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Introduction: Note on Public Administration, Management and Economic Development Nexus

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Abstract

This paper is an introductory text to the first issue of the new journal – *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* – published by Academy of Management and Economics. The goal of the paper is to provide some insights into the themes which are of interest for publishing in the journal. Two themes are chosen and further discussed in this regard - public administration, public management and public governance (1) and strategic planning (2). The discussion indicates the existence of a number of highly relevant and actual themes for publishing in the journal. Moreover, there are interlinkages between the three terms from the title of the journal – 'Public Administration', 'Management' and 'Economic Development'. Overall, a high potential that *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* will meet its main aspiration in future – to create space for exchange of interesting thoughts related to the three domains – was identified.

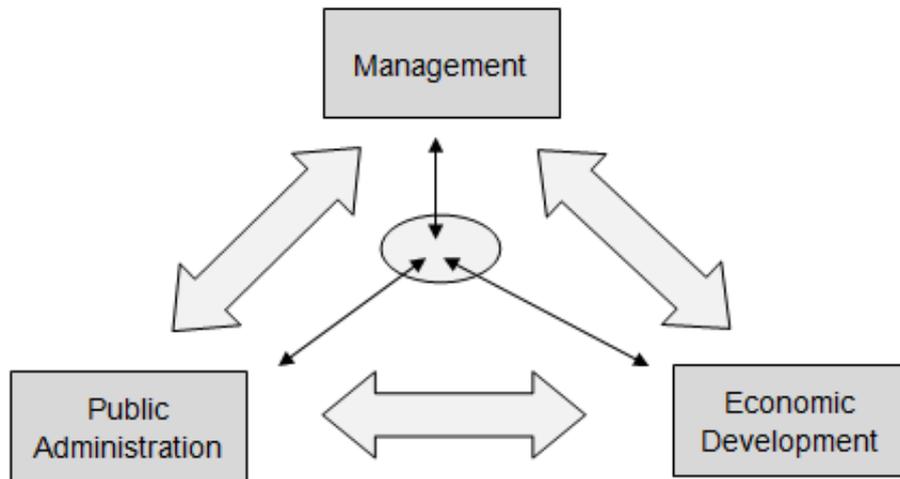
Keywords: public administration, management, economic development, journal

1. Introduction

This paper is an introductory text to the first issue of the new journal - *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* - published by Academy of Management and Economics. The main objective of this journal is to contribute to the understanding of various aspects of the three undoubtedly relevant and interlinked domains. Public administration, management and economic development belong to often-cited topics by researchers, politicians, businessmen and other people. Therefore, the exchange of knowledge about the three topics is highly desirable and rewarding. *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* provides the space for this exchange. The essence of this journal rests on the triangle - 'Public

Administration', 'Management' and 'Economic Development'. The three domains are the nodes of the triangle connected through relations between them. The triangle is the leading philosophy of this journal. Hence both, papers concerning some of the three topics separately and papers concerning relations between the topics are welcomed. Figure 1 shows the rationale behind the journal schematically.

Figure 1: *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* – rationale behind the journal



Source: own elaboration

This introductory text is a theoretical review of some issues relevant for the rationale behind the journal. This corresponds to the goal of this paper – to provide some insights into the themes which are of interest for publishing in *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development*. Two themes form the basis for further discussion – public administration, public management and public governance (1) and strategic planning (2). A particular emphasis is laid on the interlinkages between the three nodes of the triangle when dealing with the two themes. However, note that the review provided in this paper is far from exhaustive and a number of other topics may be relevant for publishing.

The paper is structured as follows. The second section deals with the first theme – public administration, public management and public governance, discussing the differences between the three terms and research issues closely related to them. The third section is focused on strategic planning. The essence of strategic planning is introduced, including associations with the three nodes of the triangle - 'Public Administration', 'Management' and 'Economic Development'. Finally, some concluding remarks are given.

2. Public administration, public management and public governance

There is a long history of research on public sector functioning reflecting the shifts in thinking about this issue. Bogason & Toonen (1998) distinguish three perspectives in this regard. The first perspective is about rational organization. Hence, formal institutions (e.g., norms, procedures, legislation) are searched in order to achieve rational organization. The second perspective is less focused on formal institutions and more on goals and means for

achieving them – e.g., human resource management, efficiency and effectiveness, cost-benefit analysis. This perspective is firmly embedded in the literature on strategic planning in the public sector (see, e.g., Bryson 2010; Bryson, Berry & Young 2010; Nutt & Backoff 1993; Poister 2010 for a review). The third perspective emphasizes relations between system elements – e.g., partnership and networking, outsourcing, privatization – for implementing policy goals, including the vast literature on New Public Management (see, e.g., Pollitt 2013 for a critical review).

Three terms closely related to the aforementioned perspectives may be found in literature (see, e.g., Bovaird & Löffler 2003a). The first term is public administration understood in the form of traditional public sector functioning – bureaucracy and low entrepreneurial spirit (compare with the first perspective). The second term – public management – accentuates the use of managerial techniques to increase ‘value-for-money’ allocated for public services (compare with the second perspective). The third term – public governance – upholds stakeholders’ interactions for achieving desirable outcomes (compare with the third perspective). Table 1 summarizes main features of the three perspectives and terms.

Table 1: Public administration, public management and public governance

Feature	Public administration	Public management	Public governance
Goals	Meeting the legislation's goals	Competitiveness	Quality of life
Perspective	State	Public sector	Civic society
Control	Hierarchy	Market	Networks
Logic	Legislation	Economy	Policy

Source: own elaboration based on Bovaird & Löffler (2003b)

Table 1 indicates various aspects of public administration and public management which are of interest for publishing in *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development*. Hence, papers may deal with legal aspects of public sector functioning (e.g., comparative analysis of legislation, RIA, tax legislation), with economic aspects of public sector functioning (e.g., efficiency, effectiveness, benchmarking) and/or with political aspects of public sector functioning (e.g., social network analysis, political decision making, elections). The importance of all these issues has been increasing especially since the 1980s. In this regard, Bovaird & Löffler (2003b), McGuire (2006), and Börzel (1998) note the following reasons:

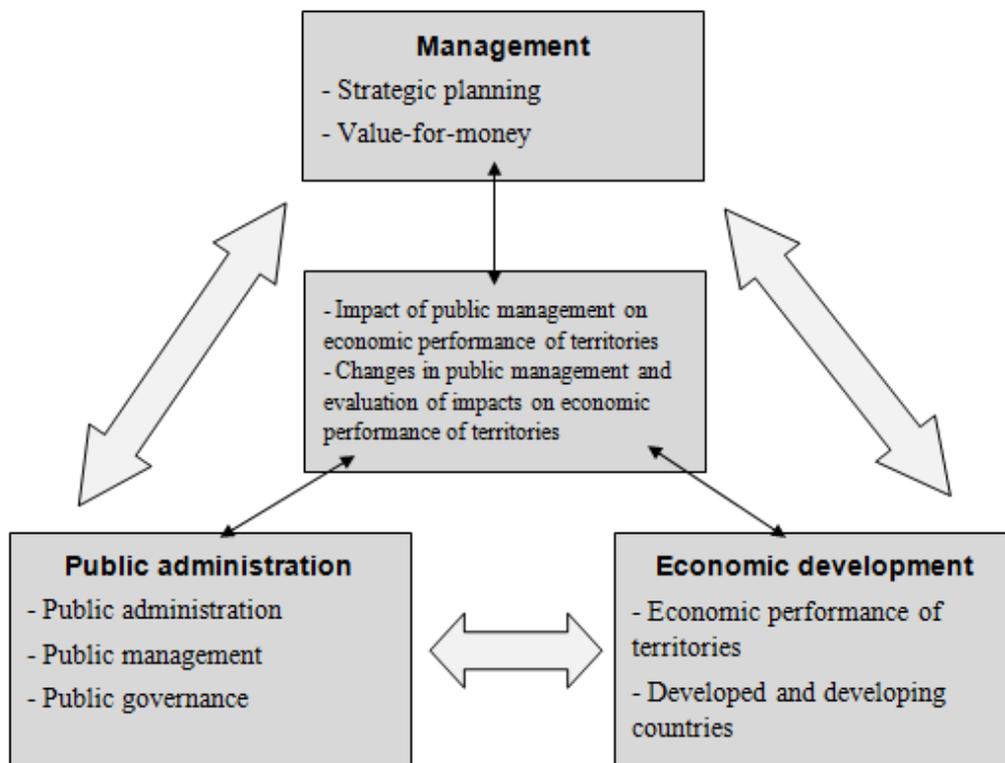
- Firstly, cuts in public funding have forced public organization to more concern themselves with efficiency and effectiveness issues. This fact is closely related to demographic changes and other processes as well.
- Secondly, an increasing number of social and environmental groups have become involved in a number of public sector issues, closely related to the quality of life concept. Consequently, more stakeholders influence decision-making processes than before the changes in public sector functioning.
- Thirdly, people are better informed about public sector issues nowadays – in the era of globalization. Mass-media and technological innovations (e.g., ICT) play a crucial role in this respect.

- Fourthly, legislation has become more complex and intricate since the 1980s for several reasons. These include also the processes of regional integration resulting into the creation of several multinational organizations.

Altogether, the research on public administration, public management and public governance is highly relevant and actual.

Some interlinkages between the ‘Public Administration’ and ‘Management’ nodes of the triangle were outlined in the preceding text. Nevertheless, public administration, public management and public governance are associated also with the ‘Economic Development’ node. Hence, Eagles at al. (2013), Dollar, Hallward-Driemeier & Mengistae (2005), and Pike, Rodriguez-Pose & Tomaney (2006), among others, claim that the quality of local institutions/organizations has the impact on spatial economic development and it is highly desirable to search for ‘good governance’ of territories. This assertion is highly relevant for institutional theories of regional and economic development. Hence, the failure of the so called structural adjustment programs in many developing countries is often ascribed to a bad institutional climate of these countries (see, e.g., Azam, Fosu & Ndung’u 2002; Owasu 2001). This is another strand of research relevant for this journal. Figure 2 provides a schema of interlinkages between the ‘Public Administration’ ‘Management’, and ‘Economic Development’ nodes of the triangle using the content of the discussion from the section 2.

Figure 2: Schema of interlinkages between the nodes ‘Public Administration’, ‘Management’ and ‘Economic Development’ – example based on the section 2 of the paper



Source: own elaboration

3. Strategic planning

Strategic planning may be understood as a methodological approach for shaping future development of public, private and non-profit organizations, as well as territories (see, e.g., Bryson 2010). Hence, strategic plans tell the organization/territory what its desired state in future is and how to achieve this state through economic development. Strategic planning creates an overarching framework for future development. However, this is not only a formal document – strategic plan – which is relevant for strategic planning. These are also relations among actors crucial for smooth implementation of strategic plans (see, e.g., Nutt and Backoff 1993; Bryson, Berry and Yang 2010; Bryson 2010). Hence strategic planning is firmly embedded in the three nodes of the triangle – ‘Public Administration’, ‘Management’ and ‘Economic Development’.

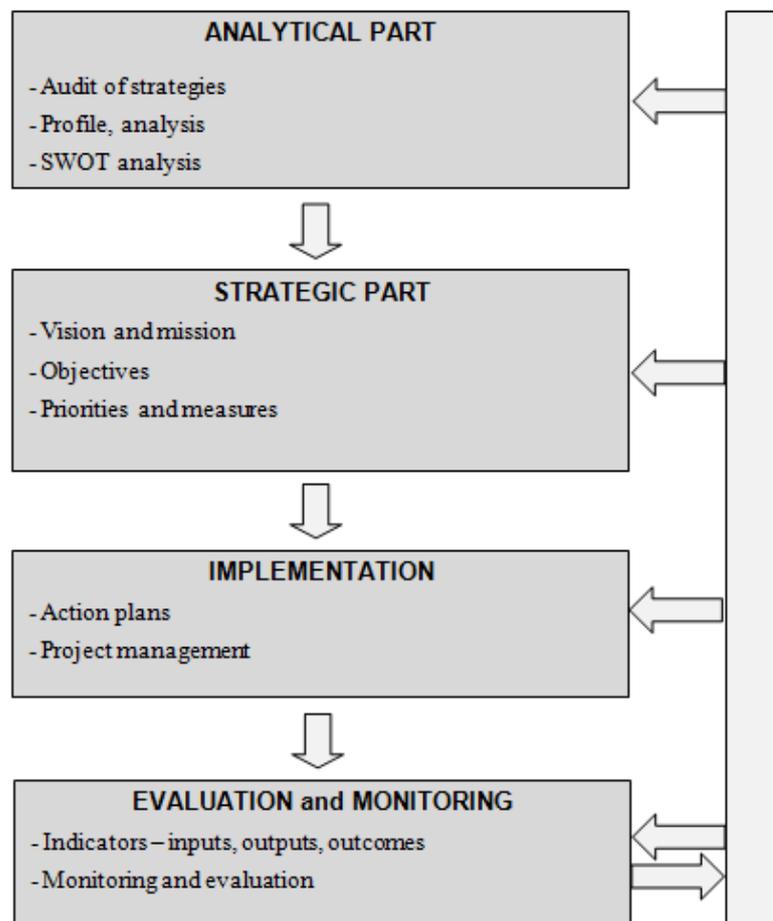
The methodologies of strategic planning may differ. However, four parts of strategic planning (see figure 3 for the linkages between these parts) are stressed in many studies (see, e.g., Vozáb 1999):

- The analytical part is the first part of strategic planning. This part provides information about the past, present and future state of an entity. Moreover, causal relations are explored in this part of strategic planning (see, e.g., Clark 1997; Knott 2008). Hence, development problems and opportunities are identified and summarized. SWOT analysis is often used for this purpose. Note that scenarios are built in a number of strategic analyses.
- The strategic part is the second part of strategic planning. A strategy for further development is defined in this part of strategic planning. Hence, a vision and mission, objectives, priorities and measures are defined, respecting the essence of the chosen strategy (see, e.g., Bryson, Berry & Yang 2010; Clark 2007). Note the different goals of private and public organizations generally (see, e.g., Nutt & Backoff 1993). Hence, there are crucial differences in strategic planning of public and private organizations.
- The implementation part is the third part of strategic planning. This part of strategic planning is traditionally connected with the so called action plans. These may be understood as short-term (e.g., one year) documents which define specific measures for each year or some other time period (see, e.g., Vozáb 1999). Hence, action plans are more operative than strategic documents. Moreover, project management is crucial for the implementation part of strategic planning.
- The evaluation and monitoring part is the fourth part of strategic planning. Monitoring indicators are formulated in this part. Three types of indicators may be distinguished. The first type is related to inputs (e.g., financial resources, human resources and others). The second type is related to outputs and is closely connected with efficiency. The third type is related to outcomes and is closely connected with effectiveness (see, e.g., Mandl, Dierx & Ilzkowitz 2008). The evaluation and monitoring part provides us with information about the strategy progress. Therefore, the question whether objectives are met may be answered (see, e.g., Vozáb 1999; Bryson, Berry and Yang 2010).

The four parts of strategic planning are interlinked. Hence, the analytical part provides information for the strategic but also for the evaluation and monitoring part (ex-ante evaluation). The strategic part defines what should be done in the implementation part. Ex-post evaluation is possible only after the implementation part is finished. Altogether, a logical system of feedback relations is created. This is a typical feature of strategic planning generally. All the tenets typical for strategic planning (e.g., analyses of public, private and

non-profit organizations, spatial analyses, case studies of successful strategic plans and projects) are kindly welcomed to be published in this journal.

Figure 3: Strategic planning



Source: adapted from Vozáb (1999)

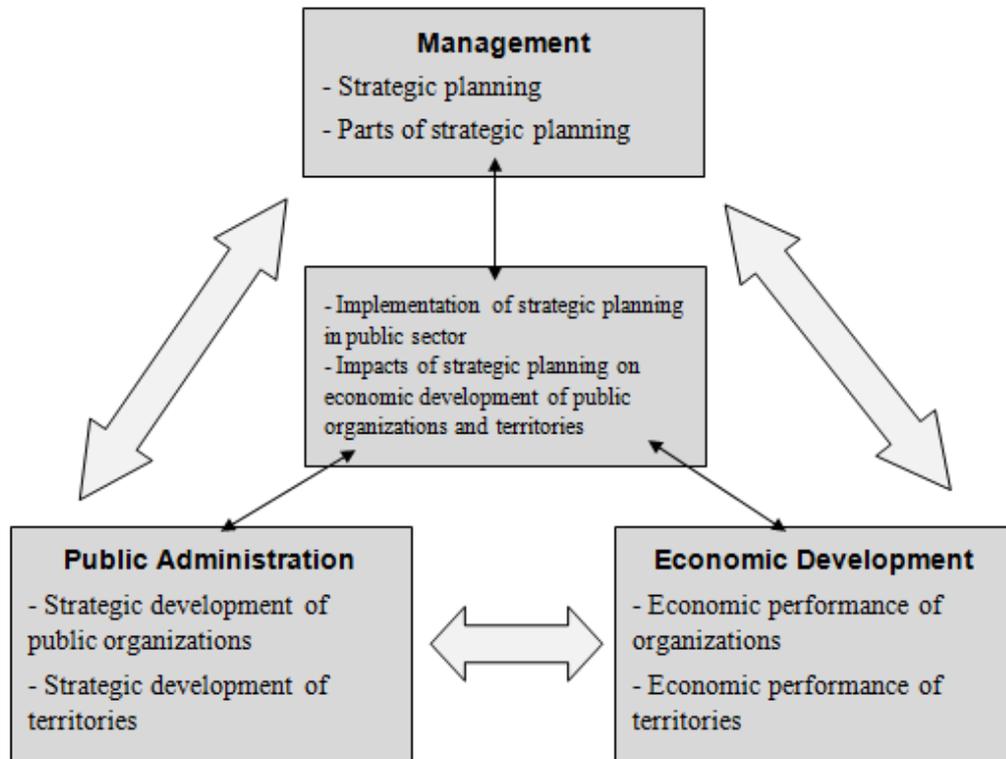
There are several benefits for public, private and non-profit organizations arising from strategic planning. Bryson (2010) summarizes these benefits as follows:

- creation of strategic climate – strategic thinking and behaviour,
- improvements in decision-making with respect to vision and objectives,
- strengthening efficiency and effectiveness,
- increasing responsibility for public funds.

Altogether, strategic planning contributes to the quality of public, private and non-profit management. Consequently, positive impacts on economic development may be expected. In this way, interlinkages between the three nodes of the triangle – ‘Public Administration’, ‘Management’ and ‘Economic Development’ – are created. Moreover, economic development is firmly embedded in strategic planning as well because it may be understood as one of the main objectives of strategic plans generally. The indicators of economic development are also used especially in the analytical and evaluation and monitoring parts of strategic planning. Figure 4 provides a schema of interlinkages between the ‘Public Administration’

‘Management’, and ‘Economic Development’ nodes of the triangle using the content of the discussion from the section 3.

Figure 4: Schema of interlinkages between the nodes ‘Public Administration’, ‘Management’ and ‘Economic Development’ – example based on the section 3 of the paper



Source: own elaboration

4. Conclusion

This paper was an introductory text to the first issue of the new journal - *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* - published by Academy of Management and Economics. Its goal was to provide some insights into the themes which are of interest for publishing in the journal. Two themes were chosen and further discussed in this regard - public administration, public management and public governance (1) and strategic planning (2). The discussion indicated the existence of a number of highly relevant and actual themes for publishing in the journal. Moreover, the interlinkages between the three terms from the title of the journal – ‘Public Administration’, ‘Management’ and ‘Economic Development’ – were shown. Overall, there is a high potential that *International Journal of Public Administration, Management and Economic Development* will meet its main aspiration in future – to create space for exchange of interesting thoughts related to the three issues.

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Cohesion Policy and SME Development: the Case of Moravia-Silesia Region

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Abstract

The question on the relationship between cohesion policy expenditures and regional disadvantage was evaluated in this paper. Its focus was on SME development, using the Moravia-Silesia region in the programming period 2007-2013 as a model area. Hence, the flow of cohesion policy expenditures into disadvantaged regions was analyzed focusing on SME development. The results point out ambivalent conclusions. Firstly, a straightforward relationship between cohesion policy expenditures and regional disparities related to SME development was not identified. Cohesion policy expenditures did not follow the intensity of regional disadvantage in SME development. Secondly, disadvantaged regions were able to absorb both, high and low cohesion policy allocation. Therefore, case by case specifics have to be considered in thinking on cohesion policy expenditures in lagging regions. Finally, one may ask about the coherence of policies at various regional levels.

Keywords: cohesion policy; SME development; regional disparities; Moravia-Silesia region; cluster analysis

1. Introduction

The recent globalized world is characterized by important societal changes. Because of them, there are different development trajectories of particular regions, depending on their ability of adapting at new conditions. Subsequently, unevenness is a typical feature of regional development (Hudson 2007). However, too large regional disparities are regarded as a threat to economic efficiency, territorial integrity and social cohesion (see, e.g., Boldrin & Canova 2001; Ezcurra 2009; Grigorev, Zubarevich & Urozhaeva 2009). Thus, regional disparities are a subject of interest not only from scientific but also from political point of view (see, e.g., Fischer & Stirböck 2006; Østbye & Westerlund 2011).

Regional policy is the main instrument to alleviate the negative impact of too large regional disparities. In this regard, the EU cohesion policy belongs to the most ambitious policies of this kind because its main goal is to ensure harmonious and balanced regional development. Lagging regions are expected to be supported to achieve the goal (see, e.g., Bourne 2007). However, the real spatial pattern of regional policy expenditures may be

different. There are two fundamental explanations in this regard. The first explanation is based on a lower negotiating power of lagging regions (see, e.g., Hepp & von Hagen 2011). The second explanation emphasizes a lower absorption capacity of lagging regions (see, e.g., Kaufmann & Wagner 2005). In the both cases, the flow of regional policy expenditures to lagging regions is questioned. Altogether, the research on the spatial pattern of regional policy expenditures gains its importance.

Despite its importance, the research on the real spatial pattern of regional policy expenditures is rather less frequent theme in scholar literature (see, e.g., Esposti & Bussoletti 2008). This is especially caused by the lack of spatially disaggregated data on regional policy expenditures (see, e.g., Blažek & Macešková 2010; Morgenroth 2010; Heald & Short 2002) and by some methodological problems, such as the distinction between the assessment based on the seat of recipients on one hand and location of project realization on the other (see, e.g., Blažek & Macešková 2010; Dupont & Martin 2006; Dall'erba & Le Gallo 2008). Lolos (2009), Morgenroth (2010), Lambrinidis, Psycharis & Rovolis (2005) and Hájek et al. (2012) are some of exceptions in this regard. The authors provide rather ambivalent conclusions on the flow of regional policy expenditures to the lagging region defined on the political basis. Similarly, Crescenzi (2009), Škarka (2012) and Corrado, Martin & Weeks (2005) point at a limited impact of regional policy expenditures because the spatial pattern of their allocation does not correspond to the intensity of socioeconomic problems.

The essence of this paper rests on the abovementioned findings. Its intent is to contribute to the current knowledge on the spatial pattern of regional policy expenditures. We follow the research idea suggested by Crescenzi (2009) and focused on the relationship between regional policy expenditures on one hand and the intensity of socioeconomic problems on the other. In this regard, we chose the following background of our research:

- Firstly, the Moravia-Silesia region located in the north-eastern part of the Czech Republic is the model area of our research. Thus, our interest is focused on internal disparities in the NUTS 2 territorial unit. Note that this spatial level is rather neglected in the research on regional policy expenditures. The NUTS 2 level is generally preferred in scholar literature (see, e.g., Esposti & Bussoletti 2008; Lolos 2009; Dall'erba & Le Gallo 2008; Crescenzi 2009; Boldrin & Canova 2001).
- Secondly, the EU cohesion policy in the 2007-2013 programming period is the subject of our interest. This choice is substantiated by the decisive importance of this policy for regional development in the Czech Republic in the 2007-2013 programming period (see, e.g., Wokoun 2007).
- Thirdly, there are various thematic areas of the EU cohesion policy interventions. It is out of scope of this paper to deal with all of them. Thus, SME development is the subject of our interest only. However, this thematic area may be regarded as highly relevant for our research. Huggins & Williams (2011) claim that regional development is closely related to the ability of regions to retain enterprises in or attract them to their territories. Similarly, Bennett (2008) speaks about a positive impact of SMEs on the development of lagging regions.

Based on this background, the goal of this paper is to identify whether the EU cohesion policy expenditures in the Moravia-Silesia region, which are related to SME development, flow into the subregions with worse figures of the indicators relevant for this thematic area. The paper is structured as follows. The next section summarizes main findings from literature review. Subsequently, research methodology is introduced. The fourth section discusses main findings from our research. The last section concludes.

2. Literature review

SMEs are generally regarded as an important factor of economic development. Thus, for example, European Commission (2011) claims that the share of SMEs on the total EU employment in private sector was two thirds in the first decade of the 21st century and that 80 percent of new jobs were created in the SME sector. Moreover, there is a rather extensive literature on the relationship between SMEs and economic development. In this regard, a number of researchers show a positive impact of SMEs on economic development (see, e.g., Huggins & Williams 2011; Romero 2012; Sternberg 2012). It is noteworthy that this research is embedded in the discussion on the advantages of SMEs compared with large enterprises. Audretsch (2001) connects these advantages especially with the flexibility of SMEs in their market and innovation strategies. In addition, entrepreneurship as a self-employment opportunity is emphasized.

The positive impact of SMEs on economic development may be regarded as the main trigger for the formulation of SME policies, first implemented in the United States in the 1950s and subsequently also in other developed countries (see, e.g., Stevenson & Lundström 2001). What is the economic rationale of these political measures? Bennett (2008) gives three explanations in this regard:

- Firstly, the explanation based on market failures accentuates the disadvantages of SMEs. These include worse access to external finances and information among others (see, e.g., Audretsch 2001).
- Secondly, public regulations have a higher impact on SMEs, compared with large enterprises.
- Thirdly, SMEs are a source of competitiveness and social cohesion because of their importance for employment.

Subsequently, the essence of SME policies rests on the three abovementioned explanations. It is noteworthy that scholar literature distinguishes entrepreneurship policies on one hand and SME policies on the other. While the first type of policies is focused on the formation of new firms, the second type of policies supports existing SMEs. However, the distinction between the two types of policies is often blurred (see, e.g., Stevenson & Lundström 2001). For the purpose of simplicity, we understand entrepreneurship policies as a part of SME policies in the text hereafter.

There are various instruments of SME policies. These include reduction of administrative burden (e.g. deregulation, one-stop shopping and others), improved access to finances, development of support infrastructure (e.g. enterprise incubators, advising services and others), or strengthening of entrepreneurial culture (e.g. advertising and education focused on entrepreneurship). However, this pack of instruments may be understood as a SME policy in a narrow sense. The broad sense integrates SME and other policies. These include especially innovation policies (see, e.g., Fritsch & Mueller 2004), but also policies focused on human capital development or construction of transport infrastructure (see, e.g., Bennett 2008). Dennis (2011b) summarizes the abovementioned considerations in a typology which distinguishes direct and indirect instruments of SME policies. Financial programmes belong to the first type of instruments, education and infrastructure to the second type.

The preceding text shows the importance of SMEs for economic development. In this regard both, economic development and SMEs are not spaceless. Thus, Sternberg (2012) or Huggins & Williams (2011) point at better figures of SME indicators in core, mostly urban, regions. On the contrary, economic development of peripheral regions is negatively affected

by worse figures of SME indicators (Sternberg 2012; Bennett 2008; Romero 2012). Altogether, these findings evoke the idea on the integration of the goals of SME policies on one hand and the goal to reduce regional disparities on the other. Such an idea was included also into the Czech SME policy for the period 2007-2013 where the EU cohesion policy became a crucial financial source for the implementation process of the policy. However, despite the importance of the relationship between SME policies and economic development of peripheral regions, there is only limited research on the spatial pattern of SME policy expenditures (see, e.g., Hájek et al. 2012; Škarka 2012; for some partial aspects of the theme). Note that the causes of this fact were already mentioned in the introduction of this paper.

Altogether, this paper integrates the abovementioned considerations in the following research design. Firstly, the position of particular subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region according to their figures of indicators relevant for SME development is identified. Secondly, a database of the projects which were realized by SMEs from/in the Moravia-Silesia region and simultaneously co-financed from the EU cohesion policy in the programming period 2007-2013 is compiled. Subsequently, the spatial pattern of these EU cohesion policy expenditures in the Moravia-Silesia region is mapped. Fourthly, the question whether the EU cohesion policy expenditures flow into the lagging or non-lagging subregions of SME development is answered.

3. Methodology

The methodology of this paper is based on the research design described in the preceding section. In the first part of the research, the position of particular subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region according to their figures of indicators relevant for SME development was identified. Note that subregions were defined at the level of administrative districts of municipalities with extended powers. Table 1 reviews the indicators used in the analysis.

Two methods were used to identify the position of particular subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region according to the indicators given in table 1. First, hierarchical cluster analysis was applied. In this regard, the Ward's cluster method with the squared Euclidian distance measure and Z-score standardization was used. Thus, natural groupings of subregions, clusters, were revealed. The characteristics of these clusters were used to identify lagging and non-lagging subregions. Second, the ranking of subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region was determined on the basis of multi-criteria methods. In this regard, the arithmetic means of standardized values of the four indicators given in table 1 (the standardized score hereafter) were calculated for each subregion and subsequently sorted descending according to their standardized scores. Note that the Z-score standardization was used and that each indicator was of the same weigh. Once again, lagging and non-lagging regions were identified.

In the second part of the research, a database of the projects which were co-financed from the EU cohesion policy in the programming period 2007-2013 in the Czech Republic, excluding the projects of the European Territorial Cooperation Goal, was compiled. The Regional Information Service of the Center for Regional Development of the Czech Republic (the RIS CRD hereafter) was the main source of information. In this regard, the situation in January 2014 was analyzed. The database was subsequently complemented with several characteristics of projects. These included, among others, institutional sector, number of employees and seat of project recipients and thematic focus of projects. Thereafter, the projects which met the following conditions were selected:

- The project was realized by a recipient with the seat in the Moravia-Silesia region.
- The project was realized by a recipient with less than 250 employees. Thus, the definition of SMEs based on the number of employees was used.
- The project was realized by a recipient who institutionally did not belong to public or non-government sector.
- The project was thematically focused on enterprise environment, human resource development, or innovations.

Table 1: Indicators of SME development

Indicator	Description	Data source
Degree of enterprise activity	The indicator “Degree of enterprise activity” was calculated as the ratio between the number of SMEs in the year 2007 and economically active population in particular subregions. Note that economically active population was averaged from the Census data in the years 2001 and 2011. In this way, we tried to express the situation at the beginning of the programming period 2007-2013. We suppose that a higher degree of enterprise activity is characteristic for the subregions on a higher level of SME development.	Czech Statistical Office, Business Register
Change in enterprise activity	The indicator “Change in enterprise activity” was calculated as the ratio between the difference in the number of SMEs in the years 2007 and 2003 on one hand and the number of SMEs in 2003. In this way, we tried to express the situation at the beginning of the programming period 2007-2013. We suppose that a higher positive change in enterprise activity is characteristic for the subregions on a higher level of SME development.	Czech Statistical Office, Business Register
Unemployment	Increasing employment belongs to the main goals of SME policies. Thus, the indicator “Unemployment” was added to our analysis. We suppose that a lower unemployment is characteristic for the subregions on a higher level of SME development.	Czech Statistical Office
Index of innovativeness	Increasing innovativeness belongs to the main goals of SME policies. Thus, the indicator “Index of innovativeness” was added to our analysis. The indicator was calculated as the arithmetic mean of three subindexes related to the relative number of R&D oriented economic subjects, to the relative R&D expenditures and to the relative number of patents in the territory. We suppose that a higher index of innovativeness is characteristic for the subregions on a higher level of SME development.	Czech Statistical Office

Source: own elaboration

The spatial pattern of the EU cohesion policy expenditures in the Moravia-Silesia region was mapped in the last part of the research. In this regard, the clusters which had been identified in the first part of the methodology were used as spatial units. The financial allocation of the EU cohesion policy expenditures per 1 SME for each of these spatial units was calculated. Moreover, the relative financial allocation was decomposed thematically as well. The themes “enterprise environment”, “human resource development” and “innovations” were used. Comparison of the calculated figures enabled us to answer the question whether the EU cohesion policy expenditures flowed into the lagging or non-lagging subregions. Finally, the relevance of the findings was verified on the basis of correlation between the standardized scores and the EU cohesion policy expenditures per 1 SME for particular subregions.

4. Empirical results

This section summarizes main findings from the research. Firstly, the position of particular subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region according to their figures of indicators relevant for SME development is assessed. Two assessments are used in this regard. Hierarchical cluster analysis is applied to identify natural groupings of subregions, clusters. In addition, the ranking of subregions in the Moravia-Silesia region is determined on the basis of multi-criteria methods.

Table 2 shows the results of the hierarchical cluster analysis. In this regard, six clusters of subregions were identified. Their description is useful to identify the intensity of problems related to SME development. Thus, subregions in the clusters 1, 2 and 3 may be understood as the subregions on a higher level of SME development. On the contrary, subregions in the clusters 5 and 6 are perceived as lagging subregions. Table 3 adds the ranking of subregions according to their standardized scores. The close relationship between the both assessments is noteworthy.

Table 2: Clusters of subregions

Cluster	Description	Subregions
1	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by a high degree of enterprise activity and high innovativeness.	Ostrava
2	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by a high change in enterprise activities.	Frýdlant nad Ostravicí, Odry
3	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by a high degree of enterprise activity, low change in enterprise activities and low unemployment.	Frenštát pod Radhoštěm, Nový Jičín
4	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by more or less average figures of all indicators used in the cluster analysis.	Bílovec, Frýdek-Místek, Hlučín, Jablunkov, Kopřivnice, Kravaře, Krnov, Opava, Třinec, Vítkov
5	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by a high degree of enterprise activity, low innovativeness, high unemployment and low change in enterprise activities.	Bruntál, Český Těšín, Rýmařov
6	The subregions in this cluster are characteristic by a low degree of enterprise activity, low innovativeness, high unemployment and low change in enterprise activities.	Bohumín, Havířov, Karviná, Orlová

Source: own elaboration based on the data from the Czech Statistical Office

Secondly, the EU cohesion projects which meet the conditions defined in the methodology are analyzed. The focus is on the spatial pattern of the EU cohesion policy expenditures. In this regard, the clusters identified in the table 2 were used. Note that the analysis is based on 2,404 projects with total financial allocation of more than CZK 9 billion. Table 4 provides main findings which may be summarized as follows:

- There is no straightforward spatial pattern of the EU cohesion policy expenditures when considering the intensity of socioeconomic problems related to SME development. Thus, the highest EU cohesion expenditures are absorbed by the recipients with their seat in the territory of the clusters 1 and 2. However, there are differences between the two lagging

clusters with a relatively higher figure for the cluster 5 and relatively lower figure for the cluster 6.

- The spatial pattern of the EU cohesion policy expenditures allocated in the projects which are focused on enterprise environment and human resources is more or less similar to the overall spatial pattern. However, there are differences when considering the projects focused on innovations. The core-periphery pattern is obvious in this case.

Table 3: Ranking of subregions according to the standardized score

Ranking	Subregion	Standardized score	Cluster	Ranking	Subregion	Standardized score	Cluster
1.	Ostrava	1.16	1	12.	Třinec	-0.05	4
2.	Odry	1.07	2	13.	Vítkov	-0.14	4
3.	Opava	0.72	4	14.	Krnov	-0.16	4
4.	Frenštát p. Radh.	0.59	3	15.	Jablunkov	-0.26	4
5.	Frýdlant n. O.	0.58	2	16.	Rýmařov	-0.26	5
6.	Kopřivnice	0.48	4	17.	Bruntál	-0.35	5
7.	Kravaře	0.43	4	18.	Č. Těšín	0.54	5
8.	Hlučín	0.33	4	19.	Haviřov	-0.91	6
9.	Nový Jičín	0.29	3	20.	Bohumín	-0.98	6
10.	Bílovec	0.21	4	21.	Orlová	-1.12	6
11.	Frýdek-Místek	0.17	4	22.	Karviná	-1.28	6

Source: own elaboration based on the data from the Czech Statistical Office

Table 4: EU cohesion policy expenditures per 1 SME in clusters (table 4)

Cluster	Expenditures without thematic focus (CZK)	Expenditures with thematic focus (CZK) on		
		enterprise environment	innovations	human resources
1.	50,397	22,306	9,286	18,806
2.	74,038	36,188	2,859	34,991
3.	23,250	11,305	3,577	8,368
4.	33,138	13,549	3,345	16,244
5.	49,015	21,046	2,275	25,695
6.	24,385	10,062	2,893	11,430

Source: own elaboration based on the data from the RIS CRD and the Czech Statistical Office

The preceding findings point at an ambivalent answer to the question whether the EU cohesion policy expenditures flow into the lagging or non-lagging subregions in the Moravia-

Silesia region. Generally, the EU cohesion policy expenditures do not follow the gradient of the intensity of socioeconomic problems in neither of possible directions. Thus, there is a low financial allocation in the subregions which were categorized in the cluster with the worst figures of the analyzed indicators (cluster 6). However, the financial allocation of the lagging subregions classified in the cluster 5 is much higher. Thus, there are lagging subregions with relatively low but also lagging subregions with relatively high absorption capacities of their SMEs. Table 5 confirms this fact showing the prominent position of the Bohumín and Bruntál subregions. Finally, the ambivalent relationship between the EU cohesion policy expenditures on one hand and the intensity of socioeconomic problems on the other may be also identified by the figures of correlation coefficients between the standardized scores and the EU cohesion policy expenditures per 1 SME for particular subregions – 0.131 for the Pearson correlation and 0.258 for the Spearman's rho.

Table 5: Ranking of subregions (EU cohesion policy expenditures per 1 SME), in CZK

Ranking	Subregion	Expenditures	Cluster	Ranking	Subregion	Expenditures	Cluster
1.	Frýdlant n. O.	97,438	2	12.	Frýd.-Místek	31,219	4
2.	Bohumín	94.268	6	13.	Třinec	29.297	4
3.	Bruntál	66.285	5	14.	Jablunkov	28.939	4
4.	Bílovec	55,644	4	15.	Rýmařov	27.941	5
5.	Ostrava	50,397	1	16.	Nový Jičín	25.696	3
6.	Kopřivnice	42,792	4	17.	Orlová	21.792	6
7.	Odry	40,347	2	18.	Vítkov	20.313	4
8.	Hlučín	36,436	4	19.	Kravaře	19.273	4
9.	Český Těšín	34,363	5	20.	Karviná	16.664	6
10.	Krnov	32.569	4	21.	Frenštát p. R.	16.633	3
11.	Opava	31.968	4	22.	Havířov	11.092	6

Source: own elaboration based on the data from the RIS CRD and the Czech Statistical Office

5. Conclusion

Regional disparities belong to important research and political themes nowadays. There are a number of potential threads closely related to large regional disparities. Consequently, regional policies were formulated at various spatial levels with the fundamental goal to reduce regional disparities. The EU cohesion policy belongs to the most ambitious projects of this kind and just this policy has become a dominant policy of regional development in a lot of post-socialist countries, including the Czech Republic. Because of its whole-territory nature, the EU cohesion policy may be regarded as a relevant instrument how to alleviate internal regional disparities at various spatial levels in the Czech Republic. The question is whether EU cohesion policy expenditures flow into the lagging or non-lagging regions.

In this paper, the abovementioned question was addressed focusing on SME development in the Moravia-Silesia region. The findings point at ambivalent conclusions. There is no straightforward spatial pattern of the EU cohesion policy expenditures in the relationship to the position of subregions in SME development. Thus, the EU cohesion policy expenditures do not follow the intensity of socioeconomic disadvantage (see, e.g., Crescenzi 2009; Škarka 2012; Corrado, Martin & Weeks 2005 for the same assertion). Furthermore, there are lagging subregions which were capable to absorb relatively high EU cohesion policy expenditures but also lagging subregions which were not. This situation evokes fears on worsening position of the second type of lagging subregions.

Altogether, the findings have important political consequences. Firstly, the question on the coherence between the EU cohesion policy and national regional policy level is obvious when considering the goal to reduce regional disparities. Secondly, the methodological approach of this has a potential to be implemented in the territorial impact assessment to prevent political clash between the regions with different capacities to absorb the EU cohesion policy expenditures.

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European Social Fund Investments in the Czech Republic and Slovakia

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Abstract

The paper is focused on the investments of European Social Fund as they were implemented in the period 2007 – 2012 in the Czech and Slovak Republics. The primary objective is evaluation of the success in targeting these investments into high unemployment suffering districts, secondary objectives deal with the fund beneficiaries and their distribution among the subjects of the institutional sectors of the national economy and with the thematic division of the investments. The results are somewhat ambivalent in terms of allocating the European Social Fund resources into high unemployment districts. From the available projects it is not possible to conclude that these districts are indeed more supported as opposed to the rest of them. The involvement of subjects from different institutional sectors is characterized by dominance of the central public administration which is especially pronounced in Slovakia and thematically the investments lean heavily toward social inclusion projects in both countries.

Keywords: Czech Republic, European Social Fund, European Union, Slovak Republic

1. Introduction

Considering the objectives of the European Union as stated in the Europe 2020 strategy, as well as the efforts of individual member states to improve the quality of life of their citizens, the European Social Fund (referred to as ESF from now on) presents an important tool of delivering social, educational and other human resources related policies. In terms of research the questioning of impact of the structural funds in general is present at large, fewer studies concern themselves with more detailed look at the ESF itself (Verschraegen, Vanhercke & Verpoorten 2011). Out of these there are the works focused on activation the job seekers (van Gerven, Vanhercke & Gürocak 2014; Verschraegen, Vanhercke & Verpoorten 2011), general issues of employment and unemployment (Latviet

2009), or the works focused on the ESF contribution to the emergence and promotion of knowledge driven society (Arhipova & Balina 2008; Burlea 2011; Tome 2010).

This work complements the insights into employment and unemployment and its relation to the ESF. It primarily focuses on the spatial coherence of ESF funded projects and the unemployment rates in the Czech Republic and Slovakia within the 2007 – 2012 period. Secondary objective includes research into projects holders and the investment objectives. Given, that the ESF history precedes that of other fund which now count among the European Structural and Investment Funds and mirrors closely the history of European integration process itself (Schäfer et al. 2007), this research constituted as important update of knowledge about the European Union activities in Central and Eastern Europe.

2. ESF history and current standing

The ESF was established by the Treaty of Rome that covered, among other topics, social issues, educational issues, gender equality, employment or questions of working conditions. The ESF establishment was grounded in the articles 123 – 128 (Majone 1993). From its establishment until the 1960s Tome (2013) concludes there were no great turbulences in as far as employment was considered. The 1970s, however, brought an unwanted change connected to oil shocks and following crisis which did strike also the European Economic Community. The effects of these shocks were researched for example by Jiménez-Rodríguez (2008), Labbate (2014) or Bomhoff (1983). Since the 1970s then the ESF was changing its focus in terms of target groups. Previously, the unemployed were the only group considered. Since 1970s handicapped, women, workers from textile industry, restructuring companies were of interest (Tome 2013). The 1971 reform which saw all these groups being shifted into focus also saw opening of the fund, previously reserved for public sector alone, to the operations of private sector (European Commission 1998). As the unemployment continued to grow in the following years the European Commission broadened the focus of the ESF to new target groups and issues such as youth, impoverished, employment training, counselling, resettling workers and job creation (Vandamme 1984). The oil shocks were particularly ill-omened for the migrant who constituted another new target group (Macmillen 1982).

At the end of the 1980s the ESF was included in the groups of so called structural funds and was subject to all the results of structural policy reform including adhering to the new principles, objectives et cetera (Commission of the European Communities 1989). In connection with this reform Vandamme (1990) mentions the newly emerging priorities of long term unemployment combat, education related investments, youth work training and supporting the mobility of workforce. Apart from the objectives of the structural policy itself the fund was active also in support of multiple Community initiatives such as EUROFORM, NOW and HORIZON (European Commission 1998).

The activities of the ESF in 2000 – 2006 programming period of the European Union were defined by the 1784/1999 Regulations and included unemployment prevention, equal opportunities support, life-long learning support, promotion of well qualified, educated and flexible works, or special measures to ensure better access to work for women (European Parliament 1999). These objectives were also highlighted by the Lisbon agenda according to Hansen & Triantafyllou (2011). Daly (2008) reminds of strongly accentuated social inclusion issues which were part of the Lisbon agenda, although they slowly faded to background preceded by the need to create new jobs and promote sustainable development which has a social dimension of its own.

The following programming period of 2007 – 2013 set the ESF to support two out of three available objectives. The Convergence objective which focused on the most socio-economically lagging regions and the Regional Competitiveness and Employment. Thus the fund covered the entire European Union territory. Within the Convergence objective the fund was to improve the investments in human resources and to strengthen the institutional capacity and the efficiency of the public administration. Within both the objectives it should have concentrated on adapting the workforce, entrepreneurs and companies to economic challenges, improve the access to labour market, prevent the unemployment, strengthen the inclusion of marginalized people, promote anti-discriminatory policies, support educational systems and partnership platforms (European Parliament 2006). This suggests that the target group of the ESF were already very many at this stage of its existence, however as Viso (2010) implies, the equality and anti-discrimination actions were of paramount importance.

3. European Social Fund in the Czech Republic and Slovakia

The ESF funded two Convergence objective programmes in both countries of interest in the relevant programming period 2007 – 2013. In the Czech Republic these were Human Resources and Employment and Education for Competitiveness, in Slovakia they were Employment and social inclusion and Education. Essentially, in both countries there was an education oriented programme and employment/inclusion oriented programme. The education oriented programmes had a rather similar purpose as indicated in table 1.

Table 1: Priority axes of education related operational programmes

Education for Competitiveness (Czech)	Education (Slovak)
Reform of the Education and Vocational Training System	Initial Education
Continuing Education as an Instrument of Human Resource Development	Tertiary Education, Research and Development
Support to Education of Persons with Special Education Needs	Further Education
Modern Education for a Knowledge-Based Society for the Bratislava Region	System Framework of Lifelong Learning
Technical Assistance	Technical assistance

Source: Ministry of Education Science Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic (2007); Ministry of Education Youth and Sports (2007)

The Slovak side stated the global objective of the Education programmes as “ensuring competitiveness of the Slovak Republic in the long run by adapting the system of education to the needs of a knowledge-based society” (Ministry of Education Science Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic 2007). Similarly, the Czech programme Education for Competitiveness states its global objective as “development of an educational society in order to strengthen the Czech Republic’s competitiveness by modernizing the systems of initial, tertiary and further education, integrating them into a comprehensive system of lifelong

learning, and improving conditions in research and development” (Ministry of Education Youth and Sports 2007).

The other set of operational programmes funded from the ESF was focused on the matters of employment and social affairs as shown in table 2. In terms of global objectives, the Slovakian operational programme set it as “growth of employment, reduction of unemployment, social inclusion and capacity building” (Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs of the Slovak Republic 2007). The Czech version of the global objective amounts much to the same while emphasizing the employment strain of the programme when it sets the objective to “increase the employment and employability of people in the Czech Republic to the average level of the 15 best EU countries” (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs 2008).

Table 2: Priority axes of employment and social affairs related operational programmes

Human Resources and Employment (Czech)	Employment and Social Inclusion (Slovak)
Adaptability	Supporting employment growth
Active job market policy	Supporting social inclusion
Social integration and equal opportunities	Supporting employment, social inclusion, and capacity building in the BSR
Public administration and public services	Building capacities and improving the quality of the public administration
International cooperation	Technical assistance
Technical Assistance	

Source: Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs of the Slovak Republic (2007); Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (2008)

4. Methodology

The analysed data is based on the lists of beneficiaries of cohesion policy funding, which are mandatorily published by the two countries of interest. These lists are, for the purpose of this work, insufficient had to be supplemented by additional information from relevant sources.

In order to identify the spatial relationship between unemployment and the funding it was necessary to determine the seat of applicants for projects. In both countries, it was possible to identify the applicant by using information systems maintained by national statistical offices. In the Czech Republic it was the Business Register, in the case of Slovakia, a Statistical Register of Organizations. These sources also provided the information on the number of employees in private enterprises. Information about the project site location was in the Czech Republic, published by the Ministry for Regional Development through the website of the Center for Regional Development. In the Slovak Republic, this information was included in the actual contracts with the beneficiaries, which are published in the Central Register of contracts, or the Central registry of projects. For purposes of identifying the influence of regional unemployment the information on the company seat and project site location were identified at LAU level 2 (municipality) - LAU 1 (district) - NUTS 3 (region)

and NUTS 2 in both countries. Of course part of the projects, especially projects of national rather than individual character, was impossible to identify so. These projects were therefore excluded from the evaluation as per the location site.

For individual districts the registered unemployment rate was further determined. The rate used was calculated as an average for the years 2005 – 2011 in order to take into account the effect of this indicator in deciding on the allocation of financial assistance. The data for calculation were provided by the statistical offices of the respective countries. The resulting values of individual districts were then divided into quartiles with the first quartile districts having the lowest unemployment and fourth quartile the highest unemployment.

In the Czech Republic the largest concentration of troubled districts in terms of unemployment existed in north-western Bohemia, especially in the districts of Ústecký Region, and north and south Moravia. When looking at specific districts, the highest average registered unemployment rate was noted in Most (16.1%), Jeseník (15.1%) and Bruntál (14.2%). In the Slovak Republic the most affected regions were Prešovský, Košický and Banskobystrický. The highest unemployment rate average for years 2005 - 2011 was registered in the districts of Rimavská Sobota (30.6%), Revúca (27.8%) and Rožňava (24.4%). Generally, the districts affected by high unemployment concentrated in the eastern and southeastern parts of Slovakia, which corresponds to the assessment of regional disparities in the Slovak Republic by other authors (Hornák & Rochovská 2007; Lauko, Križan & Gurňák 2009; Matlovič, Klamár & Matlovičová 2008; Švecová & Rajčáková 2013, 2010).

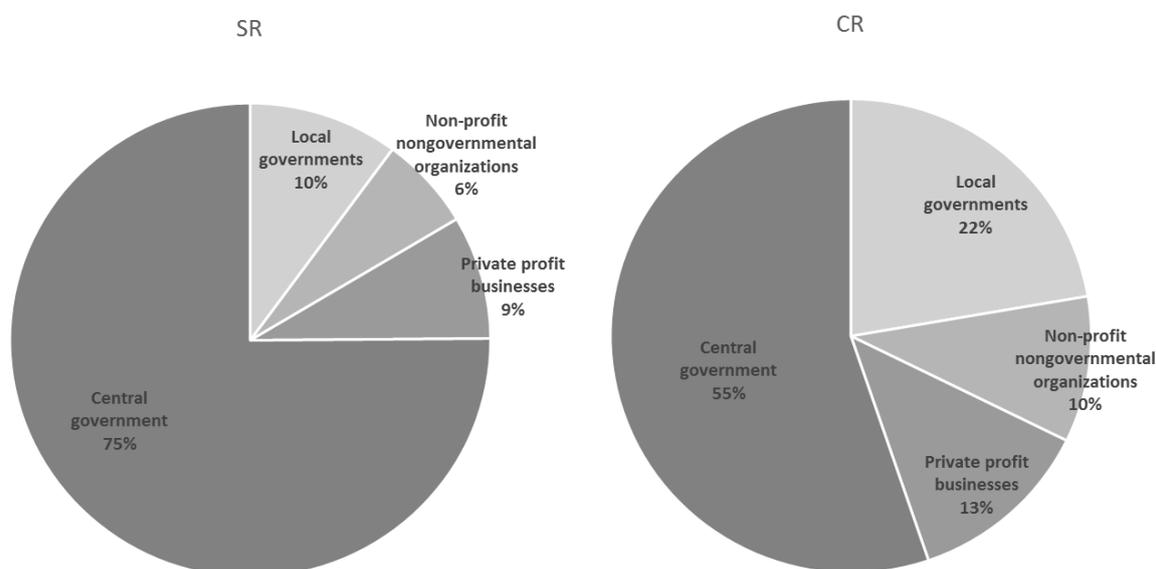
The issue of project holders was viewed in terms of individual sectors of the national economy in distinction to local government, central government, non-profit nongovernmental organizations, and private profit businesses. The categories were assigned according to the data found in business organizations registers of both countries.

The analysis reflecting the investment objectives was treated with regards to the topics on which the projects were actually focused. The themes targeted stem from the areas described in individual operational programmes described in chapter 3 and were identified as follows: initial education; tertiary education, research and development; lifelong learning and continued education; training of employees in enterprises; improving public services and human resources in public administration; and social inclusion.

5. Results

When comparing the two countries in terms of the share of sectors of national economy, it is clear that the activity of the central government was dominant in both of them, and predominantly so in the Slovakia where the central government led projects amounted to three-quarters of the total allocation of the approximately 1,296 bil. € spent in the ESF funded projects. In the Czech Republic it was roughly twenty percent less, nevertheless the government still got over half the share out of the total amount of 3,118 bil. € spent. In both cases, in consideration also included national projects. The central public administration in Slovakia was very active as a project leader especially at the expense of local Slovak governments, whose share was rather more significant in the Czech Republic as indicated by figure 1. The dominance of Slovak central government was such that it dwarfed even the efforts of project leader from non-profit sector and private businesses.

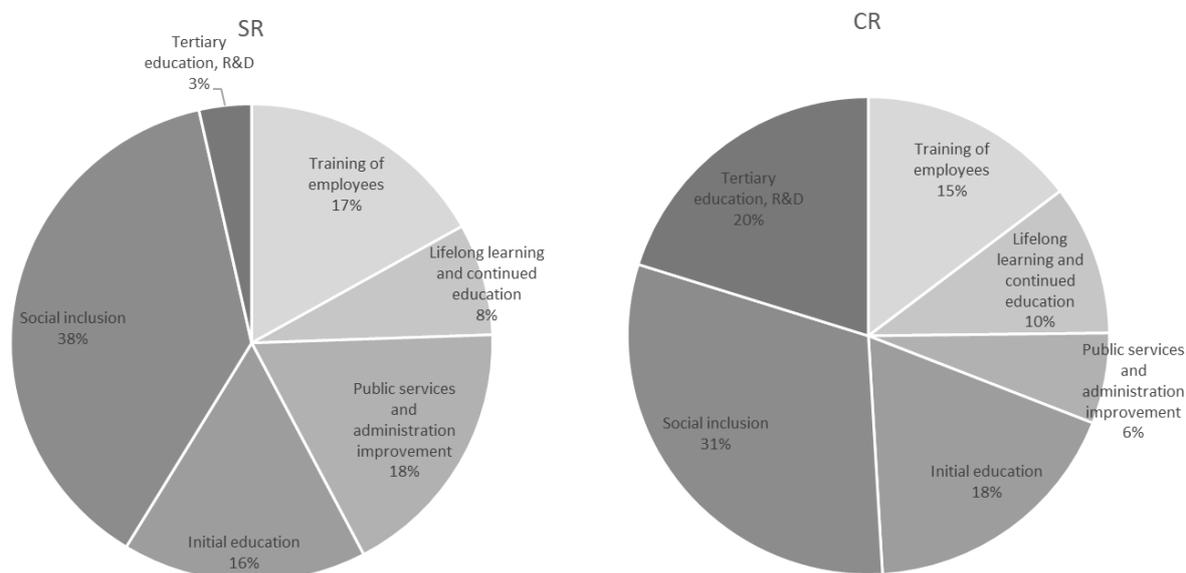
Figure 1: Comparing share on allocation gained by project holders from individual economy sectors



Source: authors based on the lists of beneficiaries – Ministry for Regional Development of the Czech Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014); Government Office of the Slovak Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014)

In terms of thematic focus of the ESF investments, the most important segment in both countries was the social inclusion. In the Czech Republic this area of interest was somewhat less dominant than in Slovakia, taking not entirely one third of total allocation. Other major investment efforts in the Czech Republic included tertiary education and R&D, initial education and employee training. Comparatively smaller investments were made in lifelong learning and public sector. Slovak projects were somewhat more dominated by the social inclusion oriented one.

Further investments into employee training, lifelong learning, and initial education were in their proportion equivalent to those in the Czech Republic. A very different approach was taken in terms of support of tertiary education and R&D projects which were decidedly less numerous and amounted to lesser share of total allocation. It is however, necessary to note, that Slovakia had supported this area mainly from European Regional Development Fund. On the other hand, the ESF funding in the Slovak Republic was more distinctly used to support human resources and services in the public administration than it was in the Czech Republic (see fig. 2).

Figure 2: Comparing share on allocation gained by project holders from individual economy sectors

Source: authors based on the lists of beneficiaries – Ministry for Regional Development of the Czech Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014); Government Office of the Slovak Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014)

As for the primary objective of this paper to compare the ESF investment flow with the registered unemployment, the results were rather ambivalent. Apart from the area of social inclusion, the regions with the highest unemployment rate did not belong among those most supported. For purposes of international comparison, the table 3 shows support to the four groups of regions as per their position in quartiles according to the registered unemployment rate. Comparing the two countries, the nature of support is rather similar in both cases. The first quartile districts, characterized by the lowest unemployment rates in both cases show markedly stronger support per capita than any other group. It is in part caused by the activities of the central governments and the branches of the governments which are naturally present in the capitals. Other groups of regions therefore register visible decrease in per capita support from the ESF. The second largest support per capita was awarded to the districts of the fourth quartiles which register the highest unemployment rates in the respective countries. Even though the amount of support per capita is halved when compared to the first quartile, it still presents a marked success in terms of steering the allocation in the right direction. There is, however, a distinct shift in the nature of the projects to a less value added ones. The fourth quartile districts are supported mainly by the projects concerned with the issues of social inclusion, rather than any other category. While it would be unrealistic to expect large investments into tertiary education, R&D or unemployment policies which are made at the first quartile level, the lack of support for projects concerned with other topics than social inclusion and basic education raises the question of what types of project will these regions sustain once, the basic efforts for human resources improvement were made. The difference in support of the second and third quartiles in both countries is small.

Table 3: Per capita support of projects implemented within the districts grouped according to the unemployment rate

Districts	Slovak Republic		Czech Republic	
	Registered unemployment	Per capita support (EUR)	Registered unemployment	Per capita support (EUR)
1 st quartile	< 7,6 %	151	< 6,7 %	136
2 nd quartile	7,6 – 10,7 %	67	6,7 – 8,0 %	71
3 rd quartile	10,7 – 17,0 %	68	8,0 – 10,0 %	68
4 th quartile	17,0 – 30,6 %	85	10,0 – 16,1 %	79

Source: authors based on the lists of beneficiaries – Ministry for Regional Development of the Czech Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014); Government Office of the Slovak Republic (list of beneficiaries; May 2014), data on population and unemployment rate from the Czech Statistical Office and Slovak Statistical Office

6. Concluding remarks

The European Social Fund is a long-term instrument of intervention supporting the human resources. Its establishment is associated with the founding of the European Economic Community itself. The fund has undergone many reforms and since the late 1980s of is inseparably connected with the regional policy of the European Union. Throughout its existence, whilst maintaining its focus on human resources, the portfolio of target groups and interventions over time grew to include new sectors and specific social groups. In period 2007 – 2013 in the Slovak and Czech Republic the fund provided its support through two similar operational programmes in each country.

The evaluation of provided support was the objective of this paper. It focused primarily on question of supporting the districts most affected by unemployment in the respective states. The results, however, were inconclusive. In neither country there was significant preference for districts with the highest registered unemployment rate in spite of the disparities being substantial as far as the unemployment is concerned. While no country may be seen as channelling the ESF investments predominantly into unemployment affected regions. The similarities end in the involvement of institutional sectors. The Slovak Republic shows clear dominance of the central public administration, while the Czech Republic, also registering more than half investments to the central government, routes more of the investments to the local public administration institutions. In terms of investing into different areas, both countries reserve the most significant investments for social inclusion projects.

It can be concluded that despite the limitations of this research, caused mainly by the impossibility of identifying the actual place of implementation of the national projects, the two countries take rather similar approach to using the European Social Fund support as far as the strategic preparation and the treatment of districts with high unemployment is concerned. In the future the challenge will be presented by constraint in the finances and efficiency of their allocation.

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Cohesion Policy as Instrument for Competitiveness of European Union

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to provide information about a process of drawing and implementation of the European structural and investment funds of the European Union. It is focused on the importance of Cohesion Policy of the EU within previous and current programming period. It presents a comprehensive view on strategic documents and principles. The paper analyses the setting of priorities of Cohesion Policy. The work tries to evaluate comprehensively the issues of EU funds comparing current level with past respectively expected level. It also identifies regional development and methods of management which can bring potential measures for more effective drawing the process of implementation of the EU funds.

Keywords: Cohesion Policy, shared management, multi-level governance, regions, development

1. Introduction

This paper describes how Cohesion Policy is useful for removing regional disparities and the next development of regions. The aim of the paper is to contribute to the part of the review that concerns cohesion, by undertaking an assessment of the evidence on European Union (EU) Cohesion Policy concerning whether and to what extent the objectives of the relevant policies have been met, and whether these policies and funds have delivered value for money – and an understanding of how this varies within and between policies. It uses methodology based on analyses and comparing.

The specific objectives of the study are to assess:

- the effectiveness of Structural and Cohesion Funds in addressing the tasks given to them under the various Treaties, and other relevant goals assigned to Cohesion Policy,
- the extent to which the Funds should be targeted at less-developed Member States or regions and disadvantaged groups, rather than being available as sources of investment for economic development across all areas,
- the evidence (if any) to inform whether the types of activity covered by the Structural Funds are more appropriately funded at the EU, national or regional/local level.

The article focuses on the description of the EU Cohesion Policy in the previous and the current programming period, with particular emphasis on the balance of benefits and costs of individual states. We discuss the main features of the Cohesion Policy at a European and regional level. It talks about geographical coverage and targeting of finances from EU funds as main aspects of Cohesion Policy. The second part of article focus on shared management of Cohesion Policy as a management model for administering funding in the EU. Last but not least we try answer on the question if it is the multi-level governance model effective and efficient.

2. Cohesion Policy

The idea of the EU Cohesion Policy, initiated along with the Treaties of Rome in 1957, was intended to enhance socio-economic cohesion among regions of the Member States by supporting development of the poorest areas of the Community. The implementation of the Policy was to be realised by Structural Funds, established as financial instruments for individual sectors of the economy. In 1958, the European Social Fund was created to help adjust the skills of the European workforce, combat unemployment and social exclusion. In 1964, the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund was created. Along with subsequent accessions to the European Community, divergence within the Community continued to increase, leading to the intensification of efforts to increase cohesion by Rajčáková (2005). After the accession of Denmark, Ireland and Great Britain in 1973 the European Regional Development Fund was created (1975) with the task of supporting less developed areas, especially industrialised ones. The Fund plays a key role in the currently implemented EU Cohesion Policy. The accession of Greece, Spain and Portugal in 1986 was preceded by a profound reform of the Structural Funds launched in 1989. Cappelen et al. (2003) underline policy goals which were formulated as: to promote economic growth in the poorest regions of the Community, promote entrepreneurship, and improve the quality of the environment in industrial areas; flexible programs focusing on labour market policies, and acceleration of the structural adjustment of agriculture to reforms within the Common Agricultural Policy.

In 1993, according to the provisions of the Treaty of Maastricht, a new instrument was incorporated in to the Cohesion Policy – the Cohesion Fund. It was meant to support large investments, primarily in the area of infrastructure and environmental protection in less developed countries of the Community. Furthermore, Bradley, Untiedt & Zaleski (2009) state the accession of new members of the Community was accompanied by the establishment of the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance, in order to support restructuring of the fisheries sector.

Historically, EU Cohesion Policy has sought to address regional disparities and bring structural change to the economies of European regions ‘lagging behind’. Cohesion Policy and its structural instruments as has been shown Hjerp et al. (2009) provide a mechanism for re-distributing an element of the EU’s budget which itself represents only about one percent of the Union’s GDP. The level of redistribution is rather modest in relation to the scale of the EU economy and expenditure is traditionally focused primarily but not exclusively on economic and social objectives, which emphasize job creation and economic growth. As Rodriguez-Pose & Novak (2013) demonstrated, Cohesion Policy has a role in the shaping the economic models deployed in Europe and the extent to which sustainable development, as referred to in the EU Treaties, is pursued in practice.

The Cohesion Policy for 2014-2020 is intended to be more closely aligned than its predecessor to the Europe 2020 strategy, which sets out objectives for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. With an allocation of €325 billion for the seven-year period, Cohesion Policy is by far the most substantial funding instrument, representing about a third of the EU Multiannual Financial Framework, with a major impact in an important segment of the EU, particularly in Eastern and Southern Europe (Tvaronavičienė & Grybaite 2013). Consequently, the pattern of support it offers, the objectives pursued and the conditions attached are an important building block in the construction of a sustainable Europe. An appropriate Cohesion Policy is in the long term interest of all Member States of the EU by Bradley, Untiedt & Zaleski (2009).

The current financial perspective 2014-2020 is designed in the context of the Europe 2020 Strategy European, where European Commission (2010) includes the following priorities:

- smart growth: developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation,
- sustainable growth: promoting a more resource efficient, greener and more competitive economy,
- inclusive growth: supporting the economy with high levels of employment, ensuring social and territorial cohesion.

The priorities for Europe 2020 as it is states by European Commission (2007) are partially consistent with the priorities of the Lisbon Strategy: the most important are as still include competitiveness, building a knowledge based economy, the environment, high employment and social cohesion. The new strategy, however, placed greater emphasis on strengthening the digital society, developing research and innovation, the rational use of natural resources, developing entrepreneurship and competitiveness, while maintaining the objectives of employment growth and poverty reduction.

3. Geographical coverage and targeting as main aspects of cohesion policy

The Cohesion Policy is to accelerate and facilitate the process of real convergence between regions. The need for such a policy is shown in sustained differences in economic development among Member States of the EU. Bachtler & McMaster (2008) claim, that the effectiveness of the European Investment and Structural Funds can be assessed in relation to the goals set for Cohesion Policy. The overarching goal of Cohesion Policy is noted in the Treaty on the functioning of the European Union (2010a): *“In order to promote its overall harmonious development, the Union shall develop and pursue its actions leading to the strengthening of its economic, social and territorial cohesion. // In particular, the Union shall aim at reducing disparities between the levels of development of the various regions and the backwardness of the least favoured regions”*. Dheret (2011) underlines that EU Member States differ in terms of social development, as evidenced by different levels of the human development index, consisting of: gross output per capita (formerly GDP per capita), life expectancy, and the current average and expected duration of education issues falling within the area of Cohesion Policy interventions.

The 2004 and 2007 enlargements resulted in a considerable widening of the relative development gap between richest and poorest regions. Allen (2010) stresses, that the existing differences show the need for an effective Cohesion Policy, of particular importance for the new EU Member States, as their levels of economic and social development are lower than in

the “old” EU Member States. Further goals are defined in the multi-annual regulations agreed for the Funds and in the programme documents through which the policy is operationalised. In addition, Cohesion Policy in the 2007-2013 and 2014-2020 periods aims to contribute to the Lisbon agenda and the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth by European Commission (2013). The accession to the EU and the considerable investments made through Cohesion Policy (and other EU policies) led the new Member States to experience a process of national growth, generally driven by the capital regions. European Union (2010b) states this meant national convergence with EU averages, but also widening of infra-state disparities. The crisis, with the well-known consequences on the unemployment levels and macro-economic stability (particularly in the Southern European countries and Ireland) has fundamentally altered this trajectory of change. According to Hagen & Mohl (2009), a key issue is the extent to which the evolution of regional disparities can be attributed to the influence of Cohesion Policy, in relation to exogenous factors and wider macroeconomic policy choices, and against the domestic regional policies that are in operation in a number of countries.

Bachtler & Mendez (2007) posited, that the *geographical coverage* and *targeting* of Cohesion Policy is underpinned by the *concentration principle*, which aims to focus the funds on the less-developed countries and regions of the EU. As Bachtler et al. (2013) defined, the modalities of this principle are complex and encompass a series of geographical eligibility and financial allocations criteria agreed as part of the wider negotiations on the EU budget. The level of GDP per head relative to the EU average is the main criterion used for targeting the funding on the poorest countries and regions of the EU, which receive considerable higher financial allocations than the most developed parts of the EU. Ivaničková (2007) posited, while concentration has remained a key principle since 1988, geographical coverage has evolved from a targeted approach to an all-region policy since the elimination of ‘zoning’ (targeting of specific areas) in the more-developed EU regions in 2007-2013.

The geographical coverage, specifically the poor country/region focus, has been an issue in the last two reform debates. Mohl & Hagen (2010) stressed, that this partly reflects an intrinsic link between the Cohesion Policy budget and the EU budget negotiations, since the overall size of the Cohesion Policy budget and relative allocations to countries/regions can have a sizeable impact on the net balance of contributions and receipts from the overall EU budget, as well as doubts about the added value of Cohesion Policy in richer countries and regions. The European Commission and European Parliament have always argued for a pan-EU Cohesion Policy to support all Member States, with a higher concentration of funding in the less-developed EU regions. As part of its reform proposals for the 2007-2013 period, the Commission responded to the renationalisation threat by re-packaging Objectives 2 and 3 as a ‘Regional Competitiveness and Employment’ objective, oriented to the goals of the Lisbon strategy and giving Member States more flexibility to determine geographical eligibility and allocations internally (Varga & in’t Veld, 2010). For the 2014-2020 period, the European Commission (2011) examined a ‘lagging country focus’ option in its impact assessment accompanying the reform proposals with funding restricted to the less-developed Member States. While concentration on less-developed countries would save money for the EU budget, the option was rejected for four reasons: Cohesion Policy would become a redistributive policy losing its allocative benefits across the EU; there would be lower incentives to foster cross-border spill-over effects across countries and regions; the incentives to contribute to EU-wide priorities would decline; and there would be lower growth effects on the EU economy explained by Bouvet (2007).

Geographical concentration is core principle underpinning Cohesion Policy. Over time, the targeting of Cohesion Policy has evolved from focusing on designated regions

characterised by underdevelopment, industrial restructuring or rural problems to a policy that is available to all regions throughout the EU. Blom-Hansen (2006) explained, that in part, this reflects the shift in the policy's objectives, away from the traditional concern with reducing regional disparities to promoting growth and competitiveness across the whole of the EU. Research made by Smékalová et al. (2014) show, that big influence on competitiveness of regions have entrepreneurs which cooperate with society and overall efforts of the government reflect the shift in the policy's objectives, away from the traditional concern with reducing regional disparities to promoting growth and competitiveness across the whole of the EU. EU funds are public investments but they support private sector as well. Organizations have the opportunity to effectively use this aid as it covers part of salaries of trainees and makes part of their own sources free of use for other development activities by Martinez & Potluka (2015).

3.1 EU policy coordination for richer countries/regions without funding

The Treaty commitment to cohesion requires the EU to promote harmonious development and a reduction in disparities across all Member States irrespective of the spatial targeting or level of financial support. Begg (2003) emphasizes if Cohesion Policy resources were restricted to the less-developed countries/regions, the role of the EU level in the more-developed areas could be more one of coordination of national regional policies. As in existing areas of EU policymaking, such as research or employment policies, this could be governed by the 'open method of coordination', involving the setting of joint objectives at EU level, periodic monitoring and sharing of national regional policy experiences with a view to improving the design and implementation of national policies and strategies, the development of coordinated or joint initiatives on issues of transnational interest, and the identification of areas where Community initiatives could reinforce national actions. It would involve developing some of the 'experimentalist governance' features of the existing programming method by Mendez (2011): agreeing objectives, guidelines and timetables for achieving EU cohesion and wider Europe 2020 objectives; establishing quantitative and qualitative indicators and benchmarks, tailored to the needs of Member States and regions; translating European guidelines into national and regional policies, but at the initiative of the Member States without any binding regulation at EU level; and periodic monitoring and peer review of the progress at EU level to stimulate mutual learning processes across Member States, both through formal institutional channels (e.g. Council of Ministers meetings) and through more informal networking initiatives (e.g. the open days).

According to Begg (2003), to be effective, this policy coordination approach would require the Member States to take political ownership of cohesion objectives. Mendez (2011) claims, that proactive engagement by the Member States in peer review processes would be another important ingredient. The OECD practice of territorial reviews of regional policies could provide a model to learn from. A key part of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2009) review process are evaluation missions by international experts and high-level officials and elected representatives from peer countries/cities to feed into the process of assessment and to provide recommendations based on international experiences.

4. Shared management of cohesion policy

There are various management models for administering funding in the EU. As Bachtler & Taylor (2003) underline, Cohesion Policy is implemented under the so-called 'shared management' model, in which the European Commission delegates implementation responsibility for the European Structural and Investment Funds to the Member States while retaining overall responsibility for the budget. This model contrasts with 'indirect management', where implementation responsibility is delegated to third parties (such as European Investment Bank and European Investment Fund loans, or development aid through third countries and international organisations); or the 'centralised management' model where the Commission is responsible for administering funding directly or indirectly.

As Bachtler et al. (2013) stated, the shared management model in Cohesion Policy is widely accepted as the most effective method for implementing regional development funding, despite the existence of administrative and compliance difficulties. Administering substantial budgetary resources on an annual basis would not be feasible or cost-effective through direct management by the European Commission. Ward, Greunz & Botti (2012) showed, that the limited management capacity in the European Commission is one of the main the reasons why the EU moved from the project-based approach under the European Regional Development Fund in the 1970s and early 1980s, involving Commission approval of individual project applications, to the programming approach under the 1988 reform, requiring programmes to be agreed by the Member States and Commission while devolving responsibility for project decisions (except for major projects) and the main implementation functions to the Member States.

An area of the Cohesion Policy shared management model that has been subject to criticism by the Commission during the post-2013 policy review is TEN-T projects financed by the Cohesion Fund, because of Member State delays in approving and implementing priority projects deemed to be of major importance for EU transport and internal market objectives. As a consequence, it was agreed that a share of the Cohesion Fund for 2014-2020 would be transferred to the new Connecting Europe Facility managed directly by DG MOVE and Centrum for Industrial Studies (2013) a view to speeding up the implementation of the priority projects. During the negotiations, the main concern of the Member States and the European Parliament's REGI Committee was that countries eligible for the Cohesion Fund would not be guaranteed their pre-agreed envelopes of funding if they face absorption challenges, although the Commission provided safeguards to address these concerns. There are differences in the approaches to shared management across the Structural, Rural and Fisheries Funds (collectively known as the European Structural and Investment Funds for the 2014-2020 period) which lead to different views about their relative effectiveness and whether there are good practices that can be by European Commission (2011) identified to improve the functioning of the Funds individually or collectively. Multi-level governance also poses challenges, particularly in the area of financial management. The so-called shared management model of budgetary implementation, with responsibility for implementation delegated to the Member States and regions while granting the Commission overall responsibility for budgetary assurance, poses high delegation risk and an ongoing problem of high levels of irregularities. Bache & Chapman (2008) stressed, that this has forced the Commission to introduce more stringent requirements and stricter enforcement of compliance, resulting in higher administrative workload and bureaucracy for programme managers and implementing bodies with negative consequences for how the policy is perceived.

In several richer countries, beneficiaries are avoiding applying for Structural Funds if alternative funding sources are available. Begg (2009) states, that larger array of arguments in

support of EU intervention and funding for richer regions is provided in the assessment, particularly in terms of the constitutional, political and economic case.

- *Constitutional*: In constitutional terms, the treaty objective of cohesion is vague but implies a commitment to Structural Funds support in all Member States.
- *Political*: There are also political and legitimacy arguments favouring an all-region approach (covering developed and less-developed regions), given the strong support for this among EU citizens, institutions (notably the European Parliament) and interests groups.
- *Economic*: compared to the other studies, the economic case places greater emphasis on the contribution to wider economic goals relating to the Lisbon agenda and in providing a supportive framework for the regulation of regional aid under EU Competition Policy.

The economic, social and territorial objectives underpinning Cohesion Policy are multidimensional and general providing the possibility of supporting a wide range of themes, investment priorities and types of activity in pursuit of cohesion. Moreover, as Beugelsdijk & Eijffinger (2005) showed, the policy is recognised to suffer from ‘goal congestion’ due to the need to address new EU priorities over time, and there has been an excessive dispersion of funding across too many goals and fields of interventions in many countries. Efforts to increase thematic concentration on the Lisbon agenda and Europe 2020 objectives are widely supported, but also raise challenges. First, Cohesion Policy is losing its identity and traditional focus on cohesion. Second, and related, the thematic priorities emphasized by the Lisbon/Europe 2020 strategies may not be suited to the economic conditions of less-developed countries and regions. Finally, the closer alignment of Cohesion Policy with the Europe 2020 strategy may have by Allen (2010), negative consequences for core governance principles such as integrated programming (owing to the thematic approach) and the partnerships principle because of the centralised approach to Europe 2020 governance.

5. Discussion

After our analyses we can ask the question: “*Is the Multi-level governance model effective and efficient?*” A unique and defining feature of EU Cohesion Policy compared to other EU policies is its Multilevel Governance (MLG) model of implementation. Bruszt (2008) explains that MLG contains partnership principle and is a broader concept than shared management in so far as it does not only relate to the role of public actors, but also the wider private and societal stakeholders that participate in the design and delivery of programmes at EU, national and sub-national levels.

Cohesion Policy operates in a complex MLG system including various partners from the social, economic and environmental domains where each level should play its critical role. Medarova-Bergstrom & Volkery (2012) explained, that there is a clear need for the EU to set out a strategic direction, robust policy framework and a coordination platform for information, knowledge and capacity building. It is possible to add very considerable value to spending programmes at the EU level through the efficient and forward looking execution of this role and maintaining this appears to be the priority at present rather than making any significant changes in competences.

As Bachtler and Taylor (2003) posited, the partnership principle is often identified as one of the main areas of EU added value in Cohesion Policy and is credited with having a significant impact on regional policy practice in the Member States. Since 1988, regional

policy partnerships across all Member States have been Europeanized to varying degrees. According to Pollack (1995), in the early years, national governments were in many cases the sole interlocutors with the European Commission and ‘gatekeepers’ to European funding. As Bache & Chapman (2008) demonstrated, over successive programme periods, regional and local governments and partner organisations (including environmental and gender equality bodies and the voluntary sector) have been progressively integrated into programme decision-making and implementation. According to Boháčková & Hrabánková (2009), the impact of Cohesion Policy on wider territorial governance and political-institutional decentralisation disputed in the MLG and Europeanization literature, although positive spill-over effects can be detected on domestic policies and governance in both old and new Member States.

Beyond these well-documented governance effects and tensions, the contribution of Cohesion Policy’s MLG model to regional development is uncertain. Various OECD reports (e.g. OECD 2009; OECD 2012) have argued that MLG is the most effective approach for regional and national development policies because it allows for top-level priorities to be tailored to local needs and potentials. A recent study by METIS & European Policy research Centre (2014) examining Cohesion Policy implementation in a number of case study regions, based on interviews with programme managers and stakeholders, found that the MLG model can contribute to greater policy effectiveness, legitimacy and transparency in decision-making processes, as well as greater commitment and ownership of programme outputs. However, there is a lack of robust, credible and quantified evidence of the impact of MLG on economic outcomes compared to other centralised models of regional development policy. Just as the impact of Cohesion Policy on economic development is difficult to disentangle from other drivers of growth, the contribution made by the MLG model is equally if not more difficult to quantify. The (in)efficiency of the MLG model is one of the most frequent criticisms by national policy-makers and stakeholders in terms of the administrative workload and bureaucracy involved in managing the funds and complying with the multitude of rules, particularly in relation to the sums of funding involved or to domestic policies in many countries. However, a study by SWECO International (2010) examining other comparable policy fields managed by international organisations, such as the World Bank’s global and regional partnership programmes and a range of other bilateral aid programmes, found that they have considerably higher administrative costs than EU Cohesion Policy, while the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development has broadly comparable management and implementation structures and roughly similar general administrative expenses. Moreover, various types of management and implementation systems across the Member States do not differ significantly in terms of administrative workload. Centralised systems have a somewhat lower median administrative workload than regionalised and mixed systems, although the differences are marginal. The implication is that the extent of MLG within Member States does not have a negative impact on the efficiency of Cohesion Policy management. The MLG model of policy implementation pioneered in EU Cohesion Policy - involving the participation of a wide array of public, private and societal actors at EU, national and sub-national levels in the design and delivery of programmes - is one of the policy’s main areas of added value and is credited with having a significant impact on regional policy practice in the Member States and regions. The MLG model can by Allard et al. (2008) contribute to greater policy effectiveness, legitimacy and transparency in decision-making processes, as well as greater commitment and ownership of programme outputs, but the effects on regional development are extremely difficult to quantify.

6. Conclusion

The political realities of the European Union are changing, as is the context for Cohesion Policy. Long term challenges such as climate change, energy security, resource scarcity (raw materials, water), biodiversity loss, declining global competitiveness, and an aging society as well as the political stability of the EU's neighbours have become some of the key strategic priorities of the EU. As Bachtler & McMaster (2008) emphasized, these are coupled with short-term threats such as increasing sovereign debt and fiscal discipline which require intelligent, timely and forward-looking policy responses.

EU Member States derive benefits from Cohesion Policy investments undertaken in other countries. These benefits are direct, derived from firms winning contracts for EU-funded projects, and indirect associated with increased export of goods and services. European Union is facing unprecedented challenges at this age. We need clear European leadership to find a sustainable, rational and acceptable solution for all of Members States of EU. Because what we can see so far is a mix of individual and uncoordinated measures by Member States. Dehert (2011) states, that Member States have to be reachable and accountable on European issues with focus on practical results aimed at responsibility and democratic legitimacy as key in strengthening European integration process. The current European commission is more political as it reflects results of elections to the European Parliament. Of course, we do respect institutional limitations. But if the Commission is still to be perceived as 3B – Brussels Bureaucratic bubble – legitimacy drawback will remain on table. However, there is a significant deficit in our domestic political environment too. The number of issues Member States can only resolve at the European level is growing. Still, some countries are slow in connecting national and European agenda. That gives space for more alienating „Brussels versus we“ rhetoric in all EU Member States. Instead of closing gap, it is getting wider.

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Behaviour of Young Migrants from Visegrad Countries

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Abstract

The paper deals with the current topic of migration as focused on the young migrants from the Visegrad countries of Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia. Their migration behaviour, motives, financial and social issues as well as the factors influencing the migration decision are detailed by way of detailed interviews. As far as the influencing factors are concerned, the young migrants are most influenced by exiting background in the migration target country, however, their education of knowledge of the language play a more minor role than expected. The interviews also revealed several migrant types - the economic migrant, the adventure seeking one and finally a migrant of mixed national origins. These groups have certain individual characteristics that set them apart and all occur frequently among the young people from the Visegrad countries

Keywords: migration; Visegrad; young people

1. Introduction

The topic of migration is so wide that no theory covers it completely, nor does this paper attempt it. The paper sets aside merely small fragment of migration processes, that is the migration behaviour of young people who originally resided in one of the Visegrad countries – the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland or Slovakia. The paper focuses on two questions. Firstly, what are the influences of education, existing background in a potential immigration country and language knowledge on the migration behaviour of said group? Secondly, based on series of in depth interviews this paper attempt to categorize certain often occurring types of migrants.

2. Theoretical background

First, it is necessary to point out the imprecise terminology used by the general public with regards to migration. The words migrant, economic migrant, refugee or asylum seeker are often confused (Nuscheler 2004). A clear definition is provided by the United nations and indicates that the migrant is someone who lives more than a year outside their home country. Migration, however, denotes not only move outside of peoples' territory, but such cross-

border movement, which implies a longer or even permanent move in the new territory (Štica 2014). For clarification, migration in general distinguishes migrating from a spatial perspective on intranational and international scale, respectively it follows the movement of persons within a territorial unit or outside a territorial unit. In terms of time migration is short and long term, or has permanent nature. To differentiate between the time perspective is quite difficult despite the fact that the UN definition gives the time limit of one year. This viewpoint is also reflected in legislation (Štica 2014). The motives of the migrants are classified as well. Massey et al. (1993) distinguishes these motives on following scale:

- economic - the effort to increase the quality of life for the migrants or their families,
- political and security motives for migration – Stojanov et al. (2006) includes in this category also ethnic and religious migration,
- environmental migrations (causes are the global warming, extreme weather or regular occurrence of pests especially in rural areas, and natural disasters),
- migration caused by social factors (migration after family members).

Finally, there is a distinction of migration by the possibility or impossibility to leave the territory. Thus migration can be on a voluntary basis or forced migration.

On the contrary, Demuth (2000) favours the distinction of voluntary migration and migration forced by circumstances. He perceives voluntary migration in terms of unforced choice to leave a person's home and their environment. This he further divides into work related migration, chain migration (in the sense of leaving for family and relatives) and migration for a better life. At the same time introduces the concept of non-immigration, which refers mostly to an internship or work abroad. Here Stojanov et al. (2006) highlight the need to distinguish between forms of labour related migration. In many cases, according to his conception, this may not represent voluntary migration. The need to secure the family is in a sense migrations forced by circumstances. Likewise, Demuth (2000) highlights the thin line between voluntary and forced migration. In the literature there is also the view that any form of migration contains certain forms involuntariness (Keely 2000; Štica 2014)

The literature also presents us with the terminology of re-emigration. This indicated the return of migrants to the home country and is often confused with the concept of repatriation - ie. the return of migrants to their home countries, but under supervision of the state apparatus. Antonym for the repatriation is the expatriation. The above mentioned indirectly points to the difficulty of studying migration as such. Difficulty to qualify of certain types of migrants is mainly due to the individuality of their decisions, and other external and internal factors that influence their decision. It can therefore be argued that it is an interdisciplinary research above and beyond geography, economics, political science, and sociology that all enters into the issue together with law, demography, ethnography and others.

Drbohlav & Uherek (2007) then note that currently does not exist and probably will not ever exist a theory which would cover all aspects of migration processes. This idea is confirmed by Borjas (1989), who defined following areas for a "super migration model". Firstly, there is the issue of predictions of the direction, size and the build of the migration flows. Secondly, is the issue of assimilation of migrants. How quickly do the immigrants adapt to new cultural, economic, and political conditions? Can a theory describe the migration process in terms of how long should the successful assimilation process take? Finally, the third condition for creating a coherent conceptual theory of migration is, according to Borjas (1989), the answer to the question of what is the impact of immigration on the economy of immigration and emigration countries? Large migratory flows that occur within international

borders lead to significant changes in economic conditions in both the original and the host countries. Also Massey et. al. (1993) stresses the need of not just multidisciplinary but also a multilevel perspective on the issue.

3. Methods

The method chosen to research the migration behaviour of the Visegrad countries young population is an interview. Approximately 40 in depth interviews were conducted in each of the four Visegrad countries (see table 1 for number of interviews).

Table 1: Number of in depth interviews with Visegrad countries young migrants.

Country	Female	Male	Total
Czech Republic	30	34	64
Hungary	27	23	50
Poland	16	23	39
Slovakia	28	25	53

Source: author

Given the intentions to deepen the understanding of what influences the migrants and what types of migrants might be identified, the interview naturally focused on factors of education, language knowledge and existing background in other, possibly immigration, countries. The age group chosen to interview was selected to be between 25 and 35 years of age. This selection is not a random one. This is an age group that has or rather should have acquired working habits and awareness of their price on the labour market. Also, it is one of the groups hardest hit by the economic crisis across the European Union member states. Members of this generation are forced not only to determine the new prices of their work within the market, but they also have to think of diversification of the economic risks. Secondly, this generation quite naturally seeks and is massively induced to do so, work throughout the labour market of the entire European Union. Further the reasoning included the expected social maturity and responsibility to parents and grandparents.

The questions asked of the respondents may be divided into several groups. First, the general information about the respondent including age, sex, education. Second, the question pertaining to migration targeting their experiences, motives, target countries, reasons to migrate. At last the respondents were asked a question with regards to their relationship to national identity, places, and co-expatriates in new countries.

4. Results and discussion

There were 40 interviews conducted in every Visegrad country which after careful analysis yielded the following results. In the case of question of the factors that influence the migration behaviour of the young people from the Visegrad countries, the author expected a major influence of knowledge of the language of the immigration country and already existing background in the country as compared to the migrants' own education status. This reflected

the thesis that knowledge of the language may help the migrant to achieve faster state of relative assimilation and settling the immigration country.

Analysis of in-depth interviews among the migrants from Visegrad countries confirmed this argument only partially. Neither the education nor the knowledge of the language of the target country was of particular importance to the respondents, respectively they did not perceive the language barrier as such. If they could not speak the language of the country or were not preparing to understand it, they relied on another language – mostly English. Most of the young people who have not chosen deliberately a target country, considered the language barrier only afterwards. Conversely, those who deliberately chose the country either prepared in language courses (or as self-taught, downloaded online manuals, etc.), or understood the language to some extent already. The situation changed with bilingual respondents who are largely concentrated on the country of their origin. Either they spoke the language of the country, at least to a limited extent, or they migrated in order to learn that language.

Considering the question of education, it appeared the educational status had to influence on the respondents. Only the respondents from Slovakia confirmed the well-known practice. Many young students chose the Czech Republic due to a better level of education, in their opinion. All of the respondents of that group at the time planned to remain in the Czech Republic. But the fact remains, that most of them would not work on the position at which they had worked in the country of origin.

Question background in the immigration country in the sense of having a family, partner or friends, was solved rather clearly among the respondents. Two-thirds of the respondents have migrated only because of the secured background in the target country in the form of above mentioned family, friends, colleagues or partner. Also, we may include in this category the instances of secured living and other basic facilities provided by the employer. The background helps the young migrant in many aspects. Chief among them are, alongside the accommodation, help with orienting the migrant in the new environment, help with the bureaucracy, and the third most frequent answer was to secure employment.

And how they these contacts abroad to help? The most frequent answers are in the category of accommodation or help with orientation in the new environment, help with the bureaucracy, and the third most frequent answer was to secure employment. In the category of those who migrated, the idea of backgrounds met with great acclaim. The most common argument was the fact that if they want to migrate long ago, regardless of financial means or background.

The second major question posed in the paper is as follows. What are the types of migrants that may be identified based on the interviews concluded? Based on the conducted interviews the author concludes no differences based on the observed age group and geographic category and identified three types of migrants.

For most migrants the prevailing motive is economic (in terms of increasing the living standard by achieving better education, gaining working experience). Economic migrant of this type is the kind of migrant who travelled abroad to acquire education, new knowledge, skills and particularly earning money. They believe that after returning home they will capitalize on the above mentioned and will be offered a higher position than they would have without the abroad experience abroad. These migrants attempt to stabilize their position on the labour market and accumulate financial gain (usually using two jobs) and be promoted to a better-paid position. Adaptation and socialization in the immigration country usually proceeds without a problem, this person is often a member of expatriate associations to build a network of contact. This type of migrant regularly saves up a predetermined amount of money they earned. This group may also include the migrants who migrated to an increase in

professional qualifications (university studies, internship in a foreign company). Their income consists of scholarships as well as financial resources obtained from part time jobs. The funds these migrant accumulated are destined to ensure a better life in their home country.

Apart from the economic motive, there is another one that can be called a search for adventure or search for one's self. Adventurer is a young person who is looking abroad for opportunities to kill boredom and disenchantment of inadequate employment opportunities in their home country. They remain in target country usually for limited time of one year, usually also hold a lower position (fast food vendors, agricultural workers, auxiliary work in the hotel industry) and money they earn are spent on travel or temporary enjoyments (parties, fashion clothes). These migrant do not seek opportunities to improve their grasp of a foreign language, gain new experience, and embrace socio-cultural trends of the new society and socialize in it. They do not proclaim loudly which their home country is, often do not acknowledge it at all but still refuse to fully socialize in the new country. They often rely on parents to be supported financially. Time spent abroad takes a meaning of an extension of student life and carelessness. They do not perceive it as an added value in the form of new knowledge and skills. A common feature was the fact that such a person migrated together with a group of like-minded friends.

An individual category is connected to the migrants who come from mixed families of two nationalities. It seems that their target country is almost always a country with which they have built a stronger emotional bond. They try to create their own value system and find a place in the new society. They often prefer the target country to a great extent. From a social perspective, we can say that create a new identity and even if they return to the country of origin they keep the identity they built in the immigration country. Disillusionment and identity insecurity come at the moment when they realize that even in their destination country they may be perceived as "different due to their mixed background. They regularly deposit financial funds and often send some back to the parents in their home country. Considering this was often the case when they grew up, this presents a natural situation. This is basically a second generation of migrants, who are not sure about their identity and do not want to remain in the country that their parents chose. Repeatedly and for a certain period of time they return to the selected country and attempt to fit in. They are flexible as far as the labour market is concerned and should they remain in the new country they belong to a very successful migrant group. The motivational factors that set them apart are composed of a desire to socialize in a new society and the belief that in the new country they have to succeed.

5. Conclusion

The migration processes are as old as the society itself. In today's aggravated political, economic and social situation, however, they come to the forefront of agenda, be it agenda of the politics, civil society of the academics and their research. While there is no comprehensive all-encompassing migration theory, this paper builds on existing academic definitions and differentiations in migration to try and answer the questions of young people migrating from the Visegrad countries. Firstly, the paper determined that the migrants respond positively to existing backgrounds and are likely to migrate when having one. At the same time the level of attained education and knowledge of language of the target country play a minor role in their decision to migrate. Secondly, there are several types of migrant – the economic migrant, the adventure seeking one and finally a migrant of mixed national origins. These groups have

certain individual characteristics that set them apart and all occur frequently among the young people from the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia.

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