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The journal *Management* integrates practitioners', behavioural and legal aspects of management. It is dedicated to publishing articles on activities and issues within organisations, their structure and resources. It advocates the freedom of thought and creativity and promotes the ethics in decision-making and moral responsibility.

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Current Managerial Challenges in the CEE Region: Introduction to the Thematic Issue

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The aim of the present issue of the *Management* journal is to provide a contribution to exploring one of the key aspects related to the journal's positioning, expressed in its very title: management. More than two and a half decades have gone by since the start of the transformation in the region of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE). In line with the emergence of new businesses in the region, as well as the inflow of foreign investment attracted by the wave of privatisation opportunities in the region, there has been room for the adoption of modern managerial practices. These pertain to concepts of corporate growth, including the development of international markets, as well as innovative business models. Given the still early stage of development of firms from the region, they can constitute a promising lab for exploring the aforesaid issues.

The present issue is a collection of contributions submitted to the international conference focused around international business in the CEE region entitled 'International Business and Research in the CEE Region: Why Is It Worth Doing,' organised by the CEE Chapter of the Academy of International Business (AIB-CEE) and SGH Warsaw School of Economics in Warsaw from 17 to 19 September 2015. The papers belong to two categories. The first one revolves around determinants of outward and inward FDI from and into the CEE region, whereby these contributions link the internationalisation of local firms or the inflow of foreign investment into the region to firm and regional competitiveness, respectively. The second part is related to modern concepts of corporate growth, pertaining to the use of e-commerce and inter-firm alliances. In addition, this special issue concludes with a meta-level contribution related to legal issues of open access to academic publications. Given the surge of publications from the CEE region in the discipline of management and eco-

nomics, the issue of increasing the visibility of CEE-based research deserves particular attention.

The first contribution to the issue entitled 'A Typology of International Strategies for Hungarian Professional Sports Clubs' is authored by Miklós Kozma and Krisztina András. The objective of their research project was to examine how league strength explains the observed differences between the international strategies of professional sports clubs in Hungary. Three case studies were made primarily based on the content analysis of management interviews, cross-checked with data from sports databases and corporate documentation. They identified three types of international strategy followed by professional sports clubs in Hungary. The typology highlights the importance of having a competitive product professional clubs may bring to the international marketplace. Hence, governments and local municipalities are advised to focus their support on sports where there is a team with reasonable chances to win trophies at international level. For club managers, the implication is that strategic focus on improving service provision and sales is critical even if they receive windfall support from government.

The second paper is devoted to the reshoring trend in the CEE. Michał Młody in his article entitled 'Reshoring Trend and CEE: an Assessment of Possible Scenarios on the Example of Poland' set out to assess the possible scenarios for Poland. The offshoring phenomenon, that dominated a large part of the discourse on international production from the eighties of the last century, is losing on the dynamics in recent years, primarily due to narrowing wage gap between developed and developing countries. The simultaneous emergence of other factors resulted in the emergence of new trends of international business location which concern in particular companies that have earlier relocated their business processes abroad. Reshoring phenomenon, that should be basically understood as a partial or total relocation of previously offshored company's activities to the home country or a new destination, is one of the major topics of current public debates among scientist and policymakers in several developed countries. However, the results of the author's analysis indicate that reshoring may also have some effects – positive and negative, in the case of Central and Eastern European countries. The research has been based on conclusions drawn from the critical study of literature and data of selected international institutions.

The subsequent paper by Magdalena Grochal-Brejdak 'Methodology of Research on Internationalisation Process of E-Commerce Enterprises' is yet another contribution to the internationalisation of an

emerging country, based on the context of e-commerce enterprises. The aim of this article is to review research methodologies applied to research related to the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises with a particular stress on the research resulting in the process description of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms. As a result of the critical literature review, qualitative methods were found to prevail in the research of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms along with the lack of the *processual* description of the internationalisation of such firms. The antipositivist ontology postulated by Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki seems to be the best approach to research on internationalisation process of e-commerce firms and is visible in interpretive perspective in methodology of extant research.

The fourth contribution draws the attention of the reader to the development of modes of inter firm cooperation. Łukasz Puślecki, author of the paper called 'Development of Modes of Cooperation: An Opportunity for Open Innovation Alliances in Polish Biopharmaceutical Industry,' presents the development of modes of cooperation in the biopharmaceutical industry, referring to the latest data from the ASAP (the Association of Strategic Alliance Professionals). Examples of different modes of cooperation in contemporary economy, as well as potential cooperation between academia, institutions and business in the field of biopharmaceutical industry in Poland are discussed. Biopharmaceutical companies try to implement new strategies to transfer their research processes to a higher level, often using open innovation model as an additional tool for developing new products and services. Thanks to the cooperation with universities in the framework of open innovation alliances, through joint work with academic researchers, biopharmaceutical companies are more successful in identifying disease mechanisms, implementation of better medical therapy for patients as well as in development of new drugs.

Finally, Joanna Hetman-Krajewska in her paper 'Open Access to Scientific Works: Axiology, History and Chosen Aspects of Copyright Solutions' aims to outline legal and practical problems concerning Open Access to scientific works – the basic phenomenon tending to ensure free development of sciences both in the context of local, European and international cooperation and progress. Problems concerning Open Access to human creative works, especially scientific works is complex. Development of research and growing number of scholarly papers, as well as other materials demand systemic solutions – both in a national and international perspective. The author

describes the history of Open Access movement, starting in the 1980s with the development of free software trend and followed by Creative Commons licensing solutions. The first decade of the new millennium has brought many great strides in popularization of Open Access. Many initiatives of this kind have appeared launched by various actors. The basic legal problems of Open Access are obtaining research materials to on-line repositories and – on the other hand – liability of repository providers in the context of potential breaches of copyright.

A Typology of International Strategies for Hungarian Professional Sports Clubs

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The objective of our research project was to examine how league strength explains the observed differences between the international strategies of professional sports clubs in Hungary. Three case studies were made primarily based on the content analysis of management interviews, cross-checked with data from sports databases and corporate documentation. Through our analysis we identified three types of international strategy followed by professional sports clubs in Hungary. The typology highlights the importance of having a competitive product professional clubs may bring to the international marketplace. Hence, governments and local municipalities are advised to focus their support on sports where there is a team with reasonable chance to win trophies at international level. For club managers, the implication is that strategic focus on improving service provision and sales is critical even if they receive windfall support from government.

Key words: internationalization, sport, strategy, case study, Central and Eastern Europe

Introduction

In our previous paper on the internationalisation of professional sports clubs, we identified a number of strategic patterns that reflect the key efforts of management in the Central-Eastern European region. Hitherto, further case studies have been developed that may support our current ambition: explain some of the variations between the internationalisation of professional clubs in different strategic positions. More specifically, we aim to identify factors that explain the observed differences between the international strategies of professional sports clubs in our Hungarian sample. Preliminary analysis highlighted that the strength of the league the selected

teams compete in may have an influence on strategic orientation that justifies closer examination (Kozma and András 2014).

The research question of the project summarised in this paper was ‘if and how the strength of the league has an impact on how professional clubs strategise their international operations.’ We believe that the intensifying internationalisation of the sports economy (Andreff 2008; András and Jando 2012) keeps our focus in the interest of the wider business community, as our research may highlight idiosyncratic patterns that add to the power of generic internationalisation models (Johansson and Vahlne 1977, 2009). Furthermore, it has been confirmed that the competitiveness of professional clubs in the CEE region is increasingly contingent upon commercial factors stemming from the global sports markets (András and Kozma 2015a; András 2011). What, on the other hand, seems to have received less attention is how professional clubs could take advantage of the arising business opportunities and how they may manage the mounting challenges to their financial sustainability (Kozma and Kazai Onodi 2014a; 2014b).

There is a developing literature about the business of sports, mainly related to the major North-American leagues and the leading European national and supranational leagues of team sports (Dobson and Goddard 2004; Beech and Chadwick 2013). While there are sporadic studies from the Eastern part of Europe (McDonald 2014; Mihaylov 2012), the Central-Eastern European region as a study of interest in the business of sports is yet to justify attention. Our Sport Business Research Centre in Budapest has published a number of publications in that area (Kozma and András 2014; Kozma and Kazai Onodi 2014a; András and Jando 2012), and, in line with the strategic objectives of the CEE Chapter of the Academy of International Business (AIB-CEE 2015), we aim to continue our efforts. We believe that the CEE region is large enough to deserve attention even from a global business viewpoint (András 2011), and it bears a level of coherence to justify regionally focused analyses. That said, our research projects start from a country-based approach with the intention to expand their validity to regional level supported by future cross-national scholarly efforts.

From a more practical point of view, our interest in the internationalisation of professional sports has received unanimous support during our interviews with leading practitioners of the field. As the size of local markets is limited, the key revenue sources to be tapped – including broadcasting and sponsorship revenues, as well as prize money – stem from international competitions and ma-

for events. Furthermore, the highest proportion of operating costs is player wages (and related payments), the level of which is inextricably linked to the fundamental processes of the international player market. These primary reasons justify a clear focus on internationalisation in the strategic orientation of professional clubs in the CEE region (Kozma and András 2014). How successful clubs are in exploiting the opportunities and mitigating the threats arising from international developments is and may always be the acid test of corporate strategies in the sector.

Literature Background

There are two major academic fields providing a context to our current research endeavour. Theoretical frameworks of international business are our starting point for analysis. At the same time, the special characteristics of professional sports as a sector of the entertainment industry and a wider social phenomenon add reference points to our focus both in terms of composing the right research question and in developing our conclusions.

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS FRAMEWORKS

A relevant theoretical background for the internationalisation of professional sports companies in the Central-Eastern European region could be the 'Uppsala model' introduced by Johanson and Vahlne (1977). The gradual internationalisation process reflecting the assessment of the 'psychic distance' between countries as well as the 'liability of foreignness' is a useful interpretation framework in our analysis. The business network approach of Johanson and Vahlne (2009) also provides a good basis for understanding if and how professional sports companies are integrated into an international network both in terms of their input (players) and output (ticket sales, broadcasting etc.) markets.

We often refer to the classic categorisation of the motives for the internationalisation: 'domestic push' factors put pressure on firms to expand to foreign markets, while 'international pull' factors comprise opportunities that attract firms to enter foreign markets (Czako 2010).

The eclectic paradigm (Dunning 2000) highlights that multinational firms may have three types of advantages in international competition. Ownership advantages are controlled by the company, providing a good basis for the potential foreign investments of the firm. Location specific advantages of countries may range from access to valuable resources or favourable government policy to the

proximity of complementary industries, potentially differentiated by advantages of the parent country and the receiving country in international business relations (Rugman and Verbeke 2001). Finally, internalisation advantages substantiate benefits from expanding a company's organisational coordination to new geographies instead of relying on market transactions.

In our analysis, we assess the resources and skills that support the international expansion of firms. These are potential sources of competitive advantage (Dunning 1988; 1998; 2000), separately or in different combinations, depending on the firm and the markets to target. First, market seeking firms aim to tap into additional sales opportunities abroad. Secondly, efficiency seeking firms are willing to capitalise from economies of scope or scale. Thirdly, strategic asset seeking firms may learn from international partners integrated into business networks. Finally, resource seeking firms look for low cost resources or production options.

It adds refinement to our application of international business frameworks to professional sports clubs in the CEE that these clubs are small-to-medium enterprises. They fully comply with the EU SME-criteria (European Commission 2003), and have no real prospect of growing beyond these definitive limits in the foreseeable future.

THE CONTEXT OF THE PROFESSIONAL SPORT BUSINESS

In developed markets, professional spectator sports are now a sector of the entertainment industry providing content for media (András 2011). Even though the Central-Eastern European markets are not as developed as the US and Western European ones, and despite the strong government intervention that persists, the global sport business has great influence on local operations.

Some sports are more globally integrated than others, mainly depending on their popularity and attractiveness to the media (Doczi 2007). Other drivers of internationalisation in sports include the standardised rules of the game (cf. Demeter 2010), the organisation of major events (Dobson and Goddard 2004), and the proliferation of broadcasting through non-traditional channels, e.g. via the Internet.

Professional sports companies see the opportunities in internationalisation in their efforts to reach larger markets (Dobson and Goddard 2004). If a team qualifies for international competition, it enables to overcome the limitations of domestic markets, creating new opportunities for local or national, but also regional and global sponsorship (András 2004), and a widening range of selling merchandise products (Madeiro 2007). Furthermore, if playing in inter-

national competitions, players are exposed to attention from a wider range of agents and other clubs. As a consequence, their wages depend less on the strength of the economy in their host country, and tend to level off globally. Meanwhile, the market of television broadcasting has clearly become global (Andreff 2008), the major sporting events being broadcasted to over 200 countries around the globe. In parallel, viewers identify certain sports, teams, athletes or stadiums with the name of a few global sponsors.

It is the idiosyncratic nature of the sports industry that justifies the original interpretation of competition in economics to be adapted in this sector (cf. Budzinski 2011). Firstly, sports companies compete on field and also off-the-field, i.e. commercially (Kase et al. 2006; Wilson, Plumley, and Ramchandani 2013). They fight for the time and money of supporters, for the interest of business partners and, based on the public values they generate (Kozma 2009; Green and Collins 2008), for the support of the different levels of political government (András 2011). Also, monopolistic structures exist in different sport markets stemming from tradition and the common interest to have standardised rules and a competitive service offering not only at club level but also league level (Feddersen and Maennig 2005; Krauskopf, Langen and Brunner 2010). In this context, for the purposes of our research project, we understand competitiveness as a company's ability to participate in competition with a reasonable chance of success (see more on this by Chikan and Czako 2006), with the ability to sustain operations, as well as to proactively adapt to challenges (Chikan 2006).

The role of the national and local governments is usually strong in sports, particularly so in Central-Eastern Europe (András 2003; Kozma 2005; Nyerges and Laki 2006; Kozma and Nagy 2003). Hungary is an extreme case, as the government channelled funds primarily for the youth development and facility development of five major sports over the last five years (European Commission 2011). Though the funds technically come from companies, they pay these grants instead of corporate income tax payments. The three sports included in our current paper are all subjected to these funds, namely football, handball and ice hockey. While there are doubts whether the decision making process of allocating the funds to specific clubs and associations is transparent and accountable enough to support and effective and efficient use of tax payers' interests, the results of the support include a large number of sports training fields, as well as stadia and arena upgraded and a notable increase in the number of registered youth players (András and Kozma 2015b). The long term

sustainability of the supported facilities and youth development programmes, however is uncertain yet (András and Kozma 2015b).

In the context of strong government intervention, the question of whether professional sports teams are or should be managed with a business approach or a public service approach or a combination of the two is often raised in academic debates (Kozma and Kazai Onodi 2014a). In the Central-Eastern European region, the developing nature of market operations, and persistent influence of government and the global nature of sport competitions all drive the operations of professional clubs to function based on a mixed model, including business and public management elements (Kozma and Kazai Onodi 2015). This puts the international business models into perspective when applied to the field of professional sports in the CEE region (Kozma and András 2014).

Research Approach and Methodology

The research project presented in our paper was part of our larger programme analysing the international strategies of Hungarian professional sports clubs. Now the key question was 'if and how the strength of the league has an impact on how professional clubs strategise their international operations.' More specifically, we aimed to understand if differences in the drivers of internationalisation, as well as the resources and capabilities used by the clubs in their international strategies may be explained by the strength of the different leagues they play in.

The key terms to be explained in our research approach are the strength of the league, and professional clubs. We interpreted the strength of the league in its ability to attract attention from supporters measured by (1) the relative sports results of the teams in the league when they played in international competitions, as well as (2) the achievements of the professional players employed by the teams in the league. Professional clubs are legal and economic entities that run teams employing players who play for wages, and more specifically, the teams compete according to a professional licence awarded by the national governing body (association) of the sport.

From an epistemological point of view, our approach is based on the interpretative paradigm, using the case study methodology to generate analytical generalisation as conclusion. Hence, the explanatory strength of our analysis could be enhanced by increasing the number of cases in our sample, but even a single case could be the basis of preliminary analytical generalisation (Yin 2003).

We selected the cases in our sample aiming to strengthen the

power of our analytical conclusions. First, we included the historically most successful professional club of the most popular team sport in Hungary, that is, Ferencváros Football Club (FTC). It was reasonable to assume that more successful clubs on relatively large markets are more international in their operations than smaller clubs or markets. Then we selected the most successful ice hockey club of the country playing in a relatively strong supranational league (Fehérvár AV19 in Erste Bank Eishockey Liga). Finally, we included the reigning European champions in women handball, employing some of the best players in the world (Audi ETO KC). Overall, by the time of writing our paper, we included three clubs from three different sports and three different leagues in our sample having plans to further expand our data collection scope later.

In our case studies we collected data from different sources. Our core analysis was based on four in-depth interviews with top managers of the organisations in the sample, supplemented by processing information from corporate documentation and publicly available sports and economic databases. The key questions in our interviews focused on topics derived from our wider research model of international management (Kozma and András 2014): drivers of internationalisation, strategic resources and competences used in international operations, and core competences employed in international management. In order to have a more tractable focus, we excluded the additional questions in the general model from our current analysis (e.g. assessing competitiveness and highlighting room for further improvement).

Data were analysed through content analysis, employing axial coding (Babbie 2012; Strauss and Corbin 1998). The coding structure was developed following the preliminary assessment of content, allowing us to understand empirical data in line with our theoretical framework (Babbie 2012). Drivers of internationalisation were grouped into domestic push and international pull factors, while resources and competences were focused around location-specific factors, sports and commercial know-how, and industry networks. The units of analysis were initially words deemed to encapsulate content elements from our theoretical approach, to be verified by additional analysis focused on paragraphs (cf. Babbie 2012).

Tests of validity and reliability were initially done by comparing the results of the two methods. We also applied inter-coder reliability tests, which resulted in an adjusted coding structure and a more refined coding procedure. External validity testing included consultation with industry experts who opined about our initial find-

ings, driving our attention to issues that deserved more differentiated analysis. Finally, we made an effort to enrich our explanation by highlighting more qualitative details of our empirical findings, including quotations from management.

In line with our methodological approach, our conclusions were derived from analytical generalisation (Yin 2003). Consequently, they may not be applied to a pre-determined population of entities (e.g. all professional clubs in CEE), but are relevant for clubs that bear fundamental similarities with our sample cases along key parameters involved in the study. The primary parameters of comparison include but are not limited to the level of sport competition, the legal and economic organisational type of clubs, management models, and key social and economic environmental factors. Further generalisation to partly non-similar clubs may only be valid if fundamental differences in the above parameters are controlled for, preferably through specific analyses to be performed.

There limitations of our research primarily stem from the nature of our interest and the applied methodology. First, the number of case studies involved in data collection are planned to be increased to strengthen the analytical power of our conclusions. Secondly, the current sample focuses on top teams in each league selected. Adding less successful clubs from the same leagues would allow refining our typology. Furthermore, in-depth management interviews played a key role in our data collection; the validity of data collected from the interviews could not always be confirmed through triangulation, due to occasional lack of access to information. In addition, the coding approach in content analysis is more reliable if there is a larger amount of data subjected to the analysis. We mitigated that limitation through additional analytical techniques as explained above. Finally, the nature of the examined phenomenon, internationalisation, is subject to change and to a large extent perceptual. Additional interviews and case studies are expected to enhance the validity of our current conclusions.

Analytical Findings

The explanation of our results is structured in three sections. First, we explain how we classified the leagues of the teams examined according to our league strength measure. This allowed the operationalisation of the independent variable in our analysis. Then the propositions are explained that were refined through various iterations as part of the qualitative analytical process. Finally, the proposed typology of club strategies is presented based on our

understanding of the causal links between league strength and strategy.

STRENGTH OF THE LEAGUE

There are three different leagues the clubs of our case studies regularly play in: men football, men ice hockey, and women handball. The strength of the league was assessed based on statistics available about the international sport performance of the teams playing in the respective championship, and the quality of players employed by the teams (see more on this in the methodology section).

FTC play in the top-tier national men football championship, which is ranked medium (32 at the end of the 2015 season) among national championships of the 53 UEFA member associations (see <http://www.uefa.com>). The most valuable professional player in the league was Nemanja Nikolic, with an estimated market value of EUR 1.3 million (see <http://www.transfermarkt.de>). In light of the historical traditions of Hungarian football and the expectations of supporters, these rankings are disappointing and cannot be the basis of strong interest for the playing quality of football in the national championship. Consequently, for the purposes of our current analysis, we deemed the strength of the Hungarian football league relatively weak.

Fehervar AV19 play in the Erste Bank Eishockey Liga (EBEL), which is a supranational league including mostly Austrian clubs, supplemented by one Hungarian, one Italian and one Slovenian club. Most of the players in the teams are local nationals, but there is an impressive range of Canadian players in the clubs as well (see <http://www.erstebankliga.at/statistiken-ebel/history-ebel-2>). Based on the ranking of the International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF), Canada is ranked 1st, Slovenia 14th, Austria 16th, Italy 18th, and Hungary 19th of the list of 50 championships in the world (see <http://www.iihf.com/home-of-hockey/championships/world-ranking/mens-world-ranking/2015-ranking/>). These facts, together with the, compared to football, more moderate expectations of the supporters can imply notable interest for the championship. In Hungary, there is a recent upsurge in supporters' interest for ice hockey, as the Hungarian national team achieved landmark successes (see http://www.icehockey.hu/hirek/hir/vb_magyarorszag_lengyelorszag). Consequently, for the purposes of our current analysis, we deemed the strength of the EBEL league as of medium level.

Audi ETO KC play in the top-tier women handball championship in Hungary. As the team recently won the European Champions League twice in a row (see <http://www.ehfl.com/women/seasons>), employ

a list of international players (see <http://www.gyoretokc.hu/hu/a-csapat>) from the top handball nations of the world (i.e. Norway, Croatia, Brazil etc.), and there is exciting competition for the championship trophy in the league every year (see <http://kezisovetseg.hu>), there is great and increasing interest for the matches from supporters. Consequently, for the purposes of our current analysis, we deemed the strength of the top Hungarian women handball league as strong.

REFINED PROPOSITIONS

Our initial propositions were refined in iterations as our understanding of the issues developed through the analysis of empirical findings. Finally, refined propositions were composed that could be the basis of further research in future scholarly efforts involving additional data collection. We show the refined propositions and the related explanations below.

PROPOSITION 1 *In stronger leagues, the strategic relevance of international pull factors of market is higher than in weaker leagues.*

The first proposition addressed whether league strength has an impact on the motives for internationalisation reflected in the international strategy professional sport clubs develop. We differentiated between domestic push and international pull factors, as interpreted by international business literature (Czako 2010).

Through empirical analysis we learned that domestic push factors were highly relevant regardless of league strength, mainly due to (1) the limited size of Central-Eastern European sports markets, and (2) the globalised cost level, most importantly in respect of player wages. These factors were omnipresent, both in strong and weaker leagues.

Also, the relevance of international pull factors was unaffected by differences in league strength, only the nature of pull factors varied. The ratio of push and pull factors, as a consequence of the above, was non-responsive to variations in league strength. The ratio of the adjusted frequency measure of words related to push versus pull factors amounted to 2.35 for handball, 1.19 for ice hockey and 2.28 for football, reflecting no relationship between the independent (league strength) and dependent (ratio of push and pull factors in international strategy) variables.

The refined proposition highlights that the real differences were identified in relation to international pull factors, the nature of which were contingent upon league strength. In case of the strong handball league, the international pull factor more frequently mentioned was

the commercial utilisation of the new Audi Arena, reflecting a market seeking approach of strategy.

In contrast, ice hockey and football managers emphasised more the motive of obtaining know-how through stronger integration into international networks. This strategic asset seeing behaviour was focused around highly experienced foreign coaches and players to be employed, in an effort to improve the quality of play but also to implant operational good practices of club management.

Hence the conclusion that international pull factors of market, reflecting a market seeking behaviour, were more relevant for the club playing in stronger leagues, than for clubs in weaker leagues. The underlying logic is that once a club has a good product, ready to be commercialised internationally, there is more focus on market seeking than in case of clubs where the product is not attractive enough to justify international commercialisation yet.

PROPOSITION 2 In weaker leagues, the strategic role of improving location specific factors is stronger.

Our second proposition was designed to examine the relationship between league strength (independent variable) and the role of location specific factors in the international strategy of professional clubs (dependent variable). The quantitative assessment of empirical findings showed an interesting distribution: the adjusted frequency measure scored 7.00 for handball, 13.33 for ice hockey and 18.33 for football.

Closer analysis highlighted that location specific factors improved significantly in all three sports over the last five years in Hungary. This is primarily due to strong government intervention providing financial support to the youth development and infrastructure development of major team sports.

Our interpretation of the results is that the recently improved location specific factors had a major impact in the prospects of professional clubs. This change is reflected in the strategic thinking of management. The weaker the league the more importance is attributed to the increased government support.

Another aspect of qualitative analysis highlighted the varying nature of the role location specific factors play in the internationalisation of the clubs analysed. In handball the popularity of the sport was emphasised. While handball is very popular in Hungary, and in a number of other nations, it is not such a globally recognised sport as football. Hence local traditions provide a strategic advantage for Hungarian clubs.

By comparison, in ice hockey and football, government support for youth development and facility construction were more in the focus of strategy. Explanations, however, notably differ. Ice hockey is an expensive sport, as both garment and equipment is costly, while the construction and operation of ice hockey arenas are particularly so. Providing financing for attracting talent into the youth ranks and investment into higher quality facilities removes a major bottleneck in the process of commercialisation.

In case of football, the most popular sport in Hungary, the challenge to keep up with the current front runners in that much globalised sport is immense. No market based opportunity exists that would justify ambitions to become one of the top football nations again – a hope Hungarian supporters have fostered ever since the successes of the ‘Golden team’ of the 1950’s. Government support may disrupt that disillusioning pattern and provide a lifeline for the sport’s local development. Stadia are being built from state funding and an ever increasing number of children are recruited to the academies of football. If and when this opportunity may be exploited fully by turning support into on-field results is a key issue in club strategies.

PROPOSITION 3 In stronger leagues, the strategic role of sports know-how is stronger.

We examined if league strength has an impact on how a specific resource, know-how, is represented in the international strategy of professional sports clubs in our sample. Our empirical analysis revealed that the role of know-how, sport and commercial combined, was of similar importance in strategies of clubs in different leagues. However, when the two types of know-how were assessed separately, sport know-how was represented more frequently in stronger leagues: 55.6% for handball, 45.5% for ice hockey and 43.3% for football.

This distribution is interesting, as it would stand to reason to assume that clubs in weaker leagues need to do more to improve their fundamental product quality. However, we learned that no sport club can stop improving in terms of sport know-how due to the competitive nature of leagues. Clubs in weaker leagues, by comparison, also need to improve their on-field performance, but they have other priorities as well. As a consequence, less emphasis is made on improving sport know-how in weaker leagues. Whether this is commendable or a sign of false strategy is a question to be answered by longitudinal studies.

More differentiated analysis underlined that sport know-how covers two major areas represented differently across the clubs examined. Talent development is on the agenda of all teams, while improving coaching qualities was more often mentioned in our handball and ice hockey interviews. The latter may be explained by the somewhat different role coaches play in the organisations of the three sports.

PROPOSITION 4 *In weaker leagues, there is more strategic emphasis on developing international relationships.*

Our original proposition was that international relationships are at the heart of all professional clubs' international strategies regardless of league strength. Empirical findings however showed a different pattern. The adjusted frequency measure of developing international relationships was 2.75 for handball, 6.00 for ice hockey, and 6.25 for football.

The explanation is that for clubs in strong leagues, regularly playing in international competitions with good results, international relationships may be taken as given. Meanwhile, clubs less frequently playing in international competitions work hard to establish their credibility through a greater number and depth of personal and professional relationships.

The focus of relationship building efforts varied across the clubs and leagues analysed. In handball, the greatest emphasis was laid on achieving stronger integration into the international network of professional players. In ice hockey, three aspects were deemed equally important, namely the network of players, relationship with foreign supporters and relationship with foreign clubs. Finally, in football the relationship to be developed with foreign clubs received the strongest emphasis.

Our related explanation is that the handball club needs to continuously source the best players from the most diverse of foreign countries to uphold its competitive sport performance, while the football club is yet to get to that strategic position. Football club management's current concerns are more about learning from foreign clubs, as revealed in Proposition #1, while the players they can recruit from abroad are not of the highest international quality yet.

TYPOLOGY OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES

In an effort to synthesise what we have learned through our refined propositions, we constructed a chart illustrating the clubs' and their leagues' relative positions. Based on that, we developed a ty-

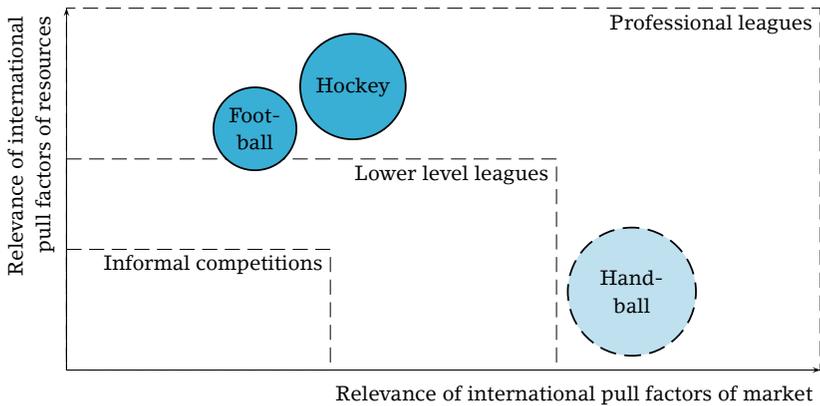


FIGURE 1 The Comparison of Club Strategies Analysed (bubble size – weight of sports know-how in corporate strategy, bubble colour – weight of government support in corporate strategy, bubble outline – intensity of international relationship building)

pology reflecting the aspects of international strategy analysed. We propose the following strategy types as an analytical framework for understanding international corporate strategies in Hungarian professional sports.

Figure 1 illustrates our findings along five dimensions. The two axes of the diagram show how different leagues scored on the relevance of international pull factors in their clubs’ international strategy. As revealed in our analysis, pull factors need to be broken down by their nature as reflected in club strategies depending on the strength of the league the teams play in. Handball scored higher in terms of international pull factors of market, while ice hockey and football scored higher in terms of international pull factors of resources. Overall, professional leagues score high on either of the two axes, while lower level leagues and informal competitions (not explicitly analysed in our study) are naturally less integrated into international networks, hence their scores on both axes are supposed to be lower.

The colour of bubbles in the chart shows how strong a role increasing government support plays in the clubs’ international strategy. Darker background colour shows higher, lighter colour shows lower significance of that factor in strategy. Increased government support, as a key location specific factor, scored higher in case of ice hockey and football, and was deemed less important in case of handball.

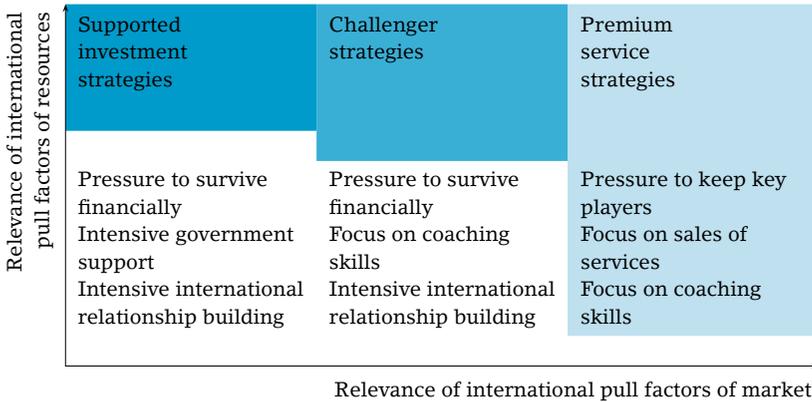


FIGURE 2 Proposed Types of International Strategy of Professional Sports Clubs

Bubble size represents the weight of sports know-how in the professional clubs’ international strategy. Larger bubbles represent more weight attributed to improving sports know-how in the international strategy of the respected clubs. As shown in the chart, football scores lowest, handball the highest on that scale, although variations are more moderate than in case of location specific factors.

The outlines of the bubbles show how intensively the clubs’ management work on developing their international relationships. Continuous lines show stronger, broken lines show less intensive efforts identified. The handball club is less intent on improving its international relationships than the ice hockey and football clubs.

Overall, figure 1 highlights that the handball club and the two other clubs have different strategic positions defined by the internationalisation aspects assessed in our study as reflected by the four propositions we developed. Consequently, the handball club has a more market focused international strategy, while the other two clubs’ strategies are dissimilar, but still closer to each other in their emphasis on learning and development than to the strategy of the handball club.

In figure 2 we propose different types of the international strategy of professional sports clubs based on the aspects illustrated in figure 1. We identified three strategy types as explained below. ‘Supported investment strategies’ are characterised by relatively little emphasis on market seeking and strong emphasis on strategic asset seeking behaviour, and an emphatic role of domestic push factors in the clubs’ internationalisation approach. There is pressure on these

clubs to succeed internationally in an effort to establish financially sustainable operations. Characteristically, the national government (or potentially other external stakeholders) endows intensive support to clubs following a supported investment strategy to help mitigate their competitive disadvantage in international competitions. Meanwhile, clubs are intent on developing their international relationships in order to achieve their stronger integration into international networks and overcome the liability of outsidership. These clubs are not competitive internationally yet, but they are investing heavily in their development and also receive substantial external support in their efforts. In our sample, FC , the football club is interpreted to follow a supported investment strategy.

Professional clubs following a 'challenger strategy' go international as they operate under pressure to achieve financially sustainable operations. Also, they are keen on internationalisation more because of strategic asset seeking than market seeking. They are already successful in attracting interest for their matches but still highly focus on improving their sport know-how, i.e. coaching skills, and their international network of relationships. Following a challenger strategy clubs are expected to be able to put occasional pressure on leading clubs in international competitions and could become very competitive clubs over time. In our sample, Fehérvár AV19, the ice hockey club is interpreted to follow a challenger strategy.

'Premium service strategy' is followed by professional clubs that are competitive in international competitions and have a high chance of winning titles every season. Their international operations are more characterised by market seeking than asset seeking as they already have a product (entertaining matches) ready to be commercialised internationally. Still these clubs are under pressure to maintain their competitiveness on-field, hence their relentless efforts to keep their best players and attract other valuable international players every year. Furthermore, due to the competitive nature of international competitions, even the best clubs are willing to improve their sports know-how, i.e. coaching skills, in order to maintain their leading sports performance. In our sample, Audi FC , the handball club is interpreted to follow a premium service strategy.

Conclusions

In our effort to explain some of the variations between the international strategies of professional sports clubs, we identified the strength of the league the teams play in as an explanatory factor. We

have learned how the strategic orientation of clubs playing in the top-tier handball, football and ice-hockey leagues in Hungary differ related to league strength allowing for the emergence of strategies that can be typified.

Based on empirical investigations we identified three strategy types of international strategy followed by professional sports clubs in Hungary. Clubs with a supported investment strategy are yet to develop intensively to be able to challenge the top clubs in their international competitions; the ones with a challenger strategy are close to put pressure on the best performers; finally, clubs following a premium service strategy keep fighting for the titles of their respective international competitions. Which club follows which of the three strategies primarily depends on the strength of the league they regularly play in.

The analytical consequences of the typology may be wide ranging, but there is one we believe warrants the most attention: the typology highlights the importance of having or working to develop a competitive product professional clubs may bring to the international marketplace. No market revenues and no real stakeholder interest may be generated by any strategy overlooking the fundamental truth of professional sports: it is all about winning and entertainment. In order to consistently provide an attractive product clubs need to find their path to financial sustainability, the latter being their most fundamental strategic challenge for now and the foreseeable future.

The policy implications of our study are strong: governments and local municipalities are advised to focus their support on sports where there is a team with reasonable chance to win trophies at international level. Alternatively, they may as well provide support to sports where there is a clear strategy for development aiming to become competitive internationally in reasonable time. Most naturally, there are sports that attract more attention than others, even with more moderate achievements, but the basic principle remains unchanged: public money should be spent effectively and efficiently with a forward looking mindset. In professional sports this means attracting attention to the team through its achievements and exploiting the interest of stakeholders to the fullest thereby creating a financial basis for continued achievement.

For club managers our concluding message is that strategic focus on improving service provision and sales is critical even if they receive windfall support from major stakeholders including governments, sponsors or high-net-worth private owners. Improving the environment conditions they compete in, e.g. youth development fa-

cilities, as well as stadia and arenas, may boost clubs' development; however, this needs to be turned into sport achievement and sustainable financial operations in reasonable time.

From a scholarly point of view we would be pleased at the prospect of supporting future research projects through the typology developed in our current paper. It is meant to provide an analytical framework to be used for refining the analytical power of league strength as an explanatory variable, as well as identifying moderating variables or additional independent variables for assessing the variations in professional sports clubs' international strategies.

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Reshoring Trend and CEE: An Assessment of Possible Scenarios on the Example of Poland

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The offshoring phenomenon, which dominated a large part of the discourse on international production from the eighties of the last century, is losing on the dynamics in recent years, primarily due to narrowing wage gap between developed and developing countries. The simultaneous emergence of other factors resulted in the emergence of new trends of international business location, which concern in particular companies that have earlier relocated their business processes abroad. Reshoring phenomenon that should be understood as a partial or total relocation of previously offshored company's activities to the home country or a new destination is one of the major topics of current public debates among scientist and policymakers in several developed countries. However, the results of conducted analysis indicate that reshoring may also have some effects – positive and negative, in the case of Central and Eastern European countries. The research has been based on conclusions drawn from the critical study of literature and data of selected international institutions.

Key words: internationalisation global supply chain, offshoring, nearshoring, reshoring, backshoring

Introduction

In the past few decades, many countries and regions have emerged and profiled themselves as popular offshoring destinations for companies from developed countries. Central and South America has become manufacturing base for North America, Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) for Western Europe, and Asia – including primarily China and India, has become the offshoring location for almost entire developed world. This phenomenon has concerned both large corporations and small and medium-sized enterprises which decided to reduce production costs and thereby increase their revenues and the level of competitiveness. Apart from lower labour costs, Asian countries offered lower land prices, lower taxes and low transport costs. At the same time, companies did not have to worry

about general issues of labour rights or environmental protection. The natural competitor for low-cost Asian countries, in particular in the context of FDI flows from Western Europe, was the region of Central and Eastern Europe that was trying to catch up after the fall of communist regimes. However, current investment conditions in many developing countries are not as good as it once used to be. Therefore, many companies began to reconsider their strategies and transfer their activities back to the home country or to completely different locations.

Reshoring phenomenon gains in importance primarily in the us but also in Europe, especially in Germany, France and the United Kingdom (Leibl, Morefield, and Pfeiffer 2011). The current debate among policy makers and scientists on the re-industrialization of the United States and Europe is to some extent based on expectations that the return of manufacturing companies can help restore the competitiveness of industry in high-income countries (Pisano and Shih 2012). This hope is based on the assumption that labour costs in developing countries, in particular China, will continue to grow vigorously. However, empirical studies on reshoring are relatively few in number, and that is why further research is needed on the motives, effects and the likely evolution of this phenomenon in the context of the presence of Western European companies in CEE region. Therefore, our analysis is aimed at a better understanding of the importance of this phenomenon for the CEE countries, on the example of Poland – the most important offshoring location in the region. The available literature on the subject and the data of World Bank and other international organisations has been used for the needs of this study.

The next section outlines the theoretical background and develops the research questions. Then, we identify main groups of factors, which may affect company's relocation decision. After indicating major foreign investors in Poland, will then be made comparison of the attractiveness of Poland on the background of selected economies, using several different indicators. Finally, the article ends with a discussion on the implications for Poland and entire CEE region, regarding the possible scenarios of reshoring trend.

Theoretical Background

The size and dynamics of internationalisation have resulted in intensification of research on the nature and causes of this phenomenon, and thereby many theories attempting to explain it have been developed. The authors of these concepts focused attention on seek-

ing answers in particular to three basic questions: (1) Which factors cause the transformation of domestic company into international company? (2) Which factors affect gaining a competitive advantage by the company? (3) Which factors determine the choice of the host country? Our intention is not a detailed overview of the IB literature (see Hätönen and Eriksson 2009), however, some basic economic concepts and theories should be mentioned, e.g. transaction costs theory, the concept of value chain, the resource-based view, the eclectic paradigm or institutional theory. In these theories, researchers referred to the issue of relocation of companies, both from the perspective of the enterprise itself, the whole industry and the national economy.

The concept of the value chain, developed by M. E. Porter (1985), indicates that the value of the product depends on a number of related activities that are controlled and coordinated by the company. Each activity contributes to the creation of the added value. Companies, by relocating business functions, try to find optimal locations abroad. Company has to decide whether to focus its activity in one or two countries, or select a distraction strategy (and thus take action in several countries), and then choose host countries. In turn, the resource-based view (Barney 1991) is a multi-dimensional approach and considers what certain resources or capabilities contribute to a company's competitive advantage (Tate et al. 2014). Companies offshore their activities to join networks and gain access to the resources of foreign partners or to develop their own resource base. The drivers of company's relocation can be also analysed by transaction cost theory. This approach explains that offshoring activity is associated with the company's expectation of a significant reduction in unit costs. It usually involves lower direct labour costs compared to the country of origin, but also access to cheaper equipment or facilities (Canham and Hamilton 2013). However, long physical and mental distance between host and home country make it very costly to monitor supply chain coordination activities (Kinkel 2012). Dunning (1980; 1995) considers that the company decides to FDI only if its activities abroad will be more profitable than in the home country. This objective can be achieved if three conditions are met: (1) a company has rare and modern assets, which are not available for other companies operating in the host market; (2) the assets are used directly and are not shared to other companies; (3) company identifies a proper manufacturing location abroad. The fulfilment of all conditions ensures achievement of competitive advantage over local rivals, which consists of ownership specific advantages, internalisa-

tion specific advantages, location specific advantages. Besides, according to institutional theory, cultural, political, social and legal aspects may influence the decision of business location because of different rules and institutional conditions in the various destinations (North 1990).

There are several different ways to do offshoring, depending on whether the company wants to operate within its own structures, or to conclude a contract with another company. The first way is captive offshoring/offshore insourcing, which means that the company's production is located in a foreign country, but it is under full control of parent company. The second way is offshore outsourcing, which means that the production is also located in a foreign country, but contracted to an external supplier (Gray et al. 2013). It is also necessary to characterize nearshoring that is in fact a derivative of offshoring and occurs when an organisation transfers its activities to a company located in close geographical proximity to the parent company's home country. Many companies considered, and often rightly so, that offshoring can be beneficial for both the home country and the host country, as it provides generally profits for the investor and creates jobs in the host country at the same time. Numerous empirical studies identified various pull and push factors affecting international production relocations. Reducing labour costs to improve efficiency, access to new markets, proximity to customers and access to know-how or natural resources are most frequently cited motives of offshoring (Kinkel, Kleine, and Diekmann 2014).

Reshoring is an inverse process in relation to offshoring and the IB literature offers some concepts that seem to explain partly reshoring phenomenon. The concept of de-internationalisation derives from work by Welch and Luostarinen (1988). According to these authors, adopted by many researchers definitions of internationalisation assume permanent increase of involvement of companies in foreign markets. The authors express doubts as to whether the continuation of already started process of internationalisation is indeed inevitable. Calof and Beamish (1995, 116) argue that de-internationalisation may take form of divestments which is usually a reduction of some kind of company's asset for financial, ethical, or political objectives. Benito and Welch (1997) define in turn de-internationalisation as a voluntary or forced actions affecting decline of company's involvement in the ongoing international activities or decline of their exposure. Base on above, de-internationalisation should not be understood only in the context of the company's failure on the foreign markets (as a forced action). On the contrary,

it may be attributable to changes in corporate strategy. Therefore, de-internationalisation considered in the context of a causal relationship is the consequence of prior internationalisation (Turcan 2003, 211). Taking into account the spatial dimension of involvement of a foreign company, it seems that de-internationalisation should be also considered as activities aimed at changing host country. In this regard, de-internationalisation can apply to a situation when will not change neither the form nor the intensity of the company's presence on the foreign market. However, Fratocchi et al. (2014b) argue that foreign divestment and de-internationalisation concepts do not capture some of the key features of reshoring, such as outsourced production. Besides, foreign divestment is often referred to a subsidiary as a whole more than to specific value chain activities, as it sometimes takes place in the case of reshoring. According to Fratocchi et al. (2014b), reshoring strategy can be usefully organized around four key questions: why (motivations – reshoring arises on the result of gradual change in the offshore location that erodes the comparative advantages of the host country because of e.g. lower labour availability or narrowing wage gap); what (which of the value chain activities will be involved in the relocation process); where (the home/host countries specificities, which can determine company's reshoring decision) and how (entry mode, i.e. outsourcing, greenfield investment or acquisition).

Proofs of intensification of reshoring phenomenon are increasing, as evidenced by the widespread interest in the economic press (see *The Economist* 2013) and among academics (see Ellram 2013; Ellram, Tate, and Petersen 2013; Gray et al. 2013; Kinkel and Maloca 2009; Kinkel 2012). However, credible quantitative data regarding reshoring is still unavailable in case of most countries. There are also still some problems with the explicit definition of reshoring. The first scientific definition is assigned to Holz, who defined backshoring as the relocation of the functional operations back to the company's country of origin (Fratocchi et al. 2014a). Kinkel and Maloca (2009) define backshoring as re-focus on part of the production from its own foreign locations as well as from foreign suppliers into the domestic production plants. Ellram (2013) in turn defines reshoring as moving production back to the country of the parent company. It is worth noting that the terms reshoring and backshoring are used in the literature interchangeably and regardless of where the activity of the company was transferred to and who is responsible for the production (Gray et al. 2013). However, Fratocchi et al. (2014a) distinguished these terms – they defined reshoring as relocation of pre-

viously offshored production, independently of the new destination, while back-reshoring was defined as 'a voluntary corporate strategy regarding to the home-country's partial or total relocation of (insourced or outsourced) production to serve the local, regional or global demand.' Therefore, for purposes of this paper will be adopted that reshoring indicate a general location decision associated with the partial or total transfer of company's activities from the current location back to the country of origin or to a different location – to the home country's region or to a country far away the prior destination.

According to adopted definition, reshoring does not depend on the company's ownership mode in the host country. Based on above, a company that wants to relocate its previously offshored activities can choose among one of three reshoring options: (a) transfer of activities (either partial or total) to another country geographically far from the original host country (further offshoring); (b) transfer of activities to another country that is geographically closer than previous offshoring location (basically this process is similar to nearshoring, however, due to the fact that nearshoring denotes initial transfer of company's activities to a close country, Fratocchi et al. (2014a) suggest using the term near-reshoring); (c) transfer of activities back to the company's country of origin (back-reshoring).

On the basis of the discussion above, it can be stated that reshoring is largely related to similar factors as offshoring. Thus, the successful reshoring decision consists of motivations, selection of destinations, identification of activities that should be reshored and selection of possible entry modes. Adoption any of the above-mentioned three reshoring options is based essentially on the assessment and comparative analysis of the countries' attractiveness. Destinations, which offer the optimum combination of location factors, allow for a reduction of investment outlays and ongoing costs of the enterprise, making it easier to maximize profits and reduce the risk of investment failure. That is why we will focus in particular on location factors affecting reshoring decisions. Obviously, there are some differences between the offshoring destinations in terms of their specialization, specific economic conditions or development priorities. Central and Eastern Europe, despite the natural advantage which is its geographical location, had to compete over the years with Asian countries for FDI of Western European companies. Based on above, the study will be framed around three research questions formulated from the point of view of Poland – as the example of offshoring/reshoring destination from CEE region:

1. What is the level of attractiveness of Poland on the background of selected Western European and low-cost countries?
2. Based on the comparison of selected countries' attractiveness, what is the most possible scenario of relocation activities of Western European companies – back-reshoring, near-reshoring or further offshoring?
3. What are the possible consequences for Poland in case of reshoring of Western European companies?

Among countries which I will take into account in comparison are Poland (as current/potential offshoring destination); main foreign investor-countries in Poland (from where companies are also present in the low-cost Asian countries), as well as China, as the world's leading offshoring location. To assess the level of attractiveness will be employed publicly available indicators, which illustrate four groups of factors having significance for enterprises' relocation strategies (discussed in the next section).

What Determines Reshoring?

As reshoring is expected to become increasingly important, it is necessary to examine what are the main drivers that lead the companies to reconsider their offshoring decisions. Although the biggest importance for the business location decision is likely to be labour costs, there are also other important factors to consider. Unfortunately reshoring cases are still rarely publicised and usually do not emerge in official statistics. Until 2013, the only reliable observations in Europe were limited to reshoring strategies pursued by German companies (Kinkel and Maloca 2009; Kinkel 2012). At present, interest on reshoring phenomenon is gaining on strength – just to mention the numerous reports of European Union institutions (e.g. European Economic and Social Committee 2014), banks (e.g. Heymann and Vetter 2013) as well as studies on individual countries, i.e. United Kingdom (e.g. Bailey and De Propris 2014; Gibson 2014), Denmark (e.g. Arlbjorn and Mikkelsen 2014), Italy (e.g. Fratocchi et al. 2014a; 2014b) or Spain (e.g. Martinez-Mora and Merino 2014). Of even greater interest is noticeable in the US, where lobbies opting for reshoring are much stronger. Therefore, quite a lot of studies performed on the basis of American companies' experiences are available (see Tate 2014; Sirkin, Zinser, and Hohner 2011; *The Economist* 2013). Based on some of the previous studies on reshoring phenomenon, four basic groups of factors affecting reshoring can be identified: (1) labour costs and productivity, (2)

labour skills and quality; (3) logistics; (4) the general investment climate.

LABOUR COSTS AND PRODUCTIVITY

Low costs of production are an obvious factor affecting relocation of companies' activities, and that is why Asia has become the world's largest exporter of products in recent decades. A large number of foreign companies used (in particular) China as their production base, where labour costs were much lower than in other countries. However, it seems that low-cost phase of economic growth in China will be finished in the near future and the so-called 'cheap China' will disappear (Ceglowski and Golub 2012; Kinkel 2014). Tate (2014) indicates that the stability of labour costs is also important factor affecting the reshoring decision. According to her study, for almost half of companies the importance of labour costs stability increased over the past 3 years. Another important factor is productivity that measures 'how efficiently production inputs, such as labour and capital, are being used in an economy to produce a given level of output' (OECD 2008). Increase of production costs without a simultaneous increase in productivity may in fact result in diverting investors.

LABOUR SKILLS AND QUALITY

Developed countries have always been associated with high levels of education offered by the best universities, which guaranteed an access to a skilled workforce, innovation and the high quality of production (Tate 2014). However, the number of skilled and semi-skilled workers in many developed countries is no longer sufficient (*The Economist* 2013). Therefore, companies need to hire less skilled workers, and therefore, maintaining a proper level of quality becomes sometimes a trouble (Tate 2014). High level of quality is necessary to survive in the market, especially if the customers are demanding. Companies should bear in mind that quality is associated with not only the level of materials and production technology, but also with appropriate control mechanisms and the qualifications and skills of employees. Two German studies – Kinkel (2012) and Kinkel and Maloca (2009) showed that, while the reduction in labour costs was the main motive for moving production abroad, the main stimulus for the reshoring decision was the inappropriate quality of production. Besides, the results of the study among 1,663 German companies indicate that companies which offshored their production had to standardize their processes due to insufficient number of qualified employees (Kinkel and Maloca 2009). Therefore, com-

panies need carry out a thorough analysis and evaluation of the host countries because low salaries might mean also low labour skills. While the effect of the reduction of labour costs on the company's performance can be directly calculated, the impact of labour skills on company performance is difficult to estimate.

The phenomenon of offshoring was primarily related to cross-border transfer of production activities. However, the widespread use of broadband Internet and other solutions that allowed fast and cheap transfer of voice and data, enabled the transfer of services abroad. To these processes also contribute higher competencies and skills of workers in host countries, and the digitalisation of many business processes. The combination of above-mentioned factors contributed to the creation of the important sector of global economy – Business Process Outsourcing (BPO). Since the 90s of the last century, many companies from developed countries increasingly began to buy abroad services that are more complex, requiring even more specialized skills and technical competencies. In this way, there appeared new phenomena, such as knowledge process outsourcing (KPO), or legal process outsourcing (LPO) (Grycuk 2014).

LOGISTICS

It is obvious that smaller distance from the production location to the target market enables the company to streamline the supply chain, which is a strategic element, giving the company a competitive advantage (Ellram, Tate, and Petersen 2013). Companies that have decided to reshore their business activities to the US indicated various reasons related to the presence closer to the end customer (Van den Bossche et al. 2014). Shorter distance from the country, which has properly prepared road infrastructure, can certainly contribute to e.g. reducing the time of delivery.

However, companies should also pay attention on the risk of the supply chain disruption, which is higher in such the offshoring destinations as East and South Asia, Africa or South America (Tate 2014). Therefore, companies should carefully investigate how flexible, dynamic and sustainable are the supply chains in the host countries. Firms should also thoroughly measure the potential benefits of nearshoring, such as reduced inventories, shorten time to market and reduction of geopolitical risk (Tate et al. 2014). Supply chains with many suppliers located in different countries are exposed to more potential problems that could damage the entire chain. Thus, the ability of organisations to coordinate their global logistics system is what determines its success (Ellram, Tate, and Petersen 2013). In

the study by Kinkel and Maloca (2009), the manufacturing sector enterprises have recognized the flexibility and ability to fast delivery as the key reasons for bringing manufacturing back to the home country.

THE OVERALL INVESTMENT CLIMATE

The favourable investment climate means that the country takes actions to minimize the costs and risks associated with doing business, as well to limit barriers of entrepreneurship development. Improvement of the investment climate may cause creation of new businesses, higher level of investments (including foreign ones); what in result contribute to faster economic growth. Investment climate in the host country consists of indeed countless number of political, macroeconomic and related to the regulatory environment factors, e.g. fiscal burdens, the procedures related to establishing the company, cooperation with the administration, acquisition of real estate or the functioning of the legal authorities. Unfavourable investment climate is one of the main obstacles faced by underdeveloped countries, and regulatory reforms are essential to remove barriers to invest. On the other hand, some investors are willing to take on a high level of risk and volatility associated with investing in an unfavourable investment climate because it may be rewarded with higher returns.

Poland As the Offshoring Destination

As stated at the beginning of this paper, offshoring can occur in two different forms: captive offshoring, which means a transfer of company's activity to a foreign branch (FDI), and offshore outsourcing that is a transfer of company's operations to an external foreign partner. We will focus primarily on the captive offshoring, for two reasons.¹ Firstly, foreign direct investment are easier to estimate whereas the data for offshore outsourcing are not officially published. Second, assuming some simplification, in the case of offshore outsourcing, companies are mainly interested in the final costs of relocated value chain modules, maintaining an appropriate level of quality, possibility of the contract performance by the supplier and the legal possibilities of investigation of realization of the contract. Issues directly related to the execution of delegated value chain modules (e.g. the level of employee turnover, involved resources, etc.) will not be the focus of investor and, in many cases, the investor will not have even the possibility of access to such data. In the case of choosing the captive offshoring location, complexity and number of

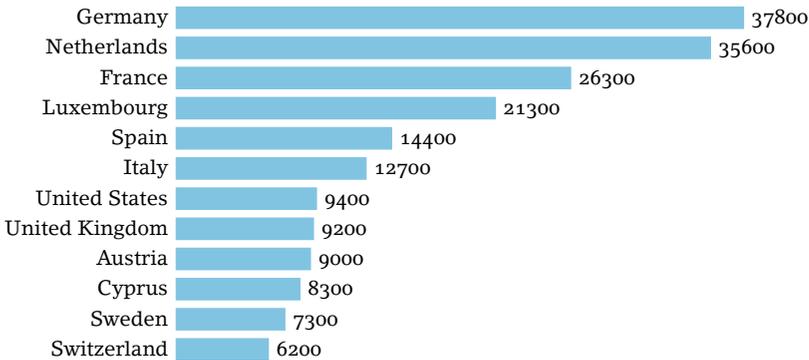


FIGURE 1 Top 12 Foreign Investors in Poland (As of the End of 2013 in bln USD;
Based on Data from <http://www.nbp.pl>)

factors taken into consideration increases and the factors concerning the entire macro-environment and the competitive environment become particularly important. Due to higher capital expenditures, the level of taken risk is higher. Captive offshoring is also associated with the adoption of the perspective of a longer presence on the market, and thus, stability of the attractiveness of the market gains importance.

In the first years after the fall of the communist regimes, FDI flows to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) grew rapidly, stimulated by the policies of privatization and other structural reforms aimed at achieving a transition to a capitalist economic system, as well as accession to the European Union (EU). Poland is one of the main beneficiaries of FDI among the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. The total foreign direct investment stock in Poland amounted to 221 billion USD at the end of 2013, of which 199 billion USD was invested by European Union (EU27) countries. The main investors include Germany, the Netherlands and France, which together are responsible for 45% of investments located in Poland (figure 1). In 2013, the major investors originated from the United Kingdom, Germany and Switzerland. In the period from January 2003 to August 2014, 3 379 greenfield projects were carried out in Poland, and 822 thousand workplaces were created (see <http://www.nbp.pl>).

Sectoral composition of the FDI stock at the end of 2013 (based on the Polish/European Classification of Business Activity) is as following: manufacturing – USD 66,8 bn; financial and insurance activities – USD 55,9 bn; wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles – USD 32,6 bn; real estate activities – USD 14,1 bn;

professional, scientific and technical activities – USD 11,8 bn; information and communication – USD 11,3 bn; construction – USD 9,8 bn (see <http://www.nbp.pl>).

It is also worth noting that Poland is a leader in the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) in Central and Eastern Europe. According to estimates by the Association of Business Service Leaders in Poland (ABSL), a professional organisation representing companies providing modern services for business, in 2013 in six CEE countries functioned approx. 1,000 service centres owned by companies with foreign capital, of which 400 were located in Poland. These companies employed 270–300 thousand employees, of which in Poland more than 110 thousand. The most important markets for shared service centres in Poland were the countries of the European Union – 89% of companies provided services to clients from Western Europe (Grycuk 2014)

Poland for years has been indicated as a country with high investment potential, particularly attractive for foreign investors from Western Europe, because of the cultural and geographical proximity, similar models for businesses, friendly climate for foreign investments and lower labour costs compared to Western European countries.

The Attractiveness of Poland Compared to Selected Countries

Referring to defined in the beginning of this paper three research questions, main objective of this section is to compare the attractiveness of selected countries: Poland, 5 largest countries-investors in Poland: Germany, Netherlands, France, Spain, Italy and the United Kingdom (as the largest investor in 2013), and China.² For this purpose we will use variety of publicly available indicators from selected international organisations.

LABOUR COSTS AND PRODUCTIVITY

Table 1 indicates average growth of real unit labour productivity (defined as output per unit of labour input) and real unit labour costs (understood as the cost of wages paid to workers during an accounting period, plus payroll and related taxes and benefits costs), between 2005–2013. For most of the analysed countries, the average productivity grew faster than labour costs – this applies to Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands, the UK, and in particular Poland. The decline in productivity is noticeable in the case of Italy.

TABLE 1 Average Growth of Real Labour Productivity and Real Labour Costs in the Period 2005–2013

Country	Productivity	Labour costs
Germany	0.4	-0.1
Spain	1.2	-0.5
France	0.5	0.3
Italy	-0.5	0.4
Netherlands	0.3	0.3
Poland	2.6	-0.8
United Kingdom	0.5	0.2
China*	7.9	9.7

NOTES Based on data from Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>) and The Economist Intelligence Unit (<http://www.eiu.com>). * Calculation for China is based on data available for the period 2005–2012.

In China, wages increased faster than productivity, even during the global financial crisis, while wages in developed economies remained at the same level or even declined. Productivity of Chinese workers is not keeping pace with the growth of wages, which causes a narrowing cost advantage in relation to other analysed countries. Thus, it seems that if wages growth in China will continue to exceed rate of productivity growth, as a result, it may weaken attractiveness of that host country.

LABOUR SKILLS AND QUALITY

In order to compare the level of labour skills between countries we used Hays Global Skills Index, developed by Hays and Oxford Economics. This indicator is based on the analysis of labour markets in 31 economies. It presents the dynamics of changes on the specialists' global market and indicates main challenges that face companies hiring skilled workers. Each component of the overall country's index has the same importance, and 'measures how much pressure different factors are exerting on the local labour market' (see <http://www.hays-index.com>). Higher scores mean that a country is experiencing more pressure than has historically been the case, and lower scores mean that a labour market is experiencing less pressure than has historically been the case.

According to Hays Global Skills Index, Poland is now recognized as a country having a fairly stable economy with large number of skilled workers, and therefore is able to attract global investments in manufacturing and IT. As it was previously mentioned, Poland is also perceived as an excellent location for shared services cen-

TABLE 2 Hays Global Skills Index 2012–2014

Country	2012	2013	2014
Germany	6.4	6.3	6.2
Spain	5.5	5.9	6.3
United Kingdom	5.0	5.2	5.1
France	4.5	5.2	5.2
China	5.5	5.0	5.0
Poland	5.2	5.2	5.0
Netherlands	4.2	4.3	4.8
Italy	3.3	3.6	3.9

NOTES Based on data from Hays plc (<http://www.hays-index.com>).

tres. However, there is still a significant mismatch between the skills and labour market expectations, and that is why many young people cannot find their first job for a long time after graduation. However, universities, local authorities and companies began to cooperate to fill this gap. The overall picture of Poland is similar to France, UK and China, but these countries face quite different problems. France is characterized by shortages of IT and sales professionals, especially at the management and executive level, whereas in the case of UK talent mismatch is visible, particularly prevalent in engineering and IT sectors. High demand for qualified professionals in many industries and occupations in Germany is in part filled by immigrants, however, 'industrial wage pressures continue to be an issue for the German labour market.' The need for employees in some Chinese industries, such as e-commerce, financial services and FMCG, has contributed to substantial staff shortages in some regions of the country. China, contrary to European countries, is unlikely to count on fill this gap by immigrants – mainly due to cultural differences. Hays also states that China loses its competitive advantage because of wage pressure. In turn, Italy is still struggling to manage high level of unemployment rate, and companies continue to face with the rigidity of the labour law and excessive bureaucracy. To sum up, it seems that the situation of Poland is relatively favourable. Although there is some mismatch in the labour market, Poland still offers large number of well-qualified staff compared to e.g. UK or France (see <http://www.hays-index.com>).

LOGISTICS

Another indicator taken into consideration is the Logistics Performance Index (LPI) that is prepared by World Bank, and it compares countries' logistic performance. The LPI is the weighted average of

TABLE 3 The Logistics Performance Index

Country	2007	2010	2012	2014
Germany	4.10	4.11	4.03	4.12
Netherlands	4.18	4.07	4.02	4.05
United Kingdom	3.99	3.95	3.90	4.01
France	3.76	3.84	3.85	3.85
Spain	3.52	3.63	3.70	3.72
Italy	3.58	3.64	3.67	3.69
China	3.32	3.49	3.52	3.53
Poland	3.04	3.44	3.43	3.49

NOTES Based on data from the World Bank (<http://lpi.worldbank.org>).

the country scores on the six key dimensions: overall customs, infrastructure, international shipments, logistics competence, tracking and tracing, and timeliness (see <http://lpi.worldbank.org>).

Table 3 indicates that Poland still presents the worst rating among analysed countries, although this location is continually catching up with its performance on trade logistics. In-depth analysis of the detailed data indicates that the biggest challenge for Poland is the quality of trade and transport related infrastructure, and both Poland as well as China are struggling for higher efficiency of the clearance process.

THE OVERALL INVESTMENT CLIMATE

The global competitiveness landscape will continue to undergo transformational changes that redefine the drivers of economic growth, wealth creation, national prosperity and security. As previously mentioned, favourable investment climate means that the country's actions are taken to minimize the costs and risks associated with doing business and the barriers that limit the development of entrepreneurship are removed. In order to compare the investment climate of Poland with the other countries, we used two indicators: the 2013 Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index (GMCI) and Ease of Doing Business rank. GMCI was prepared by Deloitte Group and includes more than 550 survey responses from manufacturing sector management teams, while Ease of Doing Business measures regulations directly affecting businesses, connected with e.g. starting a business, getting electricity or paying taxes (see <http://www.doingbusiness.org/rankings>).

Table 4 presents both Ease of Doing Business rank, as well as GMCI. Starting from the World Bank's index, it should be noted that in 2014 Poland was on the 30th place among 189 evaluated countries,

TABLE 4 Ease of Doing Business Index/Rank and Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index

Country	Ease of Doing Business rank		Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index	
	2014*	2015**	2013	5 years forecast
China	93	90	10.00	10.00
France	33	31	4.64	4.02
Germany	13	14	7.98	7.82
Italy	52	56	3.75	3.45
Netherlands	26	27	5.27	4.83
Poland	30	32	5.87	5.69
Spain	32	33	3.66	3.58
United Kingdom	9	8	5.81	5.59

NOTES * 189 countries. ** 185 countries. Based on data from the World Bank (<http://www.doingbusiness.org/rankings>) and Deloitte (2013).

while in Doing Business 2015, Poland recorded a 32nd position, directly ahead of Spain and behind France. Poland is still one of the worst evaluated countries in Europe in case of the time needed to enforce contracts receivables. Rating of Poland is also weak when it comes to starting a business (85th place – relatively high cost of start-up, high level of required capital and long period needed to start a business). Besides, Poland was classified on 137th place in terms of the procedures associated with obtaining building permits. Worth noting is high position of Poland among EU countries in case of the protection of investors and elements of corporate governance (see <http://www.doingbusiness.org/rankings>).

On the highest position among analysed countries was the United Kingdom (growth in 2015, from 9th at 8th place), with some problems with getting electricity and registering property. Companies operating in Germany (14th place) will not face difficulties with resolving insolvency and getting electricity, in contrary to starting a business (barely 114th place). The worst rated country is Italy, where investors have huge problems with paying taxes, enforcing contracts and dealing with construction permits. China, despite only 90th place in the ranking, belongs to the countries where in recent years was made significant progress in each of the analysed areas. However, companies in China have still enormous difficulties with e.g. construction permits, starting a business and protecting minority investors (see <http://www.doingbusiness.org/rankings>).

In the case of the second indicator – Manufacturing Competitiveness Index, rating of Poland is also fairly decent. However, China was

ranked as the most competitive manufacturing nation in the world in 2013 and in forecast for five years since the survey (among 38 countries ranked by executives), due to attractive market, government investments in manufacturing and innovation, great supplier network and still low cost of labour and materials. According to the Deloitte, decline of rating of all analysed countries is expected in the next years – except for China that will still occupy the first position. The only European country expected in the top 15 is Germany, which owes its high position to: healthcare system, legal and regulatory system, physical infrastructure and talent-driven innovations (Deloitte 2013).

Discussion and Conclusions

The diversity and specific nature of economic activity cause that it seems impossible to define ‘absolute’ investment attractiveness. However, there are some universal features/resources particularly sought by companies in the offshoring locations. Based on analysis of selected indicators and own reflections I have attempted to find the answers for three research questions outlined in the beginning of this paper. The first question concerned the level of attractiveness of Poland on the background of the selected countries. In the case of real labour costs and real labour productivity, Poland remains an attractive location in relation to Western European countries.

Of particular importance is the fact that productivity increased in recent years faster than labour costs, however, China still maintains a significant cost advantage. In the case of labour skills and quality, Poland has significant advantage over other analysed countries. It does not mean that there are no areas for improvement. Poland needs the necessary amendments at various institutional levels. Firstly, at the national level, policymakers must invest in infrastructure, which is much worse assessed than in China. This may translate into a significant reduction in logistics costs, improving business flexibility and the ability to respond faster to the rapidly changing customer demand. The huge progress in recent years in the area of infrastructure seems to be insufficient and there is still a lot of catching up ahead. Secondly, it is necessary to create such a system of education that will meet the investors’ expectations. The cost of labour is no longer the sole aspect to be taken into account – companies will continue to internationalize their activities but with greater sensitivity to other factors.

Based on conducted in this paper analysis, at least three possible

scenarios/effects of Western European companies' reshoring can be identified from the point of view of Poland:

- the wage gap between China and Poland becomes narrower, and Poland is catching up in other problematic areas (e.g. logistics); thus the transfer of previously offshored activities from Asia to the CEE region (including Poland) is possible, but the simultaneous preservation of cost advantage of CEE over Western European countries is necessary (near-reshoring);
- the attractiveness of Poland deteriorated in relation to China, what leads to withdrawal of Western European investments from Poland; some activities can be ultimately transferred to low-cost countries (further offshoring);
- production costs, both in Poland as well as China, are growing rapidly in relation to Western Europe, and in other areas are noticed still significant weaknesses. Therefore, Western European companies decide to relocate their business processes from China and Poland into their home markets (back-reshoring).

It is difficult to conclude which of characterized scenarios will certainly happen, and to precisely identify the effects of reshoring trend for Poland. However, it seems that wage pressure in China will continue to be maintained, what can in turn hinder the dynamics of European investments on the Chinese market. On the other hand, Chinese market is constantly increasing, and thus, many companies – despite higher unit costs, will stay in China to satisfy demand on this huge market. Another important issue is the facts that Chinese supply chains are perfectly coordinated, and if one supplier does not meet expectations of the contracting company, it is immediately replaced by another. Building of supply chains from scratch in the home countries would be often very burdensome. It seems also doubtful that in the next few years investors from Western Europe will reshore their production back to the home markets, where unit costs are significantly higher than in CEE or China. On the other hand, it seems that the importance of production costs will fall in the future due huge progress in automation. Poland, as we have mentioned, has many advantages over analysed countries, including e.g. growing productivity and still favourable labour costs, well-educated workforce and central location in Europe. Therefore, there are some symptoms that may indicate near-reshoring of Western European companies as the realistic scenario. Of course, it will depend largely on improvement in some areas of widely understood investment climate in Poland.

Reshoring has a dynamic character. The fact that a company relocates (partly or entirely) its activities to the home country or to home country's region, does not mean that the same company will not reconsider its strategy in a few years due to different international conditions. Although unit costs seem to remain the main factor affecting companies' relocations in the next few years key, in-depth analysis at the macro and individual sectors level would be necessary. On the other hand, each company may have different motivations (market, resource, efficiency or strategic asset seeking), and therefore, decision to what extent and how to operate in the foreign markets will be linked partially with other – more or less rational factors. It is still too early to accurately predict possible consequences of reshoring for CEE region because this phenomenon is still at an early stage. However, Poland and the entire region of Central and Eastern Europe, seem to be still very attractive for both capital as well as labour-intensive investments.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

We are aware that our study has some limitations. Conducted analysis concerned only selected countries – Poland was the only country from the CEE region, while China the only low-cost destination taken into account in the analysis. No distinction was also used for investments in the service and manufacturing sector and the entry modes. A separated analysis could provide inspiring conclusions. In addition, a factor taken into consideration does not constitute a complete list of drivers affecting companies' relocations. One of disregarded factors were cultural aspects that may have substantial impact on the international relocation processes. Besides, some countries faced with economic problems, which resulted in higher unemployment rates and dissatisfaction among societies. The effect of this was the emergence of a strong lobbying affecting the governments that have decided to introduce some incentives to companies considering back-reshoring (see e.g. <http://www.reshorennow.org>). This aspect is extremely difficult to measure, thus, it was not taken into account. Some companies involved in reshoring trend may be guided by other, still unknown motives, associated with e.g. mistaken managerial decisions. Internationalisation pattern of companies may evolve over time and it is necessary to consider it.

Further research is needed in order to investigate the motives, effects and the evolution of reshoring phenomenon – also in case of CEE region. Therefore, although the number of companies from CEE that decided to relocate their activities abroad is not as pro-

nounced as in the case of Western Europe, the cases of companies that have already reshored some of their operations from low-cost countries are becoming more frequent. Therefore, it would be interesting to thoroughly investigate the main firm-, industry- and country-specific factors which affected reshoring decision of this group of enterprises.

Notes

- 1 FDI flows are not the optimal measure of offshoring. As previously mentioned, they involve not only the acquisition of shares of foreign companies but also reinvested earnings and inter-corporate loans and credits. In addition, large part of the investments, in e.g. the service sector (telecommunications, financial services), may be associated with their providing on the local markets.
- 2 Luxembourg, as one of the world's largest offshore financial center, was deliberately excluded from the analysis.

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Methodology of Research on Internationalisation Process of E-Commerce Enterprises

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The aim of this article is to review research methodologies applied to the research related to the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises with a particular stress on the research resulting in the process description of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms. As a result of the critical analysis of the literature, qualitative methods were found to prevail in the research of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms along with the lack of the *processual* description of the internationalisation of such firms. The antipositivist ontology postulated by Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki (2014) seems to be the best approach to research on internationalisation process of e-commerce firms and is visible in interpretive perspective in methodology of already conducted research.

Key words: internationalisation process, e-commerce, methodology

Introduction

The article is aimed at the recognition of philosophical approaches to the research typical for management studies as well as research paradigms dominating the management studies. It has been assumed that the aforementioned approaches and paradigms can be transferred into one of the sub-fields of international business studies, i.e. the internationalisation of enterprises. Due to the particular interest of the author in the process description of internationalisation, assumptions of the process approach were identified (and, by contrast, the variance approach) to serve the process theorization of the studied phenomena. An inspiration for the conducted review of methodologies of research on the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises was drawn from the work by Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki (2014) where the authors paid particular attention to the reinstatement of the process nature of description of the internationalisation of enterprises.

Methodological Approaches to Research in the Science of Management and International Business

The management methodology draws from cognitive methods known in other branches of science; therefore, we can talk about the polymethodology in management sciences (Sułkowski 2011). Certain philosophers of science postulate the working out of a method specific for the given discipline, making it possible to research a section of reality in such a manner that it is possible to present certain knowledge; it is the scientist ideal of cognition (Amsterdamski 1983). However, management scientists rightly observe that these sciences cover many disciplines (economy, humanities), which makes the congruence of methods inescapable (Płoszajski 1985; Czarniawska 1981). What is more, management scientists modify and adapt the research methods known from other disciplines so extensively that it is frequently possible to talk about, at most, being inspired by them in order to work out their own method of research (Krzyżanowski 1999).

The selection of a method should be determined with the paradigm adopted by a scientist, in the case of management sciences, originating from such areas of philosophy as epistemology or ontology. Epistemology looks for answers to questions about the relationship between cognition, recognition and the reality while ontology describes the reality, as it is (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

Depending on the adopted philosophy of the research of reality and assumptions resulting from the adopted paradigm, the way questions and conclusions regarding the reality are formulated differently. In the works of Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Sobh and Perry (2005), this issue is being considered with regard to four paradigms: positivism, realism, critical theory and constructivism. As the positivist paradigm prevails in management sciences along with the interpretive paradigm not discussed by the said authors, this article analyses these two approaches.

Knowledge of positivism is a statistically generalized conclusion referring to the population, formulated based on results of the statistical analysis of the observation of the easily accessible reality (Sobh and Perry 2005). It results from the verification of hypotheses that can be considered as facts or laws regulating the reality (Guba and Lincoln 1994). The positivist ontology assumes that the surrounding reality is true and comprehensible. Characteristics of a scientist include the naive realism expressed in the conviction that there are unchangeable mechanisms and laws regulating the reality, as well as

the reductionism and determinism (Hesse 1980 in Guba and Lincoln 1994). The positivist epistemology assumes the independence of the scientist from the studied object, i.e. the scientist has no impact on the studied object and is not affected by it (Guba and Lincoln 1994). The characteristic objectivism also results from the harmonization of procedures and the method of observation of the reality; the scientist observes as if through a one-way mirror that guarantees impartiality (Sobh and Perry 2005). Irrespectively of the adopted philosophical perspective, typical research methods applied to attain the assumptions of the positivist paradigm include quantitative and statistical methods while the objective of the research itself is to explain the essence of a problem through induction and deduction (Sułkowski 2011; Guba and Lincoln 1994).

According to the interpretivism, knowledge is a result of subjective understanding of the reality while the reality is complex and relative (Hudson and Ozanne 1988; Sułkowski 2011). It is assumed that a scientist has no direct access to the reality, thus the acquisition of knowledge of that reality results from the accurate application of interpretive research procedures (Carson et al. 2001). Data are collected with the use of qualitative, non-structured methods and not to predict but rather to explain (Sułkowski 2011). Applied raw data collection methods include interviews (one-to-one focused group interview) and case studies. According to interpretive approach, the scientist freely uses his experience and previously gained knowledge (Levy 2007).

The collected data require some 'processing' (Miles and Huberman 1994 in Levy 2007) and should be used to prepare the 'thick description' or an accurate description of the studied phenomenon with a particular stress on the context of events (Geertz 1973) as a part of which the phenomenon is explored and understood (Carson et al. 2001).

Main objections related to positivist methods include their lack of flexibility (inability to introduce changes to the research structure while it lasts) and the limited usefulness for the study of processes (Sułkowski 2011), which makes their effectiveness and usefulness in the research related to social sciences doubtful (Sobh and Perry 2005). Weaknesses of interpretive methods include the lack of uniformity that hinders the comparability of results and the inability to study mass phenomena and processes. Due to the strong commitment and the lack of objectivism of the scientist, the reliability of results and the ethics of the scientist's attitude may be impaired (Babbie 2003 in Sułkowski 2011).

Process Approach to the Research of the Internationalisation of Enterprises

Basic approaches to research in social sciences include the variance approach and the process approach. Differences between them result from different epistemological assumptions, tools used according to a given theory and phenomena they refer to. In particular, these differences are visible (Gabryś 2011; Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki 2014):

- In the way questions referring to a phenomenon are asked;
- In the unit subjected to the analysis;
- In the adopted time structure of the research;
- In applied research methods.

Therefore, the variance model originates from assumptions typical for the positivism and is characterized by the question about *what* constitutes the cause or effect of the studied phenomenon. The answer to such a question explains what entry factors or independent variables cause the differentiation within the research sample. Hence, quantitative methods constitute the dominating method of research, in particular, the regression models in which variables analysed are independent from quantifiable time units. Therefore, the variability model allows for the explanation of dependencies between the variable X and variable Y but not for the capturing of a process-taking place between them. The fact that the cause X results in the consequence Y results from deduction rather than direct observation (Mohr 1982; Pentland 1999 in Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki 2014).

Assumptions of the process model have their source not only in the positivism but also in non-positivist philosophies. The explanatory purpose is to get an answer to the question *how* and *why* the studied phenomena emerged, developed and ended in the given period of time. The process approach refers strictly to the definition of a process: it studies a sequence of events in time; therefore, an event is the unit of analysis. The identification and analysis of events is possible thanks to the application of research methods such as longitudinal quantitative methods (e.g. panel data models) quantitative methods considering the long-term perspective and multiple points in time (e.g. longitudinal case study, narrative analysis) (Van de Ven 2007; Langley 1999; Pentland 1999; Poole, Van de Ven, and Dooley 2000).

Irrespective of the philosophical perspective adopted by the scientist, the greatest challenge related to the description of a process

in line with the process approach is in the identification of the mechanism explaining the sequence of events. It is increasingly common to believe that the result of theorizing the process can be determined at a certain point of the continuum presenting different levels of power of the theory (Dawson 2003; Langlely 2009; Rescher 1996):

- Weak – when the theory of the process is contained in the model describing individual phases of development;
- Stronger – when the theory of the process discloses the mechanism determining individual phases in the described model;
- Strongest – when the theory has its bases in the anti-positivist ontology originating from the metaphysics of the process.

Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki (2014) criticized the previous research on the process of the internationalization of enterprises. In the most current and most extensive literature review so far (covering more than 200 works from nearly 40 years), they demonstrated that there is little research on the basis of which the internationalization of enterprises would be described as a process: only 27% of total research. They also suggested the introduction of six issues that should be considered in order for the future research on the internationalisation process to be more exhaustive and incorporated in the assumptions of the process model. These are:

- The expansion of the temporal boundaries of the enterprise internationalisation process thanks to the consideration of the phenomena of de-internationalisation and re-internationalisation (Welch and Welch 2009);
- Focusing the research also on further stages of internationalisation – up till now, changes taking place in an enterprise after its introduction to a foreign market were not analysed in most studies, contrary to changes taking place at the initial stages of expansion (Agndal and Chetty 2007; Morgan-Thomas and Jones 2009; Prashantham and Young 2011);
- The study of micro-processes taking place in the course of the internationalisation of functions, individual product lines, a team or branch of an enterprise (Buckley and Chapman 1997);
- The consideration of a wider range of data points on the growth trajectory – the sequence of introduction to foreign markets and the choice of the form of introduction dominating in the research were supplemented by Luostarinen (1980) who added the evolution of the product strategy described in the POM model (product – operation mode – market); the same author also called for the inclusion of a wider range of data points in the analysis;

- Non-linear internationalisation – deviation from the assumption of continuity of the enterprise internationalisation process that can be interrupted as a result of turbulences (Visaak 2010), crises (McGaughey 2007) or changes taking place in the enterprise in the course of the internationalisation, thus offering a wider context of the object of research (Nummela, Loane, and Bell 2006);
- Co-evolution that requires the internationalisation to be presented not only in a wider context but also with reference to the dynamics of that process.

The above-mentioned list does not include one of the most significant issues, i.e. the importance of longitudinal research for the theorization of the internationalisation process. The importance of dynamics in the understanding of export behaviours has already been mentioned by Reid (1981); in spite of this fact, McAuley (2010) continued to indicate the omission of time in the research as one of dimensions of internationalisation 30 years later. What causes such an attitude of researchers to this issue? According to Avital (2000) who interviewed researchers, the problem results from positivist research assumptions that preclude the introduction of the dimension of time to the research (Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki 2014).

Therefore, how can the most popular research methods be improved in order to be able to formulate a theory of the process? It is possible to start with the introduction of time as a point of reference to collect and analyse data sources in the case study method (Blazewski 2011). The combination of historical methods with methods known from the grounded theory (Burgelman 2011) or the narrative analysis (McGaughey 2007; Middleton, Liesch, and Steen 2011) also seems to be good solutions. Quantitative methods rarely observed in the research on the internationalisation such as the panel research can be effective in the formulation of the process only thanks to proper data analysis. To this end, one should use available modern methodological tools, e.g. agent-based simulation models (Anderson 1999).

The Review of Methods of Research on the Internationalisation of E-Commerce Enterprises

Both the foreign and the Polish literature contain few works regarding the process of internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises in the strict sense. The international research on the e-commerce sector is limited to the determination of differences in the prefer-

ences of consumers from different countries (Hwang and Jung 2006), limitations of internationalisation of e-commerce firms (Henari and Mahboob 2008; Abbad, Abbad, and Saleh 2011; El Said and Galal-Edeen 2009) or the influence of the e-business adaptation to sales increase and exports of traditional small and medium enterprises (Hinson and Sorenson 2006; Helgueros 2012). Additionally, factors are known that influence the choice of an e-business model and strategy of a firm (Chung-Shing 2001). The research by Polish authors also concentrates on consumer preferences of the Polish e-customers and do not discuss the internationalisation process (Kolny, Kucia, and Stolecka 2011; Jaciow and Wolny 2011). Most of such studies were exploratory and, at the same time, quantitative research methods and statistical data analysis prevailed.

Empirical research related to the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises conducted so far is presented in table 1 with their methodology and research results. The literature review covers papers found in EBSCO, Elsevier and Emerald databases excluding those in which the perspective of the network approach to internationalisation was adopted (i.e. Overby and Min 2001).

As we can see, the interpretive approach prevails in the methodology of research related to the internationalisation of e-commerce firms. Few studies aim at the clarification of dependencies between variables, which is typical for positivist attitudes (Kotha, Rindova, and Rothaermel 2001; Kim 2003). In most cases, researchers aim at the understanding of phenomena occurring in a wider context and describe them in the form of a rich, retrospective narration (Yamin and Sinkovics 2006; Foscht, Swoboda, and Morschett 2006).

However, none of these studies attempt to describe the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises as a *process*. In fact, only two studies explain the characteristics of this process in relation to the U-model: Kim (2003) as well as Forsgren and Hagström (2007). Kim (2003) identified patterns and features of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms based on the research whose procedure was based on the variance model. Results show *how* the analysed firms internationalised their operations (when it comes to geographical distance, entry modes and sequence of entry to foreign markets), however, there is no answer *why* these and not other steps were taken (the author only makes presumptions). The historical data mentioned made it possible to observe certain paths and compare the speed of internationalisation of e-commerce firms with the speed of internationalisation of firms studied by Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul (1975) as well as Johanson and Vahlne (1977).

TABLE 1 Review of Selected Research on the Internationalisation Process in E-Commerce Enterprises

Author	Research objective	Research methodology
Wymbs (2000)	Determination of the influence of e-commerce on the transformation and internationalisation of service firms	(1) identification of factors driving the globalisation and transformation of the service sector (2) exploratory (3) critical analysis of literature (4) review of secondary data (5) descriptive analysis
Kotha, Rindova, and Rothaermel (2001)	Identification of the influence of selected factors on the propensity of e-commerce firms for internationalisation	(1) firm-specific factors and their influence on the internationalisation of e-commerce firms (2) exploratory and explanatory (3) review of secondary sources of information, quantitative methods (4) review of secondary data (5) statistical analysis
Kim (2003)	Verification of the applicability of the processual model with regard to the internationalisation of e-commerce firms and its influence	(1) internationalisation of e-commerce firms (2) exploratory and explanatory (3) mixed methods (multiple case study, quantitative research) (4) review of secondary data (5) qualitative content analysis; statistical analysis

Continued on the next page

To verify the relation between the internationalisation of individual firms taking part in the research and the influence of psychological distance on such internationalisation, a range of quantitative methods of data analysis were used. On that basis, it is indicated that the internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises are likely to be a process taking place in stages, however, without the distinguishing of such stages. Even though it should be remembered that the research did not aim at the process description but rather at the possibility of the application of the Uppsala model to e-commerce firms, the Kim's (2003) analyses lack the issue of a mechanism applied between individual stages and the process dynamics while these components distinguish the U-model from other models of the internationalisation of enterprises (Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki 2014).

Forsgren and Hagström (2007) focused on the behaviour of e-commerce enterprises during their internationalisation as well as the degree in which such behaviour can be explained with mechanisms known from the Uppsala model. Therefore, we can see that Forsgren and Hagström (2007) go beyond the 'economic approach'

TABLE 1 *Continued from the previous page*

Author	Research objective	Research methodology
Grant and Bakhru (2004)	identification of limitations of the internationalisation of e-commerce firms	(1) international strategies of e-commerce firms and e-business models (2) exploratory (3) review of secondary sources of information, case study (4) review of secondary data (5) qualitative descriptive analysis
Foscht, Swoboda, and Morschett (2006)	determination of the dynamics of the internationalisation of e-commerce firm	(1) dynamic internationalization of niche-oriented small firm (2) exploratory (3) case study (4) review of secondary data (5) qualitative descriptive analysis
Yamin and Sinkovics (2006)	determination of the influence of internationalisation of e-commerce firms on the disappearance of psychic distance and the appearance of a 'virtual trap'	(1) perception of psychic distance in the internationalisation of e-commerce firms (2) exploratory (3) case study (4) in-depth interviews (5) qualitative descriptive analysis
Forsgren and Hagström (2007)	confrontation of the process of internationalisation of e-commerce firms with the process described in the Uppsala model	(1) internationalisation behaviour of firms (2) exploratory (3) multiple case study (4) data triangulation (5) qualitative descriptive analysis

NOTES (1) research object, (2) research type, (3) research method, (4) data collection technique, (5) method of data analysis.

to the internationalisation that is limited to the explanation of the choice of a specific mode of entry to foreign markets and location of the production. The tradition of the internationalisation as a process is deeply embedded in the behavioural perspective, covering human behaviour and decision-making. According to this tradition, the internationalisation is conceptualised as a sequence of entries to foreign markets dependent on the path of internationalisation considered in time (rather than a sum of separate selections of entry modes) (Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki 2014).

Unlike the research conducted by Kim (2003), the research by Forsgren and Hagström (2007) is intended to be an introduction to the longitudinal research. It is true that the time horizon of the analysed research is limited (5 years) but the note about the longitudinal perspective offers prospects for the correct theorization of the process. Even though the philosophical position of researchers is not explicit, the adopted methodology allows it to be described as the

anti-positivist ontology necessary to attain the highest form of the process theorization.

The research method used by Forsgren and Hagström (2007) is the multiple case study whose goal (on this stage of the research considering the assumption of its longitudinal nature) is related to theory testing. Only one research question was asked, which results not from the adopted philosophical attitude or assumptions of the established theory but rather from the specific goal of the research: verification whether the Uppsala model reflects the internationalisation of companies whose business is related to the Internet. Therefore, assumptions known from the U-model were adopted and cases were analysed with regard to them.

The selection of cases was based on the variety criterion; the activities of all the firms studied is related to the Internet, however, the nature of assets, business model and the activity sector is different for each of them. The realization of the variety criterion is not systematic, i.e. the number of service and commercial firms is not equal, just like the number of firms offering a digital commodity or service. As regards the goal of the research, only the fact that the activity was related to the Internet and the internationalisation of the activity was material (Forsgren and Hagström 2007).

Secondary and primary data collected by researchers were used selectively in order to stress selected issues only; therefore, it is not possible to relate to the 'depth' of description of individual cases. Researchers were aware that the exploratory conclusions drawn by them could be used, at most, to formulate hypotheses for further research and not to test them with the use of the case study method (Forsgren and Hagström 2007).

Forsgren and Hagström (2007) also indicated the discontinuity of the internationalisation of analysed e-commerce firms and the limited incremental nature of the process. Reference was made to the role of knowledge, experience, risk and attitude of the manager as the motive powers of the internationalisation process; the role of psychological distance in the analysed process was also discussed. The authors also mentioned the co-evolution aspect. In order to be able to talk about an exhaustive analysis of the process, one should additionally recognize stages of the internationalisation of analysed firms and discover mechanisms occurring between them.

Conclusions

The approach to the description of the internationalisation of enterprises prevailing in the literature concerned with this subject is that

the internationalisation is treated as a process. As demonstrated by Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki (2014), there are few studies in which authors managed to present the internationalisation of analysed enterprises as a process due to improperly selected research methods (that did not allow for the longitudinal frame of the process), poorly formulated questions or deficient interpretation of results (based on the variance model).

In turn, the process of internationalisation of e-commerce enterprises has only been researched by a few scientists so far (Forsgren and Hagström 2007; Kim 2003) and the perspective they adopted, i.e. in reference to the Uppsala model, slightly limited the extent of the analysis. It would be a much better to consider certain assumptions of the grounded theory, for example, the assumption of the lack of preconceptions (Glaser and Strauss 1967 in Konecki 2000). It is especially true in case of e-commerce firms where we have to do with two issues not encountered earlier: a digital product and the lack of borders in the virtual world. The combination of assumptions of the grounded theory with historical methods was also mentioned by Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki (2014) citing Burgelman (2011) in the context of the use of data in the processual manner.

All combinations of research methods and techniques seem risky in the research on the internationalisation of enterprises, which is an area dominated by qualitative methods. As demonstrated by Welch and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki (2014), they can entail the loss of a processual nature of conclusions or theories. An example of the deprivation of an analysis of its processual nature can also be found in the case of the research on the internationalisation of e-commerce firms (see Kim 2003). However, there is no use to invoke the methodological 'fundamentalism' that restricts the research to the one and only proper methodology. Methodological reflection should be strengthened but methodology diverted from practice or from a specific research object will not offer expected results in the form of reliable knowledge. Therefore, the balance between the pluralism and stringency of research methods has to be retained (Sułkowski 2011).

Without the definition of a paradigm and philosophical sources of that paradigm, a researcher risks an incorrect choice or a failed mix of research methods. Each paradigm presents a partial view of the reality (Astley and Van de Ven 1983), which is why the synthesis of paradigms is not possible (Burrell and Morgan 1979). However, the understanding of the essence of a phenomenon based on two perspectives makes it possible to notice what is unconscious; because of that, opposing paradigms can complement each other (Astley and

Van de Ven 1983). This approach is particularly important in the research on a multi-aspect phenomenon such as the internationalisation of enterprises. This process consists of a range of many processes, many of them opposing each other (Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki 2014). This is why the definition of the philosophical position should be the exit point when planning the methodology of research on the internationalisation of enterprises – in particular, related to e-commerce enterprises where the differentiation of the speed of the process may be shaped by the 'new' product type, i.e. a digital product. The antipositivist ontology suggested by Welch and Paavilainen Mäntymäki (2014) is visible in methodology of already conducted research on internationalization process of e-commerce firms and seems to be the best approach to this research.

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Development of Modes of Cooperation: An Opportunity for Open Innovation Alliances in Polish Biopharmaceutical Industry

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This article presents development of modes of cooperation in biopharmaceutical industry, referring to the latest data from the ASAP (the Association of Strategic Alliance Professionals). Examples of different modes of cooperation in contemporary economy as well as potential cooperation between academia, institutions and business in the field of biopharmaceutical industry in Poland are discussed. Biopharmaceutical companies try to implement new strategies to transfer their research processes to a higher level, often using open innovation model as an additional tool for developing new products and services. Thanks to the cooperation with universities in the framework of open innovation alliances, through joint work with academic researchers, biopharmaceutical companies are more successful in identifying disease mechanisms, implementation of better medical therapy for patients as well as in development of new drugs.

Key words: alliances and joint ventures, biopharma, biotechnological cluster, science and technology parks, public-private partnerships, open innovation, open innovation alliance

Introduction

We can find many interesting publications on technological cooperation between companies in the economic and management literature: the distinction between cooperation based on the transfer and exchange of technology, R&D arrangements and joint-ventures (Auster 1987; Casson 1987; Chesnais 1988; Contractor and Lorange 1988a). Technological agreement can be divided from one-directional to the ones that are based on strong relationships between companies, e.g. joint-ventures, research corporations, on the other hand, those which require less organizational dependencies (contractual arrangements such as joint R&D agreements or technology exchange agreements). Many studies have shown that these

types of technological cooperation have different effects on the nature of the sharing of technology, level of competitiveness, organizational aspects and the possible economic consequences for the companies participating in cooperation (Auster 1987; Root 1988; Contractor and Lorange 1988b; Hagedoorn 1990; Hagedoorn, Link, and Vonortas 2000; Gomes-Casseres, Hagedoorn, and Jaffe 2006; De Man and Duysters 2007; De Man, Duysters, and Neyes, 2009; Puślecki 2010). Technological cooperation is a very important channel of diffusion of knowledge in both sectors: public and private. Companies in an increasing way try to use global strategic partnerships in order to strengthen its position, enhance core competencies and skills and acquire new technologies. Through this partnership they can gain new opportunities to share the risk of the development of new technologies, on new, emerging markets (Puślecki 2010; 2012).

Strategic alliances can be defined as a special mode of cooperation between at least two parties (competitors or partners) operating in the same or related sectors with the aim of achieving common goals which have been set up with the use of available resources, while preserving the autonomy of each partner, in a range of fields and areas not covered by the partnership agreement (Gomes-Casseres 1996; Das 2005). The alliances are typically formed between two firms but can be also created with universities, research institutes, nonprofit research organizations, or government institutions (Baum, Calabrese, and Silverman 2000). Taking into account strategic technology alliances, they are implemented primarily through joint ventures (an alliance of two or more participants forming a separate entity with the aim of achieving common goals); so-called equity alliances; or, within capital alliances and R&D cooperation agreements, so-called non-equity alliances. Technological alliances are understood as strategic if they improve the long-term perspective of the product market combinations for at least one company involved in cooperation. Technological partnerships are defined as a form of cooperation which includes at least some innovative activity or an exchange of technology between partners (Duysters and Hagedoorn 2000).

The challenges of contemporary world economy require more advanced and complex alliances between companies that can deliver new products and services as fast as possible on different markets. That is why the constellation of cooperation nowadays contains higher number of global strategic relationships with the involvement of many parties. Biopharmaceutical companies (BioPharma companies) thanks to multiparty cooperation can gain significant synergy

effects, as well as reduce the risk of conducted joint research and projects. Through new and innovative paths of development and successful strategies of transfer of research results, in recent years, biopharmaceutical companies have developed new models of collaboration, including not only alliances with partners from industry but also with universities and academic research institutes as well as open innovation alliances, public-private partnerships and cross-industry alliances. Thank to that modes of cooperation it was possible for them to obtain a much more advanced research results in both preclinical and clinical stages. The effect of such actions can be jointly developed new drugs proposals, with significant reduction of R&D costs and faster delivery of new solutions and technologies to the market than before (Lavietes 2012).

This conceptual paper presents development of cooperation modes of companies, based on the latest data from the ASAP (the Association of Strategic Alliance Professionals) and on initial research conducted in Polish biopharmaceutical industry (Puślecki and Staszaków 2015). The second chapter of the paper constitutes a theoretical base of the analysis and is devoted to the different theoretical approaches to the phenomena of open innovation and open innovation alliances as well as describes development of modes of cooperation between companies, universities and institutions. The third chapter presents examples of open innovation alliances and different modes of cooperation in biopharmaceutical industry in contemporary economy. The fourth chapter presents potential cooperation paths for Polish companies, universities and research institutes and discuss the concept of development of open innovation alliances in Poland as well as creation of open innovation alliance network in Polish biopharmaceutical industry. Taking into consideration significant results of such cooperation in form of open innovation alliances, as well as public-private partnerships and research consortia in us and UK in biopharma industry (especially in drug discovery and implementation of new biopharmaceutical products) and the potential of Polish biopharmaceutical industry it can be assumed that open innovation alliances in Poland might be implemented. The last part of paper contains conclusions and discussion.

Development of Modes of Cooperation in Biopharma

The development of innovative projects and services requires from companies the use of modern models of partnerships based on the principles of Open Innovation. Chesbrough (2003) defines 'open innovation' as the paradigm stating that companies can and should use

external and internal ideas, as well as internal and external paths to market. According to the latest definition by Chesbrough open innovation is 'a distributed innovation process based on purposively managed knowledge flows across organizational boundaries, using pecuniary and non-pecuniary mechanisms in line with each organization's business model' (Chesbrough and Bogers 2014). This concept can be used in bilateral and multilateral alliances. Open innovation model is more dynamic than traditional alliances, because partners in alliance are not in fact identified in the conventional, purposeful way. Relationships rely more on the exchange of knowledge and ideas during the period preceding the creation of the alliance. The main aim of open innovation alliances is to support the free flow of knowledge and ideas that will lead to the creation of partnerships aimed not only at joint innovation, but also at risk and profit sharing (Wilks and Prothmann 2012). The results of research on open innovation have shown how firms manage both the inflows and outflows of knowledge and how they search for partners and the innovations they provide (Culpan 2014; West 2014). In last years we can also observe how companies in specific industries (like biopharma) use the model of open innovation to create open innovation alliances not only with firms from the same or other industry but also with universities, individuals, communities or other organizations (DeWitt and Burke 2012; OECD 2012; Wilks and Prothmann 2012). Companies have defined and implemented open innovation in a number of ways, including building innovative ecosystems or innovations for users, crowdsourcing or through the creation of joint development alliances. Open innovation alliances may include partnerships between profit-based companies and non-profit organizations (e.g. universities). This form of cooperation in recent years has aroused increasing interest of biopharmaceutical companies. Moreover biotechnology and pharmaceutical companies are more involved in multilateral cooperation in the framework of knowledge networks or open innovation alliances, cross-industry alliances as well as public-private partnerships (for instance Pfizer or GlaxoSmithKline) (OECD 2012; Puślecki and Staszów 2015; Wilks and Prothmann 2012).

Biopharmaceutical companies have developed cooperation with universities for many years. At the beginning, the cooperation covered mainly individual, single projects, from small research projects to large clinical trials. Afterwards the companies entered alliances with individual academic institutions, covering a wider range of cooperation, through: research programs, clinical trials and translational research, with the aim to transfer the results of basic re-

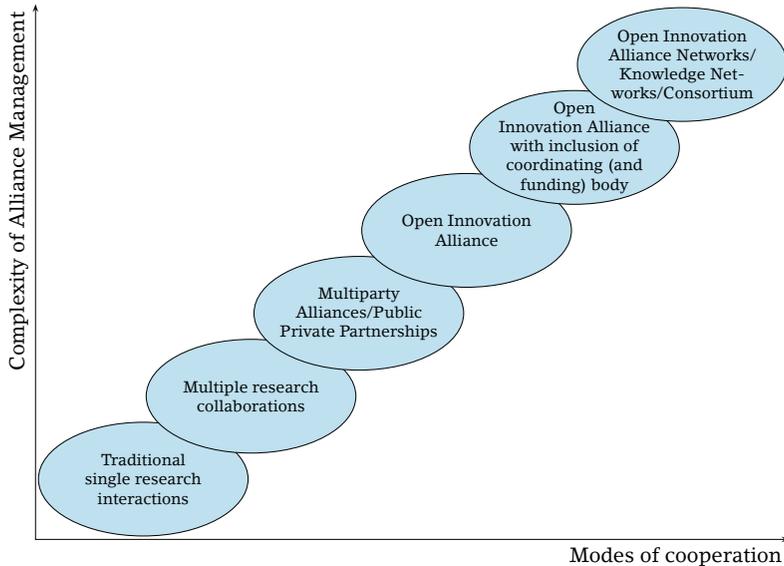


FIGURE 1 Development and Complexity of Different Biopharma-University Multiparty Alliances and Partnerships

search to practical application. Companies also increasingly began to use different models of alliances, from individual links in research projects to multilateral agreements involving multiple research projects, including various models for open innovation, for example where the main role of an academic institution was the coordination and sometimes funding of other institutions. Compared to existing models of alliances the organizational fluidity of open innovation initiatives as well as multiparty relations increase the complexity in the management of alliances (figure 1). The alliance management in open innovation alliances plays a central role, especially in defining the alliance portal and framework. The use of open innovation model can significantly speed up the production process of new drugs and biotechnology products. Moreover involvement in the cooperation of more interdisciplinary academic teams may also accelerate and support this process (Laviertes 2012; Wilks and Prothmann 2012).

Examples of Different Modes of Cooperation in the Biopharmaceutical Industry

In recent years we can observe a wider range of open innovation model and other forms of partnerships (public-private partnerships, consortia, cross-industry alliances) used by biopharmaceutical com-

panies for therapeutic interventions for patients and new drug proposals (table 1). Examples of such alliances can be seen as a pioneer in testing models of multilateral alliances for the development of drugs (drug development alliances). The goal of these partnerships is to understand the mechanisms of diseases and the discovery of new utility of existing drugs that beyond their current curative role will allow identification and development of new drugs (Lavietes 2012; Wilks and Prothmann 2012).

Analyzing examples of partnerships in biopharmaceutical industry presented in table 1 we can observe different modes of cooperation: open innovation alliances, public-private partnerships, consortia, pharma-university alliances, cross-industry alliances as well as different entities involved in cooperation including: governments, universities and research institutes, foundations, funds, banks and organizations.

This kind of constellation of partners is very sensitive and difficult to manage, the problem of one entity or organization could affect all partnership and have negative effect on delivery of new drugs or new medical therapies. As multiparty alliances they require even greater competences and skills of alliance managers and appropriate alliance management tools. On the other hand being a part of such constellation, thanks to significant synergy effects, gives the partners access to huge innovative potential and to more market opportunities, which helps them to innovate, accelerate growth and expand into new promising markets (DeWitt and Burke 2012; 2013; Fraser 2014).

Possible Application of Open Innovation Alliance Model in Polish Biopharmaceutical Industry

Taking into account the pharmaceutical and biotechnology industries they can be perceived as one of the most innovative sectors in Poland. The Polish pharmaceutical market is one of the industries with the longest tradition. It has undergone a number of fundamental changes in the last twenty years (change in ownership structure, new regulations, growing role of foreign pharmaceutical companies as investors). Following the data included in the report on pharmaceutical market in Poland, provided by Espicom Business Intelligence company and published by Polish Information and Foreign Investment Agency (PAIIZ 2011), over the past 10 years, the pharmaceutical market in Poland recorded a steady growth and reached PLN 22.3 billion in 2011. In comparison with the previous year, sales increased by an impressive 11%. The average annual growth rate in

TABLE 1 Examples of Modes of Cooperation in Biopharma

Partners	Mode	Aim
AstraZeneca + us National Cancer Institute + uk National Cancer Research Network + Cancer Research uk.	Open Innovation Alliance with a coordinating body.	Initially oncology collaborations.
AstraZeneca + uk Medical Research Council (MRC).	Open Innovation Alliance with a coordinating and founding body (crowdsourcing).	Crowdsourcing agreement for experimental drugs to researchers.
NIH's new National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (NCATS) + multiple biopharmaceutical companies.	Open Innovation Alliance.	Provide academic investigators with funding and access to drug candidates to explore new treatments for patients.
World Health Organization (WHO) + UNICEF + World Bank + Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation + Biopharma companies.	Public-Private Partnership.	GAVI Alliance (Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization) to deliver needed vaccines to children in developing countries, particularly in Africa and Asia (http://www.gavi.org).
National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland + Pfizer + four Scottish Universities.	Public-Private Partnership.	Translational Medicine Research Collaboration (TMRC).
14 academic research institutions + 8 pharmaceutical industry research organizations + biotech company.	Public-Private Consortium.	Innovative Medicines Initiative for Diabetes (IMI12) seeks to lay the foundation for a paradigm shift in the treatment of diabetes, from symptomatic to pancreatic beta-cell-focused cure of pandemic disease (www.imidia.org).
Innovative Medicines Initiative (IMI2).	World biggest Public-Private Partnership in the life sciences.	€3 Billion partnership launched in 2014 for period 2012-2024. The goal of IMI2 is to ensure that research conducted is translated into implementable solutions to current healthcare challenges. IMI2 aims to deliver: (1) a 30% better success rate in clinical trials of priority medicines identified by the WHO, (2) clinical proof of concept in immunological, respiratory, neurological and neurodegenerative diseases in just five years, (3) new and approved diagnostic markers for four of these diseases and at least two new medicines which could either be new antibiotics or new therapies for Alzheimer's disease (www.imi.europa.eu/content/imi-2).

Continued on the next page

TABLE 1 *Continued from the previous page*

Partners	Mode	Aim
Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFAM) – partnership between governments, civil society, private sector (including businesses and foundations), and affected communities.	Public-Private Partnership.	The Global Fund is accelerating the end of AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria as epidemics (www.theglobalfund.org).
GlaxoSmithKline + AstraZeneca + Sanofi + Janssen + Basilea Pharmaceutica + leading academic institutions.	Pharma-University Alliance.	Development of new antibiotics to combat the growing problem of drug resistant microbes.
Pfizer + Eli Lilly + AstraZeneca + National Institutes of Health's National Clinical and Translational Sciences (US).	Pharma-University Alliance.	Awarding grants to fund preclinical and clinical feasibility studies for new uses of more than 20 compounds shelved by the pharmaceutical companies because they failed to work in the diseases for which they were being pursued.
GlaxoSmithKline (GSK) + Gustave Roussy (Villejuif, France) + University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center (Houston, TX) + Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center (New York) + Netherlands Cancer Institute (Amsterdam) + Princess Margaret Cancer Centre, University Health Network (Toronto) + Vall d'Hebron Institute of Oncology-VHIO (Barcelona).	Consortium.	OncologyClinical and Translational Consortium (OCTC).
Pharmaceutical Product Development (PPD) + Virtual Scopics, Inc.	Cross-Industry Alliance (Biopharma + IT).	Expand successful strategic alliance in clinical and medical imaging services across multiple therapeutic areas to now include oncology, central nervous system, cardiovascular, general medicine, and medical devices.
GE Healthcare + M+W Group.	Cross-Industry Alliance (Biopharma/Healthcare + Engineering/Construction).	Strategic alliance aimed at overcoming the lack of key biopharmaceuticals in emerging nations. The alliance will combine GE Healthcare's expertise in technologies for biopharmaceutical manufacture with M+W Group's global capabilities in bioengineering and construction in order to assist countries worldwide to become self-sufficient in the manufacture of vital biopharmaceuticals such as vaccines, insulin, and biosimilars.

NOTES Based on data from ASAP (<http://www.strategic-alliances.org>), DeWitt and Burke (2012), Wilks and Prothmann (2012) and Burke (2013).

Development of Modes of Cooperation

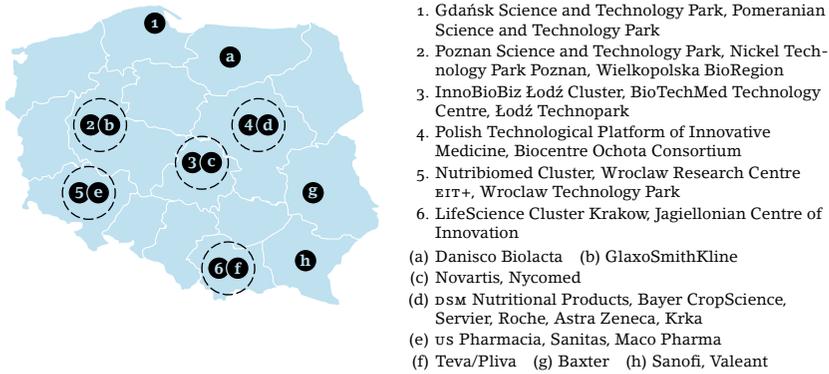


FIGURE 2 The Biggest FDI in the Pharmaceutical Industry and Location of Biopharmaceutical Clusters (letters) and STPs (numbers) and Possible Open Innovation Alliances (OIA, dashed circles) in Poland (based on PAIIZ 2012)

the period 2003–2010 was 6.5%. The estimated value will probably reach more than 60 billion PLN by 2016 (current prices). Poland is the largest pharmaceutical market in Central and Eastern Europe (and the sixth in Europe). Nearly 33% of pharmaceutical and biotechnology companies have their headquarters in the Mazowieckie Region (Warsaw). Almost 80% of all companies can be classified as micro-enterprises (PAIIZ 2011; 2012).

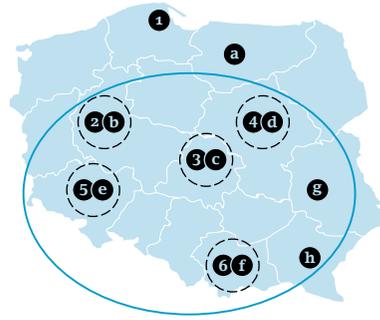
Following the results of the PwC (2011) study any innovative pharmaceutical company participates on average in at least 5 projects aimed at building a coalition inside the industry. In Poland we can find number of clusters and numerous science and technology parks (STPs), that offer the infrastructure for the development of innovative biotechnological and pharmaceutical products – in particular, the laboratory space.

We can distinguish following clusters and STPs operating in biopharma in Poland: Poznan Science and Technology Park, Nickel Technology Park Poznan, Wielkopolska BioRegion, Gdansk Science and Technology Park, Pomeranian Science and Technology Park, InnoBioBiz Lodz Cluster, BioTechMed Technology Centre, Lodz Technopark, Polish Technological Platform of Innovative Medicine, Biocentre Ochota Consortium, Nutribiomed Cluster, Wrocław Research Centre EIT+, Wrocław Technology Park, LifeScience Cluster Krakow, Jagiellonian Centre of Innovation (Puślecki and Staszków 2015; Staszków 2013) (figure 2).

Taking into account the number of entities involved in Polish biopharmaceutical industry, especially pharmaceutical companies,

FIGURE 3

Possible Open Innovation Alliances (OIA, dashed circles) and Open Innovation Alliance Network (blue ellipse) in Poland



universities and research institutes, clusters and STPs, it can be concluded that they can successfully apply the model of cooperation based on open innovation alliances (figure 3), in particular in biotechnology clusters, for example in the Life Science Park in Cracow or Lodz BioNanoPark or in Nickel Biocentrum in Poznan (Puślecki and Staszaków 2015). This topic will be further investigated by author and his research team in the future research, conducted in Poland and in selected CEE countries.

Participation of a coordinating institution (for instance cluster or STP or national academic institution) can improve the process of communication, strengthen the introduction of standardization and create networks and processes of academic institutions who are willing to form an alliance within or with the cluster. It can contribute to greater efficiency of scientific, cultural, economic, and most of all innovative potential. The development of cooperation with universities and research institutes may result for companies in a faster process of products' commercialization or obtaining test results faster, which is very important in the development of new biotechnology and pharmaceutical products. This can be realized by creation of open innovation alliances with interdisciplinary research teams. There should be also considered the development of multi-party alliances between academia, institutions and business through creation of open innovation alliance network in Poland (multilateral cooperation between all biotechnology clusters, STPs, universities and research institutes as well as pharmaceutical companies) (figure 4).

Implementation of joint activities between all the partners, including appropriate alliance management tools and multiparty alliance strategies can contribute to the dynamic development of the biopharmaceutical industry in Poland, as well as better use of research and innovative potential of all parties, involved in cooperation, in delivering new products, services and better therapies for patients.

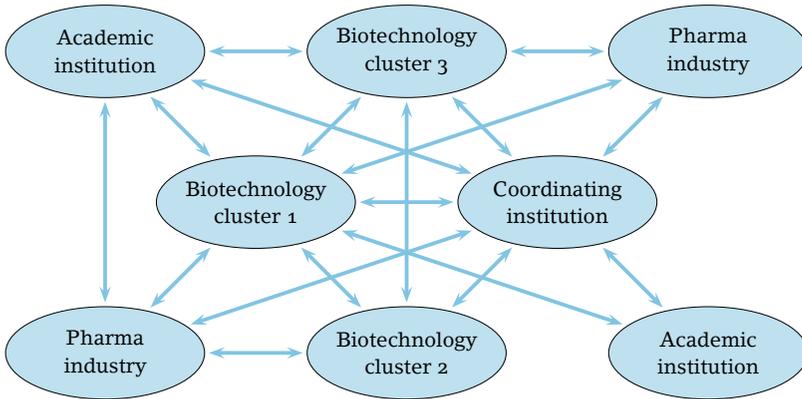


FIGURE 4 An Example of the Possible Use of Open Innovation Alliance Network Including Academic or National Institution as a Coordinating (and Possible Funding) Body in Polish Biopharmaceutical Industry

Conclusions

Biopharmaceutical companies look for various forms of cooperation that will minimize the risk and will share the costs of R&D investment. Cooperating with academic institutions, particularly in the model of open innovation alliances or pharma-university alliances, they can significantly increase the likelihood of better medical therapy for patients. In addition to partnerships within the industry, they establish relationships with universities or research institutes as well as more often cross-industry alliances and public-private partnerships. This cooperation enables a number of innovative projects and allows significant synergy effects. It should be taken into account, that as multiparty alliances they require greater competencies and skills of alliance managers and appropriate alliance management tools, particularly in the selection of potential partners, as well as in creation and maintenance of alliance networks. Thanks to diversity of modes of cooperation and alliances it was possible for biopharmaceutical companies to obtain a much more advanced research results in both preclinical and clinical stages. The effect of such actions can be jointly developed new drugs proposals (Wilks and Prothmann 2012; Burke 2013).

Biopharmaceutical companies operating in Poland, involved in cooperation with academic institutions, especially in the model of open innovation alliances, can also significantly reduce the risk and cost of research, use the resources, competencies, technology and knowledge from partners, and thus easier respond to changes in

the environment, and most of all, quickly launch new biotechnology or pharmaceutical products. This model of cooperation can significantly contribute to the development of Polish biopharmaceutical industry as well as to creation of open innovation alliance network in the future. This issue will be further investigated by the research team in future research, which findings and results could be a starting point for recommendations, regarding different modes of cooperation and alliance management tools, for biopharmaceutical companies operating in Poland and CEE.

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Open Access to Scientific Works: Axiology, History and Chosen Aspects of Copyright Solutions

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Problems concerning Open Access to human creative works, especially scientific works is complex. Development of research and growing number of scholarly papers as well as other materials demand systemic solutions – both in national and international perspective. The article outlines legal and practical problems concerning Open Access to scientific works – the basic phenomenon tending to ensure free development of sciences in the context of local, European and international cooperation and progress. The author describes the history of Open Access movement, starting in the 1980s with the development of free software trend and followed by Creative Commons licensing solutions. The first decade of the new millennium has brought many great strides in popularization of Open Access. Many initiatives of this kind have appeared launched by various actors. The basic legal problems of Open Access are obtaining research materials to on-line repositories and – on the other hand – liability of repository providers in the context of potential breaches of copyright.

Key words: Open Access, Creative Commons, scientific works, copyright law

Introduction

The problem of Open Access to the scientific output is not only local, i.e. national, but also strictly international. The issue was expressed by the European Union – e.g. in its initiative Open Data Strategy announced on 12 December 2011 or in the programs openAIRE and openAIREplus developing e-infrastructure for different dispersed repositories. Simultaneously, Open Access implementation is launched on the non-government basis – there are disciplinary repositories (arXiv, Social Science Research Network), research foundations (Wellcome Trust), as well as open and hybrid publishers (PLOS).

The describing issue demands changes in thinking – overcoming egoist monopoly attitude towards any output of creative activity and treating it only as a trade good. Paradoxically, this change in thinking is especially hard to be implemented in the Central and Eastern

European countries formerly belonging to the communist block. It seems that the first decades of development of free market economy in this part of Europe resulted in the attachment to private property and treating any kind of human output, including works of creativity, as a trade good potentially giving financial income. In this attitude taking into account wider and long-term perspective is not easy to be caught. Sharing creative output on a large-scale demands changes not only in the society's and academics' attitude but also obviously in the legal, administrative and financial frameworks.

The aim of this article is to outline one of the most important problems of copyright law – Open Access to scientific works. Mostly, it is a reference paper – it covers axiology, meaning, history and accurate solutions concerning Open Access, posing a question: is the international cooperation possible?

The author intends to describe the axiological background of Open Access, its historical development, legal solutions in introducing Open Access in various national systems and legal problems concerning Open Access. The paper consists of four main parts. In the first one, we can find a short description of axiological background of Open Access as well as its definitions and classification. The second part introduces historical perspective of Open Access beginning from free software movement and names the crucial legal solutions implied. In the third part, one can find brief summaries of chosen national and transnational solutions within Open Access. Finally, in the fourth part the basic legal problems concerning Open Access are characterized, namely questions of obtaining of the repository rights and liability of the repository provider.

Literature Review

Although the problem of Open Access is quite new, being strictly connected with expansion of internet communication and dating since approx. 2003 or 2004, there are quite many contributions on the subject within the specialist literature. The scope of this article does not allow citing all of them. Below please find only some chosen contributions in the literature on the matter.

A very interesting expert report is a joint publication by a team of Polish academics lead by Prof. Marek Niezgodka of Interdisciplinary Centre for Mathematical and Computational Modelling, entitled *Wdrożenie i promocja otwartego dostępu do treści naukowych i edukacyjnych [Implementation and Promotion of Open Access to Scientific and Educational Content]* (Niezgodka et al. 2011).

The leading Polish specialist in Open Access is Krzysztof Siewicz.

He has provided a strong input in both development of Open Access in Poland and literature on the matter. He is the author of such papers or publications as 'Prawo autorskie i wolne licencje' ['Copyright and Free Licenses'] (Siewicz 2010), 'Prawne możliwości wprowadzenia otwartego mandatu wobec publikacji naukowych' ['Legal Possibilities to Introduce Open Access Mandate to Scientific Publications'] (Siewicz n. d.), *Otwarty dostęp do publikacji naukowych: kwestie prawne* [*Open Access to Scientific Publications: Legal Problems*] (Siewicz 2012).

The basic classification of Open Access was formed by Peter Suber, especially in his articles 'Gratis and Libre Open Access' (Suber 2008) and 'Strong and Weak OA' (Suber and Harnad 2008). There are quite a lot of materials covering national experience with Open Access. Research analyses concerning Open Access as implied in Australia can be found in papers by Australian scholar Artur Sale (2006a; 2006b; 2006c) of the University of Tasmania. He has run research to prove development of Open Access in various aspects including growth of citations. Other national contributions can be found in Costa and Leite (2008). There is also a wide range of source materials – institutional declarations, legal acts and implemented ready-made legal solutions.

Axiological Origin of Open Access and Its Essence

Each copyright law system is situated on the basic conflict – on one hand, there is a crucial need to protect output of human creativity,¹ and on the other – the society does have the right to use and exploit this output.² The mentioned conflict is extremely visible in the case of scientific works – on one hand there is an obvious need to copyright them and protect authors' rights, but on the other – freedom of science and what is more – development of science demand legal framework for as wide as possible access to this kind of human works.

Legal bases on which access to scientific works can be offered are both statutory and contractual. Statutory one derives from the will of the lawgiver (public domain, permissible use of protected works), contractual – from the will of a copyright holder (contracts between interested parties including free licenses). In the context of scientific works, we can name a phenomenon of Open Access movement.

THE TERM OF OPEN ACCESS

Open Access can be described as a free and with no technical restrictions making available to the public of the scientific works in such a

way that members of the public may access them from a place and at a time individually chosen by them.³ In short, it means that Open Access means making available in the public internet networks with no fees. Traditionally, Open Access refers to reviewed scholarly papers published in learned journals supported by impact factor. It does not mean that Open Access shall be constraint to this type of scientific works. Optionally, it shall cover a wide range of research output.⁴

In Budapest Open Access Initiative (BOAI) declaration, we read the following definition of Open Access ('Read the Budapest Open Access Initiative' 2002):

By 'Open Access' to [peer-reviewed research literature], we mean its free availability on the public internet, permitting any users to read, download, copy, distribute, print, search, or link to the full texts of these articles, crawl them for indexing, pass them as data to software, or use them for any other lawful purpose, without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. The only constraint on reproduction and distribution, and the only role for copyright in this domain, should be to give authors control over the integrity of their work and the right to be properly acknowledged and cited.

OPEN ACCESS CLASSIFICATION

Open Access can be divided into two types – Open Access gratis and Open Access libre.⁵ The former sort is a narrower term and it means making works available according to statutory regulations of permissible use of protected works, excluding possibility of sublicensing. In the Polish Copyright and Related Rights Act of Feb 4, 1994, there are articles 23–35. There are also regulations of this kind in European legislative acts, for example Directive 2001/29/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 22 May 2001 on the harmonization of certain aspects of copyright and related rights in thee information society.

Open Access libre is a wider term and it means not only possibility of making the gathered materials available to the public via web networks but also possibility of sublicensing them and creating derivative works upon them.⁶

Realization of Open Access defines two methods or ways – the green one and the golden one. The latter means publication of scholarly papers in open peer-reviewed learned journals. The former means introducing and making available research materials in open repositories through self-archiving.

There is one more term to be defined – ‘open mandate.’ It means an obligation levied on the author to introduce his work or works in an Open Access system and make them available to the public.⁷

Open mandate can be levied on the author by his employer, research financing institution or the lawmaker. Up until now, none of the copyright law system has introduced obligatory open mandate. In result, we can only name the ones implemented by research institutions, universities or research financing institutions.

Creative Works as Common Goods: Short History of the Idea and Implied Solutions

OPEN SOURCE MOVEMENT

Historically, the idea of Open Access derives from the free software movement started in the 1980s and then supplemented by the open source movement – the movement in informatics in which programmers or soft developers decided to make their informatics works, i.e. computer programs and source codes available to the public including possibility to create derivative works on this base.

The free software movement formed a new perspective within author’s rights – ‘copyleft.’ ‘Copyleft’ is a term connected with GNU Project launched by Richard Stallman, a software designer and one of the founders of the free software movement. It is a system of licensing allowing a licensee to use the original work and to modify it creating derivative works and on the other hand demand that the licensee has to make such a derivative work available to the public under the same terms. The symbol of *copyleft* is the reversed copyright icon.

Institutional framework for the free software movement covers Free Software Foundation (FSF) and Open Source Initiative (OSI). Free Software Foundation was founded by R. Stallman in 1985. The headquarters is in Boston, USA. Since 2001, there is a European division – Free Software Foundation Europe.

The Open Source Initiative is an American non-profit organization founded in 1998 by Bruce Perens and Eric S. Raymond. On the contrary to the Free Software Foundation, the Open Source Initiative was aimed at promoting open source ideas on pragmatic and business grounds.

Within the free software movement model license terms were developed. The two most popular model license terms were implied within GNU Project – GNU GPL and GNU LGPL. Presently, there are several dozen model licenses like these among which GPL and LGPL

are still very popular but also others like BSD and MIT are common. Every model license allows nearly not-limited exploitation of software. Additionally, some of them cover a *copyleft* clause – it demands that both the original and any derivative work shall be made available by a licensee under the same terms.

CREATIVE COMMONS

Later on, another movement of this kind has begun, covering all kinds of creative works, in all fields of creativity except software – Creative Commons. Creative Commons is an international project encouraging sharing of all kinds of creative works apart from software (e.g. literary, musical, audiovisual etc.) and stimulating creativity and even more – free culture understood as common assets, through open legal solutions.

Creative Commons was founded in 2001 in USA as a non-government organization. Their founders – academics, especially lawyers, and intellectuals, aimed to develop solutions to prevent and protect cultural goods as common goods. Nowadays, branches of Creative Commons are run in more than 80 countries worldwide. In Poland, division of Creative Commons has functioned since 2005 being one of the oldest in the world.

Creative Commons Licenses: Main Types

The organization gives ready-made legal solutions for both authors and users of copyrighted materials. It rejects the rule ‘all rights reserved’ for the sake of another rule – ‘some rights reserved.’ It means that the author decides what usage restrictions he intends to levy. The Creative Common model harmonizes the need of standardization of license types with the author’s will as to the terms under which he intends to make his work available to the public.

In result, Creative Commons has developed so called cc licenses – four contractual clauses (license attributes) giving special restrictions to usage of copyrighted works. These clauses define obligations on the user’s side to comply with if he wants to exploit a given work. These clauses are as follows: BY, SA, NC and ND.

- cc BY clause – attribution. This clause allows the user to disseminate the work on a very wide basis, even commercially, as long as he credits the author for the original creation.
- cc SA clause – share alike. This clause allows the user to disseminate the work on a very wide basis, even commercially, as long as he licenses his new creations under the identical terms.

- **cc nc** clause – non-commercial use. This clause allows the user to disseminate the work and build upon the work non-commercially.
- **cc nd** clause – no derivative works. This clause allows for redistribution, commercial and non-commercial, as long as it is passed along unchanged and in whole, with credit to the author.

Creative Commons Licenses: Combinations

These clauses can be mixed resulting six combinations.

1. **BY** – attribution. This license allows the user to disseminate the work on a very wide basis, even commercially, as long as he credits the author for the original creation. This is the most accommodating of licenses offered. Recommended for maximum dissemination and use of licensed materials.
2. **BY, NC** – attribution, non-commercial. This clause allows the user to disseminate the work and build upon the work non-commercially. The new work must also acknowledge the original author and be non-commercial, but the new author does not have to license his derivative works on the same terms.
3. **BY, ND** – attribution, no derivative works. This license allows for redistribution, both commercial and non-commercial, as long as it is passed along unchanged and in whole, with credit to the author.
4. **BY, SA** – attribution, share alike. This license allows the user to disseminate the work, build upon the work both commercially and non-commercially, as long as the user credits the original author, and license his new work under the identical terms. This license is often compared to ‘copyleft’ i.e. free and open source software licenses. All new works based on the original one will carry the same license and in result, any derivatives will allow commercial use. This kind of license is used for example by Wikipedia, and is recommended for materials that would benefit from incorporating content from Wikipedia and similarly licensed projects.
5. **BY, NC, SA** – attribution, non-commercial, share alike. This license allows the user to disseminate the work and build upon it only for non-commercial use, as long as the user credits the original author and licenses his new creations under the identical terms.
6. **BY, NC, ND** – attribution, non-commercial, no derivative works. This license is the most restrictive of the six main licenses. It

allows only downloading the work and sharing it with others as long as the user credits the original author, does not changing it in any way or using it commercially.

Creative Commons project offers detailed license terms – they are specific for each country to comply with national general copyright regulations. This is the most practical and useful solution. The trials to create universal, transnational version using terms from international law act (including the Berne Convention) were launched and resulted in versions 4.0 International and Unported although it is not the preferable tool.

Creative Commons licenses are a very popular tool for free licensing although there are some critical views. Some of them deal with among the others such questions as character of a legal binding between the licensor and the end-user (the dispute is if it is an agreement or a unilateral legal act), term of a license agreement and possibility of its termination (it is discussed if a Creative Commons license is 'endless' or not).⁸ Nevertheless, Creative Commons licenses because of their uniformity, coverage of all kinds of human creativity (except software that applies GNU licenses and others accepted by FSF and OSI) as well as flexibility for authors' sake gain more and more enthusiasts and practical users.

Free Science Movement: National and International Perspective

Open Access movement is a specific part of free culture movement – it is devoted to idea of free science. It seems obvious that contemporary copyright law implies strict restrictions on possible usage of copyrighted works although there is a space for permissible use of protected works – present in any legal system of copyright. In result, any free culture or more strictly free science movements can be based either on the statutory act or on volitional decisions of copyright holders.

USA – THE WORLD'S PRECEDENT

The world precedent in Open Access comes from USA – in 2005, American Congress (House Report 108-636) introduced a solution that all research papers created within the National Institute of Health grants shall become part of Open Access repository after 12 months of their publication (National Institute of Health 2008). This is the first statutory and mandatory solution realizing an idea that research output financed with public means shall be made public

available. At present in USA, there are legislative trials to introduce public and all-national mandatory Open Access system.

OTHER COUNTRIES

Situation of other countries is diverse. Factors that influence the situation are as follows: attitude of the main actors (i.e. scholars, publishers, universities, research institutions, and politicians), legal aspects (especially within copyright law), and administrative framework, financial questions, and last but not least – general way of thinking or cultural aspects. In some cases there is a strong resistance of traditional publishers is clearly visible (UK, Australia). In others – legal restrictions in existing legal system are decisive (Germany, UK). Finally, the reluctant attitude of scientific communities is of overwhelming importance (Poland, China, and Brazil (Costa and Leite 2008)).

EUROPEAN UNION

European Union plays crucial role in the Open Access development. The issue has started in 2004. There are two-way actions – on one hand there is implementation of requirements that all research data created with EU support shall be disseminated within Open Access system (e.g. European Research Council implemented Open Access rules). On the other hand – the Commission tries to work upon political agreement. In result, we have such initiatives as Digital Repository Infrastructure Vision for European Research (DRIVER) that combines national research repositories, and portal openAIRE (Open Access Infrastructure for Research in Europe) – consisting of research materials derived from researches financed by the European Union (Driver 2008).

Another international achievement is World Bank Open Data Initiative. Its service is available at <http://data.worldbank.org>. It has a wide range and high quality. World leaders in Open Access are private foundations that finance scientific research, e.g. a British foundation Wellcome Trust.

POLISH CASE

The interest of Open Access in Poland is still limited yet it has begun quite early.⁹ According to new regulation within the Higher Education Act of 2005 (amendment of July 11, 2014, in force since Oct 1, 2014) each Polish university has to introduce rules of procedure of management of copyright and related rights. Thanks to these regulations in some Polish universities, there are Open Access repositories.

Unfortunately, there is no unified system but many particular ones. The same is the international perspective.

In Poland, one of the highly estimated examples is ceon – Centre of Open Science launched by Interdisciplinary Centre of Mathematical and Computer Modelling at the University of Warsaw. The founders of this repository introduced the two most liberal Creative Commons licenses as legal bases of the collection – Creative Commons – Attribution 3.0 PL and Creative Commons – Attribution – Share Alike 3.0 PL. Moreover, this institution formed a ready-made Open Access legal solution trying to prove that implementation of Open Access within a research unit or university is not a big deal (Siewicz 2012).

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Differences between cultural, legal, economic and administrative systems of even culturally and economically similar countries do not give a lot of hope to ensure international cooperation in the aspect of Open Access. Nevertheless, it seems that transnational initiatives can give strong impact on the development of Open Access solutions in local systems. The major role in this development the European Union shall play. Although even EU shall not unify cultural, legal, economic and administrative systems of member states.

The possible way of cooperation is creation of central repositories of scientific works covering research output from different countries. The example of such a solution is the Registry of Open Access Repository Mandates and Policies (ROARMAP). It is a searchable international registry charting the growth of Open Access mandates and policies adopted by universities, research institutions and research funders that require or request their researchers to provide Open Access to their peer-reviewed research article output by depositing it in an Open Access repository. At present, it covers nearly 800 Open Access mandates and policies.

Basic Legal Problems Concerning Open Access

OBTAINING OF THE REPOSITORY RIGHTS

Undoubtedly, Open Access implies specific problems within copyright. Introduction of a research paper or other copyrighted material is a method of usage and requires a permission of a copyright holder. The same problem is with further methods of exploitation of a copyrighted material – e.g. sublicensing or preparation of derivative works. No less important issue is protection of author's moral

rights, especially proper attribution and protection of integrity of the work.

The basic practical issue is obtaining of the rights to the materials planned to be introduced into the repository system. In some legal systems, there is a problem – who the copyright holder is. Is it the author or the employer being a scientific institution or maybe the publisher?

There are several options. First of all the copyright holder of the copyrighted material has to be identified. One of the options is that a given scientific work was created by an employee of a research institution – in such a case in some legal systems the copyright belongs to the employer, sometimes with some liberated provisions for the sake of scientists working on the employment basis. This is the Polish case. Such a solution is quite advantageous in the context of Open Access – subjects of copyright are less dispersed. At present Polish public universities work upon terms of procedure concerning copyright management of their employees' works to make it clear and unified within one entity.

Different contract regulations implemented by scientific publishers are a crucial problem. Some of them demand under the terms of these contracts the grant of exclusive copyright. In result, an individual author cannot decide upon introduction of a research paper into an Open Access repository. A solution can be negotiating in each particular case to make contract restrictions looser or obtain a so-called return license but practically it does not seem effective.

With no doubt the best tool aimed at launch of wide Open Access systems are statutory regulations – definite provisions of law allowing a national institution to use scholarly materials within repository regardless of particular contract restrictions.

LIABILITY OF THE REPOSITORY PROVIDER

Problem of liability of repository provider or repository publisher is a delicate yet crucial issue. The recommended solution is to form the role of the publisher as a host provider – the subject giving a digital tool (search engine) to embed and disseminate the materials within the repository collection. In such a solution, the publisher is not obliged to filter the materials gathered within the repository in the context of any legal infringement, e.g. infringement of copyright or moral rights or data base rights etc.

This liberal mechanism has its legal basis – it comes from Directive 2000/31/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 8 June 2000 on certain legal aspects of information society services, in

particular electronic commerce, in the Internal Market (Directive on electronic commerce). In the mentioned legislative act there are so called safety islands – i.e. disclaiming rules. One of them is expressed in article 14 giving hosting disclaiming rule.

Article 14

Hosting

1. Where an information society service is provided that consists of the storage of information provided by a recipient of the service, Member States shall ensure that the service provider is not liable for the information stored at the request of a recipient of the service, on condition that:

(a) the provider does not have actual knowledge of illegal activity or information and, as regards claims for damages, is not aware of facts or circumstances from which the illegal activity or information is apparent; or

(b) The provider, upon obtaining such knowledge or awareness, acts expeditiously to remove or to disable access to the information.

In practice the publisher does not license or sublicense the gathered materials to the end users – the terms of procedure introduced within the given repository shall strictly preordain that the license relation is formed between the copyright holder (an author or research institution) and end user.

Concluding Remarks and Implications

CONCLUDING REMARKS

1. There are obvious advantages of Open Access in the global perspective – it affects development of scientific research. Introducing a scholarly paper into an Open Access repository increase quotation rate by 25 per cent up to 250 per cent (Arthur Sale, University of Tasmania, 2006). No research institution can afford traditional subscription of all scholarly journals – estimated at 24.000 altogether. Open Access to research materials is crucial for developing countries with weaker financial support for research.
2. Because of cumulative essence of knowledge, the basic factor of its development is exchange of ideas. On the other hand, there are economic constraints in access to research materials especially sold by subscription. Thus, the Open Access seems to be

the optimal way to engage in the process of idea exchange as much subjects as possible – both authors and users.

3. National copyright law systems give stronger impact on copyright protection than making access to copyrighted content more liberal and open. There is still a very much monopolistic attitude to copyright and its objects treated as trade goods.
4. There is a strong need of change in scholars' and publishers' attitude to Open Access solutions.
5. Diversity of legal systems in various countries makes international cooperation in introduction of a unified transnational Open Access system roughly possible but they do not make it impossible.

Policy Implications

1. The only solution to create the widest Open Access systems seems to be the lawmakers' interventions in different countries. Simultaneously, it shall be a strong impact on international cooperation resulting in launching unified systems – regional or divisional.
2. Development of Open Access is not only the question of legal solutions. Nevertheless, the development of technical means appears of great importance.

Notes

- 1 There is an interesting statement in the literature that copyright law tries to transfer public goods into private ones. 'Copyright law can be compared to a magic wand. Its result is this kind of human attitude towards immaterial goods as if they did not have features of public goods' (Siewicz 2010).
- 2 Siewicz (2010, 3) states that there are two rules in the copyright law: the first one says that an author decides upon exploitation of his work, the second – that an author's power ends when the society's interest is threatened.
- 3 The liberal definition is suggested by a group of authors in *Wdrożenie i promocja otwartego dostępu do treści naukowych i edukacyjnych* ['Implementation and Promotion of Open Access to Scientific and Educational Content'] (Nieżgódka et al. 2011). The authors suggest the following definition of Open Access: 'access to scientific content, especially pre-reviewed scholarly papers.' A wide definition is proposed by Siewicz (2010).
- 4 Siewicz (2010, 12) demands on strict defining of Open Access to avoid misunderstandings, p. 12.

- 5 This contradistinction was formed by Peter Suber and borrowed from free software movement (Suber 2008). A little bit earlier the same author together with Stevan Harnad suggested another contradistinction – ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ Open Access (Suber and Harnad 2008).
- 6 Definitions of Open Access gratis and Open Access libre can be found in Siewicz (2012).
- 7 One can find explanation of a term ‘open mandate’ in Siewicz (2012).
- 8 More thorough explanation of these disputes exceeds the range of this paper. An interesting analysis of the problem can be found in Siewicz (2010).
- 9 A thorough analysis of this phenomenon one can find in Niezgódka et al. (2011).

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Abstracts in Slovene

Tipologija mednarodnih strategij za madžarske profesionalne športne klube

Miklós Kozma in Krisztina András

Cilj najinega raziskovalnega projekta je ugotoviti, kako kvaliteta lige vpliva na opažene razlike med mednarodnimi strategijami profesionalnih športnih klubov na Madžarskem. Tri študije primerov, ki so bile narejene, so temeljile predvsem na vsebinski analizi intervjujev s klubskimi funkcionarji, navzkrižno primerjani s podatki iz športnih podatkovnih baz in uradne dokumentacije. S pomočjo analize sva določila tri tipe mednarodnih strategij, ki jim sledijo profesionalni športni klubi na Madžarskem. Tipologija poudarja pomen konkurenčnosti, saj se na ta način profesionalni klub lahko prebije na mednarodno tržišče. Zato je priporočljivo, da vodstva in lokalne skupnosti svojo podporo osredotočijo na tiste športe, v katerih obstajajo ekipe, ki so dejansko sposobne zmagovati in dobivati priznanja na mednarodni ravni. Za vodstva klubov je nujno, da se strateško osredotočijo na zagotavljanje izboljšav in prodajo.

Ključne besede: internacionalizacija, šport, strategija, študija primera, Srednja in Vzhodna Evropa

Management 11 (1): 7–27

Premestitveni trend v Srednji in Vzhodni Evropi – ocene možnih scenarijev na primeru Poljske

Michał Młody

Pojav premestitve delovnih mest (»offshoring«), ki je predstavljal velik del razprav o mednarodni proizvodnji od osemdesetih let prejšnjega stoletja dalje, v zadnjih letih izgublja dinamiko, predvsem zaradi zmanjševanja razlik v plačah med razvitimi državami in državami v razvoju. Hkratni pojav drugih dejavnikov je povzročil nastanek novih trendov mednarodnih poslovnih lokacij, ki vplivajo predvsem na podjetja, ki so svoje poslovanje že preselila v tujino. Pojav »reshoringa«, ki ga je treba v bistvu razumeti kot delno ali popolno premestitev predhodno preseljenih gospodarskih dejavnosti podjetja nazaj v matično državo ali na nove destinacije, je ena izmed glavnih tem trenutnih javnih razprav med znanstveniki in načrtovalci politike v številnih razvitih državah. Vendar pa rezultati opravljenih analiz kažejo, da ima »reshoring« tudi nekaj vpliva – tako pozitivnega, kot tudi negativnega, na države Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope. Raziskava temelji na sklepnih ugotovitvah kritičnih študij literature in podatkov izbranih mednarodnih institucij.

Ključne besede: globalne dobavne verige, selitev poslovanja, vračanje poslovanja v domačo državo

Management 11 (1): 29–50

Metodologija raziskovanja procesov internacionalizacije podjetij z e-poslovanjem

Magdalena Grochal-Brejdak

Namen tega članka je pregled raziskovalnih metodologij, ki se uporabljajo za raziskave, povezane z internacionalizacijo podjetij z e-poslovanjem, s posebnim poudarkom na tistih raziskavah, ki izhajajo iz opisovanja procesa internacionalizacije podjetij z e-poslovanjem. Rezultat kritične analize literature je bil zaključek, da v raziskavah internacionalizacije e-poslovanja podjetij prevladujejo kvalitativne metode, pojavlja pa se tudi pomanjkanje procesnih opisov internacionalizacije teh podjetij. Zdi se, da so domneve antipozitivistične ontologije, ki sta jih leta 2014 postavila Welch in Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, najboljši pristop k raziskovanju procesov internacionalizacije podjetij z e-poslovanjem, kar je razvidno tudi iz interpretativnega vidika metodologije že opravljenih raziskav.

Ključne besede: proces internacionalizacije, e-poslovanje, metodologija
Management 11 (1): 51–66

Razvoj načinov sodelovanja: priložnost za odprta inovacijska zavezništva v poljski biofarmaceutski industriji

Lukasz Puślecki

V tem članku je predstavljen razvoj načinov sodelovanja v biofarmaceutski industriji, v povezavi z najnovejšimi podatki ASAP (Association of Strategic Alliance Professionals). Opisani so primeri različnih načinov sodelovanja v sodobnem gospodarstvu, kot tudi morebitno sodelovanje med univerzami, institucijami in podjetji s področja farmacevtske industrije na Poljskem. Biofarmaceutska podjetja poskusno uporabljajo nove strategije za prenos svojih raziskovalnih procesov na višjo raven, pri čemer pogosto uporabljajo odprt inovacijski model kot dodatno orodje za razvoj novih izdelkov in storitev. Po zaslugi sodelovanja z univerzami v okviru odprtih inovacijskih povezav, pa tudi skupnega dela z akademskimi raziskovalci, so biofarmaceutska podjetja bolj uspešna pri prepoznavanju mehanizmov bolezni, izvajanju učinkovitejših medicinskih terapij za bolnike, kot tudi pri razvoju novih zdravil.

Ključne besede: zavezništva in skupna vlaganja, Biopharma, biotehnoški grozdi, znanstveni in tehnološki parki, javno-zasebna partnerstva, odprte inovacije, zavezništvo odprtih inovacij
Management 11 (1): 67–80

**Odpri dostop do znanstvenih del: aksiologija, zgodovina
in izbrani vidiki avtorskih rešitev**

Joanna Hetman-Krajewska

Problematika odprtega dostopa do ustvarjalnih del, predvsem znanstvenih, je kompleksna. Razvoj raziskovalne dejavnosti, vse večje število znanstvenih člankov in tudi drugih virov zahteva sistemske rešitve – tako na nacionalni, kot na mednarodni ravni. Ta članek opisuje pravne in praktične težave, povezane z odprtim dostopom do znanstvenih del – osnovni pojav je težnja k zagotavljanju prostega razvoja znanosti, tako v okviru lokalnega, evropskega, kot tudi mednarodnega sodelovanja in napredka. Avtorica opisuje zgodovino Gibanja za odprti dostop (Open Access Movement), ki je v osemdesetih letih preteklega stoletja sprožilo trend brezplačne programske opreme, sledile pa so mu licenčne rešitve gibanja Creative Commons. Prvo desetletje novega tisočletja je zaznamoval velik napredek in popularizacija odprtega dostopa. Pojavilo se je mnogo pobud s tega področja, ki so jih sprožili različni pobudniki. Osnovni pravni problemi odprtega dostopa so: pridobivanje raziskovalnega materiala iz spletnih baz podatkov in zbirk ter na drugi strani odgovornost ponudnikov razpoložljivih podatkov glede na morebitne kršitve avtorskih pravic.

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Management 11 (1): 81–95