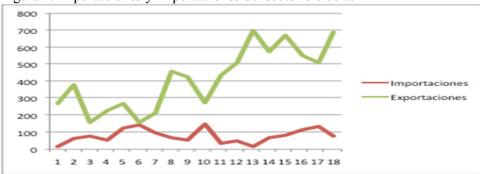


Figura 1. Importaciones y Exportaciones del sector oleícola.

Las estrategias desarrolladas por las cooperativas en los últimos años han partido del impulso de la fusión entre cooperativas para aumentar el tamaño y la capitalización a través del aumento del volumen para aumentar la cuota de mercado, así como la realización de empresas extranjeras de cualquier tipo, al igual que la creación de nuevas líneas de productos que les ayuden a mejorar la posición respecto a los proveedores y el fortalecimiento de la colaboración directa con los productores como ventaja comparativa por su cercanía con los valores de la cooperativa (Juliá y Meliá, 2008).

May y Ruiz (2010) comentan al respecto que "El sector del Aceite de Oliva en España es un sector que subsiste gracias a los incentivos que la Unión Europea invecta a los agricultores para que mantengan una renta suficiente para sobrevivir de la olivicultura, pero el gran hándicap de este sector está centrado, desde hace muchos años, en la comercialización. Durante los últimos años en los que el ritmo de los mercados se ha reducido ostensiblemente el sector oleícola necesita de nuevas fórmulas que solucionen las caídas en el precio del Aceite de Oliva. Acostumbrados a exportar en torno al 50% de la producción a granel, el valor añadido de la venta se queda en los intermediarios del Aceite de Oliva y los grandes distribuidores no españoles; sin embargo ellos mismos comentan que Castilla-La Mancha presenta una menor orientación a los mercados exteriores que la media nacional española, es decir, se autoabastece de bienes y mercancías en mayor medida que el resto de comunidades, que se nutre del mercado externo (presenta un grado de apertura regional del 8,4% frente al 17,2 % nacional). No obstante, es preciso aclarar la dificultad de extrapolar estos datos a la realidad geográfica de los flujos comerciales de la comunidad, ya que muchos de éstos se realizan a través de otras Comunidades Autónomas fronterizas. El contemplar una expansión más allá de las fronteras Europeas indudablemente es el siguiente paso, pero sin intermediarios, en una franca integración vertical hacia adelante, con el objetivo de poder controlar o adquirir el dominio de los distribuidores o detallistas de los productos, en este caso procedentes de la región de CLM. Este tipo de integración se aplica:

- Cuando los distribuidores presentes de la organización son demasiado caros, poco confiables o incapaces de satisfacer las necesidades de distribución de la empresa.
- Cuando la existencia de distribuidores buenos es tan limitada que ofrece una ventaja competitiva a las empresas que se integran hacia adelante.
- Cuando la organización compite en una industria que está creciendo y que se espera que siga creciendo mucho; se trata de un factor porque la integración hacia adelante disminuye la capacidad de la organización para diversificarse si su industria básica falla.
- Cuando la organización cuenta con los recursos humanos y de capital necesarios para administrar el negocio nuevo para la distribución de sus propios productos.

- Cuando las ventajas de una producción estable son muchas; se trata de una consideración porque la organización puede mejorar los pronósticos de la demanda de sus productos por medio de la integración hacia adelante.
- Cuando los distribuidores o los detallistas presentes tienen elevados márgenes de utilidad; esta situación sugiere que una organización podría distribuir en forma rentable sus propios productos y ponerles precios más competitivos si se integra hacia adelante.

Una forma de integrarse verticalmente, en virtud de que a criterio de los autores, las cooperativas y en especial el producto cumple a cabalidad varias de las razones por lo cual hacerlo, es el formato de las franquicias (May, Ruiz et al.) Sin embargo habría que responder algunas interrogantes para corroborar si realmente existe el interés y la capacidad por parte de los cooperativistas para dar el paso, a todas luces necesario para subsistir en este mundo globalizado, eligiendo un Mercado en apariencia con grandes expectativas para el sector oleico, ya que de acuerdo con el portal del gobierno del estado de Tamaulipas, México, a fines del 2010 se terminaría de construir la primera planta de oliva en esa entidad, con la que se espera una producción de seis millones de litros anuales, lo que podría vislumbrar un panorama positivo para las intenciones de los productores de la zona de CLM.

RELACIONES COMERCIALES ESPAÑA-MÉXICO

Hay que considerar que la Unión Europea de los 27, es el principal socio comercial, un 80% de los productos castellano-manchegos están destinados a exportación, mientras que en el total de las importaciones un 84% proviene de la Unión Europea. Los principales consumidores son Portugal (20,2%), Francia (16,8%), Alemania (13,1%), Italia (9,3%) y Reino Unido (4,7%) entre los comunitarios. Fuera de las fronteras europeas el impacto de las exportaciones es mínimo, como ocurre en EEUU (2,9%), en África (5,9%, centrándose la mitad de la mercancía en Marruecos) o Asia (4,8%). Este último apartado es susceptible de mejora, y se deben reforzar esfuerzos para ampliar cuota en destinos emergentes (bloque de países BRIC). Lo interesante de este panorama es el área de oportunidad que representa el mercado de América Latina, en este caso México, ya que como se podrá apreciar posteriormente, importa productos oleicolas de diferentes orígenes, siendo el producto español el que mayor participación tiene al respecto.Sin embargo, la relación de intercambio comercial ha sido constante y cercana, ya que de 1990 al 2010, se tienen los siguientes datos:

Año	Exportaciones	Importaciones	Comercio	Balanza
1990	1,453,587	512,105	1,965,692	941,482
1991	1,194,251	575,911	1,770,162	618,340
1992	1,238,103	880,635	2,118,738	357,468
1993	917,747	1,155,336	2,073,083	-237,589
1994	857,854	1,338,270	2,196,124	-480,416
1995	879,373	694,055	1,573,428	185,318
1996	956,987	629,461	1,586,448	327,526
1997	947,927	977,692	1,925,619	-29,765
1998	719,220	1,256,984	1,976,204	-537,764
1999	951,797	1,321,824	2,273,621	-370,027
2000	1,513,026	1,430,014	2,943,040	83,012
2001	1,287,599	1,827,396	3,114,995	-539,797
2002	1,393,736	2,223,866	3,617,602	-830,130
2003	1,512,434	2,287,969	3,800,403	-775,535
2004	2,026,906	2,852,573	4,879,479	-825,667
2005	2,954,097	3,324,588	6,278,685	-370,491
2006	3,270,119	3,638,168	6,908,287	-368,049
2007	3,583,743	3,833,388	7,417,131	-249,645
2008	4,447,255	4,056,938	8,504,193	390,317
2009	2,392,852	3,004,042	5,396,894	-611,190
2009 /10	2,392,852	3,004,042	5,396,894	-611,190
2010/11	3,678,135	3,232,306	6,910,441	445,829

Tabla 3. Intercambio comercial de Aceite de Oliva España-México. (litros)

Fuente: Informe ICEX España (2011) / Secretaría de Economía de México, Subsecretaría de Comercio Exterior Balanza comercial de México con España Valores en miles de dólares

independiente como tal, no se ha realizado ni se requiere dada la pertenencia de España a la UE.

Campaña	Existencias Ini.	Producción	Importación	Merc.Int(*)	Exportación	Existencias Fin
2006/2007	210.9	1111.4	80.5	567.1	612.1	223.6
2007/2008	223.6	1236.1	59.7	529.8	665.1	324.5
2008/2009	324.5	1030.0	40.6	530.9	659.0	205.2
2009/2010	205.2	1401.5	44.6	539.0	809.5	302.8
2010/2011	420.7	1075.2	13.8	185.2	277.3	1047.2

Tabla 4. Evolución del sistema comercial oleícola.

Fuente: Agencia del Aceite de Oliva. Ministerio de Medio Rural y Marino (MARM, 2011).

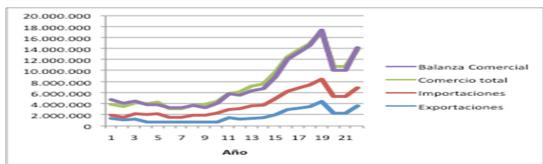


Figura 2. Balanza comercial del sector oleícola, España y México.

Con base a los datos de la Secretaría de Economía de México (SE) y del Banco de México (Banxico), se puede apreciar que dentro de los productos que se importan de España, aparece la aceituna; sin embargo no se especifica la forma en la que esto se lleva a cabo. Se infiere que es en conserva o en estado natural (sin que esto pueda probarse), lo que es en todo caso de llamar la atención es que el comportamiento de este mercado, cuya tendencia es "estable" del 2007 al 2010, tal como se puede apreciar en la siguiente gráfica:

Figura 3. Importación de Aceitunas.



Fuente: Secretaría de Economía. Subsecretaría de Comercio Exterior. Balanza comercial de México con España. Valores en miles de dólares.

El aceite procedente de la aceituna; sin embargo tiene su propia fracción arancelaria, la 15100099 que a la letra refiere: *"los demás aceites y sus fracciones obtenidos exclusivamente de aceituna, incluso refinados, pero sin modificar químicamente, y mezclas de estos aceites o fracciones con los aceites o fracciones de la partida 15.09.Los demás aceites y sus fracciones obtenidos exclusivamente de aceituna, incluso refinados, pero sin modificar químicamente, y mezclas de estos aceites o fracciones con los aceites o fracciones con los aceites o fracciones de la partida 15.09."Y México, del 2007 al 2010, ha importado aceite de oliva en las siguientes proporciones y origen, adicional al valor total:*

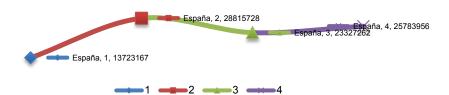
		Volumen		Volumen		Volumen		
	Valor ene-	ene-dic	Valor ene-	ene-dic	Valor ene-	ene-dic	Valor jul-	Volumen jul-
PAIS	dic 2010	2010	dic 2009	2009	dic 2008	2008	dic 2007	dic 2007
TOTAL	33567362	7714656	30404736	6793485	38164267	7271244	21575195	4316881
España	25783956	6162481	23327262	5403563	28815728	5651024	13723167	2912464
Italia	6994484	1405901	6623228	1297898	8168375	1384581	7526774	1337404
Chile	422394	60413	146827	24367	203621	37088	12527	1672
Argentina	216290	51404	204175	39988	888106	175263	230643	45253
Líbano	75233	14610	3247	774	1165	300	0	0
E.U.	27625	9862	28076	7030	61259	19643	54591	13784
Tunez	23242	5755	1366	152	503	96	0	0
Portugal	8958	1682	6494	1293	8131	1504	13148	2395
Grecia	8282	1045	57525	17314	513	44	4838	720
Francia	6855	1493	4918	920	1055	91	377	54
Brasil	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Suiza	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Marruecos	5	3	Ó	0	0	0	0	Ó
Paises no declarados	1	0	328	28	0	0	0	0
Comunidad Europea	0	0	726	56	0	0	0	0
Gran Bretaña e Irlanda del Nte	0	0	0	0	91	1	0	0
Israel	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0
Nueva Zelandia	0	0	0	0	12888	1000	0	0
Turquía	0	0	556	96	2832	606	9130	3133

Tabla 5. Evolución de las importaciones oleícolas de México por países de procedencia.

Fuente: Secretaría de Economía de México

En esta tabla se puede apreciar que España, pese al bajo índice de exportaciones a América, específicamente a México, ocupa el primer lugar de los países exportadores de aceite de oliva con una tendencia a la alza en cuanto a su participación con base al total de lo importado de manera anual al país, tal como se puede apreciar en la siguiente gráfica:

Figura 4. Nivel de exportación de Aceite de Oliva y productos afines del sector oleícola de España a México.



Lo cual, porcentualmente del total, queda de la siguiente manera:

Año	% del total
2007	63.60622
2008	75.50447
2009	76.72246
2010	76.81258

De otro lado disponemos de datos de la producción de Aceituna de Mesa, con diferenciación por las variedades que se cultivan y se dedican al consumo de mesa y cuyo consumo también es muy apreciado en México.

Tabla 6. Evolución de producción y comercialización de Aceituna de Mesa en España.

Variedad	Existen-cias	Entradas		Salidas			Existen-
	Iniciales	Aceituna Cruda	Aceituna Transfor-mada	A Exporta- ción	Mercado Interior	Otras Salidas	cias Finales
MANZANILLA	92,53	208,03	0,34	32,76	25,7	5,66	236,81
GORDAL	39	36,97	0	12,87	1,7	1,54	59,88
HOJIBLANCA	99,6	254,14	0,09	64,52	10,8	5,52	272,95
CACEREÑA	14,61	32,8	0,05	4,61	8,2	2,7	31,95
CARRASQUEÑA	19,05	44,1	0	2,33	10,2	1,77	48,87
OTRAS	11,8	18,14	0,04	1,66	5	0,57	22,78
TOTAL	276,6	594,18	0,51	118,76	61,5	17,76	673,24

Fuente: Agencia del Aceite de Oliva. Ministerio de Agricultura y Medio Rural y Marino (AAO. MARM, 2011).

Lo que visto desde una perspectiva nos facilita información sobre la mayor tendencia al comercio internacional de las Aceitunas de Mesa en el exterior, que en el propio mercado nacional español. Esta información, de las últimas campañas nos muestra, de manera reveladora, la tendencia de los productores a la hora de comercializar este producto, cuyo mercado más importante es el exterior.

Tabla 7. Evolución de Producción y Comercio de Aceituna de Mesa.

Campaña	Existencias	Entradas		Salidas		Existencias
	Iniciales	Aceituna Cruda	A Exportación	Mercado Interior	Otras Salidas	Finales
2006/2007	256,66	499,59	217,58	224,4	46,24	279,15
2007/2008	279,9	556,3	250,65	205,3	47,58	337,56
2008/2009	339,64	485,54	241,27	192,8	64,16	329,11
2009/2010	325,24	492,92	290,22	191,9	58,14	279,38
2010/2011	276,6	594,18	118,76	61,5	17,76	673,24

Fuente: Agencia del Aceite de Oliva. Ministerio de Agricultura y Medio Rural y Marino de España (AAO, MARM, 2011).

POTENCIAL COMERCIAL EN MÉXICO PARA LOS PRODUCTOS OLEÍCOLAS PROVENIENTES DE LAS COOPERATIVAS ESPAÑOLAS, ESPECIFICAMENTE DE LA REGIÓN DE C-LM.

Hay que tener presente que Europa es una de las economías más abiertas del mundo, y es incuestionable hoy día su liderazgo de mercado en términos de movimientos transnacionales (Barea, 2002). La caída de las cifras es tan importante como el incremento en volumen de negocios y está claro que las fusiones ha contribuido a ambas cosas (Dunn, 2002). Las estrategias desarrolladas por las cooperativas en los últimos años, como se mencionó anteriormente, han partido del impulso de la fusión entre éstas para aumentar el tamaño y la capitalización a través del aumento del volumen para aumentar la cuota de mercado; así como la realización de empresas extranjeras de cualquier tipo, al igual que la creación de nuevas líneas de productos que les ayuden a mejorar la posición respecto a los proveedores y el fortalecimiento de la colaboración directa con los productores como ventaja comparativa por su cercanía con los valores de la cooperativa (Juliá y Meliá, 2008).

Pero las dificultades en la internacionalización, que según los investigadores han sido tradicionalmente discutidas como los costes de hacer negocio en el extranjero (Hymer, 1976) o la responsabilidad de la extranjería (Zaheer, 1995) pasan por entender que los recursos, que conforman a la empresa, son la base de las ventajas de una empresa (Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993), pero no todos los recursos dan ventajas a la empresa (Montgomery, 1995; Ray, Barney, and Muhanna, 2004), ya que finalmente es la demanda la que finalmente determinará los cauces a seguir para aspirar a obtener participación dentro de un mercado competido pero a la vez no atendido del todo como lo es el mexicano. Lo anterior se deduce ante el hecho de la decisión del gobierno del estado de Tamaulipas de incursionar en el sector siendo que México no se ha caracterizado por ser un productor de derivados de la aceituna.

Específicamente en la región de Castilla La Mancha, el principal escollo que nos encontramos es el escaso peso que tiene en el conjunto de las exportaciones totales en España, tan sólo un (1,6%), cifra en la que los esfuerzos por conseguir mejores resultados han de aumentar el ritmo de avance de las exportaciones. Un dato más positivo, y contrario a lo sucedido en años anteriores, es la reducción de la elevada dependencia regional del exterior, que se traduce en un descenso de las importaciones (una caída del 18% en Castilla-La Mancha frente al 1% de España), si tomáramos como dato relacionado al aceite de oliva podríamos hacer la inferencia de que del total de los 25' 783' 956 Litros de aceite de olivo importados por México, tan solo 41,254.33 serían tentativamente provenientes de la zona de CLM sin poder aseverar lo anterior, simplemente como dato referencial comparativo para vislumbrar el área de oportunidad que podría representar el mercado mexicano si se hiciera una integración vertical hacia delante o a través del desarrollo de estrategias como la creación de una unimarca, para la posibilidad de poder exportar a través de franquicias de distribución en exclusiva de lo cual May y Ruiz (2010) ya habían comentado al respecto que " La urgencia de la creación de una marca radica en que el papel de éstas en el comercio cada vez se consolida más, a grado tal que la actividad comercial está cada vez más impulsada por la marca, que se generaliza entre los consumidores, por medio de la publicidad, la mercadotecnia y el lanzamiento de productos de promoción que han alcanzado en la actualidad un alto grado de sofistificación auxiliadas por estudios de mercado con las correspondientes tendencias Psicológicas de los consumidores. En este contexto la marca se convierte en un elemento sensible en la conquista de los mercados, pues su carácter distintivo la convierte en el instrumento central de la disputa de la concurrencia". A opinión de Aaker (1996) Hoy por hoy, muchas de las marcas con un alto prestigio venden más por la calidad de los productos o servicios que respaldan. A esto se llama equidad de marca, la cual es un conjunto de cualidades que implica una inversión para crear y mejorar las mismas. Y siendo que la marca no necesariamente implica un producto en específico, la variedad en presentaciones que pudiera darse en cuanto al producto "aceituna" pudiera ser un bastión a considerar en el mercado internacional por parte de los cooperativistas de la zona de Castilla la Mancha.

METODOLOGÍA

Dada la dificultad del estudio sobre los contenidos y las actitudes relacionadas, y la ausencia de especificaciones para su conocimiento, se plantea un problema, al final, para la obtención de la respuesta, lo que hace preciso seguir una secuencia lógica de pasos, como se especifica a continuación:

- Planteamiento de un problema
- Formulación de una hipótesis
- Validación de una hipótesis
- Generalización de resultados
- Planteamiento de nuevos problemas

Como señalan Rodríguez, Gil y García (1996), "toda planificación comienza a partir de la propia reflexión del investigador sobre el problema o asunto y, éste, constituye el corazón de su estudio". Por lo que la metodología es muy importante, y la planificación con ella de las técnicas de recogida de datos.

La investigación recoge conocimientos o datos de fuentes primarias o secundarias y los agrupa para el logro de nuevas experiencias, llegando incluso a la búsqueda de informaciones relevantes a través de las denominadas fuentes híbridas, fruto de la correlación de las fuentes primarias (obtenidas del trabajo de campo) y las fuentes secundarias (obtenidas del trabajo de investigación documental). Con todo este material, el establecimiento de la estrategia de investigación ha resultado ser fundamental. El cuestionario desarrollado es un conjunto de ítems diferentes planteados de forma interrogativa, enunciativa, afirmativa o negativa con varias alternativas, con un formato estructurado, sobre el tema que se quiere investigar (Bernal Torres: 2006). Las dificultades asumidas venían dadas por la forma de puntuar, ya que culturalmente en España está asumida la forma de puntuación de 0 á 10, siendo el 0 la puntuación más baja y el 10 la más alta, y se erigía como mayor dificultad de adecuación de las respuestas el modificarlo de 0 á 5, según las Escala Lickert. Las preguntas del cuestionario son las siguientes:

Nº Preg.	ENCABEZAMIENTO DE PREGUNTA
1.	Antigüedad de su cooperativa
2.	Tamaño de su cooperativa (Nº de socios)
3.	Número de trabajadores de la cooperativa
4.	Producción de la cooperativa en la campaña 2008/2009
5.	Pertenece la cooperativa a un grupo cooperativo comercial
6.	Pertenencia de la cooperativa a alguna D. O.
7.	Vende la cooperativa Aceite de Oliva a granel
8.	Con qué frecuencia vende Aceite de Oliva a granel
9.	Conoce usted destino del Aceite de Oliva que ha venido
10.	A dónde suele llegar el Aceite de Oliva que vende a granel
11.	Está la cooperativa preparada para envasar Aceite de Oliva
12.	Vende Aceite de Oliva envasado en su cooperativa
13.	A dónde suele vender su cooperativa Aceite de Oliva envasado
14.	Exportan Aceite de Oliva envasado
15.	Con qué frecuencia exportan Aceite de Oliva envasado
16.	Cuál es la zona potencial de exportación
17.	Qué mercados potenciales tienen más futuro para el comercio de Aceite de Oliva
18.	Cuál es la experiencia de su cooperativa en exportación
19.	En qué medida los siguientes factores condicionan el desarrollo de la estrategia de exportación de su cooperativa.
20.	Cuál sería su estrategia de exportación en país de destino
21.	Forma de tener contacto con el cliente
22.	Cuál es su política de comunicación en el mercado no consolidado
23.	Su política de comunicación en el mercado consolidado
24.	Quienes serían sus principales competidores
25.	Frente a sus competidores, cuáles serían las ventajas competitivas de su cooperativa

Para la consecución de un estudio manejable, claro y detallado es necesario tener fijados a priori los objetivos que se pretende marcar como finalidad, para ello hay que señalar varias estrategias para la realización de la delimitación de esos mismos objetivos y la formulación del problema (Grande y Abascal: 1999):

- Consulta de expertos.
- Análisis de datos disponibles.
- Análisis de casos similares y conocer cómo se actuó entonces.

Se deben distinguir 2 tipos de objetivos:

- Generales: Lo que se pretende obtener con la investigación planteada.
- Específicos: Indican lo que se pretende en cada una de las etapas de la investigación.

Una vez vista la fundamentación que justifica el trabajo de investigación llevado a cabo, el siguiente paso es profundizar en las cuestiones más intrincadas del mismo, empezando por la presentación de los objetivos del estudio y posteriormente el diseño y las correspondientes fases en las que se divide. La Metodología supone un punto a tener muy en cuenta en un trabajo de estas características y en este caso se han abordado, descrito y justificado los instrumentos de recogida y análisis de datos, de los que posteriormente hemos dispuesto, así como los sujetos participantes en el estudio.

<u>Ficha Técnica</u> Universo: 136 cooperativas. Ámbito geoFigura: Cooperativas Almazaras de Castilla-La Mancha. Muestra: 58 cooperativas. Período: Abril – Mayo 2010. Confiabilidad: 95,5%

ANÁLISIS DESCRIPTIVO DE LA REALIDAD EXPORTADORA OLEÍCOLA DE CASTILLA-LA MANCHA

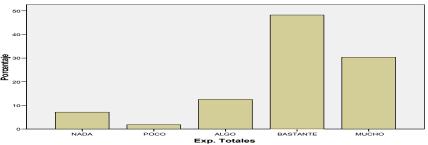
Para valorar la capacidad exportadora y el impacto de ésta en las cooperativas de CLM, habría que ubicar antes que nada, la realidad de la capacidad productiva de esta zona, y así medir en números el impacto que tiene y aún más, podría tener en beneficios, el hecho de desarrollar estrategias de expansión hacia nuevos mercados o incrementado la participación de mercados existentes como es este caso. De acuerdo con Torres (2010), es un hecho que toda empresa necesita poner en circulación sus productos o servicios en el mercado, en muchas ocasiones se puede tener las mejores ideas o productos pero no se cuenta con el canal de distribución adecuado, lo que podría condenar los productos al fracaso. Pero México es un mercado ya explorado por la industria oleícola española por lo que se requiere un trabajo de desarrollo de más y mejores estrategias para explorar nuevas formas de comercialización, pudiendo ser inclusive, el de ampliar la cartera de productos hacia el mercado destino con base a la demanda de éstos. La tendencia histórica, hasta este momento, de las cooperativas agroalimentarias, era la producción más que la apuesta por el mercado y, lo que ha provocado que en la actualidad sea muy dificultoso para el sector hacer frente a la situación del entorno de mercado (Cristóbal, Montegut y Marimon, 2007).

Por ello, dado el peso específico del sector cooperativo oleícola en Castilla-La Mancha, en cuanto a la producción y la comercialización, nos lleva a realizar un análisis del mismo, a partir de los datos que hemos conseguido de un estudio, a partir de una encuesta, en base a un cuestionario realizado a miembros de los consejos rectores de las cooperativas almazaras de Castilla-La Mancha. Aunque, es necesario hacer hincapié en la ausencia entre los encuestados a miembros de cooperativas de segundo grado dedicadas a la comercialización de Aceite de Oliva, siendo éstas, las que se encuentran en mejor situación para afrontar el mercado actual (Senise, 2005).

Válidos	NADA	Frecuencia 4	Porcentaie 6.9	Porcentaie válido 7.1	Porcentaie acumulado 7.1
	POCO	1	1,7	1.8	8,9
	ALGO	7	12,1	12,5	21,4
	BASTANTE	27	46,6	48,2	69,6
	MUCHO	17	29,3	30,4	100,0
	Total	56	96,6	100,0	
Perdidos	Sistema	2	3,4		
Total		58	100,0		

Tabla 8. Exportaciones Totales

Figura 5. Exportaciones totales



		Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Porcentaje válido	Porcentaje acumulado
Válidos	POCO	7	12,1	12,5	12,5
	ALGO	23	39,7	41,1	53,6
	BASTANTE	12	20,7	21,4	75,0
	MUCHO	14	24,1	25,0	100,0
	Total	56	96,6	100,0	
Perdidos	Sistema	2	3,4		
Total		58	100,0		

Tabla 9. Exportaciones de las cooperativas C-LM a la UE-27.

Figura 6. Exportaciones de las cooperativas C-LM a la UE-27.

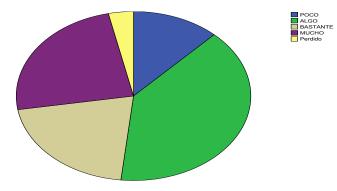
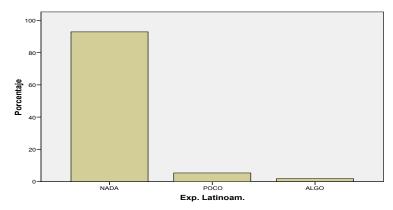


Tabla 10. Exportaciones de las cooperativas de C-LM Latinoamérica.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaie	Porcentaie válido	Porcentaie acumulado
Válidos	NADA	52	89.7	92.9	92.9
	POCO	3	5.2	5,4	98,2
	ALGO	1	1.7	1,8	100,0
	Total	56	96.6	100,0	,
Perdidos	Sistema	2	3,4		
Total		58	100,0		

Figura 7. Exportaciones de las cooperativas de C-LM a Latinoamérica.



CONCLUSIONES

El potencial de Castilla la Mancha, como productor de aceite de oliva es indudable; sin embargo, las acciones emprendidas no parecen ser suficientes para llevar al máximo la capacidad que las almazaras tienen en su conjunto. La respuesta de los cooperativistas no dejan lugar a duda respecto al potencial que latinoamérica representa para un producto como lo es la aceituna, más allá del aceite de oliva, la intención manifiesta y lo saturado del mercado europeo con productos provenientes de los miembros de la UE-27. México, representa sin duda una alternativa viable debido a las caracetrísticas que este mercado tiene. No

tiene sentido lo que se ha ido produciendo en los últimos años desde la Unión Europea, en la que se desincentivaba a las cooperativas grandes para la comercialización internacional, ya que no les facilitaban ayudas económicas (muy necesarias para la ampliación de mercados) porque no contribuían al desarrollo rural de su entorno (Juliá y Meliá, 2008), siendo esto un freno para las fusiones de cooperativas, ya que en función del tamaño se las excluía de las ayudas para el desarrollo rural (García Azcárate, 2005), y hemos llegado ahora a un momento en el que las fusiones se hacen imprescindibles para la supervivencia de las cooperativas a través de la reducción de costes de producción, compartiéndolos entre varias cooperativas, y consiguiendo de esta manera unos márgenes de eficiencia operativa más ajustados para que la competitividad no se resienta ante los nuevos mercados (Ruiz, Martín y Molina, 2010). Y aunado a estas fusiones, el desarrollar modelos de expansión más allá de los medios tradicionales es el paso obligado si acaso pretenden subsistir en un mundo globalizado y cada vez más competitivo, la diversificación o ampliación de la cartera actual de productos de la zona, parece ser una alternativa viable.

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APORTACIÓN E IMPORTANCIA DE LAS FRANQUICIAS EN LA ECONOMÍA MEXICANA: ¿REALIDAD O FANTASIA?

Francisco May Hernández, Universidad del Caribe Cancún Oswaldo Aguilera Muñoz, Universidad del Caribe, Cancún, México Ramón Loy Enriquez, Tecmilenium Plantel Cancún, Cancún, México

RESUMEN

Hoy día, en innumerables países, muchas empresas que operan bajo el sistema de libre comercio y venta directa a los clientes, realizan sus operaciones con el formato conocido como franquicia. El impacto que esta fórmula tiene y sigue teniendo en la economía de muchos países, es tal que la generación de programas para impulsar el sector no es cosa menor. El presente trabajo pretende mostrar una panorámica del impacto que en México ha tenido esta estrategia de expansión interna y externa, en la economía, en su PIB, y el futuro que se vislumbra con base a lo acontecido al día de hoy. Aunque con una interrogante ¿Realmente son lo que los expertos han querido hacer creer?

PALABRAS CLAVE: Franquicias, economía, Producto Interno Bruto, Plan Nacional de Franquicias.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Hablar de franquicias, no es hablar de una industria, es hablar de una estrategia de crecimiento, de expansión de negocios, adoptada por miles de empresarios y emprendedores para crecer o bien, para incursionar de manera más firme en el mundo de los negocios.

Sus inicios son motivo de controversia, algunos, los menos, argumentan que desde la época de las cruzadas, al otorgar la potestad para conquistar nuevas tierras, se daba "licencia de uso de marca" por ir los caballeros con la venia del rey a poner su sello imperial, por lo que bajo este argumento podríamos hablar de una antigüedad de por lo menos cinco siglos. Aunque otros expertos, argumentan que hace más de 150 años, tiempo en el cual, han dejado en manifiesto ser un modelo de negocio con alto grado de crecimiento.

Cualquiera que sea el origen, lo cierto es que las franquicias día con día crecen y han demostrado, de acuerdo datos expresados por organismos como la Asociación Mexicana de Franquicias (AMF) y los reportes resultantes del Plan Nacional de Franquicias (PNF); ser una alternativa de expansión real y confiable, aunque no por ello garantizan el éxito, más bien, disminuyen la posibilidad de fracaso. Como resultado, aprovechando las ventajas que ofrece este formato, muchos negocios incursionan a diferentes mercados no solamente nacionales, sino también internacionales, enseñando a propios y extraños que hay maneras de crecer a través del capital de terceros sin el temor de ser plagiados porque para ello existe ya, legislación en la materia.

¿Qué son las Franquicias?

Hay diversas opiniones y definiciones respecto al término, hay quienes como Mauro y Saporisi (1993), que mantienen el anglosajismo denominándolas como "franchising" y hacen alusión al hecho de que "la primera característica del sistema es que tiene definiciones diferentes, según sea mirado desde el punto de vista de quien otorga (franquiciante), o de quien recibe (franquiciatario)"; sin embargo, en el diccionario de la Real Academia de la Lengua Española, encontramos que franquicia es "la libertad y exención que se concede a una persona para no pagar derechos por las mercancías que introduce o extrae, o por el

aprovechamiento de algún servicio público en particular", otra definición dice que " es un sistema de venta de productos de una firma comercial en una tienda de otro propietario y bajo ciertas condiciones económicas", cualquier que sea la definición que se adopte, la franquicia para términos del presente trabajo es, de acuerdo con May (2008): *un formato de negocio con posicionamiento de marca que permite la explotación de un concepto desarrollado y probado en su viabilidad y documentado en manuales por un emprendedor denominado franquiciante a través del otorgamiento de los derechos a otro emprendedor inversionista denominado franquiciatario, cuya unión o alianza se estipula bajo las cláusulas de un contrato de franquicia.* Algo a destacar es que este formato de negocio no garantiza de ninguna manera el éxito en los negocios para quien emprende o invierte en él, sino que minimiza la posibilidad de fracaso, lo que hace que sea atractivo para quien busca desarrollarse en el ámbito empresarial.

Con base en datos recabados, de acuerdo con Flores (2008), en el año 2007 existían más de 17 mil marcas operando bajo este esquema de negocio con millones de puntos de venta en todo el mundo. México no está exento de este fenómeno, inclusive lo ha adoptado de buena manera conllevando a que el éxito conseguido por algunos negocios, sea replicado a través del capital y la visión emprendedora de otros emprendedores. Aunque para llegar a esto haya pasado por las diversas etapas que el formato ha demostrado requerir para poder consolidarse en territorio ajeno al punto de origen.

Según datos obtenidos al realizar el presente documento, hay quienes como Ferenz Feher, connotado investigador mexicano y escritor de libros acerca de Franquicias, aseguran que el país (México) tiene poco más de 20 años de experiencia en este tipo de negocio, ya que se toma como base que la cadena de restaurantes McDonalds, ingresó en 1985 al instalar su primer unidad estratégica en territorio nacional en la ciudad de México; sin embargo, de acuerdo con Rodríguez (2007), existen otras cadenas como KFC que celebran 40 años de estar en territorio mexicano ingresando al país por la región norte del mismo, específicamente en el estado de Nuevo León y su ciudad capital, Monterrey, por lo que si tomáramos como base este punto, el formato podría argumentarse que lleva más de 4 décadas desarrollándose en el país. Lo que si es un hecho, es que los mexicanos y su cultura empresarial, aceptaron de manera positiva y lo adoptaron en su forma de hacer y emprender negocios.

Para poder determinar el éxito de las franquicias en México, de acuerdo con Feher y Alcazar (2001), podemos basarnos en el hecho de que pasaron por tres etapas:

Ingreso del formato. Esto se dio con marcas de cadenas de prestigio de origen extranjero, específicamente de Estados Unidos. Este punto podemos considerarlo como el más importante, toda vez que permitió al empresariado mexicano darse la oportunidad de conocer una nueva manera (para ellos), de realizar la expansión de un negocio a través del capital e inversión de terceros.

Desarrollo del formato. Una vez conocido el formato y haber obtenido cierta experiencia en él, los empresarios mexicanos iniciaron la aventura de poder ser ellos, quienes, aprovechando las nuevas tendencias, crearan las condiciones que les permitieran expandirse en territorio nacional abarcando con esto mayor participación de mercado y por obvias razones, incrementar la rentabilidad de su negocio, por lo que se dieron a la labor de desarrollar dentro de sus negocios con éxito probado, la fórmula del formato.

Exportación de Franquicias. Una vez aprendido y dominado el formato, los empresarios mexicanos tomaron la decisión de arriesgar y poder crecer, ya no sólo de manera interna, sino cruzando fronteras hacia otros países, lo que permitió que se abriera una nueva modalidad de exportación para quienes siguieron la tendencia, como lo es el caso de la taqeuría "El fogoncito", que se encuentra en países como China, por mencionar uno de tantos ejemplos de éxito.

Estas tres etapas se dan por lo regular en cada país en donde ingresa el formato de las franquicias, algunos tardarán más, otros menos, pero lo cierto es que ha venido a favorecer en consecuencia a la generación de empleos y a aportar de manera significativa a la economía de los países en los que se desenvuelven, además de que su crecimiento, una vez aceptado y comprendido el formato, y valorado en cuanto a su aportación, es significativamente considerable en relación con otros sectores empresariales.

Con base a la información recabada y el análisis de la misma, surgen entonces las siguientes interrogantes:

¿Cuál es la realidad de las franquicias en México? ¿Cuál es la aportación de las franquicias en la economía Mexicana? ¿Cuáles son los factores que las han llevado al éxito? ¿Realmente es el formato tan exitoso como se comenta? ¿Cuál es el futuro de las franquicias en México?

La realidad en México.

Para hablar de la realidad de las franquicias como sector en México, es necesario contemplar el escenario desde la óptica de cuatro etapas, desde sus inicios como lo fue la introducción del sistema bajo la visión de los empresarios mexicanos y su desarrollo (1985-94), la época de la crisis del 94 hasta el 2003, la comprendida dentro del período 2004 al 2007 y del 2008 a la actualidad. De acuerdo con Feher (et al.) El desarrollo del esquema de franquicias en México no fue tarea fácil, fue a finales de los ochenta que surgieron las primeras franquicias 100% hechas en México de las más variadas formas y conceptos: Bing (helados), El fogoncito (tacos), Hawaiian Paradise (raspados) y Steren (electrónica), entre otras marcas, fueron las pioneras en desarrollar sus sistemas de franquicias, abriendo el camino a nuevas empresas que se interesaban en esta manera de crecer, reproduciendo la fórmula de negocio que los hacía exitosas, aunque cabe resaltar que en ese período, el del presidente De la Madrid, Feher (2007), hace mención a que el país vivía inmerso en una economía de mercado muy cerrada, proteccionista y sin un marco jurídico que abordara el sistema de franquicias, aún y cuando estas se encontraban ya operando dentro del país.

A partir de 1990 las cosas empezaron a verse mejor para el sector, por que las pioneras mexicanas en el formato de negocios antes mencionadas, y que se desarrollaron emulando el modelo estadounidense por ser la referencia más cercana y los pioneros en la materia; lograron conformar la Asociación Mexicana de Franquicias (AMF), que vino a dar mayor seguridad e impulso al sector, sin embargo la realidad de entonces dificultaba el adecuado desarrollo del formato, por un lado el desconocimiento del mismo y por otro las condiciones políticas, legislativas y prácticas complicaban la situación. Basta con señalar que la Ley sobre el control y registro de transferencia de tecnología y licenciamiento de uso y explotación de patentes y marcas, la cual se encontraba vigente; afectaba cualquier operación relacionada con tales temas de manera directa. En el período de mediados de los ochenta de acuerdo con Alcazar (2008), era obligatoria la inscripción de los contratos correspondientes ante el registro de transferencia de tecnología, previo acreditamiento de exámenes técnicos, económicos y financieros, bajo una política en extremo proteccionista y nacionalista que inhibía la realización de dichos contratos en condiciones de seguridad para las partes (en particular para el titular de la tecnología, las patentes, las marcas o los derechos de autor, así como para el prestador de soporte o asistencia técnica). Pero aún y con todos los puntos que el sector parecía tener en contra para su adecuado desarrollo y consolidación en territorio nacional, el crecimiento que empezó a tener fue significativo. De aproximadamente 20 negocios operando como franquicias a principios de los noventa, en 1991 este número se duplicó llegando a 40, esta inercia de crecimiento llevó a que en 1992 se alcanzaran 80 y cerca de 150 en 1993, para 1994, se contaba con más de 300 negocios operando con este formato, lo que nos da un crecimiento de poco mas del 1500% en tan solo 4 años, cifra nada despreciable y crecimiento notoriamente acelerado para un sector nuevo en la

economía nacional mexicana. Sin embargo, Feher menciona que en 1990-91 había en el país 50 y que la proporción para entonces entre franquicias extranjeras y mexicanas era al más puro estilo de Pareto 80-20, lo importante cualquiera que sea la cifra válida, es que desde entonces, las franquicias habían dado muestra de que entraron a territorio nacional para, no solamente quedarse, sino reproducirse y multiplicarse.

Para finales de 1994 en las postrimerías del gobierno del Presidente Salinas con su visión de México como un país en franco camino al desarrollo, el crecimiento mostrado por el sector, se frenó bruscamente con la crisis que la economía mexicana enfrentó, la cual se prolongó durante los dos primeros años del Presidente Zedillo, hasta finales de 1996. Si tomamos en consideración que de acuerdo con datos de la AMF, un gran porcentaje de las franquicias funcionando para entonces en territorio mexicano eran de marcas estadounidenses, no era de sorprender que muchos de los créditos obtenidos por los empresarios mexicanos para poseer una marca americana fueran en dólares, y con la devaluación tan brusca que tuvo el peso frente a la divisa americana, muchos de esos compromisos tomaron tal seriedad que se temía que muchas empresas, cualquiera fuera su sector o actividad cerraran, y se temía que los empresarios mexicanos que habían puesto su capital en este formato se declararan en banca rota; sin embargo y con la finalidad de mantenerse en el mercado y no perder el posicionamiento logrado durante el tiempo de operación, muchas de las franquicias se mantuvieron operando aún en un escenario en apariencia nada favorable para el desarrollo óptimo de un negocio y ni que decir para la inversión, lo mejor del caso es que posterior a la crisis, las que contaban con el potencial y la seriedad suficiente, no solamente sobrevivieron a ésta, sino que se posicionaron con mas fuerza en el territorio nacional y en el gusto de los consumidores.

Como simple referencia basta mencionar que para el año de 1991, el negocio de las franquicias generó cerca de 40 mil empleos de manera directa o indirecta; para cuando se dio la crisis del 94, se estima que estaban generando empleos a razón de 225 mil plazas y que la proporción "paretiana" se habia transformado en un 60 - 40 entre extranjeras y nacionales, lo que infería que el sector se encontraba ubicado en la segunda etapa mencionada dentro de las tres y que se dirigía a una maduración de manera firme. Este crecimiento constante en el número de franquicias y unidades instaladas en territorio nacional, se frenó únicamente en la tan referida crisis, pero la expansión de las franquicias como sector, continuó aunque a niveles por debajo de lo acostumbrado en el lustro inmediato anterior, toda vez que creció en el período 94-96 solamente a razón del 28% aproximadamente y generó 35 mil nuevos empleos para un total de 260 mil. Lo curioso del caso es que pese a las aparentes condiciones adversas para la economía, la proporción entre franquicias extranjeras y nacionales se equilibró a razón de 50-50. Lo realmente significativo en cuanto a la aportación a la economía mexicana en una época como lo fue el período de crisis, es que de todos los insumos que se consumían para la adecuada operación de las franquicias que en un inicio era una proporción de 60% extranjeros y 40% nacionales, se revirtió en un 30 - 70, lo que significó, que las franquicias apoyaron al sustento del sector primario de la producción del país en una época en apariencia tan crítica y mantuvieron, en cierta medida, las fuentes de empleo de muchos mexicanos, quienes de manera directa o indirecta trabajaban para el sector de las franquicias.

Una vez superada la crisis de los noventa, el sector continuó su crecimiento, de 1997 a 2000, el número de franquicias existentes se duplicó hasta llegar a 400, emplearon a 40 mil trabajadores adicionales, con lo que la cifra alcanzó los 300 mil empleos generados, y a tan sólo 15 años de su incursión a territorio mexicano, la presencia de marcas extranjeras se vio superada por el desarrollo de conceptos propios y se ubicaron a razón de 40 – 60, lo que no significaba otra cosa que la madurez alcanzada por el empresariado mexicano en la materia. Esta "voltereta" en la proporción, no reflejaba más que la manera en cómo el sector se estaba encaminando para enfrentar de manera consolidada el siglo XXI. En los tres primeros años del nuevo siglo, el número de franquicias se estima que se ubicaba en las 500 marcas con 35 mil puntos de venta ubicados a lo largo y ancho del territorio nacional, operando en más de 65 giros diferentes y aportaban un orden de 400 mil empleos, es decir, que en promedio una unidad operando

generaba en promedio entre 10 y 12 empleos. Lo destacable de lo anterior, es que el 64% de los unidades operando eran ya franquicias mexicanas, es decir que el 36% restante pertenecían a marcas extranjeras, además de que en este período, el porcentaje de insumos nacionales para el abastecimiento del sector, llegó al 75%. Sin embargo el reporte de la AMF (2010), manifiesta que el 84% de las franquicias en territorio nacional son ya de origen mexicano (Asociación Mexicana de Franquicias). Este crecimiento reflejado del 2008 al 2010, se debaeen cierta medida a la implementación de lo que se conoce como el Plan Nacional de Franquicias impulsado por el Presidente Calderón (2007) del cual haremos mención más adelante.

Factores de éxito

Algo que indudablemente impulsó cambios en la manera en cómo se percibían los negocios de manera general, fue el manejo del concepto "Globalización", específicamente en lo relativo al comercio; ya que la apertura y los intercambios comerciales que se dieron en México a partir de la década de los noventa, necesariamente obligaban a realizar cambios en las políticas tanto hacia el interior como al exterior, por lo que en 1990 entró en vigor la Ley de la Transferencia de Tecnología que diera origen al concepto de Contrato de Franquicia, documento a través del cual se permite licenciar el uso de una marca y la transferencia de tecnología de forma legal sin que ponga en riesgo el patrimonio del franquiciante. Un par de años después se dio una de las transformaciones más significativas: la publicación de la Ley de Fomento y Protección Industrial, que ahora es conocida como Ley de Propiedad Industrial (LPI), que, según algunos puntos de vista se toma como preámbulo para las negociaciones del Tratado de Libre Comercio para América del Norte TLCAN.

Con la conformación de la AMF, podemos decir que las franquicias contaban con un sistema legal sólido y una buena cantidad de empresas desarrollando su propio concepto a franquiciar para unirse a los pioneros en la materia en nuestro país, y a partir de entonces el negocio de las franquicias no paró de crecer, lo que viene dándose hasta hoy día. La función de la AMF y el papel que ha venido a desempeñar para que el formato se sitúe en el lugar que actualmente ocupa en la economía de México, ha sido primordial para estos logros. Basta mencionar que hoy día, de acuerdo con datos de la AMF (sic.) nuestro país se encuentra, desde el año 2007, en el séptimo lugar mundial en el número de marcas bajo el esquema de franquicias operando en territorio nacional, dentro de los 33 países mas representativos en la materia en el mundo, solamente por debajo de países como China, Estados Unidos, Japón, Brasil, España y Australia.

Según cifras de la AMF, para el año 2007, eran más de 750 marcas las que operaban en el país en giros tan diversos como el entretenimiento, los servicios, restaurantes, etc, los cuales llegabann a sumar 73 en total, cabe resaltar de lo anterior que el 70% de las marcas operando en ese entonces como franquicias, eran mexicanas, lo que representó un crecimiento del 9.4% con relación a lo reflejado durante los tres primeros años del siglo XXI, lo que de alguna manera demostraba la importancia del formato en el ámbito nacional; no solamente como generador de empleos, sino por que ha tenido en los últimos años una aportación significativa como motor de crecimiento dentro de la economía, ya que presenta tasas por encima del Producto Interno Bruto del País. Los giros en los que opera el formato es de los mas variados, siendo los más recurridos los sectores de servicios, restaurantes y ventas al menudeo (Asociación Mexicana de Franquicias).

Para el año 2010, el número de marcas llegó a 854, un crecimiento del 13.87% en tres años, por lo que para la economía mexicana, las franquicias representan un motor de crecimiento muy potente, pues según estadísticas se expanden a una tasa mayor al PIB nacional real, que en el año 2007, según datos del Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI) con base a información del Banco de México, tuvo un crecimiento del 3.3% y en el 2006 de 4.8%. Comparativamente para tener un panorama del impacto y aportación de las franquicias en la economía, el sector factura cada año un equivalente al

6% del PIB nacional, con un promedio en la dinámica de crecimiento anual de 15%. De mantener este ritmo se prevé que para el 2012 su facturación podría superar el 8% del PIB.

Adicional al PIB, su aportación en la generación de empleos las hace aún más atractivas dentro de la economía, ya que en el 2007, según cifras de la Asociación Mexicana de Franquicias, el sector generó 50 mil nuevas plazas de trabajo debido a la apertura de 6 mil nuevos puntos de venta, esto no demuestra otra cosa que su alta capacidad para generar empleos directos e indirectos porque adicionalmente desarrollan cadenas de abastecimiento y proveeduría. De acuerdo con entrepreneur (2010) la cifra de empleos generados por el sector llegó a los 670 mil empleos a finales del año 2010.

El futuro de las franquicias en México

A opinión de los expertos en el tema, las condiciones para el año 2011 se encuentran de manera tal que permite vaticinar un crecimiento aún mayor en el sector. El ambiente de estabilidad que se percibe en la economía y la política a nivel nacional y ante el hecho de que no se presenten, al menos de forma evidente, condiciones nacionales o internacionales que puedan perturbar la situación actual, incluyendo el ambiente de la economía norteamericana, ha propiciado que se aprecien políticas públicas enfocadas a apoyar de manera real y efectiva, incluso mediante financiamientos blandos a las MiPyME y específicamente a las franquicias.

Vale la pena hacer un paréntesis ya que podría entonces surgir la interrogante de ¿Porqué el gobierno desarrolló un programa de apoyo a las MiPyMe para su conversión al modelo de franquicia?. La respuesta está en que de acuerdo a información de la Secretaría de Economía, el porcentaje de las Micro, Pequeña y Mediana empresa que se desarrollan en nuestro país, se encuentra alrededos del 99.8%, lo alarmante del caso es que de acuerdo con datos de la Secretaría de Economía de México (2010) alrededor del 70% de las MiPyME no llegan a cumplir dos años de operación, y a lo largo de cinco años, una de cada cien se mantiene aún en el mercado. Resulta en consecuencia, que el formato de negocio desarrollado por las franquicias apoya en gran medida a tratar de abatir e invertir en la medida de lo posible la fórmula, ya que de acuerdo a estimaciones de la AMF, por lo regular dos de cada 100 franquicias cierran en el mismo período que lo hace una MiPyME. La oportunidad se sustenta en el hecho de que, de acuerdo a las características del formato, cada unidad de negocios otorgada a un franquiciatario es legal y económicamente independiente del otorgante (franquiciante), por lo que, si tomamos en consideración que el promedio de empleados contratados por una unidad es de diez, cae dentro de la taxonomía de la Secretaría de Economía como una Microempresa inclusive en donde el máximo de empleados permitido en este segmento es de diez, cualquiera que sea el sector (comercial, industrial o servicios). Aunque a partir de julio del 2009, algunas Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empreas dejaron repentinamente, ya que la Secretaría de Economía (SE) y la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público (SHCP) modificaron la clasificación para las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (Mipyme), incluyendo ya en ésta el nivel de ingresos de las Unidades Económicas. De acuerdo con la SE, estaacción tiene el objetivo de evitar la discriminación y ampliar el acceso a programas para el sector; ya que la estratificación se hará con base en el número de empleos y ventas anuales.

Retomando el tema, si bien es cierto que el camino de las franquicias en territorio nacional no ha sido tarea fácil, su adaptabilidad a cambios y adecuaciones en el formato, les ha permitido, no solamente sobrevivir a situaciones en apariencia de total amenaza sobre su existencia misma, sino mantenerse, posicionarse y consolidarse como una opción real en cuanto al emprendimiento e inversión para los mexicanos, quienes de acuerdo a las más variadas opiniones poseemos una importante vocación empresarial, y tendemos de forma natural al autoempleo. Si adicionamos el valor e importancia demostrado a lo largo de su corta presencia como modelo de negocio en México y al éxito tan mencionado que han logrado, realmente es sorprendente independientemente de la óptica con la que se

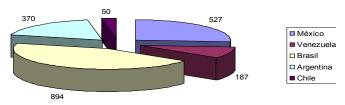
mire, esto mismo ha conllevado a que el gobierno del Presidente Calderón haya diseñado un programa de apoyo a emprendedores que quieran convertirse a este modelo de negocio o que deseen iniciarlo.

Este programa entró en operación a partir de noviembre de 2007 y se denomina Plan Nacional de Franquicias (PNF), en el que participaron en un inicio los bancos HSBC, BBVA Bancomer, Santander, Banorte y Banamex. Este programa contempla un fondo de respaldo para que los bancos otorguen financiamiento a las franquicias sin requerir garantías, con tasas de interés muy bajas, que incluso pueden llegar al 0%.

Según investigadores del sector en México, como Ferenz Feher y Enrique Alcázar Córdova por mencionar algunos, prevén un crecimiento aún mayor que el que actualmente tenemos, si bien es cierto que no de la manera en como se dio al inicio por encontrarse ya consolidado el sector en territorio nacional, si a grado tal que su aportación en el PIB, tal como se mencionó anteriormente, llegue al 8% para el año 2012 y las marcas operando se espera sumen 1200 funcionando de forma continua con aproximadamente unos 100 mil puntos de venta en el territorio nacional. Lo mejor de lo anterior es que las marcas mexicanas, que en total se espera alcancen el 85% de las existentes para entonces, se proyecta que generen 1.5 millones de empleos, toda vez que su potencial económico también se relaciona con su demostrada capacidad de generar empleos directos e indirectos a través de las cadenas de proveedores que desarrollan, situación que no dista en apariencia, de ser alcanzada, ya que actualmente el 84% de las marcas son nacionales, como se detalló anteriormente. En este sentido, el Presidente de la AMF, Diego Elizarraras Cerda señala que el sector de las franquicias en México está aún en condiciones de mantener crecimientos importantes en materia económica para los próximos cinco años, con tasas del orden de dos dígitos, como ocurre en otros países.

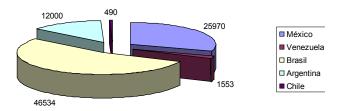
México, con la madurez lograda en el sector y en apego a las ventajas que obtiene al haber realizado tratados o acuerdos comerciales con otros países, por encontrarse ya en la tercera etapa dentro del esquema de las franquicias (exportación), puede aprovechar la dinámica que éstas han tenido los últimos años, ya que en Latinoamérica nos encontramos solo por debajo de Brasil en cuestión del número de franquiciantes y en el número de establecimientos, pero en primer lugar en empleo generado, lo que permite vislumbrar una expansión de marcas nacionales en territorio extranjero, específicamente hacia el sur del continente, pudiendo inclusive a llegar a generarse desde esta perspectiva, exportación de gente preparada en el ramo para aperturar las unidades de negocios de marcas mexicanas en el extranjero. Todo esto se puede apreciar de mejor manera en las Figuras 1, 2, 3.

Figura 1: Numero de Franquicias



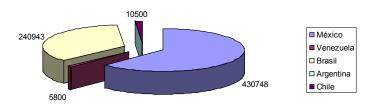
Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos obtenidos en la página franchisesnet.com

Figura 2: Numero de Establecimientos



Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos obtenidos en la página franchisesnet.com

Figura 3: Empleo Generado



Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos obtenidos en la página franchisesnet.com (En este caso no se cuenta con información de Argentina en cuanto a la generación de empleo en el período reflejado.)

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Tabla 1: Representando	lo anterior en forn	na matricial que	aria de la sig	guiente manera
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	México	Venezuela	Brasil	Argentina	Chile
N° de Franquiciantes	527	187	894	370	50
N° de Establecimientos	25.97	1.553	46.534	12	490
Empleo Generado	430.748	5.8	240.943	ND	10.5

Aún y cuando los datos son de las tendencias del 2005, el dominio Brasileño en dos de tres puntos de análisis es palpable, en uno muy importante como lo es la generación de empleo, México lo supera por mucho, inclusive en la aportación al PIB, ya que según datos recabados, las franquicias aportaron a Brasil en el 2005, únicamente el 2% del PIB contra casi el 5% en México, lo que podría inferirse como un punto primordial que de la base para afirmar que el aporte a la economía mexicana del formato, es mas representativo que en Brasil sin restarle importancia a éste.

Para Brasil y México, Latinoamérica puede y representa una oportunidad muy grande en cuanto a expansión del formato, inclusive México ha iniciado la introducción de marcas en territorio carioca y Brasil ha hecho lo propio en nuestro país, gracias a la madurez del sector en ambos casos, aunque, quizás por la cuestión idiomática, México podría parecer tener una ventaja competitiva para introducirse en otros países, y los empresarios mexicanos saben indudablemente de esto.

Algunos estudiosos en la materia como Aragón (2007), auguran que este sector llegue a consolidarse aún más al grado de que 90 por ciento de las empresas en el país pertenezcan a este modelo de negocio en el año 2020. Lo anterior nos permite vislumbrar un crecimiento aún mayor en sus aportaciones en los diversos sectores dentro de la economía mexicana en los que tiene indudablemente aportaciones significativas. Aunque quizás haya giros en los que indudablemente se llegue a una saturación, al menos en territorio nacional pero no necesariamente en otros rincones del orbe en donde se vislumbra un nuevo mercado a atacar, el mismo Aragón aclaró esto, pero dice que aunque se llegue a dar, existen otros en

crecimiento como el de la tecnología y los servicios en los que el crecimiento apenas inicia. Lo cierto es que, con el PNF se pretende, a su criterio, que las unidades creadas bajo este esquema sean puntos de venta con capacidad de subsistencia por lo menos al quinto año, aumentando en un 150% su permanencia, respecto a los dos años como máximo que sobreviven en la actualidad.

CONCLUSIONES

No cabe duda alguna de que la franquicia se ha consolidado como la modalidad de desarrollo empresarial de mayor crecimiento en el mundo. Su presencia en los diferentes países presenta diferentes grados de desarrollo según el nivel de aceptación y características de los emprendedores nacionales a los que se haga referencia.

Es tal la importancia del formato que Actualmente existen más de 17 mil redes de franquicias y más de un millón de puntos de venta y servicios entre franquiciados y puntos propios pertenecientes a estas redes.

Podría parecer que solamente en Estados Unidos, Europa y Latinoamérica se ha venido dando este fenómeno, pero lo increíble es que los asiáticos lo han adoptado de manera tan buena que China hoy día, con sus cientos de millones de habitantes es el primer lugar en la materia según datos del World Franchise Council.

En lo que nos concierne a los mexicanos, a tan solo poco más de dos décadas de su incursión en nuestro territorio, las franquicias han y siguen demostrando que son un formato de negocios que llegó para desarrollarse y consolidarse en nuestro país, brindando, no solamente grandes oportunidades de empleo en una población deseosa de encontrarlo, sino que su aportación en el PIB nacional ha propiciado que el gobierno preste especial atención al sector para empujar aún mas su presencia, creando programas como el Plan Nacional de Franquicias en noviembre de 2007, con el que se pretende que nueve de cada diez negocios sean franquicias al final del próximo sexenio, aunque en anteriores trabajos se demostró la inviabilidad de esta afirmación (May, 2009). Este programa vino a sumarse a los propios de las MiPyME que día con día tratan de adoptar el formato con la finalidad de asegurar su permanencia en un entorno cada vez más competitivo.

Tal vez el formato se ha venido desarrollando exitosamente, como resultado de la proximidad y reflejo del esquema de Estados Unidos donde la franquicia se ha consolidado como un sistema de distribución comercial eficaz, o tal vez ha sido el dinamismo en el que los emprendedores mexicanos han adoptado al conocer el formato, estudiarlo y desarrollar lo propio con productos nacionales por tradición como las tortas, los tacos, las gorditas, etc. Pero lo cierto es que indudablemente su atractivo para el gobierno radica en la excelente oportunidad que brinda el formato como generador de fuentes de empleo, lo que le permite cumplir en gran medida con las metas propuestas en su plan de trabajo.

Valdrá la pena investigar la realidad de la información vertida por asociaciones y expertos, ya que al día de hoy, ningún organismo reconocido académicamente, puede aseverar las cifras y datos emanados de los anteriores, pero hoy por hoy, con lo que se tiene en primera mano, el formato a todas luces parece dismitificar su importancia en la aportación que realiza, cuando menos, en un país como México.

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COMO ESTRATEGIA COMPETITIVA: CASO FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS ADMINSITRATIVAS

María Belén Murillo Pedraza, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Claudia Viviana Álvarez Vega, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Gloria Alicia Nieves Bernal, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

El conocimiento, según la Real Academia de la Lengua Española, lo define como "acción y efecto de conocer, como entendimiento, inteligencia o razón natural". El idioma extranjero o enseñanza de lenguas modernas despierta un gran interés, debido a fenómenos como el de la facilidad de las comunicaciones, la irreductibilidad de las diferentes culturas, la nueva concepción de las relaciones entre los pueblos, basadas en el respeto mutuo y las tendencias de convivencia internacional con base en grandes bloques de influencia. (Diccionario de las ciencias de la Educación, 2006). La Facultad de ciencias Administrativas, comprende las carreras de: Licenciado en Contaduría, Licenciado en Administración de Empresas, Licenciado en Informática, Licenciado en Mercadotecnia y Licenciado en Turismo, las cuales a partir del periodo 2001-2, se estableció como requisito de egreso el conocimiento de un idioma extranjero, repercutiendo en los procesos de titulación al no contar el estudiante con el requerimiento de dicho idioma, no exigible al momento de ingresar. El presente trabajo de investigación plantea la propuesta de establecer como exigible al ingreso del estudiante, lo que reduciría el conflicto que representa para el estudiante cuando se encuentra al final de su carrera.

BIOGRAFIA

María Belén Murillo Pedraza, UABC, belen49@uabc.edu.mx Claudia Viviana Álvarez Vega, UABC, claudia@uabc.edu.mx Gloria Alicia Nieves Bernal, UABC, ganbfiscal@hotmail.com Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera, UABC, raquel_roa@uabc.edu.mx

LA ORALIDAD EN LOS JUICIOS MERCANTILES COMO SOLUCIÓN A LA GARANTÍA DE PRONTITUD Y EXPEDITEZ EN LA IMPARTICIÓN DE JUSTICIA

Gilberto Enrique Bustamante Valenzuela, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Ana Cecilia Bustamante Valenzuela, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Sósima Carrillo, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Janette Brito Laredo, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

La administración de justicia en materia mercantil es un tema que ha quedado rezagado por virtud de que los procedimientos de la materia se fundan en el Código de Comercio que data de finales del siglo XIX. Los tiempos actuales requieren de manera urgente que la impartición de justicia sea acorde con los principios constitucionales de prontitud y expeditez. Es por ello que las reformas emitidas incorporando en el sistema normativo mercantil vigente la oralización de los juicios se propone como una solución a esa ausencia de inmediatez en la impartición de justicia, lo que debe turnar a esta última en dinámica, ágil y existir además una certidumbre jurídica en las resoluciones judiciales. La reforma debe cumplir la urgente necesidad de que el sistema jurídico sea congruente con las actuales condiciones sociales, pero siempre en beneficio de los justiciables mediante la obtención de un procedimiento fluido y transparente. Sin embargo, debemos analizar si dichas reformas trastocan las garantías de legalidad y de debido proceso que también forman parte tradicional de nuestro sistema jurídico.

BIOGRAFIA

- M.D. Gilberto Enrique Bustamante Valenzuela. gbustamante@uabc.edu.mx
- M.A. Ana Cecilia Bustamante Valenzuela. ceci@uabc.mx
- M.A. Sósima Carrillo. carrillo_inc@hotmail.com
- M.A. Janette Brito Laredo. ceci@uabc.mx

SIMILITUDES Y DIFERENCIAS EN LA FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESIONAL DE LA ADMINISTRACIÓN: UN ESTUDIO EN OCHO PAÍSES DE CENTROAMÉRICA

Cecilia Gallegos Muñoz, Universidad del Bío-Bío-Chile Alex Medina Giacomozzi, Universidad del Bío-Bío-Chile

RESUMEN

La formación de pregrado en administración es ofertada en la gran mayoría de los países de América Central, por tanto este estudio se centra en ocho países del continente (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panamá, Puerto Rico y República Dominicana) y que representan una muestra significativa de estos programas en la educación terciaria. Al indagar sobre la oferta de programas en el área de administración en las distintas instituciones de educación superior de estos países, se observa que existe una gran variedad de ellos, por lo que el objetivo de este estudio es analizar y comparar los programas de esta área en dichos países para así aportar a un conocimiento más detallado que permita una mejor comprensión de las similitudes y diferencias existentes en los programas entre estos países. La metodología implicó analizar la oferta de pregrado (segundo ciclo) de cada una de las instituciones de educación superior en dichos países, tanto universidades como otras instituciones, extrayendo aquella información atingente al programa, la que fue procesada por medio de estadígrafos de tendencia central. Los resultados más significativos indican que la gran mayoría de los programas son presenciales y existen 426 programas distintos en 117 instituciones de educación superior. El título con mayor presencia es el de Administración de empresas y la certificación más utilizada es el de Licenciado, con excepción de Puerto Rico. La mayoría de los programas tiene una duración entre cuatro y cinco años.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Licenciado en administración, pregrado, educación terciaria, certificación, universidades

INTRODUCCIÓN

La educación es la base en la formación del capital humano, lo que en conjunto con la salud, son un pilar fundamental para mejorar las condiciones de vida de la población y a partir de esta base, los países tendrán mejores opciones para su crecimiento y desarrollo.

La educación contempla distintos niveles, no siendo suficiente con una educación primaria y segundaria, sino que se suma a estas necesariamente la educación terciaria. Al centrar el interés en esta educación terciaria, resaltan sus tres niveles, de los cuales es objeto de análisis en este estudio el segundo nivel de educación superior o nivel de pregrado.

Es importante indicar que las instituciones de educación superior están integradas por universidades, institutos, escuelas, centros, etc., lo que hace muy variado a esta industria en cuanto al tipo de instituciones que participan en los distintos niveles de la educación terciaria. Si bien la educación terciaria es muy relevante, el estudio acabado de programas en particular no es un tema tratado profusamente en la literatura, lo más relacionado con esta investigación es el trabajo de Medina y Gallegos (2010) sobre la comparación de la formación del administrador por parte de las universidades en América Latina. Otro artículo es el de Xue, Wu, Zhou, Yang y Story (2006), quienes realizan una comparación entre planes de estudio y estructura de programa de medicina entre una Universidad China y una australiana, aunque con un ámbito muy limitado.

Dado lo anterior, resulta muy relevante direccionar la investigación sobre la formación del profesional de la administración, para el caso de América Central, lo que permitirá conocer con mayor claridad la realidad de esta formación terciaria y la mayor o menor distancia que separa esta formación recibida por los alumnos en las instituciones de educación superior de Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panamá, Puerto Rico y República Dominicana, los cuales, en su conjunto, representan el 66,3% del total de la población de Centroamérica.

Un antecedente importante es el total de alumnos en la educación superior en cada uno de estos países, destacándose en términos absolutos República Dominicana, pero al compararlo con el total de la población de cada país, la realidad es diversa, ya que, por un lado, la mayor cantidad de estudiantes en la educación superior está en Panamá con un 3,78%, seguido de República Dominicana con un 3,01%. En sentido contrario, la tasa más baja de participación está en Guatemala con un 0,86%.

Considerando que la edad más habitual para cursar la educación superior fluctúa entre los dieciocho y veinticuatro años, resalta Panamá, pues un 44% de los jóvenes cursa algún programa de educación, seguido por República Dominicana con un 33%. Es preocupante la situación de Guatemala, pues tiene solamente un 10% de los jóvenes en la educación superior, lo que indica que no cuenta con suficientes profesionales que le permitan contar con un capital humano en condiciones de enfrentar los desafíos del desarrollo.

En síntesis, esta investigación se centró en la formación de segundo nivel y dentro de este nivel a la formación en el área de administración, por lo que para efectos de este estudio, se entiende por profesional de la administración a aquella persona que posee un conjunto de competencias que se generan a partir del estudio de las ciencias de la administración y que está preparado para gestionar y que se espera que su desempeño profesional esté en el ámbito de la administración, tanto en el sector privado o público.

RESULTADOS

De las 200 instituciones de los ocho países analizados, 112 universidades y 5 otras instituciones, ofrecen uno o más programas de segundo nivel en el área de administración

De las 117 instituciones que tienen uno o más programas en el área de administración, la mayoría están en universidades, destacándose Nicaragua con 23 universidades que dictan programas en el área de administración, seguido de Costa Rica (19 universidades). Honduras es el país con menos universidades que dictan esta especialidad. Los únicos países que ofrecen programas en el área de administración y que no son universidades son Puerto Rico, Honduras, República Dominicana y El Salvador.

Estas 117 instituciones de educación superior ofrecen un total de 426 programas en el área de administración, lo que claramente indica una oferta promedio de 3,6 programas por cada entidad. Al analizar cada uno de estos programas, se clasificaron de acuerdo a la característica de su denominación, lo cual llevó a identificar, en términos generales a dos tipos de programas, por un lado, programas generalistas y, por otro, programas especialistas. De estos 426 programas se encontraron 102 programas generalistas y 323 programas especialistas.

El Salvador es el único país en donde prevalecen los programas generalistas por sobre los especialistas. Es notorio la fuerte presencia de programas especialistas en Costa Rica, Nicaragua y Panamá. Al hacer un análisis de conjunto, los programas que tienen más presencia son los de carácter especialista ofrecidos por universidades, los cuales triplican a los generalistas dictados por estas entidades. En el caso de las otras instituciones, prevalecen los programas especialistas. Llama la atención el caso de las instituciones de educación superior de Panamá, ya que presenta una muy alta variedad de denominaciones en los programas de segundo nivel en la educación terciaria en el área de administración, no obstante no es el país con la mayor cantidad de instituciones y programas. En el caso de este país hay 57 denominaciones diferentes en los programas del área de administración.

Situación inversa a lo que ocurre en Panamá, es el caso de los programas ofertados por instituciones de educación superior de Honduras, en donde hay solamente 11 denominaciones diferentes de programas en el área de administración, siendo que la mayor dispersión está en los programas especialistas ofertados por universidades.

En el caso de Costa Rica, presenta 43 denominaciones diferentes en los programas del área de administración, siendo la gran mayoría de ellos de carácter especialista. También es interesante la situación en Nicaragua, cuyas instituciones de educación superior ofertan 34 denominaciones diferentes en los programas del área de administración, la mayoría especialistas.

Al profundizar en los tipos de denominación de los programas en el área de administración en los ocho países bajo estudio, para el caso de las universidades, el nombre de programa generalista más utilizado es el de Administración de Empresas y con presencia en todos los países estudiados, destacándose el caso de las universidades de El Salvador, Nicaragua y República Dominicana. Las otras denominaciones no tienen una participación significativa, a excepción del programa en Administración de Negocios, el cual se oferta en Costa Rica y Panamá.

Adicional a lo anterior, al analizar los programas generalistas por país se observa que en el caso de las universidades de Costa Rica, la denominación más utilizada es Administración de negocios con un 45,45%, nombre que también está presente en Panamá, con un 25%. En lo que respecta a las universidades en El Salvador, la denominación más usada es Administración de empresas, con un 95%, lo que también se da en Guatemala, pero con un 66,67%, Nicaragua con un 80,95% y República Dominicana en el 100% de los programas.

También es destacable que la mayor dispersión de denominación de los programas en el área de administración generalista en universidades está en Panamá y la mayor concentración en República Dominicana. En el caso de las otras instituciones, hay solamente dos programas generalistas, uno en Puerto Rico, denominado Bachillerato en administración de empresas general y otro en República Dominicana, denominado Administración de empresas.

En lo que respecta a los programas especialistas, en universidades, hay una alta dispersión de denominaciones, los con mayor presencia son Mercadotecnia, ofrecido en universidades de cinco de los ocho países en estudio (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua y República Dominicana), seguido de Banca y finanzas, el cual es dictado por universidades de Nicaragua y Panamá. En tercer término se encuentra Mercadeo con presencia en El Salvador, Nicaragua, Puerto Rico y República Dominicana.

Al analizar por país las denominaciones de los programas especialistas, en Costa Rica el programa con mayor presencia es Administración de empresas con énfasis en recursos humanos con sólo un 9%, para El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras y República Dominicana es Mercadotecnia con un 35,3%, 14,3%, 37,5% y 24,2%, respectivamente. En el caso de Nicaragua y Panamá predomina Banca y finanzas con un 14,3% y 9,5%, respectivamente. Finalmente en Puerto Rico el programa con mayor participación es Administración de oficinas, con un 10,8%.

En lo que respecta a la denominación de los programas del área de administración especialista en las otras instituciones, estos solamente tienen oferta en cuatro países, existiendo un programa de Economía y Negocios en el Salvador, un programa de Gestión en agronegocios en Honduras y un programa de Mercadeo en República Dominicana. Puerto Rico, en cambio, tiene una oferta de cuatro programas (Administración de empresas con concentración en la banca, Administración en sistemas de oficina, Administración de empresas con concentración en contabilidad y Administración de empresas con concentración en contabilidad y Administración de empresas con concentración.

En síntesis, al integrar todas las denominaciones de los programas ofertados por las distintas instituciones de cada país, tanto universidades como otras instituciones, el programa con mayor oferta es Administración de empresas, 60 programas, seguido de Mercadotecnia, con 19 programas. Sin perjuicio de lo anterior, al integrar todas las denominaciones en el área específica de mercadotecnia, se llega a un total de 53 programas, con lo que se concluye que son las denominaciones de programas más destacados.

Una vez analizadas las diferentes denominaciones, también es relevante referirse al tipo de certificación empleada por cada una de las instituciones de educación superior de los países incluidos en la investigación. El tipo de certificación que prevalece es el de Licenciado, el cual es otorgado por casi todos los países incluidos en la investigación, con la excepción de Puerto Rico, en el cual la única certificación de otorgada es de Bachillerato. En el Salvador, Guatemala y Honduras se da además, la certificación de Ingeniero.

Otro aspecto que también es importante exponer está referido a la duración de los diversos programas, ya que la mayoría de éstos está entre 4 y 5 años, con un 26% de participación cada una. Al observar la duración de los programas por cada país, se observa que en Costa Rica la duración mas habitual es de cinco años y medio, en El Salvador, Panamá y República Dominicana es de cinco años, para el caso de Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua y Puerto Rico, la duración más común es de cuatro años.

Es destacable que las instituciones de siete de los ocho países analizados, presentan distintos años de duración, a excepción de El Salvador, en el cual todos sus programas, independiente de la institución, tienen una duración de cinco años.

Dada la duración de los programas, también es relevante relacionar esta duración con la modalidad de estudio que ofrece cada una de las instituciones investigadas. En este sentido, la casi totalidad de éstas tiene un plan de estudios que se debe cursar de forma presencial. Al relacionar ésta modalidad, con el régimen de estudios, es decir, con la duración de cada período lectivo dentro de un año académico, nos encontramos que en los países de América Central estudiados existe una gran variedad de regímenes de estudio para un mismo tipo de programa. De acuerdo a la información recopilada, el régimen mas común es el de cuatrimestre, el cual es utilizado en 162 programas, seguido del régimen semestral, con 67 programas y el de ciclo, con 63 programas. En la práctica, el régimen semestral tiene mucha similitud con el régimen cuatrimestral, pues cualquiera sea el régimen de estudios, todos consideran período de vacaciones.

Al analizar por país, en Costa Rica la mayoría de sus programas tienen un régimen cuatrimestral y en menor grado de ciclo y bloque. En El Salvador, todos los programas tienen un régimen de ciclo. En Guatemala, los programas se dividen principalmente entre ciclo y semestre. Para el caso de Honduras sus programas están en su gran mayoría en período. En Nicaragua, los programas se dividen de forma casi similar entre cuatrimestre y semestre. Panamá tiene marcada preferencia por el régimen cuatrimestral y en Puerto Rico, todos los programas son semestrales. En cuanto a República Dominicana, presenta toda la gama de regimenes, pero con una mayor participación del régimen cuatrimestral.

Por último, en relación a la salida intermedia, una mayoría de los programas no la contempla, pero al analizar en particular, se destacan las instituciones de Costa Rica y El Salvador pues todos sus programas cuentan con salida intermedia, a diferencia de Honduras cuyos programas no presentan la opción de salida intermedia. En cuanto al resto de los países bajo estudio, si bien aparecen algunos con salida intermedia, son una minoría en relación al total de programas ofrecidos (en Guatemala representan un 10%, Nicaragua un 3%, Panamá un 5%, Puerto Rico un 2% y República Dominicana un 8%).

En lo que respecta al tipo de certificación en la salida intermedia de las instituciones de educación superior que tienen esta opción, resalta con nitidez el título de Bachiller, el cual es otorgado exclusivamente por entidades de Costa Rica y El Salvador. En cuanto al título de Técnico o Técnico superior como salida intermedia de los programas en el área de administración, éste es otorgado por entidades de Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panamá y República Dominicana. El grado de asociado es entregado por una institución de Puerto Rico.

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BIOGRAFIA

Cecilia Gallegos Muñoz, profesora de tiempo completo de la Universidad del Bío-Bío, Facultad de Ciencias empresariales, departamento de Gestión empresarial, Ciudad de Chillán país Chile correo electrónico Cecilia@biobio.cl

Alex Medina Giacomozzi, profesor de tiempo completo de Universidad del Bío-Bío, Facultad de Ciencias empresariales, departamento de Gestión empresarial, Ciudad de Chillán país Chile correo electrónico alex@biobio.cl

Raquel Olivia Roa Rivera, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Lorena Vélez García, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California Santiago Pérez Alcalá, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California

ABSTRACT

Hoy en día el mercado es mas competitivo para los profesionistas de tal manera, que el obtener un lugar privilegiado es una ardua tarea, se debe orientar a diferentes acciones que lleven a la instituciones educativas a la creación de valores agregados y diferenciadores que propicien un posicionamiento con sus audiencias objetivo. El reconocimiento a indicadores de resultados positivos se relaciona con el desempeño y el cumplimiento de objetivos. Los resultados que se presenten obtienen su base en información veraz y real de la institución, así como de aspectos de responsabilidad social donde exista concordancia entre filosofía, misión y visión con las acciones que se realizan. El propósito de esta investigación fue identificar la importancia del impacto de la información en el fortalecimiento de la imagen institucional, refiriendo el caso de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Unidad Mexicali, destacando las funciones del área de difusión enlazadas con las de relaciones públicas e imagen correspondiente a la estructura administrativa de la Universidad Autónoma de baja California, tratando con ello de promover una cultura de información especializada en la comunidad universitaria, enfocada hacia el fomento de la pertenencia en los alumnos, docentes, administrativos y sociedad en la que se participa.

JEL: M10 M100

INTRODUCCION.

Actualmente, la forma de apreciar las acciones que se llevan a cabo a través de instituciones o personas, es parte del proceso de trabajo día a día, los valores son establecidos por elementos intangibles tales como la imagen o la filosofía de la institución, a medida que se valora la importancia de estos aspectos, se hace evidente que el obtener posicionamiento se logra a través del prestigio, donde la imagen difundida juega un rol principal. En lo que respecta, a las relaciones públicas que han sido históricamente utilizadas con fines tácticos, actualmente por naturaleza, se toman en consideración como un recurso estratégico de las instituciones con fines de contar con el apoyo de la opinión pública.

Ante este contexto, el área de Relaciones Públicas tiene un papel importante en la dirección de cualquier organización al mantener las adecuadas relaciones e imagen de esta con el público a quien se planeo dirigir la información; de los cuales se depende para la viabilidad o consecución de objetivos previamente planeados. De acuerdo a lo anterior; dependencias de gobierno, organismos públicos y privados, así como instituciones educativas, integran en sus estructuras orgánicas áreas destinadas a cubrir esta actividad, otorgándoles nombres diversos como son "Relaciones Publicas", "Comunicación Social", "Imagen Institucional", entre otros.

La Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, contempla en su estructura orgánica, la Secretaria de Rectoría e Imagen Institucional, de la cual depende la Unidad de Relaciones Públicas y Medios; esta a su vez ha establecido normas de organización y protocolo, mismas que son utilizadas en todas aquellas

unidades académicas donde existan áreas que cuenten con la responsabilidad asignada de cubrir estas actividades universitarias. En cuanto al caso de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, unidad Mexicali, cuenta con un área de difusión que desarrolla diversas actividades propias de su función. Así, en el presente documento se analizó el área de difusión, con la finalidad de establecer a partir de ello una propuesta al respecto.

ASPECTO CONTEXTUAL DEL TEMA.

El área de Difusión, nace en 1999 en la Escuela de Contabilidad y Administración, como una respuesta a la necesidad de dar a conocer las diversas e importantes actividades que realizaba la institución hacia el interior y exterior de la misma.

A la par del establecimiento de contactos con las áreas responsables de las actividades de comunicación al interior de la Universidad, a fin de conocer y respetar los lineamentos universitarios, y la búsqueda de apoyo de los medios de comunicación a nivel local para la difusión de las actividades, se fueron realizando algunas acciones que marcaron el inicio de una cultura de la difusión en la citada unidad academica.

Algunas de estas acciones requirieron el soporte de las coordinaciones y áreas de apoyo académico, de manera que se obtuvo información sobre las tareas que realizaban dándose a conocer al interior de la Escuela a través de mamparas y vitrinas, con material trabajado por el área y en su exterior por boletines informativos, redactados por esta, bajo esquemas de comunicación externa.

Por otra parte, se orientaron acciones con fines de implementar una metodología de protocolos aplicable a diversos programas académicos internos, procurando eficiencia en la difusión de eventos que se organizaron tales como; reunión de egresados, semana de presentación de libro universitario, actividades culturales, deportivas; así como aquellos que involucraban a las familias de los docentes y administrativos de la escuela; se creo un boletín informativo interno, con una elaboración mensual, así como a los programas de radio y televisión, transmitiendo por la frecuencia universitaria el primer programa de radio en mayo del 2001.

Con respecto a la televisión, a partir del 2000 se participó en los canales locales 3 y 66 con capsulas informativas relacionadas con finanzas, en el 2002 se iniciaron transmisiones en programa de televisión transmitido por el canal universitario. Con el transcurso del tiempo la participación de docentes y alumnos, desde las coordinaciones y aulas ha sido de mayor presencia, llegando a elaborar artículos que se publicaron tanto en Gaceta como en revistas universitarias arbitradas.

Por otra parte, la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas ha incrementado su matricula en forma importante, por lo que se genera un mayor volumen de información, de tal forma, existe la necesidad de fortalecer y mejorar las formas de comunicación, considerando lo relacionado con las áreas al interior de la Facultad, así como la dirigida a publicaciones al exterior de la unidad académica; asimismo, las diversas formas de comunicación y protocolos de relaciones publicas, que permitan presentar y representar la imagen académica que requieren los objetivos de la facultad.

El propósito de esta investigación fue identificar la importancia del impacto de la información en el fortalecimiento de la imagen institucional, refiriendo el caso de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Unidad Mexicali, destacando las funciones del área de difusión enlazadas con las de relaciones públicas e imagen, tratando con ello de promover una cultura de información especializada en la comunidad universitaria, enfocada hacia el fomento de la pertenencia en los alumnos, docentes, administrativos y sociedad en la que se participa. De tal forma, que los objetivos del presente documento son el presentar una propuesta que contribuya al fortalecimiento del prestigio institucional de la Universidad.

Por otra parte, se proponen acciones que fortalezcan y promuevan las relaciones públicas de las escuelas y facultades, con los organismos internos a la universidad, así como con los organismos del sector público y privado, con objeto de fortalecer su imagen y cordialidad, reforzando sus vínculos externos en la región especialmente en su área de influencia.

CONCLUSIONES Y PROPUESTAS

Los comentarios vertidos por docentes y alumnos de la facultad, coincidieron al manifestar la importancia de los medios de comunicación, comentando la importancia de la implementación de estrategias que aporten una mayor difusión interna del las actividades que se realizan por docentes y alumnos, así como al exterior al darse a conocer a la comunidad, donde esta pueda visualizar los conocimientos y experiencias que docentes tienen y que alumnos adquieren, y que en su momento aportarán a la sociedad; de igual manera manifestaron lo importante del establecimiento de señalamiento en espacios que indiquen cada una de sus áreas, así como lo significativo de la armonía en la estructura de los edificios con la naturaleza.

Las personas entrevistadas en la parte externa a la universidad, manifestaron lo significativo que seria una imagen estructural armónica y de ubicación que fomente la identidad universitaria en el área, así como la creación de estrategias de conocimiento externo sobre los valores y éxitos que distinguen al universitario, tanto de alumnos como de egresados de las escuelas y facultades, y que a su vez fomentan el prestigio de estas; por otra parte, se valoro el esfuerzo de comunicación realizado a partir de los programas de radio y televisión, donde proponen una mayor concentración de temas especializados de cada área.

Asi, de acuerdo a los resultados y al análisis realizado, se determinó la siguiente propuesta la cual contiene estrategias que responden al propósito del estudio:

Formular el programa semestral de comunicación y relaciones públicas de la facultad, en materia de información, comunicación, imagen Institucional y relaciones públicas, integrando el calendario de actividades de estas, a partir de los eventos académicos propios de cada coordinación y áreas de apoyo. Diseñar y proponer estrategias que fortalezcan y promuevan la imagen de la facultad interna y externamente, con el objeto de que la Institución este bien posicionada en el ámbito regional especialmente en su área de influencia.

Diseñar y proponer estrategias destinadas a fortalecer y promover las relaciones públicas de la escuela o facultad, así como dar seguimiento a lo ya establecido por la Secretaria de Rectoría e Imagen de la Universidad, con objeto de que la institución fortalezca su imagen y la cordialidad de sus vínculos externos en la región especialmente en su área de influencia.

Diseñar y proponer el programa de comunicación destinado a fortalecer y promover la imagen interna y externa de la escuela o facultad a través del periodismo y otras formas de comunicación y difusión, con el objeto de posesionar la Institución en el ámbito regional especialmente en su área de influencia.

Dirigir y Coordinar los programas de Radio y Televisión de la facultad, llevando un control sobre el desarrollo del mismo y su impacto en la sociedad.

Diseñar e implementar el boletín mensual de información interno de la facultad. Diseñar e implementar la página Web del área de Difusión y Relaciones Publicas de la facultad.

BIOGRAFIA

RAQUEL OLIVIA ROA RIVERA. Maestría en Administración, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California; Licenciatura en Sociología, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. Participación con ponencias en eventos internacionales, Costa Rica, Hawai y en otros eventos nacionales y locales. Actualmente es Coordinadora de Servicio Social Comunitario en la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California.

LORENA VELEZ GARCIA, Estudios de Doctorado en Derecho Tributario, Universidad de Castilla la Mancha, España; Maestría en Administración Internacional, UIA; Licenciatura en Administración Pública, Especialidad en Docencia; Diplomado en Prospectiva Universitaria hacia la Ciencia y la Tecnología, Diplomado en Políticas Públicas y Gobiernos Locales, UNAM, Instituto Nacional de Administración Pública, México, participación en diversos eventos internacionales, nacionales y locales como ponente (conferencias México, España, Chile, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Cuba, Santo Domingo,). Actualmente Coordinadora del Programa de Maestría en Administración, Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, México.

SANTIAGO PEREZ ALCALA, Maestría en Contaduría, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California; Contador Público, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. Publicaciones de ponencias en eventos internacionales, nacionales y locales. Director General Zona I Noroeste de ANFECA. Actualmente Director de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Unidad Mexicali.

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IMPACTO ECONOMICO SOCIAL DE PRODUCTOS AGROBIOTECNOLÓGICOS EN MEXICO 2011

Adriana Patricia Soto Aguilar, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma De Puebla Elías Sosa Sánchez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma De Puebla

RESUMEN

El mundo globalizado, en la actualidad tiene como uno de sus ejes, el fomento a la economía del conocimiento, desarrollo e innovación tecnológica constante. Concretamente la biotecnología ha creado nuevas expectativas para los consumidores, gobierno y retos para el comercio mundial. Para las empresas transnacionales las innovaciones biotecnológicas, (concretamente las técnicas agrobiotecnológicas-transgénicas), representan nuevas modalidades en los procesos productivos, de distribución, comercialización y consumo, además de generar nuevas formas de acumulación capitalista, en los mercados mundiales. A su vez el crecimiento acelerado de la biotecnología ha rebasado las instancias gubernamentales y sociales creando controversia legal, ecológica, ética y económica. El presente trabajo de investigación tiene como finalidad el identificar los nuevos patrones de acumulación capitalista de las empresas transnacionales agro biotecnológicas, en México, al introducir productos transgénicos en el mercado nacional, incorporar nuevos cambios en los procesos de producción agrícola, su impacto en el medio ambiente y economía rural, cambios en los procesos de distribución y comercialización de productos transgénicos a través de aduanas aéreas, marítimas y terrestres, cambios en los patrones de consumo no antes desarrollados por la humanidad y el impacto económico, comercial, social y cultural para nuestro país.

PALABRAS CLAVE: innovación, inversión, desarrollo, biotecnología, patentes, transgénicos, propiedad intelectual.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Esta investigación está basada, en el constante desarrollo de la biotecnología, por parte de las empresas transnacionales y la invasión de productos transgénicos, dentro de la economía mexicana, así como el escaso monitoreo gubernamental nacional en materia biotecnológica y ecológica. El anterior desarrollo biotecnologíco nos lleva a plantear las siguientes interrogantes:

- 1. ¿Cómo son los nuevos procesos productivos de innovación y desarrollo generadores de productos transgénicos aplicados a la economía mexicana? ¿Qué efectos económicos-comerciales y ecológicos tiene para la economía agrícola tradicional?
- 2. ¿Cuáles son los prototipos y normas de seguridad hacia los productos transgénicos y su impacto en el ciclo económico y medio ambiente?
- 3. ¿Cuáles son las diferencias de la política agrobiotecnológica internacional con respecto a nuestro país y cuál es la política en materia económica para conservar nuestro germoplasma y la postura gubernamental ante la biopiratería?

El presente trabajo de investigación tiene la finalidad de dar respuesta a estas interrogantes analizando el ciclo económico de productos transgénicos y los planteamientos en materia de política económica hacia el desarrollo, fomento, regulación y aplicación tecnológica en México. La justificación del presente trabajo de investigación está en función de los siguientes puntos:

1.- Desarrollo acelerado y constante de productos agro biotecnológicos en los mercados mundiales. La falta de claridad en los protocolos sanitarios, legales, ambientales y comerciales tanto a nivel internacional como nacional que regulen la entrada o cultivo de productos agrobiotecnológicos en el mercado nacional.

2.-A nivel mundial cambios en las zonas tradicionales de cultivo de productos alimenticios, lo que antes producía el tercer mundo ahora es mercado de los países desarrollados. (cambios en procesos productivos)

3.- Pérdida constante de la variedad genética en México y a nivel internacional, aunado a esto graves daños ecológicos. Cambios en las importaciones y exportaciones nacionales y mundiales de alimentos, así como los patrones de consumo. (cambios en los canales de comercialización, distribución y patrones de consumo.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El trabajo de investigación está fundamentado en diversas corrientes del pensamiento económicocomercial, como la teoría de la economía clásica de Adam Smith y David Ricardo, la Teoría del Neoliberalismo Económico, Teorías en torno al Desarrollo sustentable y sostenido, las tendencias de la teoría del caos y algunas aportaciones de Joseph Shumpeter y la Teoría de la Ventaja Competitiva de Michael Porter.

Se retomarán argumentos a debatir para los productos agrobiotecnológicos como las ventajas absolutas, competitivas, comparativas, sus costos de oportunidad, también se analizará el argumento Smithiano en torno al liberalismo económico y los intereses de las empresas transnacionales, sobre todo en función a la propuesta clásica en torno a que los intereses personales coinciden con los intereses generales y que el propio sistema económico es armónico por lo que el estado no debe intervenir en la economía, contra la propuesta de David Ricardo quien duda que el sistema económico se auto regule basando en el equilibrio general.

En cuanto a la teoría Shumpeteriana se retomará el papel de las tecnologías e innovaciones dentro de los ciclos económicos y teoría marxista, neo marxista. Así mismo es importante retomar las propuestas en torno al desarrollo sostenido y sustentable para el agro mexicano y el comercio justo dada la gran cantidad de campesinos indígenas que tiene nuestro país. Otras teorías que ayudan a esta investigación son: Teoría de la dependencia, teoría Estandar del Comercio Internacional, Teoría de Dotación de Factores Hecksher-Ohlin, Teoría del Crecimiento Económico y Comercio Internacional.

Para continuar con la fundamentación del análisis económico este podría girar en torno a las restricciones al comercio exterior, las barreras comerciales no arancelarias y el nuevo proteccionismo, la integración económica, el papel del comercio internacional y el desarrollo económico el papel del tipo de cambio en el mercado de divisas y en la Balanza de Pagos, el comercio basado en diferencias y preferencias del consumidor, la intensidad y la supuesta abundancia de los factores o el comercio basado en las diferencias tecnológicas.

METODOLOGIA

El presente ponencia representa un año de investigación doctoral, (noviembre 2009-diciembre 2010), así como investigación de campo, en la zona centro y noreste de México y tiene como objetivo demostrar los efectos de la innovación tecnológica por parte de las empresas trasnacionales los cuales trascienden a los

proceso económico-comercial generalizado de carácter multisectorial, con efectos secundarios nacionales e internacionales.

En el presente trabajo de investigación se delimitó una muestra representativa de Empresas Agrobiotecnológicas Transnacionales en México, los sujetos de estudio son:

1.-Empresas Agrobiotecnológicas Transnacionales en México: Astra Zeneca, Dupont, Monsanto, Novartis y Aventis

2.-El papel del Estado mexicano ante la agrobiotecnología, su política comercial y agrícola para el país

3.-Productos agrobiotecnológicos en México: maíz y soya transgénicos, de última generación.

4.-Campo mexicano –sector rural- y agroindustria nacional, de los cultivos antes mencionados.

5.-Organismos y Acuerdos Internacionales

6.- Variables micro y macroeconómicas y Entorno Ecológico- comercial

7.-Institutos Internacionales y Nacionales de Desarrollo Biotecnológico

Terminos Usados: *biotecnología*.- La palabra biotecnología la conforman dos vocablos griegos "bios" que significa vida y tecnología, ciencia aplicada a la producción, *transgénico*.-animal o planta, cualquier ser vivo que ha sido modificado genéticamente, *biodivertsidad*.- germoplasma y material genético en un determinado habitad del medio ambiente

ABSTRACT

The globalized world, is today one of its axes, the promotion of the knowledge economy, development and continuous technological innovation. Specifically biotechnology has created new expectations for consumers, government and challenges for global trade. This research proposal is based on the continued development of biotechnology by transnational corporations and the invasion of GM products such as transgenic maize (next generation) within the Mexican economy and the weak government monitoring in biotechnology and ecology. This leads us to ask the following questions:

- 1. How are the new production processes of innovation and development of transgenic products generators applied to the Mexican economy? What economic effects and environmental and trade has on the traditional agricultural economy?
- 2. What are the prototypes and safety regulations towards GM products and their impact on the economic cycle and the environment?
- 3. What are the differences in the international biotech policy with respect to our country and what is the economic policy to preserve our germplasm and the government's position against biopiracy?

The present research aims to answer these questions by analyzing the economic cycle of GM products and approaches to economic policy towards the development, promotion, regulation and technological application in Mexico.

KEYWORDS: innovation, investment, development, biotechnology, patents, trasngénicos, intellectualproperty

METHODOLOGY

This paper represents a year of doctoral research (November 2009-December 2010) and field research in central and northeast China and aims to demonstrate the effects of technological innovation by the transnational corporations which transcend the economic and commercial process multisectoral general, side effects and abroad. For the present research work outlined a representative sample of Agri Transnational Companies in Mexico, the subject of study include: Astra Zeneca, Dupont, Monsanto, Novartis and Aventis.

This research is based onvarious strands of trade and economic thought, asthe theory of classical economics of Adam Smith and David Ricardo, thetheory of economic neoliberalism, theoriesabout sustainable development and sustained trends in chaos theory and some contributions of Joseph Schumpeter and the Theory of Competitive Advantage by Michael Porter.

Terms Used: biotechnology .- The word biotechnology, form two Greek words "bios" meaning life and technology, applied science to production, transgénico.-animal or plant, any living thing that has been genetically modified germplasm biodivertsidad .- genetic material in a particular environmental habitat.

RESULTADOS

El mundo globalizado en la actualidad tiene como uno de sus ejes, el fomento a la economía del conocimiento, desarrollo e innovación tecnológica constante. Concretamente la biotecnología ha creado nuevas expectativas para los consumidores, gobierno y retos para el comercio mundial.

Para las empresas transnacionales las innovaciones biotecnológicas, (concretamente las técnicas agrobiotecnológicas-transgénicas), representan nuevas modalidades en los procesos productivos, de distribución, comercialización y consumo, además de generar nuevas formas de acumulación capitalista.

A su vez el crecimiento acelerado de la biotecnología ha rebasado las instancias gubernamentales y sociales creando controversia legal, ecológica, ética y económica. Los nuevos patrones de acumulación capitalista de las empresas transnacionales agrobiotecnológicas en México son mediante la introducción de los productos transgénicos en el mercado nacional, sin regulación alguna (en materia de legislación comercial y económica) lo cual ha provocado incorporar nuevos cambios en los procesos de producción agrícola, su impacto en el medio ambiente y economía rural, cambios en los procesos de distribución y comercialización de productos transgénicos a través de aduanas aéreas, marítimas y terrestres, cambios en los patrones de consumo no antes desarrollados por la humanidad y el impacto económico, comercial, social y cultural para nuestro país.

Estos cambios nacionales de impacto internacional obedecen a la economía de la innovación y del conocimiento, es decir al constante desarrollo de la biotecnología, por parte de las empresas transnacionales (observar Tabla No. 1, anexo) y la invasión de productos transgénicos como el maíz y soja transgénica, soya, alfalfa, etc. (de última generación), dentro de la economía mexicana, así como el escaso monitoreo gubernamental en materia biotecnológica y ecológica.

Dada la política neoliberal aplicada en nuestro país, donde se limita la intervención del Estado en la economía a favor de un libre mercado, en el 2008 bajo el acuerdo comercial de libre comercio con Estados Unidos y Canadá, se da la liberación de aranceles en productos básicos para la dieta del mexicano, por lo tanto la entrada masiva de alimentos de origen extranjero entre ellos los productos agrícolas de origen transgénico. Situación nada fuera de lo común si se toma en cuenta los déficits comerciales en la balanza comercial concretamente en el rubro de alimentos que han caracterizado a

México como una nación con crisis agrícola y dependencia alimentaria (José Luis Calva, Crisis Agrícola y Alimentaria, Ed. FONTARAMA).

Por otro lado cualquier tecnología no puede ser calificada como excelente o responsable de los problemas que genere al incorporarse al aparato productivo. El problema de las innovaciones tecnológicas es quien domina la tecnología y qué objetos se persiguen. En el caso de los productos transgénicos éstos son creados y dominados por consorcios internacionales, con objetivos económicos y comerciales claramente definidos de alta rentabilidad (ver Tabla no. 2 anexo).

Ante la falta de regulaciones biotecnológicas para el país que sean acorde a los intereses del sector rural, hacen que las empresas transnacionales agrobiotecnológicas como Ciba Geigi, Hoeschst, Pionner, Dekalb, Cargill, Asgrow, Monsanto, Allied, Chemical, Millar, Brewing Co., entre otras ven en la revolución genética la conquista de nuevos mercados desplazando a los productos agrícolas nacionales generando nuevos patrones de consumo y de acumulación en el mercado nacional y mundial. Astra Zeneca, Dupont, Monsanto, Novartis y Aventis controlan el 60% del mercado de pesticidas, el 23% del mercado de semillas y el 100% del mercado de semillas transgénicas. Bajo este esquema y ante el modelo neoliberal la economía mexicana se perfila como un tomador, consumidor ó campo experimental de los productos agrobiotecnológicos transnacionales, México es un mercado altamente potencial para estos productos además de ser un campo experimental en materia biotecnológica.

CONCLUSIONES

En materia de la ciencia económica y el ámbito social es importante analizar cuál es el desarrollo agrobiotecnológico de las empresas transnacionales, en cada país, como es su patrón de acumulación, las manifestaciones y efectos en la cadena productiva, distributiva y de consumo, los efectos en la sociedad, el impacto ecológico y de cultura alimentaria además de identificar la postura del gobiernos y empresarios agrícolas, comercializadoras, aduanas, trasnacionales, organismos no gubernamentales, sector rural e Institutos de Investigación Biotecnológica, la red sociedad en general.

Los procesos productivos de innovación y desarrollo biotecnológico generadores de productos transgénicos aplicados a la economía mexicana desplazan la economía agrícola tradicional debido a que los prototipos y normas de seguridad hacia los productos transgénicos y no son regulados durante el ciclo económico y en materia ambiental. No hay un marcaje entre las diferencias de la política agrobiotecnológica internacional con respecto a nuestro país y no hay una política económica para conservar nuestro germoplasma y biopiratería, en México.

A lo anterior se le une la falta de claridad en los protocolos sanitarios, legales, ambientales y comerciales tanto a nivel internacional como nacional que regulen la entrada o cultivo de productos agrobiotecnológicos en la mayoría de los países. Lo cual provoca, a nivel mundial, cambios en las zonas tradicionales de cultivo de productos alimenticios, lo que antes producía el tercer mundo ahora es mercado de los países desarrollados. (cambios en procesos productivos) Acompañado de la pérdida constante de la variedad genética en México y a nivel internacional, aunado a esto graves daños ecológicos, cambios en las importaciones y exportaciones nacionales y mundiales de alimentos, así como los patrones de consumo. (cambios en los canales de comercialización, distribución y patrones de consumo).

ANEXOS

TABLA No. 1 Algunos Ejemplos De Vinculación Industria-Universidad En La Década De Los Noventa Para Fomentar El Desarrollo Biotecnológico

COMPAÑÍA	UNIVERSIDAD
MONSANTO	HARVAD, WASHINGTON OF UNIVERSITY,
	ROCKEFELLER UNIVERSITY
EXXON	WASHINGTON OF UNIVERSITY
HOESCHEST	UNIVERSITY DE MASSACHUSETTS
DU PONT	UNIVERSITY OF HARVAD
FMG	UNIVERSITYDE OF CALIFORNIA
ALLIED CORP	UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AND HARVAD
JOHNSON	YALE UNIVERSITY
MALLINKORT	UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER
CELANESE	ESTANFORD OF UNIVERSITY
W.R.GRACE	HARVAD
BRISTOL MYERS	ESTANFORD OF UNIVERSITY
KODAK	YALE UNIVERSITY
CHUGAI	UNIVERSITYDE OF CALIFORNIA
PHILLIPS PETROLEUM	HARVAD
ALLIED CHENICAL	YALE UNIVERSITY
ENGENICS	ESTANFORD OF INIVERSITY
AJIMOTO	INSTITUTE TECHNOLOGY OF MASSACHUSSETS
BAYER	UNIVERSIDAD DE GINEBRA

FUENTE: Elaboración propia sobre la base del banco de datos CONACYT 2009.

Tabla No. 2: Empresas	Transnacionalaes	Lideres En A	Agrobiotecnolo	ogía Mundial	1995-2004

LIDERES EN BIOTECNOLOGÍA	LIDERES EN AGROQUIMICOS	LIDERES EN LA PRODUCCION DE
		SEMILLAS
MONSANTO	ALLIED	PIONER
DU PONT	AMERICAN CYANAMID	HI BED
ADVANCES GENETICS	CIBA GEIGY	DEKALB
AMGEN	DOW	DU PONT
BIOGEN	DU PONT	MONSANTO
CETUS	HOESHST	CIBA GEIGY
GENENTECH	MONSANTO	NOVARTIS
SELL	OCCIDENTAL PETROLEUM	ASTRA ZENECA
ASTRA ZENECA	HASS	ADVENTIS
ADVENTIS	SANDOZ	
	SHELL	
	NOVARTIS	
	ASTRA ZENECA	
	ADVENTIS	

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a diversas Fuentes de información.

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CONCEPTUALIZACIÓN, PRÁCTICAS Y ESTRATEGIAS DE COMUNICACIÓN SOBRE LA RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL EMPRESARIAL EN EL SECTOR FORMAL DEL CENTRO EMPRESARIAL DE AGUASCALIENTES (COPARMEX)

Silvia Mata Zamores, Universidad Autónoma De Aguascalientes Alberto Ponton Castro, Universidad Autónoma De Aguascalientes Alfredo Villalobos Garcia, Universidad Autónoma De Aguascalientes

RESUMEN

En la actualidad se habla de manera frecuente de la Responsabilidad Social que tienen las empresas hacia el entorno y el medio ambiente en el cual se desempeña, sin embargo; las acciones que hasta el día de hoy se han llevado a cabo no han sido suficientes para cubrir o resarcir el daño que se le ha hecho al medio ambiente y que está teniendo repercusiones principalmente en el clima que se está experimentando. Es por ello que esta investigación pretende saber, el grado de conocimiento que tienen las empresas respecto al concepto de Responsabilidad Social Empresarial.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Coparmex, Responsabilidad Social Empresarial

INTRODUCCION

Antecedentes

Desde sus orígenes la especie humana ha transformado el medio ambiente para la satisfacción de sus necesidades. Los primeros seres humanos vivieron en relativa armonía con el entorno, debido al paulatino desarrollo socioeconómico que experimentaron, llevando a cabo de manera responsable las actividades como la agrícolas, ganaderas, entre otras para satisfacer las necesidades de consumo propio o bien de una comunidad en especifico.

La Revolución Industrial así como la Revolución Científico-Tecnológica incrementaron de manera significativa el impacto del hombre sobre el medio ambiente provocando la actual crisis ambiental.

Esta crisis, se manifiesta en la existencia y agravamiento de diversos problemas ambientales que afectan el planeta a nivel global; los efectos más visibles han sido el calentamiento global de la atmosfera, el agotamiento de la capa de ozono, la contaminación del aire, agua y los suelos.

A partir de la década de los 60' se aprecia un proceso de concientización acerca de esta problemática, que paulatinamente ha incorporado a científicos, académicos, políticos, organizaciones, empresas, gobiernos, la sociedad civil, y diversos grupos sociales que de una manera u otra declaran urgente la necesidad de movilizar la actuación humana en función de lograr una solución a estos problemas ambientales

Como resultado de este debate ambiental surge como alternativa la Teoría de Desarrollo Sostenible o Sustentable y la Responsabilidad Social Empresarial (RSE).

La Responsabilidad Social Empresarial es un concepto que implica la necesidad y obligación de las empresas e instituciones que desarrollan algún tipo de actividad económica, de mantener una conducta respetuosa de la legalidad, la ética, la moral y el medio ambiente. Es el compromiso de la empresa en la contribución al desarrollo sostenible; lo cual implica la adopción de una nueva ética en su actuación en relación a la naturaleza y la sociedad, un motivo de solidaridad, el sentido de responsabilidad para salvar

la condiciones que sustentan la vida en el planeta, la calidad de vida de los grupos de interés, sus familias y la comunidad.

Planteamiento Del Problema: Las empresas tienen una Responsabilidad Social hacia el entorno y el medio ambiente en el cual se desempeña, sin embargo; se considera importante conocer el grado de conocimiento que éstas tienen del concepto, así como de la ética, comunicación interna y externa que manejan con su personal para establecer las estrategias que apoyen a mejorar las prácticas empresariales.

*Pregunta De Investigacion: ¿*Las empresas conocen el concepto de Responsabilidad Social y la aplican con ética, comunicando las acciones que lleva a cabo tanto interna como externamente para mejorar las prácticas empresariales?

Objetivos De La Investigacion

Objetivo General: Conocer la situación específica respecto a la conceptualización, prácticas y estrategias de comunicación sobre Responsabilidad Social de una muestra de empresas afiliadas a la COPARMEX.

Objetivos Particulares: (1)Determinar el conocimiento de la terminología asociada a la RSE, así como el concepto que se tiene de la misma; (2)Determinar, si se practica en el sector empresarial la RSE; (3)Conocer las estrategias de comunicación interna y externa que las empresas tienen en lo relacionado con la concepción y las prácticas de RSE.

Justificación: La empresa es una célula económica-social que está formada por personas y para personas, más allá de crear empleos y generar riqueza; debe de multiplicar actitudes, hábitos y realidades; de su desempeño, depende la salud, la estabilidad y la prosperidad del entorno en el que opera. Si se corresponsabiliza con desarrollo Social y humano de quienes la integran y la rodean, impulsará la permanencia de su negocio a largo plazo; Es por ello que esta investigación pretende conocer si los empresarios conocen el concepto de Responsabilidad Social Empresarial y a partir de ello como la aplican.

Hipotesis: Si las empresas conocen el concepto de Responsabilidad Social y la aplican con ética, y comunican las acciones que lleva a cabo tanto interna como externamente, mejoraran su práctica empresarial.

Alcance: Únicamente se aplicará el instrumento para conocer el grado de conocimiento que se tiene sobre el concepto de Responsabilidad Social Empresarial, sin establecer ningún tipo de acción sobre desarrollo de estrategias.

Delimitacion: Se considerará una muestra de 100 empresas que estén afiliadas a la COPARMEX

REVISION LITERARIA

Antecedentes De COPARMEX

COPARMEX existe desde 1929, cuando un grupo de empresarios secundaron la propuesta del industrial Nuevo Leonense Don Luis G. Sada. Desde entonces a la fecha mucho es lo que la Confederación ha hecho y también es mucho lo que México ha avanzado. Desde su creación COPARMEX ha probado permanentemente el compromiso de los empresarios que la forman con las mejores causas nacionales: desarrollo, crecimiento acelerado y sostenible, empleo, seguridad física y jurídica para todos. Estas son las formas como creen que realmente se combate la pobreza y la desigualdad: atacando sus causas estructurales. Así como México puede aspirar a la prosperidad. COPARMEX, busca generar más y

mejores empresas para México, que a su vez contribuirán a generar una mejor calidad de vida, mejores empleos, así como una mejor educación para un México más competitivo.

El trabajo integral de COPARMEX ha influido en la adopción, por parte del gobierno, de políticas más acordes al pensamiento empresarial y ha posibilitado la creación de otras organizaciones como lo son:

- El Consejo Nacional Agropecuario,
- El Instituto de Proposiciones Estratégicas,
- La Comisión de Educación del Sector Empresarial,
- El Consejo Empresarial de Inversión y Desarrollo del Sureste,
- La Fundación para el Desarrollo Sostenible en México
- El Sistema de Desarrollo Empresarial Mexicano.

Aspectos Que Conforman La Naturaleza Humana De COPARMEX

Persona: Todo hombre es persona; sujeto dueño de sus actos, con individualidad propia, conocimientos y libre voluntad para obrar conforme a su naturaleza y dirigirse a su fin.

Igualdad Esencial De La Persona: En cuanto al origen de su existencia, su naturaleza y su fin, todos los hombres son iguales: de ahí la universalidad de la dignidad y de los derechos humanos.

Valoracion De La Dignidad: La dignidad de cada persona debe ser valorada, defendida y protegida por la propia persona y los demás. Debe reconocérsele esa dignidad a todo ser humano, cualquiera que sea su nivel social, su capacidad y aun su conducta.

Libertad Y Responsabilidad: La libertad, entendida como ejercicio de la capacidad de elegir entre alternativas de bien, compromete a toda persona consigo misma y con la sociedad, haciéndola responsable.

Justicia: La justicia es la voluntad de dar y respetar lo que a cada uno le corresponde e implica el reconocimiento y el cumplimiento de obligaciones y responsabilidades contraídas.

Paz Social: La convivencia armónica requiere el respeto a las leyes, pero más todavía, el sentido ético y de justicia y el recto ejercicio de la autoridad y del poder.

Participacion Ciudadana: El ciudadano puede y debe participar activamente en la vida pública y colaborar en el progreso de la vida nacional en los ámbitos económico, cultural, social y político.

Solidaridad: La solidaridad es la obligación moral de ayudarse recíprocamente y aunar esfuerzos para la consecución de objetivos comunes y justos.

Subsidiariedad: La subsidiariedad es el principio de la ayuda mutua entre las personas y las entidades sociales que señala a quién, cómo, cuándo, dónde, por qué y para qué se le debe ayudar, y por ende tiene derecho a pedir; y quién, cómo, cuándo, dónde, por qué y para qué tiene la obligación de ayudar.

Responsabilidad Social Empresarial

Concepto: Para Llegar Al Primero Se Identificarán Las Definiciones De:

• Obligacion Social:

Compromiso De Una Empresa Con Acciones Sociales, Derivado De Su Obligación De Satisfacer Ciertas Responsabilidades Económicas Y Legales.

• Visión Clásica:

Visión De Que La Única Responsabilidad Social De La Administración Es Maximizar Utilidades.

• Visión Socioeconomica:

Visión De Que La Responsabilidad Social De Los Gerentes Va Más Allá De Sólo Conseguir Utilidades E Incluye La Protección Y El Mejoramiento Del Bienestar De La Sociedad.

Según la fundación PRO humana, es "La contribución al desarrollo humano sostenible, a través del compromiso y confianza con sus empleados y familias, la sociedad en general y la comunidad local en pos de mejorar su capital social y calidad de vida" Según Robbins Stephen son "Las metas generales que una organización se propone alcanzar como resultado de la política ambiental y la evaluación de los impactos ambientales, y que deben cuantificarse siempre que sea factibles."

"Según BSR (BUSINESS FOR SOCIAL RESPONSABILITY) la define un poco diferente: "La Administración de un negocio de forma que cumpla o sobrepase las expectativas, éticas, legales, comerciales y públicas que tiene la sociedad frente a una empresa"

De todo lo anterior se puede concluir que las empresas son organizaciones que tienen una actividad, una meta a desarrollar y para llevar adelante dicha actividad realizan diferentes actuaciones en el día a día. Las empresas van adquiriendo hábitos, un modo de hacer las cosas, partiendo de su libertad para actuar y para tomar sus decisiones. De acuerdo a éste marco de libertad en el que actúa la empresa, esta se ve obligada a tener en cuenta las consecuencias de sus acciones y decisiones y a asumir su responsabilidad.

Parece evidente, por tanto que el planteamiento ético de la empresa deviene en una ética de la responsabilidad frente a los diferentes grupo de interés o stakeholders (clientes, empleados, proveedores, propietarios o accionistas y sociedad), ya que la empresa en su quehacer diario actúa y toma decisiones que afectan los intereses legítimos de estos, y por tanto, estos han de ser incorporados a la gestión de la empresa y correspondidos de forma satisfactoria. Por un lado, el concepto de responsabilidad hace referencia a la idea de "dar cuentas", esta idea da respuesta a la exigencia de transparencia que la sociedad en su conjunto exige. Por otro lado, hace referencia a "dar respuesta" (responsability) a las expectativas que la sociedad tiene depositadas en la empresa.

Debemos de tomar en cuenta que en sí la Responsabilidad Social Empresarial debe ser aplicable a todo tipo de sectores y organizaciones, ya que hay personas que creen que la RSE es aplicable solo a aquellas que se manejan con cuestiones involucradas con el medio ambiente por eso es importante que el ciudadano o usuario identifique sus diferentes dimensiones.

Dimensiones De La Responsabilidad Social Empresarial

1. Dimensión económica interna, la responsabilidad se enfoca a la generación y distribución del valor agregado entre colaboradores y accionistas, considerando no solo las condiciones del mercado sino también la equidad y la justicia. Se espera de ella que genere utilidades y se mantenga viva y pujante.

2. *Dimensión económica externa*, implica la generación y distribución de bienes y servicios útiles y rentables para la comunidad, la aportación a la causa publica vía la contribución impositiva.

3. *Dimensión social interna*, implica la responsabilidad compartida y subsidiaria de inversionistas, directivo, colaboradores y proveedores, para el cuidado y fomento de la calidad de vida en el trabajo y el desarrollo integral y pleno de todos ellos.

4. *Dimensión sociocultural y política externa*, conllevan a la realización de acciones y aportaciones propias gremiales seleccionadas para contribuir con tiempo y recursos a la generación de condiciones que permitan y favorezcan la expansión del espíritu empresarial y el pleno desarrollo de las comunidades.

5. *Dimensión ecológica interna,* implica la responsabilidad total sobre de las represiones ambientales de sus procesos, productos y subproductos y por lo tanto la prevención y, en su caso, remedio de los daños que les cause o pudiera causarles.

6. *Dimensión ecológica externa*, conllevan a la realización de acciones relacionadas para contribuir a la preservación y mejora de la herencia ecológica común para bien de la humanidad actual y futura"

7. *Dimensión ética o moral*, esta dimensión alude a la responsabilidad de la empresa por sus acciones y cómo influyen estas en la sociedad, comprometiéndose a responder y asegurar el bienestar social.

8. *Dimensión de demandas de la sociedad, esta* dimensión involucra una percepción más práctica de la Responsabilidad Social, en que la sociedad que comprende el entorno de las empresas pide el cumplimiento de sus demandas y el que ésta asuma la responsabilidad en sus decisiones y acciones.

Las dimensiones anteriores nos llevan a afirmar que una empresa socialmente responsable es aquella que lleva adelante un negocio rentable, teniendo en cuenta todos los efectos ambientales, sociales y económicos-positivos y negativos- que generan en la sociedad.

Por el nivel de medición	Cuantitativo	Se contabilizan los resultados obtenidos del instrumento aplicado a las empresas afiliadas a la COPARMEX
Por el periodo de tiempo de la observación	Transversal	Se realiza en un solo momento, no será comparativo.
Por el manejo de variables	No experimental	No se experimenta con las variables, sino que se obtendrán respuestas de la población muestra a través de un instrumento.
Por el universo a estudiar	Muestra	Se estudiara únicamente una muestra de 100 empresas afiliadas a COPARMEX
Por el nivel de análisis	Descriptivo explicativo	Se describen las variables y sus relaciones causales.
Por la época de estudio	Actual	Se analizan las variables en el tiempo presente, al momento de aplicar el instrumento.
Por la fuente de obtención de la información	Documental y viva	Se aplica un instrumento a la empresas afiliadas a COPARMEX
Por el objeto de estudio	Investigación aplicada	Se determina la situación imperante de la unidad de análisis respecto de las variables a estudiar.

METODOLOGIA DE LA INVESTIGACION

Instrumento De Evaluacion

El instrumento que se utilizó fue un cuestionario conformado por 5 partes que constan de:

1era. Parte percepcion de la RSE

El objetivo de este apartado es conocer el concepto que se tiene de la RSE y el por que de llevarlo a cabo. 2da. Parte etica empresarial y transparencia

El objetivo es identificar que se entiende por ética empresarial y como la lleva a cabo.

3era. Parte rse interna y calidad de vida

El objetivo es identificar las políticas internas que se tienen hacia sus empleados y demás clientes internos, y como favorece la calidad de vida de los mismos.

4ta. Parte vinculación y compromiso con la comunidad y su desarrollo

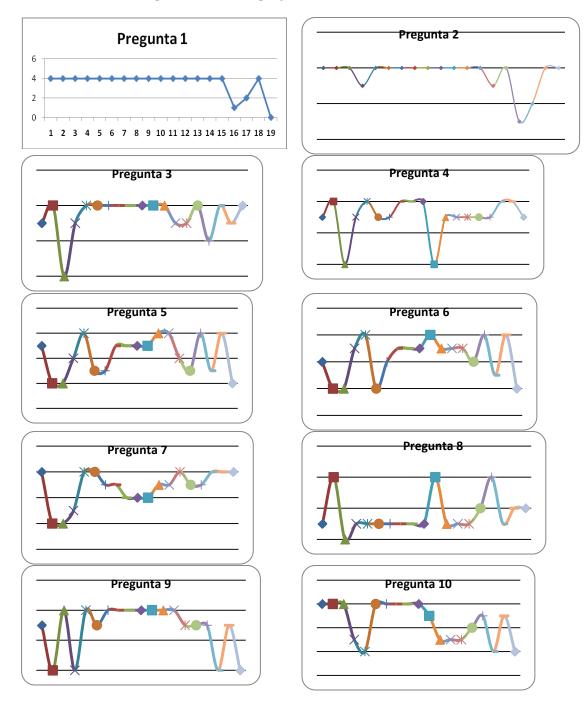
El objetivo es identificar como lleva a cabo la vinculación con la comunidad, dando respuesta a los posibles reclamos, sugerencias, que le hagan con la finalidad de mejorar su desempeño.

5ta. Parte cuidado y preservación del medio ambiente

El objetivo es conocer el tipo de material que utiliza en sus materias primas, servicios, tecnología y cual es su compromiso para que estos no tengan un impacto ambiental dañino sino todo lo contrario. Las respuestas se evaluaran con una escala del 0 al 4, teniendo en el 0 el valor de no aplica, 1 si está muy en desacuerdo, los números intermedios 2 y 3, para expresar grados relativos de acuerdo o desacuerdo y por último el 4 si está muy de acuerdo con lo descrito en la afirmación

RESULTADOS

Un 88.25 % de las empresas encuestadas están en total acuerdo en que el tener Responsabilidad Social Empresarial (RSE) significa trabajar para minimizar las consecuencias negativas relacionadas con las actividades del negocio, así como las decisiones de los grupos de interés, que incluyen a los empleados, clientes, comunidad el ecosistema, mientras que el 11.75 % de las empresas restantes tienen grados relativos menores correspondientes a esta pregunta.



El 90.75 % de las empresas creen que tener RSE significa contribuir al bienestar social y económico mediante la inversión de recursos, mientras que en contraparte el otro 9.25 % restante no se encuentra en total acuerdo.

El 85.5 % de las empresas creen que tener RSE significa contribuir relaciones de confianza con los grupos de interés que existen dentro y afuera de la empresa. Siendo que 14.5 % restante no consideran esta contribución en su totalidad.

El 76.25 % de las empresas están en total acuerdo en que las actividades de RSE de la empresa deben mejorar su competitividad y ayudarla a que genere resultados financieros sólidos, mientras que el otro 23.75 % tienen grados relativos menores correspondientes.

El 56.5 % de las empresas están en conformidad en que las acciones de RSE tienen como principal objetivo hacer aparecer a la empresa como justa y noble ante los ojos de la sociedad, mientras que 43.5 % restante no tiene como prioridad este objetivo.

El 58% de las empresas afiliadas consideran que el aparecer como una empresa socialmente responsable es una manera de obtener mayores ganancias al obtener una mejor reputación y publicidad, mientras que el 42% restante no están de acuerdo en su totalidad.

El 69.75 % de las empresas encuestadas creen que están obligadas a devolver a la sociedad, en forma de apoyos o donativos, algo de lo que ella les ha dado, mientras que el otro 30.25 % no se sienten obligados en su totalidad en este tipo de retribución.

El 39.5% de las empresas considera que la única responsabilidad de una empresa debe ser generar ganancias para sus dueños o accionistas, cuando en contraparte el 60.5 % restante no tiene esta creencia.

El 71 % de las empresas afiliadas tiene a la RSE como parte de la estrategia empresarial, corporativa y organizacional, no lo manejan como una actividad aislada, lo consideran de manera implícita en la misión de la empresa y considerada en sus principios, mientras que el 29 % restante tiene grados relativos menores en esta cuestión.

El 61.75 % de las empresas tiene un área, comité o grupo responsable de velar por el cumplimiento y trasmisión de las políticas de RSE. El otro 38.25% restante no cuenta con este tipo de apoyo dentro de su organización.

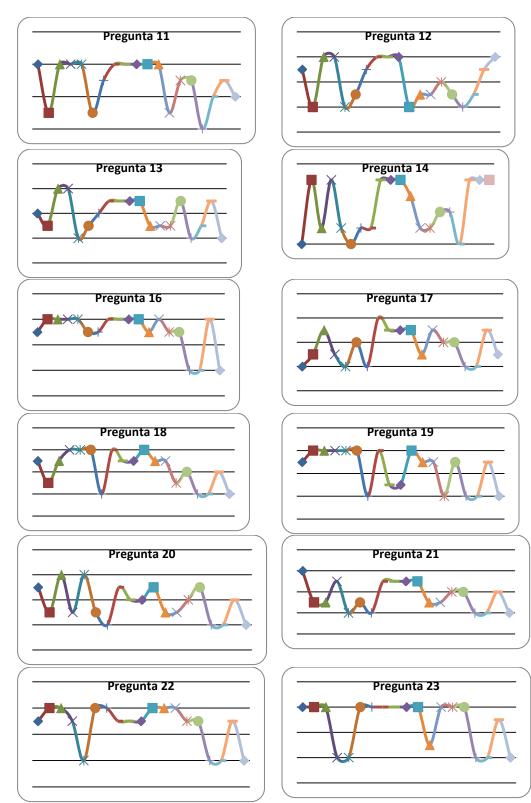
El 72.25 % de las empresas Conoce y aplica el código de Ética de la COPARMEX, mientras que el otro 27.75 % no lleva de manera adecuada este lineamiento.

El 52.75% de las empresas afiliadas posee un código de Ética o de Conducta propio de una empresa, formal y de manera escrita, y lo revisa periódicamente, mientras que el 47.25% restante no lo tiene muy estructurado.

El 47.25% de las empresas posee procesos de educación y difusión de los principios éticos para los colaboradores externos de la empresa. El otro 52.75% restante no cuenta con este tipo de proceso.

El 59.25 % de las empresas cuenta con alguna certificación o distintivo como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, el 40.75 % restante no cuenta con ninguna certificación.

El 51.25% de las empresas ha realizado alguna vez trámites o procesos enfocados a obtener un reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable. El 48.75% restante no a realizado ningún tipo de trámite de esta índole.



El 76.25% de las empresas registra los reclamos de sus consumidores y clientes. El 23.75% restante no cuenta con un proceso de mejora a las necesidades al consumidor y de esta manera llegar a tener la satisfacción total de sus clientes.

El 42 % de las empresas Invierte en proyectos específicos de organizaciones comunitarias. El otro 58 % restante no participa de manera directa en esta actividad.

El 58 % de las empresas encuestadas hace donaciones de servicios, productos y recursos financieros. El 42% restante no participan en este tipo de actividades.

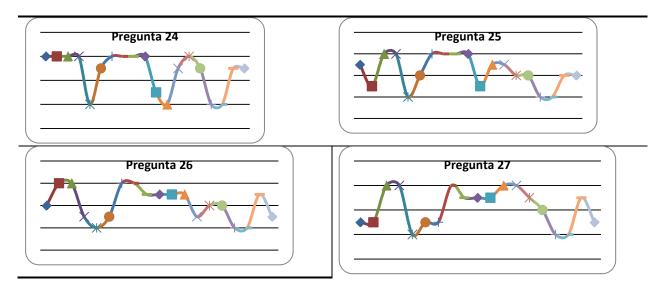
El 59.25% de las empresas facilita recursos no financieros (espacios, equipos, tecnología) necesarios para el desarrollo de sus proyectos y actividades sociales, mientras que el 40.75% restante no están involucrados directamente en este apoyo.

El 43.5 % de las empresas cuenta con un programa social estructurado, con asignación de presupuestos estable. El 56.5% restante no cuenta con este programa.

El 39.5 % de las empresas hace uso de los incentivos fiscales para actividades relacionadas a la cultura y al área social. El otro 60.5% no.

El 68.5% de las empresas apoya programas iniciativas personales de sus empleados en acciones sociales, mientras que el 31.5% restante no cuanta con este tipo de apoyo para sus empleados.

El 68.5% de las empresas afiliadas busca un continuo perfeccionamiento de los productos y servicios, sustituyendo componentes, tecnologías, y productos en la medida que surgen sustitutos eficientes que presenten menor riesgo al consumidor, mientras que el otro 31.5% restante no tiene como prioridad principal este punto.



El 68.5% de las empresas conoce el impacto ambiental que tiene las actividades propias de la empresa. El otro 31.5% restante requiere de tener una amplia participación en temas de esta índole.

El 59.25% de las empresas considera dentro de la planificación estratégica del negocio temas relacionados con el ambiente. El 40.75% restante lo toma muy en cuenta dentro de su planeación.

El 54% de las empresas realiza regularmente control y monitoreo del impacto ambiental causado por sus servicios desarrollados. El 46% restante no lleva este control.

El 55.25% de las empresas desarrolla un programa de recolección de residuos y reciclaje post-consumo. El otro 44.75% restante no cuenta con este proceso.

CONCLUSIONES

Los aspectos que tienen las empresas afiliadas a COPARMEX es que se encuentran en la etapa de integracion, donde es factor clave el dar a conocer y conscientizar sobre el gran compromiso que como empresa tiene con la ciudadania, lo que genera que, cuando una empresa está tomando en cuenta de manera seria las complejidades de la sustetabilidad y el impacto relativo de sus esfuerzos frente a las consecuencias sociales, economicas y los problemas ambientales que encuentra el mundo, ya que como se aprecia en los resultados, las empresas encuestadas están en total acuerdo que el tener Responsabilidad Social Empresarial (RSE) significa trabajar para minimizar las consecuencias negativas relacionadas con las actividades del negocio así como las decisiones de los grupos de interés, que incluyen a los empleados, clientes, comunidad y el ecosistema; ademas de esto, se puede apreciar que los empresarios a través de sus acciones contribuyen al bienestar social y económico mediante la inversión de recursos.

Las areas de oportunidad que se identificaron se pueden fortalecer a través de la vinculacion y el compromiso de las empresas con la comunidad y su desarrollo sustentable; ya que los resultados indican que más de la mitad de las empresas encuestadas, estan de acuerdo en que las acciones de RSE se pueden dar a conocer en medios de comunicación pero siempre y cuando el fin último sea mejorar su entorno.

Un hallazgo importante fuè que màs de la mitad de las empresas (59.25%) cuentan con alguna certificación o distintivo como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, por otro lado preocupa que estas, que están certificadas, no tengan un plan estratégico establecido. El resto de las empresas no tienen ningún tipo de iniciativa o acciones que los conlleven a obtener este reconocimiento tan importante.

Sin embargo, de manera general se cree que la aportación de esta investigación ayudará de manera significativa a la COPARMEX a crear y reforzar las áreas de oportunidad para ayudar a la comunidad y a sus propias empresas a crear un entorno mayormente responsable que nos guíe a la sustentabilidad continua del Estado y País.

RECOMENDACIONES

De acuerdo a la investigación, se recomienda que COPARMEX siga estableciendo programas en donde las empresas afiliadas participen en acciones como:

Realizar cursos, reuniones, incluso hasta congresos en donde se les de a conocer de una manera amplia que es la Responsabilidad Social, así como los alcances que esta tiene y las diferentes maneras de llevarla a cabo a través de diferentes acciones en la empresa.

Las acciones llevadas a cabo, deberán involucrar tanto ha personas internas y externas es decir programas en donde se les dé a conocer la importancia que esta tiene tanto a empleados, como a clientes, gobierno, y toda persona que tenga alguna relación con la empresa.

Invitar a todas las empresas afiliadas y no afiliadas a participar en estos programas. Involucrar a Instituciones o bien Asociaciones que tengan una mayor experiencia sobre programas de Responsabilidad Social y muestre casos de éxito

Que el 100% de las empresas afiliadas a COPARMEX conozcan el plan estratégico y sus acciones actuales de RSE. Dar a conocer los trámites o procesos enfocados a obtener un reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable.

Invitar a las empresas a que apoyen programas de iniciativas personales de sus empleados en acciones sociales. Dar a conocer el impacto ambiental que tiene las actividades propias de la empresa. Que los programas puedan tener metas cuantificables.

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MA SILVIA MATA ZAMORES, UNIVERSIDAD AUTONOMA DE AGUASCALIENTES, AV. UNIVERSIDAD #940 CD. UNIVERSITARIA CP. 20131 CORREO: smata@correo.uaa.mx

MA ALBERTO PONTON CASTRO, UNIVERSIDAD AUTONOMA DE AGUASCALIENTES, AV. UNIVERSIDAD #940 CD. UNIVERSITARIA CP. 20131 CORREO, aponton@correo.uaa.mx

MA ALFREDO VILLALOBOS GARCIA, UNIVERSIDAD AUTONOMA DE AGUASCALIENTE, AV. UNIVERSIDAD #940 CD. UNIVERSITARIA CP. 20131 CORREO: avillalo@correo.uaa.mx

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LIDERAZGO FEMENINO EN LOS NEGOCIO ¿CÓMO SE PERCIBE?

Berta Ermila Madrigal Torres, Universidad de Guadalajara Humberto Palos Delgadillo, Universidad de Guadalajara Rosalba Madrigal Torres, Universidad de Guadalajara Miguel Cervantes de la Rosa, Universidad de Guadalajara María Guadalupe Reyes Serrano, Universidad de Guadalajara

RESUMEN

La presencia femenina en la gerencia se ha incrementando en México con mayor enfasis a partir de los 80's. Sin embargo, ahún percisten barreras y limitaciones para su desarrollo, y las que predominan son las culturales enmarcadas en los estereotipos que le han marcado a la mujer por siglos. Este trabajo da cuenta de cómo se percibe la mujer en los negocios, así mismo de cómo la perciben los hombres ante su liderazgo. Se plantea las preguntas de investigación. ¿Cuál es la percepción de la mujer en relación a su liderazgo, aspectos biológicos y sus capacidades y habilidades? Versus la percepción del hombre. El trabajo es parte del resultado de una investigación internacional titulada "Business Environment + Women as Managers". Investigación descriptiva y correlacional, se aplico encuesta a 194 estudiantes de posgrado y empresarias. La percepción de la mujer en los negocios es de inseguridad ante su liderazgo. Cuando se hace una comparación de sus habilidades y competenciasde la mujer y el hombre en los negocios. Mismo fenómeno sucede con el hombre aún persiste percepciones negativas hacía la mujer sobre su capacidad para de su liderazgo y ser competitiva ante los retos de la gerencia.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Liderazgo femenino, Percepción, competencias y habilidades,

SUMMARY

The female presence in mexican management has increased since the 80's. However, there are still barriers and constraints for its development; the most important one is the cultural obstacle that is framed by the stereotypes that have stigmatized women for centuries. This paper presents how women are perceived in business and how their leadership is perceive by men. This raises the research questions. What is the perception of women in relation to their leadership, their biological aspects and their capabilities and skills? Against men's perception. This paper is part of an international research, named "Business Environment +. Women as Managers". The result of this descriptive and correlation research is based one survey that was applied to 194 graduate students and entrepreneurs. Finally the results show that when comparing female against male business skills, women perceive themselves insecure in their own leadership. The same phenomenon happens with men, who maintain a negative perception on women's leadership capacity and competitiveness to face management challenges.

KEYWORDS: Feminine leadership, Perception, competitions and abilities,

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Las diferencias de géneros en los comportamientos adoptados por los empresarios durante el desarrollo de las funciones empresariales, se marcan en las características y cualidades de las mujeres empresarias en comparación con los varones, esto va a afectar los comportamientos empresariales adoptados por las mismas. Ello, se ha relacionado con la diferente percepción por parte de las mujeres de los obstáculos y oportunidades existentes durante el desarrollo de la actividad empresarial, así como con sus motivaciones empresariales, Alder (1988)

Ellas prefieren un estilo de dirección más participativo y democrático que el masculino, buscando el consenso entre sus empleados, delegando más responsabilidades y compartiendo mayores cuotas de información y poder que los empresarios masculinos denominado de "liderazgo transformacional", está más orientado a las personas y basado en las relaciones interpersonales. Las mujeres que experimentaron conflictos para atender a su rol de empleada y madre de familia, pueden medir el éxito empresarial por el logro de un equilibrio entre estas dos responsabilidades. Boden (2000)

Los estereotipos descriptivos persisten sobre rasgos de personalidad para justificar el que no se le dé a una mujer un puesto de trabajo tradicionalmente masculino, un ascenso o un puesto de responsabilidad cuando compite con un hombre, ya que los estereotipos se utilizan para defender intereses individuales o de grupo, se puede decir que aunque la mujer reúna suficientes aptitudes y cualidades para el puesto, el hombre le aventaja en esas características.Varios estudios nos hablan de este enfoque, como es el caso de Boden (2000), Baygan (2000), Great (1998) Yoneen (1990)

Sobre las diferencias de género en la dirección se ha escrito mucho, tal es el caso de Cahoon & Torres (2004), Madrigal (2009), mencionan que existen retos de desarrollo entre la mujer y el hombre. El hombre experimenta los retos en el desarrollo de la tarea y la mujer en las limitaciones y obstáculos para el desarrollo de su tarea. Lo cual tiene doble reto para la mujer. Norris & Inglehart (2000), refieren sobre las barreras culturales de la mujer en el trabajo y las actitudes de su liderazgo ante el ejercicio de su función. Los hechos son que, a pesar de que se han derribado barreras culturales, aún existen prácticas y creencias causantes del lento avance al logro de igualdad de hombres y mujeres en puestos políticos. Existe evidencia que estas barreras culturales se han ido desvaneciendo con las generaciones más jóvenes en sociedades post- industriales como el resultado del proceso de modernización y cambio de valores ¿Sucede lo mismo en todas las culturas? No, los paradigmas, percepciones son diferentes e inclusive en el medio de la gerencia la presencia de la mujer es diferente.

Sin embargo, en el siglo XXI, tanto el directivo como la directiva se desempeñan en igualdad de circunstancias, aunque la mujer en menor proporción en puestos directivos. Sus estrategias son visionarias y estrategas. Pero se siguen presentando desigualdades, tal es el caso abordado por Malin, (2007), quien realizó un estudio a cuatro redes regionales en Suecia, cuyos objetivos fue garantizar la influencia de las mujeres, crear organizaciones que permitan a las mujeres trabajar en municipios, apoyar y promover las ideas de mujeres emprendedoras. Desafían la "política de innovación" en aquel país, la cual ha sido señalada como una inequidad, que le da prioridad a organizaciones que son lideradas por alguien del género masculino. Conforme lo que se ha investigado se encontró que al género femenino no se le considera como un género innovador, se adjudican otras características pero la innovación no es una de ellas. Esto sucede en los países desarrollados que tienen años trabajando por la equidad de género. ¿Qué sucede en los países latinoamericanos?

Mohan (1998), analiza las investigaciones destinadas a identificar con éxito los estilos de liderazgo para los directivos de la Información Tecnología / Sistemas de proyectos. La investigación examinó la idoneidad de liderazgo transformacional en relación con otros factores críticos de éxito. Los resultados indican que una combinación de técnicas de liderazgo transformacional y comportamientos aumenta la efectividad su liderazgo. Aunque reconoce que no hay un estilo de liderazgo efectivo en todas las situaciones. En el tema de las diferencias de genero podemos encontrar los estudios de Guzman (2008), Heilman (1995), Ohlott. (2008), Owen (2003) y Tameen (1990).

Otro caso de liderazgo femenino en los ámbitos de dirección es el de Colombia. En 2000, en el gabinete ministerial había tres ministras y ocho viceministras, lo que representaba 18.8 y 50 por ciento, respectivamente. En el sector privado, de las 5,000 empresas más grandes sólo 334 están dirigidas por mujeres, es decir, siete por ciento, y un 13 por ciento de las 495 entidades financieras es dirigido por

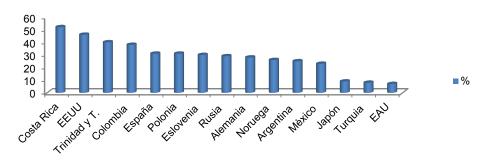
mujeres. Según Anca 2008. ¿Se tiene que negociar o legislar como en Noruega? para incrementar la presencia femenina en los negocios

"En Noruega, explica de Anca, por ley las mujeres tienen que representar el 40% de los consejos de administración, en caso negativo, la empresa se disuelve. "No es una recomendación como en el caso español, sino una obligación, si no se cumple la ley desaparece la empresa. Tienen una representación importante de mujeres en puestos de alta dirección, pero sin embargo en las primeras líneas de gestión su presencia es menor, no llega ni al 8%, por eso, este tipo de iniciativas son un resolutivo que en principio, ayudan pero tienen que ir acompañadas con otro tipo de medidas como concienciar y sensibilizar a los agentes sociales porque sino es posible que, a largo plazo, la ley no sirva para que surja el cambio necesario por el cual las mujeres pasen a ocupar cargos de responsabilidad"

Otro país donde predomina la presencia femenina en ámbitos de dirección y liderazgo es Costa Rica, en segundo lugar Estados Unidos, fenómeno que explica que en 2010 tengan una presidenta Nuria Chinchilla que Hillary Clynton contendió por la presidencia de ese país en el 2008 así, como es el caso de Argentina y Chile, sin embargo Chile no aparece en este estudio donde exista más presencia femenina de legisladora ni mujeres directivas en la alta dirección. Ver Figura uno.

Figura 1. Mujeres directivas, legisladora y en la alta administración

% de la mujer en la alta Dirección



Como se puede apreciar en este análisis comparativo aparece México, en el lugar doceavo en relación a la presencia femenina en la toma de decisiones y alta administración. Cuando se logra incrementar su presencia femenina, si aun la mujer Mexicana en los negocios ella misma se percibe insegura, como se podrá observar en los resultados de este estudio. Fuente: Celia de Anca, directora del Centro de Diversidad del Instituto de Empresa

METODOLOGÍA

El trabajo es parte del resultado de una investigación internacional titulada "Business Environment + Women as Managers" bajo la coordinación de Dra. Carol Sánchez y el Dr. Raj Javalgi, Profesores de Cleveland State University, la encuesta fue aplicada en 12 países de Latinoamérica de los cuáles se menciona, México, Cuba, Chile, Colombia, Perú, Argentina, entre otros. En este caso partimos el análisis de los datos de México, los cuales fueron recabados en el periodo de enero a julio de 2010. La encuesta está integrada en seis apartados. Datos generales, aspectos generales para la conformación de la empresa, sistema legal del país, actitudes de la mujer en los negocios, nivel de confianza en la organización y los altos gerentes en la empresa. En este caso se analiza las actitudes de la mujer en los negocios, caso México.

Para el análisis del apartado de la mujer en los negocios, agrupada en 21 ítems, los hemos clasificado en tres aspectos: 1) La mujer en la gerencia y los aspectos biológicos. 2) Análisis comparativo hombre mujer, 8 variables, y 3) Habilidades y competencias de la mujer (8). En los tres casos aplicamos un análisis

estadístico promedios y desviación estándar, así como porcentajes acumulados para un análisis comparativo sobre la percepción de la mujer en los negocios

RESULTADOS: ¿CÓMO SE PERCIBE LA MUJER EN LOS NEGOCIOS?

La población objeto de estudio fueron estudiantes de posgrado y mujeres empresarias. Fueron 193 encuestas de las cuales, el 54 por ciento mujeres y 46 por ciento hombres. La edad promedio tanto de mujeres como hombres es de 32 años. En relación a los resultados del segmento se encontró que el 74.70 por ciento tienen entre 19 a 29 años y el rango de 30-49 años, representan el 25.30 por ciento. Hallazgos: encontramos en mayor porcentaje que trabajan en el área de la gestión administrativa, a nivel medio y alta gerencia. Cuando se analiza la percepción de la mujer en la gerencia, de cómo percibe ella y cómo la percibe el hombre en los negocios. Hemos encontrado diferencias muy marcadas. Ver Tabla 1.

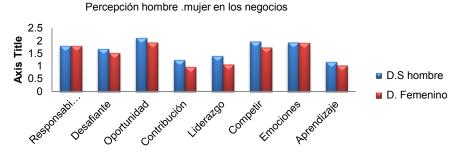
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Tabla Desviació	n estàndar de	la nercención	hombre muler
Tabla 1. Desviació	ii cotanuar uc	a perception	noniore mujer

Variable	Cargo de	Desafiante	Oportunidad	Contribución	Liderazgo	Competir	Emociones	Aprendizaje.
	Responsa bilidad			/metas				matemáticas
D.S hombre	1.84	1.59	2.07	1.33	1.26	1.89	1.97	1.16
D.S Femenino	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.81

Se puede apreciar que los resultados nos reflejan que la mujer se percibe inferior al hombre en todas las variables analizadas. Fuente. Elaboración propia 2011

Lo que más llama la atención es el indicador de cuando se le pregunta que si la mujer tiene la misma contribución que el hombre para contribuir a las metas de la organización, la desviación estándar es muy por debajo de cómo la percibe el hombre y la mujer, mismo fenómeno es en el aspecto de liderazgo, ver Figura dos.

Figura 2 Cómo se percibe la mujer y cómo la percibe el hombre



El sentido de la responsabilidad, oportunidades, la competencia y las emociones es mayor para las mujeres. En tanto, que los hombres se perciben más desafiantes, contribuyentes, con liderazgo y aprendizaje, (tabla 1). Llama la atención que la mujer se percibe ella misma en una menor escala que el hombre en la mayoría de los factores. Como es el caso, si el trabajo es más desafiante para la mujer que para el hombre, y así sucesivamente, la contribución de su trabajo, liderazgo, competencia y aprendizaje. Investigación de campo 2011

Los ítems en los cuales dan resultados ligeramente similares son responsabilidad y emociones únicamente. En general los entrevistados, piensan que no es menos deseable para las mujeres que para los hombres ocupar un cargo de responsabilidad, aunque, algunos piensan lo contrario, véase la tabla uno, sobre la percepción de responsabilidad hombre mujer.

			Frecuencia	Frecuencia	Frecuencia
Clase	Valor	Frecuencia	Relativa	Acumulada	Rel. acum.
Muy de acuerdo	1	6	0.05	6	0.05
De acuerdo	2	11	0.08	17	0.13
Ligeramente de acuerdo	3	13	0.10	30	0.23
Indeciso	4	10	0.08	40	0.31
Ligeramente de acuerdo	5	12	0.09	52	0.40
En desacuerdo	6	35	0.27	87	0.66
Muy desacuerdo	7	44	0.34	131	1.00

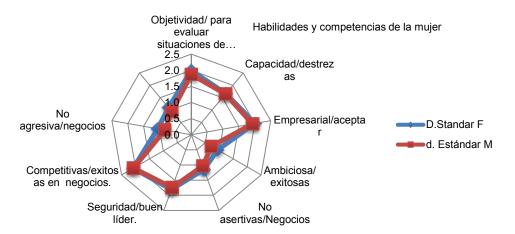
Tabla 1 de Frecuencia cargo de responsabilidad

En la tabla 1, es menos deseable para las mujeres que para los hombres ocupar un cargo de responsabilidad. Esta tabla muestra el número de veces que se ha presentado cada valor de la pregunta: s menos deseable para las mujeres que para los hombres ocupar un cargo de responsabilidad así como porcentajes y estadísticas acumuladas. Por ejemplo, en 6 filas del archivo de datos, la pregunta: Es menos deseable para las mujeres que para los hombres ocupar un cargo de responsabilidad es igual a 1 que están de acuerdo. Esto representa 4.58% de los 131 valores en el archivo. Las dos columnas de la extrema derecha dan los recuentos y porcentajes acumulados, desde el inicio de la tabla hacia abajo lo que nos puede servir para responder preguntas tales como: ¿Cuántos están entre el 1 y el 6? podemos ver que es el 40% mientras que solo en 33% consideran que es siete. Fuente: Elaboración propia 2011

Cualidades y habilidades

Cuando nos referimos de una cualidad, habilidad y competencia, estamos hablando de la destreza, pericia con que domina cierta competencia o es capaz de ser. En este caso como las preguntas están encaminadas a medir su habilidad y no se hace un análisis comparativo hombre mujer, tenemos resultados más equitativos de comose percibe el hombre y como se percibe la mujer.

Figura 3 Cualidades y habilidades como se percibe la mujer



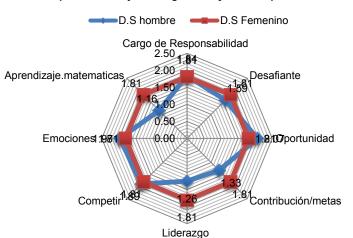
Podemos observar que las cualidades más bajas en que se percibe la mujer, es que no es ambiciosa para ser exitosa y asertiva en los negocios. Como se percibe la mujer en los negocios, se puede apreciar en la Figura tres, los puntos más bajos son cuando se refleja ser ambiciosa y objetiva, así como seguridad, son los más bajos. Sin embargo cuando hacemos la comparación hombre mujer podemos ver que ella misma tiene una percepción más baja que el hombre. Ver Figura 4. Fuente. Elaboración propia, en base a investigación de campo

Afortunadamente la mujer se percibe como una persona líder, desafiante, contribuyente, con ganas de aprender más cada día, y desde luego competidora, y ante esto el hombre no difiere mucho de esta idea, reconoce estas cualidades.

Percepción de la mujer sus aspectos biológicos

En la siguiente Figura se puede ver, las tres variables integradas de este estudio, el análisis comparativo del hombre y la mujer en la gerencia, los aspectos biológicos de la mujer en la gerencia, y sus cualidades y capacidades. Estos datos son resultado de la percepción tanto del hombre como de la mujer. Nos refleja en forma general, que tanto el hombre como la mujer, tienen índices de percepción muy bajas en relación cuando se hace la comparación de habilidades y capacidades hombre mujer en la gerencia. Mismo indicador nos da cuando analizamos los aspectos biológicos de la mujer, teniendo un leve índice más alto cuando se habla de las cualidades y habilidades de la mujer sin compararla con el hombre.

Figura 4 Análisis comparativo hombre



Como se percibe la mujer en la gerencia y como la percibe el hombre

La Figura anterior nos refleja que para él, la mujer es dominada por las emociones, no por la parte racional, postulándola a no ser lo suficientemente firme en la toma de decisiones, y junto con ello, no aprovechan las oportunidades que de momento se pudiesen presentar. El problema es que la mujer no difiere mucho de esta idea. Fuente. Elaboración propia, en base a investigación de campo

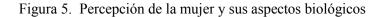
Reflexiones preliminares

Los resultados nos reflejan cómo se perciben tanto hombres como mujeres, en contexto de género, en relación a un aspecto comparativo de las potencialidades habilidades y capacidades de la mujer. Se perciben como se tienen en pleno siglo XXI representaciones mentales de la realidad de la mujer en los negocios. Se dice que la percepción es realizar abstracciones, a través, de las cualidades que definen lo esencial de la realidad externa. Se trata de la presentación intuitiva, aborda de manera parcial aspectos ciertos, pero más allá de la visión estricta a cualquiera de los lados reales presentados perspectivas subjetivas, como la incorporación de la perspectiva de género en el análisis de la mujer en la gerencia la mujer en los negocios y su liderazgo. Pero, lo que más se cuestiona, en este caso, es porque se percibe con menor capacidad y habilidades sobre su propio liderazgo femenino. Además, la muestra es de mujeres que estudian un posgrado y que, se supone, la rompieron con muchas barreras.

Se percibe que a lo largo de la historia la mujer sigue conservando ciertos estereotipos que la condicionan los papeles y limitan las potencialidades humanas de las personas al estimular o reprimir los comportamientos en función de su adecuación al género. En este caso los resultados son de la mujer y el hombre que tienen cierto perfil de liderazgo como el caso de ser gerentes y haber iniciado un posgrado, que ya han roto ciertos paradigmas y se desenvuelven en el medio de la gerencia media y alta dirección. Ella misma Se percibe con poca capacidad. Lo más preocupante es que la misma mujer se perciba de esa manera. Mientras la mujer sustenta esa percepción interna y externa sobre su propio liderazgo, seguirá

comportándose insegura o ella mima niegue sus cualidades y capacidades para desempeñarse en el contexto de la gerencia y alta dirección así como emprender su propia empresa.

Lo que llama la atención que los resultados son menores cuando en los ítems hacen referencia a un análisis comparativo hombre mujer. Cuando se habla de sus cualidades y capacidades la mujer presenta mejores resultados y se percibe ligeramente similar al hombre. En este estudio refleja que la mujer sigue teniendo el techo de cristal, aparentemente invisibles, que obstaculizan el progreso profesional de las mujeres. Este se caracteriza por la persistencia de creencias sociales estereotipadas sobre los géneros, y a las responsabilidades familiares asumidas mayoritariamente por las mujeres, lo cual se puede reflejar en los tres aspectos analizados.





Aún cuesta reconocer las cualidades positivas que cada uno tenemos. La Figura anterior muestra que la mujer se distingue por ser responsable, con capacidad, pero lo cierto es que tampoco deja de lado que como mujer debe saber ser madre, que debe lidiar con sus cambios físicos, que debe ser segura, y toma esto como algo que le impide o limita para ser exitosa, tanto o más que el hombre. Fuente. Elaboración propia, en base a investigación de campo

Pero, lo más preocupante es que la mujer tiene la misma percepción en relación al hombre en lo que se refiere a su liderazgo y capacidad para ser exitosa. Ante el análisis de la literatura y resultados del estudio podernos percibir, que la mujer, su techo de cristal, lo encuentra en el exterior, en el medio y con el trato de sus clientes, competidores, proveedores, organizaciones empresariales cúpula, entre otros. Pero, hace falta empoderarse y darle mayor seguridad. Ante los hallazgos se plantean nuevas preguntas de investigación ¿Qué debe más hacer para empoderar a la mujer? ¿Legislar o emponderarla?

Limitaciones del estudio

La encuesta se aplicó a estudiantes de posgrado de once universidades de la República, ubicadas en los estados de: Aguascalientes, Baja California, Coahuila, Estado de México, Guerrero, Hidalgo, Jalisco, Nuevo León, Puebla, Sinaloa y Tlaxcala. Ya que son estados representativos donde la mujer en la gerencia tiene más presencia. No obstante, tanto el diseño de la encuesta como la forma de aplicación de la misma y difiere la tropicalización de los conceptos, nos limita para hacer aseveraciones generales. Sin embargo, si nos da pautas para identificar cómo se percibe la mujer en los negocios, y lo más importante cómo la percibe el hombre que se desempeña en el mismo nivel de estudios. Fenómeno que nos refleja los estereotipos de la propia mujer, y el techo de cristal sigue enclaustrada en su propia percepción y miedo.

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ANEXOS

Anexo 1

con ca para podría	sta, la mujer en la gerencia: Lea las siguientes aseveraciones. Utilice la escala para inc ada una Los siguientes items intentan calificar las actitudes con respecto a las muje cada aseveración es su opinión personal. Los planteamientos cubren varios punto a estar muy de acuerdo con algunos, muy en desacuerdo con otros, e indeciso o inde r en qué medida está de acuerdo o no con cada una.	res en os de v	los n vista d	egocios liferen	. La tes y	mejor opuest	respu os. U	iesta Isted
	· · · ·	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Muy de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Levemente de	Indeciso	Levemente en decarnerdo	En desacuerdo	Muy en desacuerdo
1.	Es menos deseable para las mujeres que para los hombres ocupar un cargo de responsabilidad.	С						
2.	Las mujeres tienen la objetividad para evaluar apropiadamente las situaciones de trabajo.	Н						
3.	El mujer trabajo desafiante es más importante para el hombre que para la mujer.	С						
4.	Tanto hombres como mujeres deben tener las mismas oportunidades de participar en programas de entrenamiento gerencial.							
5.	Las mujeres tienen la capacidad de adquirir las destrezas necesarias para ser ejecutivas exitosas.							
6.	En promedio, las mujeres gerentes son menos capaces de contribuir a las metas generales de una organización que los hombres gerentes.							
7.	No es aceptable que las mujeres asuman roles de liderazgo tan a menudo como los hombres.							
8.	La comunidad empresarial debería, algún día, aceptar a la mujer en puestos gerenciales claves.							
9.	La sociedad debería considerar el trabajo gerencial de una mujer igual de valioso que el de un hombre.							
10.	Es aceptable que las mujeres compitan con los hombres por cargos ejecutivos superiores.							
11.	La posibilidad de embarazo no hace que las mujeres sean menos deseables como funcionarias que los hombres.							
12.	Las mujeres no permitirían que sus emociones afecten su desempeño gerencial en mayor medida que los hombres.							
13.	Los problemas relacionados con la menstruación no deberían hacer que una mujer fuese menos deseable como empleado que un hombre.							
14.	Para ser una ejecutiva exitosa, una mujer no tiene que sacrificar algo de su feminidad.							
15.	En promedio, una mujer que se queda todo el tiempo en casa con sus hijos es mejor madre que una mujer que trabaja fuera del hogar por lo menos media jornada.							
16.	Las mujeres tienen menor capacidad de aprendizaje para destrezas matemáticas y mecánicas que los hombres.							
17.	Las mujeres no son lo suficientemente ambiciosas para ser exitosas en el mundo de los negocios.							
18.	Las mujeres no pueden ser asertivas en situaciones de negocios que así lo demanden.							
19.	La mujer posee la seguridad en sí misma que se requiere para ser un buen líder.							

 Las mujeres no son lo suficientemente competitivas para ser exitosas en el mundo de los negocios.
 Las mujeres no pueden ser agresivas en situaciones de negocios que así lo demanden.
Los altos gerentes en mi empresa:
Fomentan el desarrollo de estrategias innovadoras, sabiendo que algunas fallarán.
Valoran las soluciones creativas más que las convencionales.
Tienden a hablar más sobre las oportunidades que los problemas.
Tratan a todos por igual, sin distinción de rango o estatus.
Generalmente adoptan una actitud de "ganarle a la competencia".
Son muy agresivos y competitivos.
Mi empresa es mucho mejor que sus competidores en:
Crecimiento en ventas
Crecimiento en ganancia neta
Desempeño total
Para las siguientes preguntas, por favor conteste llenando el espacio:
¿Cuál es su edad?
¿Cuál es su sexo?
¿Cuál es su nacionalidad?
¿Cuál es su país natal?

BIOGRAFIA

Dra. Berta ErmilaMadrigal Torres. Es maestra en Administración y Dra. En Ciencias Administrativas, con especialidad en dirección y liderazgo por el Instituto Politécnico Nacional (México). Autora de los libros Habilidades directivas, Liderazgo Enseñanza y Aprendizaje editados por Mc Graw Hill. Autora y coautora de varios artículos científicos y seis libros más. Cultiva la línea de investigación administración del Capital Humano y liderazgo emprendedor. Miembro del Sistema Nacional de Investigadores nivel 1. Catedrática de la Universidad de Guadalajara. Email: agenda.madrigal808@gmail.com y madrigal@cucea.udg.mx

Dr. Humberto Palos Delgadillo. Es maestro en Administración y Doctorado en Ciencias Administrativas, cultiva la linea de investigación de desarrollo sustentable y cuidado del medio ambiente, colabora en el proyecto Liderazgo emprendedor y negocios y medio ambiente. Coordinador de la Maestria en Negocios de la Universidad De Guadalajara del Centro Universitario de Ciencias Económico Administrativas. humpalos@cucea.udg.mx

Mtra. Rosalba Madrigal Torres, Docente del Centro Universitario de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades de la Universidad de Guadalajara. Apoyo y colaboración en la Línea de Investigación, Liderazgo emprendedor y liderazgo femenino. Estudios de doctorado en Cooperación y Bienestar Social. Investigación: en análisis del discurso y de contenido. Publicaciones: habilidades lectoras, habilidades del pensamiento; recursos humanos, estudios de género, etc., http://blog/cucea.udg.mx/rosa/ Email: rosalbam@csh.udg.mx

Lic. Miguel Cervantes de la Rosa Estudiante de la maestría en Administración de Negocios, de la Universidad de Guadalajara Centro Universitario de Ciencias Económico administrativas y Administrador de ACACIA, Academia de Ciencias Administrativas . miguec@gmail.com

María Guadalupe Reyes Serrano. Estudiante de la licenciatura en Educación y auxiliar de Investigación de la Universidad De Guadalajara, Centro Universitario de los Valles. lupancha 212@hotmail.com

SECRETS FOR SUCCESS IN PUBLISHING PEER REVIEWED RESEARCH

Terrance Jalbert, The Institute for Business and Finance Research

GETTING AN IDEA

- 1. Maintain a running list of your ideas.
- 2. Every time you have a few minutes, go to your list and ask yourself, in the next 30 minutes how can I advance one of these ideas.

RESEARCH PARTNERS

Selecting a Partner

- 1. There are advantages to working on your own.
- 2. Select someone with the right characteristics
 - a. Hard Worker
 - b. Willing to do their share of the work
 - c. Someone with time to conduct research
 - d. Intelligent
 - e. Mutual Interests
 - f. Cooperative
 - g. Likely to reciprocate
- 3. Good research partners are hard to find. Don't abuse a good research partner.

Working with a Partner

- 1. Start only one paper at a time with a new research partner.
- 2. Be patient with your research partner. They have a life and due to births, illnesses and other life events, they may not be on your schedule.
- 3. Recognize on some projects you will do most of the work. On others, your partner may do most of the work.
- 4. Use caution when selecting one of the professors from your Ph.D. program as a research partner.

How Many Authors on a Paper?

- 1. Two or three authors are good.
- 2. Four authors is not good but can be ok.
- 3. More than four authors looks bad.

WRITING YOUR MANUSCRIPT

Writing your Manuscript

- 1. Use only Microsoft Word to type your document.
- 2. Using free Word clones causes significant problems in the publication process.
- 3. Files created in another program and copied or saved as a Microsoft Word file cause significant problems in the publication process.

- 4. Unless the journal specifically requests otherwise, use the standard Microsoft Word equation editor.
- 5. Use only Microsoft spreadsheets and Microsoft
- 6. drawing programs.
- 7. Back up your files on a daily basis.

Organizing your paper

- 1. Organization
- 2. Abstract
- 3. Introduction
- 4. Literature Review
- 5. Data and Methodology
- 6. Results
- 7. Concluding Comments

Title

- 1. Descriptive and no more than 15 words.
- 2. Write a strong title
 - a. Strong Words:
 - i. Empirical, Evidence
 - b. Weak Words:
 - i. Analysis, Case
 - ii. Use Key Words from your Discipline
- 3. Think about what will look good on your vita.

Abstract

- 1. General Introduction to your paper
- 2. The goal is to precisely communicate to the reader what the paper is about.
- 3. Not more than 200 words
- 4. Do not use acronyms
- 5. Generally do not cite other papers in the abstract

Introduction

- 1. A brief introduction to the problem being addressed.
- 2. Include some summary statistics of the magnitude of the problem.
- 3. One paragraph discussion of the general state of the literature.
- 4. What you are going to do in the paper to advance the literature.
- 5. A few lines indicating how the remainder of the document is organized.

Literature Review

- 1. As a general rule do not cite magazines.
- 2. Use scholar.google.com
- 3. Narrow your literature review down to those articles that directly relate to the issue you are addressing in your paper.

- 4. Make sure that everything that you cite in the text is included in your reference section.
- 5. Make sure that everything you reference is cited in the body of the text.

Data and Methodology

- 1. Where the data was obtained from?
- 2. Time period covered in the analysis?
- 3. Frequency of the data observations?
- 4. Variables that the data were collected for?
- 5. Summary statistics.
- 6. Hypotheses that are being tested.
- 7. For regressions, specify the equation being estimated in the text of the document.
- 8. For Surveys indicate
 - a. Questions included in your survey? (Consider including the survey instrument as an appendix to the paper)
 - b. When was the survey conducted?
 - c. Where was the survey conducted?
 - d. What was the response rate?
 - e. What are the total number of usable observations?
 - f. Did you receive human subject research permission from your University?

Results

- 1. Make sure to introduce each table and figure you present in the text of your document.
- 2. Walk the reader through the results.
- 3. Select an observation in your table and explain that observation to the reader.
- 4. Incorporate data into MS Word tables.
- 5. Segregate your data when possible to get additional results,
 - a. by gender, age, country, region, year, industry, before and after a crises.

<u>Tables</u>

- 1. Don't create small one or two line tables.
- 2. Include information directly in the document text.
- 3. Combine several small tables into a single table with multiple panels.
- 4. Do not use exponential notation (3.2E-5).
- 5. Display appropriate precision
 - a. 0.0021, 1.134, 10.22, 100.6, 1,049.1, 10,432

Table Description

- 1. Make sure to include a 3-6 line description below your tables. The reader should be able to understand what is contained in the table without referring back to the text of the document.
- 2. This description is not to replace the discussion in the text, but to supplement the discussion in the text.
- 3. Redundancy is ok in this case.
- 4. Example of Table Description

This table shows the results of the regressions on CEO compensation using data from 2004. The estimated equation is: CEO Compensation=a + b1(CEO age) + b2(years with company). The first figure in each cell is the regression coefficient. The second figure in each cell is the t-statistic. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels respectively.

Concluding Comments

- 1. Reiterate the goal of your paper.
- 2. Briefly describe the test methodology and data.
- 3. Briefly summarize your major findings.
- 4. Discus how managers might benefit from the results.
- 5. Discuss any limitations of your work.
- 6. Provide suggestions for future research.

Acknowledgements

- 1. Do acknowledge anyone that has helped you with the paper.
 - Colleagues, Administrators, Funding Agencies, Assistants, Reviewers, Editors. It is a nice courtesy to the reviewers and editor.
- 2. It subtly communicates to colleagues the journal is peer reviewed.
- 3. Few people will be insulted if you acknowledge them but should not have.
- 4. Many will be insulted if you do not acknowledge them but should have.
- 5. Acknowledgments-Make sure to indicate that any remaining errors are the authors responsibility.
- 6. If someone has contributed substantially to your paper consider making them a co-author on the paper rather than just acknowledging them.

Biography

1. Your biography should indicate your employer, your publication history, contact information and any other important information.

Tom Tetertall, Ph.D. is Professor of Management at the University of East Hawaii. He is also an arbitrator for the Human Ethics Commission. His research appears in journals that include: Diversity Review, Management Styles, and Latino Business Review. He can be contacted at: University of East Hawaii, COB, 400 W. 2nd St., Kauai Hawaii, 96333, USA, email: tomt@NHI.edu.

2. Do not make your biography excessively detailed.

FORMATTING

- 1. Editors are looking for papers that are high quality. But they also look for papers that will not add an excessive burden to their work load.
- 2. They look for authors that will be pleasant to work with on revisions and in the publication process.
- 3. A properly formatted and written paper communicates to the editor that you will be pleasant to work with, thereby increasing your chance of publication.
- 4. Check the journal style guidelines to make sure you have the paper formatted properly.
- 5. Be sure figures and tables are editable in Word
- 6. Anything created or imported as an image is problematic.
- 7. Anything that is scanned needs to be recreated.
- 8. Make sure that figures and tables are legible.
- 9. If you are unable to edit it in MS Word it should be recreated.
- 10. When copying from Excel into word make sure to use the "Paste Special", "Paste as Chart" Command so it can be edited in MS Word.
- 11. Avoid one-sentence paragraphs.
- 12. Avoid one-paragraph sections.

- 13. If you have subsections underneath a main section, start the main section by indicating how the subsections are laid out.
- 14. Bullet lists do not appear well in journals.
 - a. Longer lists should be placed in a table. Then reference the table in the text of the document.
 - b. Shorter lists should be incorporated directly into the text.
- 15. Make sure your references are formatted according to journal guidelines.
- 16. Do not use text boxes
- 17. Do not use section breaks.
- 18. Do not use text levels

WRITING QUALITY

- 1. Use the grammar checker in MS Word.
- 2. Use an advanced writing editor:
 - a. Stylewriter **
 - b. Whitesmoke.
- 3. Write in third person active voice when possible.
- 4. Give it to a friend to read.

WORKING WITH THE EDITOR

Submissions

- 1. Leave your document set for 1-2 weeks between completion and submission. Give the document a final read before submission.
- 2. Indicate in your submission correspondence that the paper is not under review elsewhere and has not been published elsewhere.
- 3. Never EVER submit a document to two journals simultaneously.

Correspondence

- 1. Don't ask the editor every week for a status update. (every 2-3 months is sufficient)
- 2. If you are close to a tenure or promotion decision, do let the editor know. Editors are human and will commonly try to get the review completed prior to the promotion decision date.
- 3. Use submission numbers in all correspondences.
- 4. Be courteous when corresponding with the editor.
- 5. Publishing is to a certain degree political. Be willing to review papers for the journal.

Reputation

- 1. Our industry is small. Editors remember if you were especially easy or especially hard to work with.
- 2. Your reputation is very important, so make sure you leave the best possible impression, even if your paper is rejected.

Nonresponsive Editors

- 1. After 3 months, ask if there is any additional information you can provide.
- 2. After 6 and 9 months request that the editor send a reminder to the reviewers.
- 3. After 1 year send the editor a status check email.

4. After one year and two weeks, if the editor has not responded, send them a letter withdrawing your paper from publication consideration and try elsewhere.

REVIEWER AND EDITOR COMMENTS

- 1. Respond to revise and resubmit requests as quickly as possible, but take sufficient time to complete the requested changes.
- 2. Set the revised manuscript down for a week and reread the paper before submitting it.
- 3. Do not send the exact same version back to the editor without having addressed the concerns of the reviewers.
- 4. Do not respond rudely.
- 5. Prepare a document that indicates how you have addressed each of the reviewers concerns.
- 6. Your document should review each change that the reviewer has requested and your response to each request individually.

Reviewer Comment: In your data section please indicate the number of observations.

Author Response: Thank you for your suggestion. We have incorporated a sentence indicating the number of observations on page 22 as follows. "The data included 2,436 usable observations."

7. In the event that you are not able to address a reviewers concern. Explain carefully why you are not making the changes, and request the reviewers understanding. Acknowledge the issue in the paper and note it as a limitation, or area for future research.

ACCEPTANCES

- 1. Make sure to read the page proofs carefully.
- 2. Pay any fees due. Publishing is expensive, but it is a necessary evil. You have invested a great deal of your time in the research, the publication fee is a small part of your total investment in the project.
- 3. Expect some time between acceptance and publication.

REJECTIONS

- 1. Rejections happen.
- 2. Don't be discouraged by a rejection. Rejections are part of the process.
- 3. Make any changes that the editor and reviewers suggest and submit the paper to a different journal.

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