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- ♦ LÍVIA ABLONCZY-MIHÁLYKA | Assessing the development of intercultural sensitivity in business settings: how to interact successfully with people belonging to another nation
- ♦ PETRA JAKAB – MÁRTA KONCZOSNÉ SZOMBATHELYI | Impact assessment between the city and the company reputation. Effect of the reputation of the city of Győr and Audi Hungaria Motor Kft. on each other
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SPACE

The impact of proximity on the relations between settlements – the case of Győr-Moson-Sopron County



Today, the concept of proximity can be interpreted in many aspects. Besides the geographical proximity in the traditional sense, other dimensions of proximity have been formed that came to the fore due to the economic, social and technological changes of recent decades. Regional science places emphasis on examining these dimensions because proximity influences many regional and economic relations and development. In the present study, the author will focus on two dimensions of proximity – the geographical and the relational proximity. The first part of the article presents the theoretical framework of proximity and network relations that gives the background to the empirical research. In the analysis, the relations and networks will be examined in one of the most developed counties of Hungary, which will be introduced in the second part of this study. The author gives an overview of the results of the quantitative research, the aim of which was to explore the different types of relations between towns in the county and to gain an insight into the underlying different dimensions of proximity.

INTRODUCTION

In the study, based on relevant proximity approaches in the literature and on today's dominant theme of networking, relationships and their systems between municipalities in a Hungarian county will be described.

The paper consists of two main parts; the first introduces the conceptual theoretical framework regarding different aspects of proximity. In the second part, the empirical research, its methodology and the main findings will be highlighted. In the case of relations between municipalities, the basic dimensions of proximity will be demonstrated which allows some tendencies of networking process to be presented.

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THE INTERPRETATION OF PROXIMITY AND DISTANCE IN REGIONAL SCIENCE

An outstanding research area of regional science is the examination of the distance-proximity paradox, which is extensively studied by both Hungarian and international literature from a number of different perspectives. First, the term 'distance' and its interpretations will be introduced.

If we use the ordinary meaning of the word, it means the length of the shortest path between two points of space.^[2] According to scientific definition, distance is the degree of spatial differences between two places (or two figures)^[3] – thus, the term covers in all cases some kind of comparison; spatial comparison between two points.

It is important to note that there are researchers who prefer the usage of the term 'distance'^[4] and those who use the term 'proximity'. Distance is a basic spatial element of several scientific models (e.g. accessibility models,^[5] centrum-peripherie models). Matuschewski analyzes both distance and proximity and also classifies them.^[6]

In terms of terminology, the usage of proximity is primer and an anthropologist E. T. Hall had outstanding role in its spread.^[7] He was a researcher who analyzed the spatial dimension of interactions between people and its differences in cultures; and this scientific area is called proxemics.

Being close to something (to a person, an object or a place, etc.) affects the "participants" – whether effect is positive or negative, conscious or not (externalities, agglomeration economies).^[8]

DIMENSIONS OF PROXIMITY

Nowadays, the "shortest route" includes not only geographical proximity but can be also interpreted based on different factors. Nemes Nagy (1998, 2009) differentiates two types of spaces – the outer space which is related to the geographical location; and the inner space which concerns the relations and relational

[2] Lengyel, I. – Rechnitzer, J. (2004): *Regionális gazdaságtan*. Dialóg Campus Kiadó, Budapest-Pécs.

[3] Nemes Nagy, J. (1998): *A tér a társadalomkutatásban. Bevezetés a regionális tudományba*. Hilscher Rezső Szociálpolitikai Egyesület, Budapest. 168.

[4] Erdősi, F. (2013): *Távolságfogalmak értelmezése és alkalmazásuk*. Tér – Gazdaság – Ember, 1(2). 27–48.; Nemes Nagy, J. (1998): op. cit.

[5] Erdősi, F. (2003): A kommunikáció környezeti szempontból „Janus-arcú” globalizálódása. In: *Környezetvédelmi Mozaikok. Tiszteletkötet Dr. Kerényi Attila 60. születésnapjára*. Debrecen. 58–70.; Tóth, G. – Kincses, Á. (2007): *Elérhetőségi modellek*. Tér és Társadalom, 21(3). 51–87.

[6] Matuschewski, A. (2012): *Vorlesung „Einführung in die Wirtschaftsgeographie”*. Geographisches Institut Bayreuth. http://www.wigeo.uni-bayreuth.de/de/download/SS_2012/vorlesung_wigeo_1_einf__hrung.pdf. Downloaded: 03. 07. 2015.

[7] Hall, E. T. (1990): *The Hidden Dimension*. Anchor Books, New York.

[8] Brueckner, J. K. (2011): *Lectures on Urban Economics*. The MIT Press.

network of certain social groups as a space. In this study, most of the dimensions and approaches of proximity will be introduced, than the author will focus on those, which are relevant in the case of the empirical research.

If enterprises are concerned, the following types of distance/proximity should be taken into consideration during business decisions:

- Proximity of transport network: that is measured by actual roads/rail routes,
- Proximity of time: which shows how much time is required for the transport,
- Cost/economic proximity: this gives the cost of transportation.^[9]

These dimensions of proximity should be interpreted differently if the subjects of the analysis are the “traditional economic actors” but regions and, in this case, municipalities.

The importance of geographical proximity is queried in several pieces of research, which draw attention to the tendency that in today’s information and communication technology-driven and -networked world, different types of proximity will be primary.^[10] In particular, these views came to the fore by the appreciation of the role of knowledge.

The French school, the member and representatives of the Proximity Dynamics Group (Gilly and Torre) make a distinction between traditional geographical proximity and organisational proximity. The authors try to open the black box of proximity; the phenomenon of knowledge spillover was involved in their research and studied what kind of relations of these proximity dimensions could be demonstrated and how these are reflected in innovative milieus.

Geographical proximity expresses the distance between two spatially separated objects, the rate of which can be justified objectively. In contrast, organisational proximity plays an important role in promoting the creation of interactions between communities of organisations. This type of proximity is based on two kinds of logic; according to the adherence logic members of a certain organisation will form relations easier and will cooperate because they belong to the same space of relations (e.g. firm). According to the similarity logic, actors close in organisational terms are quite alike because they speak the same language and share the same values and knowledge (e.g. same corporate culture). Based on this description we can conclude that the measurement of organisational proximity is very complex and has no unit of measurement.^[11]

[9] Lengyel, I. – Rechnitzer, J. (2004): op. cit. 120.

[10] Gallaud, D. – Torre, A. (2004): Geographical Proximity and the Diffusion of Knowledge. In: Fuchs, G. – Shapira, P. (eds.): *Rethinking Regional Innovation*. Springer, USA. 127–146.; Basile, R. – Capello, R. – Caragliu, A. (2011): Interregional Knowledge Spillovers and Economic Growth: The Role of Relational Proximity. In: Kourtit, K. – Nijkamp, P. – Stough, R. R. (eds.): *Drivers of Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Regional Dynamics. Advances in Spatial Science*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin–Heidelberg. 21–43.; Bönte, W. (2008): *Inter-firm Trust in Buyer-supplier Relations: Are Knowledge Spillovers and Geographical Proximity Relevant?* Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 67. 855–870.

[11] Torre, A. – Gilly, J-P. (2000): *On the Analytical Dimension of Proximity Dynamic*. Regional Studies, 34(2). 169–180.

Legendijk and Lorentzen outlined the dimensions of proximity according to the French School as starting points and during the analysis the authors examine proximity in the case of geographical (and not economic) peripheries e.g. in Britain and in Norway. They conclude that in the acquisition and transfer of knowledge virtual, cognitive, organisational, institutional, temporary and economic proximities come to the fore while overcoming physical distance.^[12]

The study of proximity is also a core area for the representatives of the so-called evolutionary economics. The most famous and most quoted researcher is Ron Boschma who analyses proximity in the context of innovation; and states that proximity plays a primarily role in forming and maintaining of local innovative milieu and positive externalities.^[13]

The different proximity dimensions can reduce uncertainty and “solve the problem of coordination, and thus, facilitate interactive learning and innovation”.^[14] The author presents five dimensions of proximity, organisational, cognitive, social, institutional and geographical proximity.

Geographical proximity means physical closeness in this case, the positive effects of which are embodied in the emergence of the economies of agglomeration, knowledge spill-overs, in the exchange of tacit knowledge and low-risk information. Organisational proximity covers on one hand the proximity and tightness of relation within an organisation and between organisations. The tighter the relation, the greater the likelihood of knowledge sharing and creation of innovations.

Institutional proximity also includes two levels; the formal (e.g. laws) and informal (e.g. common language) institutional backgrounds provide a business environment which facilitates the development of cooperations based on homogeneity. Cognitive proximity builds on the similarity of companies, i.e. on the feeling that the other company is alike thus close to me. “People sharing the same knowledge base and expertise may learn from each other (...) and facilitates effective communication”.^[15] Social proximity is defined in terms of socially embedded relations between actors at a micro-level based on friendship, kinship and past experience.^[16]

Florida (2005) does not primarily deal, yet his works also outlines the notion, especially the reality and relevance of geographical proximity. The author considers human capital to be extremely important and believes that in order

[12] Legendijk, A. - Lorentzen, A. (2007): *Proximity, Knowledge and Innovation in Peripheral Regions. On the Intersection between Geographical and Organizational Proximity*. European Planning Studies, 15(4). 457-466.

[13] Broekel, T. - Boschma, R. (2012): *Knowledge Networks in the Dutch Aviation Industry: the Proximity Paradox*. Journal of Economic Geography, 12. 409-433.

[14] Boschma, R. (2005): *Proximity and Innovation: A Critical Assessment*. Regional Studies, 39(1). 61-74., 62.

[15] Boschma, R. (2005): op. cit. 63.

[16] Boschma, R. (2005): op. cit. 67.

to develop networks between firms, cities or regions, the role of human factor is vital and outstanding.^[17]

Basile et al. (2011) started to study the role of proximity and the common effects of spatial and relational proximities in the case of knowledge spill-overs and economic growth between regions. Relational proximity indicates the interactions between participants which influences the learning process and which is defined by the relative difference in trust between regions.

The time-based competition has been evolved in case of certain companies by the appreciation of time factor. In this type of competition, being close to the suppliers and to customers is important, thus the proximity of partners is relevant which covers both, geographical and organisational proximity.^[18]

In the era of computers and the web, cyberspace and virtual proximity are increasingly used notions. Related to these, many researchers are talking about the death of geography and distance.^[19] Tranos and Nijkamp (2011) studied this area, particularly whether the physical proximity and geographical space is neglected through the presence of cyberspace. The authors highlighted the spatial dimensions of the Internet based on the outlined dimensions of proximity and found that geography has an important role still today, even in cyberspace.^[20]

In 2006, two authors attempted to synthesize the different dimensions and perceptions of proximity and to eliminate the overlaps between them.^[21] Those dimensions are involved in the analysis, which can be relevant in the cooperation and relation between organisations, therefore focusing on three types – geographical, organisational and technological proximity. Technological proximity is based on shared technological experience and knowledge,^[22] and it is in strong relation with the absorptive capacity of organisations.

Lengyel (2008) draws attention to two processes which are the opposite of each other and which should be considered when analysing proximity. In the case of traditional producing economic activities, geographical proximity has an important role. However, in the case of knowledge-based activities, beside spatial proximity, other dimensions (e.g. organisational proximity) also play a crucial role.^[23]

[17] Florida, R. (2002): *The Rise of the Creative Class*. Basic Books.

[18] Demeter, K. (2013): *Time-based Competition - the Aspect of Partner Proximity*. Decision Support Systems, 54. 1533-1540.

[19] Jakobi, Á. (2007): *Hagyományos és új területi különbségek az információs társadalomban*. Doktori értekezés. ELTE TTK Földtudományi Doktori Iskola, Budapest.

[20] Tranos, E. - Nijkamp, P. (2011): *The Death of Distance Revisited: Cyberplace, Physical and Relational Proximities*. Tinbergen Institute Discussion Paper. <http://dare.uvu.vu.nl/bitstream/handle/1871/38500/12066.pdf?sequence=1>. Downloaded: 13. 07. 2015.

[21] Knoblen, J. - Oerlemans, L. A. G. (2006): *Proximity and Inter-Organizational Collaboration: A Literature Review*. International Journal of Management Reviews, 8(2). 71-89.

[22] Knoblen, J. - Oerlemans, L. A. G. (2006): op. cit. 77.

[23] Lengyel, I. (2008): A közelség alakváltozásai a tudásalapú helyi gazdaság-fejlesztésben. In: Lengyel, I. - Lukovics, M. (eds.): *Kérdőjelek a régiók gazdasági fejlődésében*. JATEPress, Szeged. 109-129.

Today, research on networks and networking is a hot topic and used in a number of scientific fields to outline the relations between different objects, agents or firms.^[24]

The present study focuses on two basic dimensions of proximity; geographical and organisational proximity where social proximity defined by Boschma is taken into account. Research questions are the followings:

1. Are the relations between established settlements based on geographical proximity?
2. Which dimensions of proximity are available in the case of relations between settlements?

The primary research indicates the data, which helps to answer these questions.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The primary research was conducted in autumn 2014, which was quantitative research through questionnaires. The questionnaire included both questions with given options and open questions in order to obtain wider information.

The questionnaires were sent via email to the leaders of all settlements of the previously appointed sample. The population of the present study was the settlements in Győr-Moson-Sopron County in Hungary, consisting altogether of 181 settlements. The city of Győr, a city with county rights and the head of the County, was not involved in the research because the author wanted to focus on the relationship between the settlements and the “big city” from the perspective of the settlements of the County.

The final sample consists of 28 settlements with a relatively high mailing responsiveness of 15.5%, which is quite high taking into account the objects of the research.

The questions contained some demographical data of the settlements but focused on the relations between the towns and villages. These relations covered the following areas:

1. partner municipalities at a national and international level,
2. relations with neighbouring municipalities,
3. relations with other settlements,
4. relationship with Győr, the head of the County.

The next chapter contains the findings of the quantitative research and attempts to find evidence based on the theoretical framework in practice on how the dimensions of proximity appear in the relations between municipalities.

[24] Barabási-Albert, L. (2008): *Behálózva. A hálózatok új tudománya*. Helikon Kiadó, Budapest.

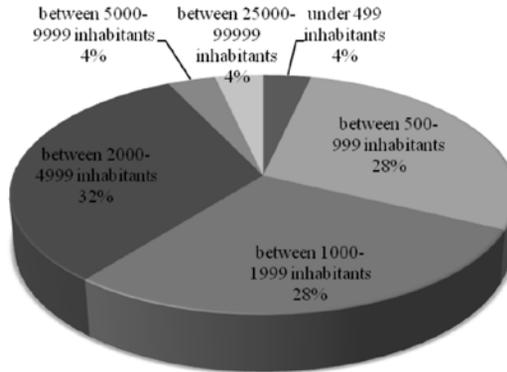
FINDINGS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The following settlements answered the questions of the primary research, which are all situated in Győr-Moson-Sopron County, in Hungary. The map (seen in Appendix I) shows the analysed county and the settlements situated there.

- | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|---------------|
| 1. Abda | 11. Győrszemere | 21. Pereszteg |
| 2. Bezi | 12. Halászi | 22. Rajka |
| 3. Börcs | 13. Hidegség | 23. Sopron |
| 4. Dunaszeg | 14. Jánossomorja | 24. Szany |
| 5. Dunaszentpál | 15. Kimle | 25. Szárföld |
| 6. Dunasziget | 16. Kisbajcs | 26. Táp |
| 7. Enese | 17. Lövő | 27. Tényő |
| 8. Fertőhomok | 18. Mecsér | 28. Újrónafő |
| 9. Fertőszentmiklós | 19. Mosonszentmiklós | |
| 10. Gyarmat | 20. Nagylózs | |

Taking into account the number of population, settlements with 500 to 5000 inhabitants were the most active in giving answers. Figure 1 represents the distribution of settlements based on the number of their population.

Figure 1: The distribution of settlements based on population



Source: own edited (2015).

In the case of partner municipalities, both national and international relations were analysed. Based on the answers of the sample settlements, the relations with partner municipalities are interpreted mostly in an international dimension since from the 28 analysed settlements only four has a relationship with other Hungarian settlements (Lövő - ZalaLövő, Kisbajcs - Nagybaajcs and Vének, Tényő - Magyarszék, Újrónafő - Hajdúböszörmény).

On the other hand, 21 settlements possess foreign partner municipalities - in the case of small villages with lower numbers of inhabitants mainly one relation while settlements with more than 2000 inhabitants, named at least 2 foreign partner municipalities. If the home countries of these partner settlements are taken into account, it is clear that primarily the neighbouring countries of Hungary have priority; the highest rate belongs to Slovakia, the north neighbour country of Hungary, with 20 mentioned settlements. Besides this, five German, four Romanian (more accurately Transsylvanian), three Austrian, two Italian and Polish, and one Dutch, Greek, Swiss and Israeli settlements were mentioned.

Regarding the characterisation of relations with neighbouring settlements, the leaders indicated they are mostly positive but this type of relationships should be analysed in details. The question related to this kind of relation was an open one, thus the mayors could word the answer themselves; however, these answers contain relevant and interesting information.

Some of the settlements in the sample mentioned the joint maintained local government, which has an important impact on relationships and creates links between neighbouring municipalities. Regarding the dimensions of proximity, it is necessary to admit that geographical proximity plays a very important role since many settlements are built close to each other or even sometimes built together (e.g. in the case of Szany and Rábaszentandrás).

Regarding Sopron, the second biggest city in the county, the Local Governmental Association of Sopron and its Region should be outlined which includes 26 settlements and acts as a formal framework for cooperations and relations between the partner municipalities. This region of the County is a special one because the relationship between the settlements situated in this region is stronger due to common historical events which resulted in an intense development in the relationships.

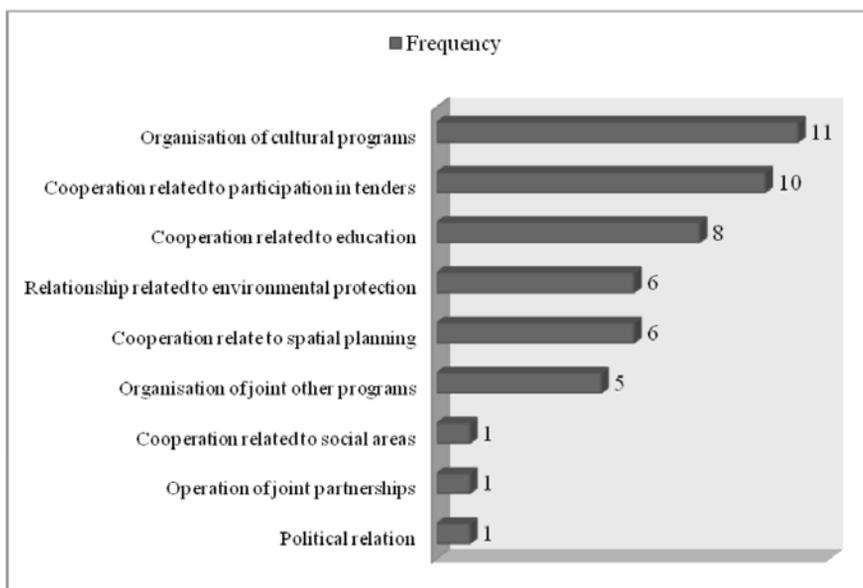
After World War I, the territory of Hungary was divided; as a consequence many former Hungarian settlements were assigned to other neighbouring countries. In the case of the region of Sopron a referendum was held in 1921 in which some settlements wanted to become part of Hungary and according to their will, they were annexed back to Hungary. Thus, Sopron is called the loyal city. This type of relationship is strongly connected to relational proximity where trust and former common traditions and history have an impact.

The share of best practices is a widely used form of relations between settlements in the county, which can be seen as a special knowledge sharing process. All of these relations have a base in the form of geographical proximity; however, with the passage of time relational proximity also started to play a relevant role in it.

The intensity of relations between neighbouring municipalities can be measured at mostly daily (19 times) and in 9 cases, there is a case-by-case relation.

Beside the relations with neighbouring settlements, the level of districts was highlighted which is a spatial level under the county level and in which geographical proximity has a primary role. These relations are listed in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The distribution of types of relations between settlements



Source: author's own (2015).

The relationship based on cultural grounds is the most common, followed by common participation in certain tenders. Cooperation related to education, environmental protection and spatial planning are relevant areas mostly in the case of neighbouring municipalities.

On the level of settlements, geographical proximity is crucial which is outlined not only in the relation of neighbouring municipalities but also in the case of foreign partner municipalities.

CONCLUSIONS

In reply to the research questions, it can be concluded that the primary dimension of proximity is the geographical, which can be observed in relations and cooperations between municipalities. However, it should also be highlighted that due to continuous physical proximity, trust was also established throughout history between the leaders of those settlements, which shows that relational proximity plays a relevant role as well.

The size of the municipalities is an important factor in cooperations, especially if the relationship to the county head is concerned. Mutual interdependencies emerged between neighbouring settlements - whether taking into account any actual types of cooperation or not, all mean benefits for every participant.

In many cases, geographical proximity means the basis for relational proximity described by Basile et al., i.e., physical proximity is an essential criterion for relationships of trust, which was also determined in this study.

Networking between the settlements in the county is present and its basis is both geographical and relational dimensions of proximity. Although the whole population was not studied in this research, according to the introduced answers some regions can be outlined by which settlements are cooperating with others and which involve not only bilateral mutual interdependencies but also more participants.

In further studies, the unanswered questions should be analysed by focusing on the networking processes in the area and their impact.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

Napjainkban a közelség koncepciója számos megközelítésben értelmezhető, beleértve a hagyományos földrajzi eltérés mértékét, akár csak az utóbbi évek infokommunikációs, gazdasági és társadalmi változásai hatására formálódó “új” közelség meghatározásokat. Jelen tanulmányban a szerző a földrajzi közelség mellett a kapcsolati közelséget elemzi, mind az elméleti áttekintés során, mind pedig az empirikus kutatás esetében. A primer kutatásban a Győr-Moson-Sopron megyei települések kapcsolatrendszerét, és az azt befolyásoló két közelség-dimenziót tanulmányozom.

MAN AND SOCIETY

Assessing the development of intercultural sensitivity in business settings: how to interact successfully with people belonging to another nation



“Attitude is determined by culture of a nation and it is known the impact of culture is enormous on economic life including behavior, values and norms within an organization.”^[2]

With globalisation, many non-native English speakers do business in changeable and culturally diverse settings. The ability to communicate across cultures and understand diverse perspectives is a necessity in order to achieve a competitive advantage in our global economy.

The research to be discussed in the paper is a part of a complex research conducted in 2013-2014, in Hungary. The paper focuses on demonstrating how culture influences behaviour in international settings where business partners have differing values, attitudes and norms. More than 200 Hungarian managers and professionals were asked to answer close-ended and open-ended questions making choices among a set of alternatives focusing on their attitudes in several business situations.

The data was collected with the aid of a research questionnaire and entered into the SPSS programme, then analysed using appropriate statistical methods. The findings reveal that companies seem to find it difficult to adapt their messages to suit different cultural groups but there are new approaches with promise the most success for communicating and working effectively in international business settings.

INTRODUCTION

In the globalising world, more managers and professionals are required to interact with individuals from other cultures, make and maintain intercultural connections, work in culturally mixed environments, and perform tasks with

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[2] Fukuyama, F. (1995): *Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity*. Free Press, New York.

counterparts in different countries that require intercultural skills involving understanding and sensitivity to different cultural perspectives.^[3]

Intercultural communication, as in many scholarly fields, is a combination of many other fields. These fields include anthropology, cultural studies, psychology and communication. The field has also moved both toward the treatment of interethnic business relations, and toward the study of behavioural patterns during intern and extern communication. Intercultural communication occurs whenever a message is produced by a member of one culture for consumption by a member of another culture.

Companies that work in multicultural environments face several challenges in their everyday business life. Hofstede's advice has to be taken into consideration to approach the characteristics of working in multicultural business setting: "*The principle of surviving in a multicultural world is that one does not think, feel, and act in the same way in order to agree on practical issues and to cooperate*".^[4]

Communicative behaviour is believed to be strongly influenced by cultural value systems.^[5] Samovar and Porter claim that "*in the study of human interaction, it is important to look at cultural values, but in the study of intercultural communication it is crucial*".^[6]

In this paper we focus on the behavioural aspect of working in multicultural business environments. The term multicultural is adopted here to highlight the multilayered nature of the situations in which communication takes place. As stated by Louhiala-Salminen "*in multicultural situations, the various cultures of the interactants interact with and influence encounters, which, in turn, influence the nature of discourse*".^[7]

We test the hypothesis that companies that work in multicultural environments are subject to communication barriers due to different cultural backgrounds. Different cultures have differing values, perceptions and philosophies. As a result, certain ideas may have very different connotations for people having different cultural backgrounds. It has been proven that it is essential to behave efficiently with people coming from different social backgrounds, regarding both verbal or non-verbal interactions.

[3] Brannen, M. Y. - Garcia, D. - David, C. T. (2009): *Biculturals as Natural Bridges for Intercultural Communication and Collaboration. IWIC'09*. (2) Paolo Alto, California, USA.

[4] Hofstede, G. (1991): *Culture's Consequences, Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions and Organizations across Nations*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.

[5] FitzGerald, H. (2003): *How Different are We? Spoken Discourse in Intercultural Communication*. Multilingual Matters Ltd., Clevedon.

[6] Samovar, L. A. - Porter, R. E. (1991): *Communication between Cultures*. Wadsworth, Belmont, CA.

[7] Louhiala-Salminen, L. - Charles, M. - Kankaanranta, A. (2005): *English as a Lingua Franca in Nordic Corporate Mergers*. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(4). 401-421.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Intercultural business communication is not a new field. Its founders, Hall,^[8] Hofstede^[9] and Trompenaars^[10] established a framework for approaching different cultures, and developed concepts (among others) such as high and low context cultures, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, ascription versus achievement. Then, most of the researchers have taken full advantage of methodologies developed during the past 50-60 years to do their research in a sophisticated way.^[11]

Culture and cultural issues now seem to have several implications for economists, investors, practical managers, researchers and for everyone who works in a multicultural context.^[12] Considerable debate still exists among researchers as to the best assessment criteria regarding culture in multicultural context and it is obvious that the word *culture* often brings up more problems than it solves.^[13]

It is frequently pointed out that one's intercultural communication competence is context-dependent. A big difference in how communication is carried out in business contexts as opposed to other contexts is that "*business people need practical immediately applicable business tools that will help them solve business communication problems*".^[14] In other words, no matter how much knowledge of intercultural communication you have, the knowledge will not be meaningful unless you can utilize it in actual interactions. Also, even if you can analyse problems, you have no chance of succeeding in the business world unless you can find solutions to problems. Therefore, the focus of intercultural communication in business should be on helping people find solutions; that is, utilizing a "*process of co-constructing 'better' (rather than right, wrong, good, bad)*".^[15]

[8] Hall, E. T. (1959): *The Silent Language*. Doubleday, New York; Hall, E. T. (1997): *Riding the Waves of Culture. Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*. Nicholas Brealey Publishing, London.

[9] Hofstede, G. (1980): *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*. Sage, Newbury Park, CA.

[10] Trompenaars, F. (1993): *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*. Economist Books, London.

[11] See: House, R. J. - Hanges, P. J. - Javidan, M. - Dorfman, P. W. - Gupta, V. (eds.) (2004): *Culture, Leadership and Organizations. The Globe Study of 62 Societies*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.

[12] See: Geertz, C. (1973): *The Interpretation of Cultures*. Basic Books, New York; Schein, E. H. (1991): What is Culture? In: Frost, P. J. - Moore, L. F. - Reis Louis, M. C. - Lundberg, C. - Martin, J. (eds.): *Reframing Organizational Culture*. Sage, NewburyPark, CA. 243-253.; Hall, E. T. - Hall, M. R. (1990): *Understanding Cultural Differences*. Intercultural Press, Yarmouth, ME; Gudykynst, W. B. (2004): *Bridging Differences: Effective Intergroup Communication*. Sage, London.

[13] Scollon, R. - Wong Scollon, S. (2001): *Intercultural Communication. A Discourse Approach*. Wiley-Blackwell Publishing, Oxford.

[14] Tomalin, B. (2009): Applying the Principles: Instruments for Intercultural Business Training. In: A. Feng, A. - Byram, M. - Fleming, M. (eds.): *Becoming Interculturally Competent through Education and Training*. Multilingual Matters, Bristol. 115-131.

[15] Jackson, P. Z. - McKergow, M. (2002): *The Solution Focus*. Nicholas Brealey Publishing, London.

A large number of researchers have looked at cultural variables that affect intercultural business, the emphasis is typically not on the intercultural business communication process or linguistic issues but instead on cultural attitudes^[16].

During the planning phase of the investigation the author of the present paper considered the experiences and findings of the GLOBE research,^[17] as well as the findings of the examinations which were carried out by members of the Department of International Communication during the past 10 years.^[18]

Other investigations and results have been studied, qualitative and qualitative approaches have been considered for formulating our approach to the topic in question.^[19] Hofstede's latest approach is closer to this paper, as it also builds on the fact "that the world around us is changing does not need to affect the usefulness of the dimensional paradigm; on the contrary, the paradigm can help us understand the internal logic and the implications of the changes."^[20]

The author of this paper believes that Quills's model^[21] need to be considered who argues that cultural differences ought to be viewed as opportunities

[16] Haire, M. E. - Ghiselli, E. - Porter, L. W. (1963): *Cultural Patterns in the Role of the Manager*. Industrial Relations, 2(2). 95-117.; Laurent, A. (1983): *The Cultural Diversity of Western Conceptions of Management*. International Studies of Management and Organization, 13(1-2). 75-96.; Trompenaars, F. - Wooliams, P. (2003): *Business across Cultures*. Capstone, Chichester; Konczosné Szombathelyi, M. (2013): *Reciprocal effects between regions and organizations. A study of European regional cultures and corporate embeddedness*. Tér - Gazdaság - Ember, 1(3) 42-53.; Konczosné Szombathelyi M. (2014): *A regionális és a vállalati kultúra kölcsönhatásának vizsgálata*. Tér és Társadalom, 28(1). 84-98.; Tompos, A. (2014): *Hungarian societal values through business negotiators' practices*. In: Rotschedl, Jiri - Cermakova, Klara (eds.): *Proceedings of the 14th International Academic Conference*. International Institute of Social and Economic Sciences, Prague. 445-453.

[17] Bakacsi, Gy. (2012): *A Globe-kutatás kultúráváltóinak vizsgálata faktoranalízis segítségével*. Vezetéstudomány, 43(4). 12-22.; House, R. J. - Hanges, P. J. - Javidan, M. - Dorfman, P. W. - Gupta, V. (eds.) (2004): *Culture, Leadership and Organizations. The Globe Study of 62 Societies*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.

[18] Ablonczy-Mihályka, L. - Nádai, J. (2010): *Cooperation strategies of multicultural management in Hungary*. In: Springer, R. - Chadraha, P. (eds.): *Marketing and Business Strategies for Central & Eastern Europe*. Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies, Wien. 3-14.; Ablonczy-Mihályka, L. - Tompos, A. (2014): *Culture-related Aspects of Business and Corporate Communication*. In: Adamcová, L. (ed.): *Cudzí jazyky v premenách casu IV. Recenzovany zbornik príspevkov z medzinárodnej vedeckej konferencie*. Vydavateľstvo EKONÓM, Bratislava. 205-210.; Szőke, J. (2013): *Managing Cultural Differences When Doing Business Internationally*. International Journal of Business and Management Studies, 2(2). 349-357.; Szőke, J. (2015): *Kultúrárközi menedzsment aspektusok magyar kis- és középvállalatok példáján*. Marketing és Menedzsment, 49(1). 58-70.

[19] Santoro, M. (2008): *Culture As (and After) Production*. Cultural Sociology, 2(1). 7-31.; Cohen, A. (2007): *One Nation, Many Cultures*. Cross-cultural research, 41(3). 273-300.; Derkun, C. A. - Rayuskaya, T. O. - Kresova, N. S. (2010): *Cross-cultural Communication*. European researcher, 10. 74-77.; Derkun, C. A. - Rayuskaya, T. O. - Kresova, N. S. (2010): *Cross-cultural Communication*. European researcher, 10. 74-77.; Du-Babcock, B. (2013): *English as Business Lingua Franca: A Comparative Analysis of Communication Behavior and Strategies in Asian and European Contexts*. Iberica, 26. 99-130.

[20] Hofstede, G. (2011): *Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context*. Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2(1). Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014>. Accessed: 12 Sept. 2014.

[21] Quill, S. E. (2000): *Attaining Cultural Synergy in Global Mergers*. Intercultural Management Quarterly, 1(1). 39-57.

to achieve synergy and to enhance effectiveness, not as obstacles to overcome. To create a synergistic organisation, that values and uses difference, management must employ an intercultural communication framework and develop an organisational intercultural competency. Therefore, it is clear that „*every culture distinguishes itself from others by the specific solutions it chooses to certain problems which reveal themselves as dilemmas*”^[22]

AIM, METHOD AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The results of this paper are part of a wider research which was conducted in 2013-2014 in Hungary. The aim of the present paper is to demonstrate the results of the survey and to focus on demonstrating how culture influences the behaviour of Hungarian professionals in an international setting. The use of a questionnaire was chosen as research tool because it is believed that this type of examination gives relevant information about the behaviour, values, norms and attitudes of people who are in business contact with partners with different cultural backgrounds.

The data collection was carried out with the aid of a research questionnaire which had four parts:

- language use in internal and external communication
- miscommunication resulting from cultural differences
- culture-affected characteristics of conflict management, decision-making, internal and external behaviour
- the use of negotiation tactics and their contextual/situational variables.

This paper deals with the third part of the research: i.e. it focuses on the behavioural differences due to different cultures. The sample consisted of 265 respondents but after examining the responses, the final sample contains 250 respondents. 15 questionnaires did not meet the criteria which required that the companies should be situated in a certain geographical area, i.e. in the West-Transdanubian Region.

Formulating the research questions we agree with the traditional notion which was exemplified by Scollon and Scollon (2001) who explain how individuals from different cultural groups communicate differently as a consequence of their different worldviews and norms of behaviour.

Considering the complex and delicate nature of the subject we tried to put together such an outline of the questionnaire which would offer us the most accurate answers to the following questions:

- cultural differences affect several aspects of internal and external organisational communication:

[22] Hall, E. T. (1997): *Riding the Waves of Culture. Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*. Nicholas Breal Publishing, London. 8.

- working style is different or not if you work with foreigners
- decision-making depends on culture
- problem-solving is (not) influenced by culture
- the ideal manager is (not) socially and culturally sensitive
- competition is the supreme value at any successful company.

RESPONDENTS AND SAMPLING

The quota sampling was chosen as the most relevant sampling technique wherein the sample has the same rates of individuals as the population regarding certain features like the age. In this case, the quotas were the proportions of economic sectors on an assigned territorial area according to the data of the Hungarian Statistical Office. The Table 1 shows the characteristics of the sample and the base of the quotas.

Table 1: Characteristics of the sample

Sectors	West Transdanubian Region (HSO, 2011, %)	Sample of research (2013, %)
Services	75,70%	68%
Industry	8,40%	25,20%
Agriculture	4,60%	3,20%
		No data: 3,6%

Source: compilation of the author based on the data of Hungarian Statistical Office (2011).

- 125 male and 114 female responded on the questions of the survey, and they are mostly in the age group between 20 and 35 (62.8%).
- The companies and/or the enterprises where these respondents work are located in cities with county rights (N=155).
- 32.8% of companies can be founded in other towns within the Region.
- Most of the companies (54.8%) are big companies, having more than 250 employees and the rest are small- and medium-sized enterprises (43.2% altogether).
- Many companies in the sample are foreign-owned (56%), the proportion of Hungarian enterprises is 34%, and the other 8% are joint ventures. This information can be supported by the fact that this region is in close geographical proximity to Austria and Germany and this region is the home for many companies coming from these states and cultures.
- 93.6% of the respondents work together with foreigners in their workplace but according to the type of cultures and nations, the picture is very varied. The

most relevant business partners/contacts are from German speaking countries (n=99) but there are also many respondents who are in contact with partners from English speaking countries (n=70). The proportion of Chinese is also very high (n=17) and also the neighbouring countries' cultures have quite high rates, for example Serbian or Slovak.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of attitude statements

The third part of the questionnaire contains attitude statements related to work in multicultural business settings. The respondents should give an evaluation - to what extent they agree or disagree with the listed attitude statements (see: Appendix). The Likert-scale was used to evaluate the statements but in the normal way. The lowest value of the scale was 0 with the meaning 'totally do not agree' and the highest value was 4 with the meaning 'totally agree'.

Taking a look at the respondents' answers, the majority of them agree the most with two statements - "*It is a good place to work when information continuously flows between the bosses and the staff.*" and "*I like feeling well at my workplace*". (In both cases, the mean of the statements is 3.62). The appropriate working atmosphere is an essential factor for Hungarian respondents who largely agree with this statement. However, they point out that not only is the atmosphere at work is important but it is also relevant that the flow of information should always be guaranteed in the hierarchy. Related to the strategy and the future of business, the respondents hold it a significant factor that the "*When making decisions, long-term goals need to be always considered*".

It was assumed by the author that there are some differences between the age groups of respondents in how they agree with these statements. According to the cross tabulation analysis, there is only one relation between the attitude statements and the age of the respondents. People between the age of 20 and 50 rather agree with the statement that "*I have to think differently when I work with a foreigner*" but according to the majority of respondents above the age 51, it is not a typical feature of them. Since the value of Chi-square test is 23.579 and the significance ($p=0.003$) is less than the 0.05 value, the hypotheses can be accepted that there is relation between the two variables.

Factor analysis

Since the Bartlett's test of sphericity value is 913.335 and the significance is 0.000, and since the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy shows quite high values (0.669), the factor analysis is suitable. The Eigenvalues calculation shows how many factors could be established from the 22 studied variables: in this case the number is 8 factors. The Table 2 shows the factors and their variances.

Table 2: Factor analysis

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3,266	14,846	14,846
2	2,538	11,536	26,382
3	1,528	6,945	33,327
4	1,294	5,882	39,209
5	1,283	5,830	45,039
6	1,214	5,517	50,556
7	1,091	4,960	55,516
8	1,035	4,704	60,220
9	,926	4,207	64,427
10	,919	4,179	68,607
11	,857	3,894	72,500
12	,774	3,519	76,019
13	,733	3,332	79,351
14	,661	3,006	82,357
15	,617	2,805	85,163
16	,566	2,573	87,735
17	,545	2,475	90,211
18	,503	2,287	92,498
19	,493	2,243	94,740
20	,422	1,916	96,657
21	,420	1,908	98,565
22	,316	1,435	100,000

Using Varimax analysis as a tool, the number of variables with high factor weight can be minimized thus the interpretation of factors can be facilitated. It will help to decide the relation between the attitude statements and factors.

Factor 1: Individualism vs. collectivism

- a. *The manager is the key figure in making decisions.*
- b. *I like feeling well at my workplace.*
- c. *I like being rewarded for solving problems on my own.*
- d. *I prefer collective decision-making.*
- e. *In a good workplace there is constant information flow between superiors and subordinates.*

Factor 2: Concept of culture

- a. *I have to think differently when I work with a foreigner.*
- b. *I have to adapt to the foreign working culture for cooperation to be successful.*

Factor 3: Uncertainty avoidance

- a. *It is better to work for a company which does not take big risks.*
- b. *I expect rules to limit the power of superiors.*
- c. *When making decisions, long-term goals need to be always considered.*

Factor 4: Masculinity vs. femininity

- a. *The ideal manager is socially sensitive.*
- b. *It is important that the management accepts the employees' innovative ideas*

Factor 5: Universalism vs. particularism

- a. *Rules hinder effective work.*
- b. *I have better results when working together with friends.*
- c. *Conflicts at work should be solved by the manager.*
- d. *I like my superior holding meetings every week at the same time.*

Factor 6. Power distance

- a. *Management decisions depend on the interests of the company rather than personal relationships.*
- b. *Incentives need to be differentiated.*

Factor 7: Diffuse vs. specific

- a. *I expect my superior to consider my position when evaluating my performance.*
- b. *I expect my close colleagues to appreciate my results.*

Factor 8: Masculinity vs. femininity

- a. *The gender of my superior does not affect my behaviour.*
- b. *It disturbs me if my superior speaks to me on too familiar terms.*

Another field of analyses based on the current research might be the cluster analyses, i.e. the data obtained can be used to see whether Hungarian manager and professionals belong to the same dimensions as it was thought some decades ago.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The interest in the study of intercultural communication has grown tremendously during the past several years and research on intercultural communication which treats culture and interculturality as a given fact from which analyses should begin is increasingly being questioned.

Organisations have to satisfy many demands and prerequisites to make an operable system which can support management and which can realize business success. The question of cultural differences can be approached in a number of different ways. The most common one is to adopt one partner's culture as dominant. The other alternative is to separate or limit the activities of the partners so as to minimise cultural interaction and hence the likelihood of cultural clashes.

The present paper is only one of the approaches to view and analyse intercultural communication but it is the approach which is important from the individuals' and the enterprises' perspectives. This paper argues for a reevaluation of how we approach the topic of intercultural communication and for the greater emphasis on successful corporate communication as the goal of better understanding in and out of organisations.

The multicultural makeup of organisations is one of the main causes of the communication breakdowns that today's organisations are experiencing. And these communication failures can be an obstacle in fulfilling corporate goals.

The respondents highlighted that in the 21st century globally employable professionals are needed who do possess intercultural empathy. This is already an urgent need in the business world where multicultural encounters have become a common practice.

Further research in this field, focusing on different organisations and cultures, would also be beneficial, as it could provide additional valuable assistance to organisations wishing to participate in international business.

The current research might have a long-term impact by allowing future researchers to draw upon an enlarged knowledge base and for academics and business practitioners to develop and implement programmes that facilitate international and intercultural communication. Therefore, the findings might be used by academics in university settings to design courses and to develop teaching materials that relate to the real world needs of international business actors.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

Napjainkban üzleti-gazdasági kapcsolataink során kulcsfontosságú saját kultúránk megismerése mellett más kultúrák ismerete és megértése a sikeres együttműködés érdekében. A tanulmány célja egy 2013–2014-ben végzett kvantitatív kutatás bemutatása volt, és az eredmények ismeretében ismételt bizonyítást nyert, hogy a különböző kultúrákhoz tartozó szakemberek viselkedési normái, értékrendszere és attitűdjei hatással vannak a vállalati extern és intern kommunikációra, a döntéshozatali folyamatra, a konfliktuskezelésre, s nem utolsósorban az üzleti partnerek közérzetére az együttműködés során. A tanulmány az immár klasszikusnak tartott kultúrakutatók modelljei mellett a Széchenyi István Egyetemen végzett kultúrakutásokat is megemlíti a szakirodalmi áttekintésben, majd a kutatás célja, módszere, a kutatási kérdések, illetve a minta és az adatközlők bemutatása után tárgyalja a kutatás eredményeit. A több, mint 250 magyar adatközlő cége a Nyugat-dunántúli régióban van, napi rendszerességgel munkakapcsolatban vannak külföldiekkel és 22 kulturális különbségekre fókuszáló attitűd-állítás alapján nyilatkoztak az interkulturális menedzsment témakörébe tartozó kérdésekre. Az eredmények bebizonyították, hogy az ismert nemzetközi kultúraközi menedzsmentkutatások által feltárt magyar nemzeti kultúra-jellemzők (maszkulin, individualista, bizonytalanságkerülő, partikularista) még mindig érvényesek, s a magyar munkavállaló számára fontos, hogy jól érezze magát a munkahelyén, amibe beletartozik a megfelelő belső kommunikáció is. Új tényezőként jelent meg a jövőorientáltság, amely az eddigi kutatásokban nem volt releváns a magyar kultúra vonatkozásában.



Herm of Saint Ladislaus in Basilica of Győr (King of Hungary
from 1077 to 1095, born 1045)

Impact assessment between the city and the company reputation Effect of the reputation of the city of Győr and Audi Hungaria Motor Kft. on each other



Since intense competition exists for customers on the consumer goods market, cities of the 21st century compete for the inhabitants, tourists, investors and companies. In this contest the image and good reputation of the city is one of the biggest feats of arms. The economy of the dynamically developing city Győr is based on several system changes in the automobile industry. Its main economic pillar is the major international company which has had its headquarter in Győr since 1993, Audi Hungaria Motor Kft. (AHM). During our research through questioning one of the main stakeholders of the city and the company as well, we tried to ascertain the effect of AHM on the reputation of the city. According to the above mentioned, the main goal of the study, after setting out the theoretical background, is to reveal how the headquarter city and the company interact in their reputation, based on the point of view of the investors as stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

Since intense competition exists for customers on the consumer goods market, cities of the 21st century compete for the inhabitants, tourists, investors and companies. In this contest a huge scale of city marketing tools are available as the image and good reputation of the city is one of the biggest feats of arms. The economy of the dynamically developing city, Győr, has undergone several system changes; it has transformed from a commercial city to an industrial one, and nowadays it has seen a transit into a dynamically developing centre.

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Today Győr is the sixth largest city in Hungary, home of more than 130.000 inhabitants. It is centre of the Kisalföld region and the county seat of Győr-Moson-Sopron County. It is an episcopal seat, a city rich in history. Győr is the third wealthiest city in monuments in Hungary and home to the Champions League winner women handball team of Győri Audi ETO KC. These are undoubted facts about the city, which, in the second decade of the new millennium, boldly declares its presence with the slogan „The future is being built in Győr!” The economy of the dynamically developing city is based – after several model changes – on the car manufacturing industry. Its main pillar is Audi Hungaria Motor Kft; other important counterforts are the suppliers organically connecting to this. Therefore, no wonder that the presence of the city, its economic prosperity have left their mark not only in the economic index numbers, but in the image of the city and in the identity of its inhabitants as well.^[3]

In our research we tried to find the answer to the following question: What kind of effect does the dynamically developing car manufacturer AHM – headquartered in Győr, led by the German premium category company – have on the reputation and image of the city of Győr?

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Péter Szeles – former president of the Hungarian Public Relations Association – in many people’s point of view reputation is equal to publicity, brand value or even image. In various non-academic writings these academic categories are often interchanged or used for the same phenomenon. Reputation is influenced by the actions of the company and it is formed about the company itself among its stakeholders;^[4] summarizing it is the combination of opinions and impressions of various people in general.^[5]

In this interpretation we mean the corporate reputation, which, based on the impression and opinion of the stakeholders, is similar to the reputation of a city. However, it is a broader category than a product’s reputation, because not only do the customers of a company belong to its stakeholders, but inter alia the suppliers, competitors, partners from the education, and public sector as well.^[6] Charles Fombrun (professor at New York University and president of the Reputation Institute) defines the conception of the corporate reputation as „a general

[3] Jakab, Petra (2014): Győr, városmarketing a gyakorlatban. In: Tózsza, István (ed.): *Turizmus és településmarketing*. Budapesti Corvinus University, Faculty of Economic Geography and Future Research Budapest. 159–168.

[4] Szeles, Péter (2010): Presentation at the conference: *Reputationmanagement, opportunities and risk of measuring reputation by the Hungarian Public Relations Association* (Hírnévmenedzsment, a reputáció mérése és kockázatai a Magyar PR Szövetségnél). Budapest, 14. May 2010. In: <http://www.comprad.hu/hu/compradblog/343.html> Downloaded: 10. August 2015.

[5] Roper, S. – Fill, C. (2012): *Corporate Reputation*. Pearson, 5.

[6] Ibid. 5.

imagination, made up by the voters of a company, furthermore the clear perception of that, how much the facilities of a company can meet the expectations of its stakeholders.”^[7]

The definition of Fombrun gives a good summary of the various definitions of corporate reputation. According to this, corporate reputation is the collective representation of activities and outcomes of the company in the past, which describes the capability of the company to give its various stakeholders a valuable outcome. It measures the relative opinion about the company among the staff (internal) and the stakeholders (external).

Regarding reputation, three categories are often mentioned: these are the image, identity and the brand. The image is a certain picture formed in the individuals, the members of the stakeholder groups. If it is positive, it is the basic condition of trust and good reputation. The corporate identity is interpreted in our study in a corporate context. While the identity is formed by the company, the image is formed by the community, the stakeholders, and the public. In its forming the company can only play an indirect role. The development of the positive image means accordingly the reputation. It is often used as the synonym of the image. Therefore it must be pointed out that differentiation between image and reputation is needed and useful, if only we take the fact into consideration that image can change fast, even by the effect of the commercials, while more time and efforts are needed to build up reputation both in an internal and external point of view.^[8]

Not only the companies, but countries, regions, cities, organisations and persons as well do their best for their good reputation,^[9] so in Győr, too, the colleagues of the City Marketing and Event Management Department, a special department of the Mayor’s Office dealing with the communication, PR activities and marketing of the city.

How can we measure the value of a company’s reputation? Which factors do we have to take into consideration? The measurement of corporate reputation does not have a generally accepted, uniform method. Below are short demonstrations of the generally known ones, in particular highlighting the method which was chosen by the authors in the study in Győr.

The reputation ranking „Most admired companies” of the Fortune magazine had been until 1997 the unique reputation ranking and concentrated only on US American companies until 2008. The ranking is based on the 0-10 evaluation of nine attributions regarding the reputation.

[7] Fombrun, C. J. (1996): *Reputation: Realizing the Value from the Corporate Image*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston.

[8] Konczosné Szombathelyi, Márta (2013): A hírnév és menedzselése. In: Tompos, Anikó – Ablonczyné Mihályka, Livia (eds.): *Növekedés és egyensúly*. Széchenyi István University, Győr. 1-11.

[9] Konczosné Szombathelyi, Márta (2012): Nemzetközi tendenciák a PR-ban. In: Józsa, László – Konczosné Szombathelyi, Márta – Huszka, Péter (eds.): *A marketing új tendenciái*. Széchenyi István University Kautz Gyula Faculty, Győr. 215-228.

Charles Fombrun developed a method in 1999, the Reputation Quotient, which was the first complex method to measure reputation. The responders were consumers, employees and investors, who rated the companies on a 7 point Likert scale according to 20 characteristics in six dimensions.^[10]

The improved version of the RQ is the RepTrak Model and the Global Pulse Study, which were established by the Reputation Institute in 2006. The 23 most important indicators are assigned to seven basic motivators as a result of qualitative and quantitative research methods. The RepTrak™ model highlights the connection between the emotional (feeling, esteem, trust, admire) and the rational (product/service, innovation, workplace, governance, citizenship, leadership, performance) dimensions.^[11]

The authors conduct their survey according to the dimensions of the RepTrak model considering the possible expansion of the research. The models of the Reputation Institute are capable of measuring not only corporate reputation, but the reputation of cities and countries as well. So they can ensure an adequate international base to set up a model of Győr in the future.

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

The method of the primer data research was semi-structured interviews made as surveys on 27th of March 2015 in the University Hall of Széchenyi István University. The so-called Techtogether Junior^[12] competition was held for the very first time there. There were at this event all-important participants of the cooperation Automobile Life Model of Győr, so we could find several representatives of one of the main stakeholder groups, the investors; therefore we managed to personally conduct 16 questionnaires.

There were among those who filled in the questionnaire small, medium sized and large companies as well. Regarding their founding date two companies can be considered as absolutely traditional, since they were founded at the end of the 19th century. Most firms were established in the '90s of the last century. The geographical extension of the working territory of the companies shows a heterogeneous picture; 7 of them undertake international activities, 4 have Hungar-

[10] Pinillos, A. (2012): *Why companies need to worry about managing their reputation or why Schumpeter has a limited view of companies' reputation*. (<http://www.rcysostenibilidad.telefonica.com/blogs/2012/05.31/why-companies-need-to-worry-about-managing-their-reputation-or-why-schumpeter-has-a-limited-view-of-companiesE2%80%99-reputation/>) Downloaded: 20. May 2013.

[11] Konczosné Szombathelyi, Márta (2013): op. cit. 9.

[12] Techtogether Junior is a competition for technical and natural sciences, among the general and technical educational secondary schools in the economic region of Győr. As exhibitors there were secondary and high schools, Széchenyi István University, as well as other companies connected to the Automotive Career Model of Győr. The aim of the event was to demonstrate and propagate that the Győr region offers great educational and career opportunities thanks to the blooming automotive industry, and to strengthen the cooperation among the actors in the education and labour market.

ian ones, one works in the county and one in the small region, 3 of them operate only in Győr. The persons, who filled in the questionnaires, were colleagues in leading, senior management positions or working as management assistants, so for this reason why we can rely on relevant answers.

15 of the 16 answering companies have business contacts to AHM. In answer about the role of the presence of the AHM in their headquarter-choice, 7 gave us a positive answer. 4 showed that they were in Győr before 1993 and the foundation of the German plant and 5 gave a negative answer to the correlation between the existing headquarter and their motivation. On asking about the settling motivation of the companies our aim was to get ideas and key-words about Győr as a headquarter, and we were wondering whether AHM would be among the motivation factors mentioned (Figure 1.). 2 of the 16 answering companies did not fill in this part of the questionnaire, so among the 14 answers the most common one was the local company-owner (5 times) and the skilled workforce (4 times). Among others we received answers like the infrastructure, automobile industry, availability, cheap workforce, and so on. Audi was mentioned twice as the main motivation of their settling in Győr.

Figure 1: Motivations of settle-down of the companies in the survey



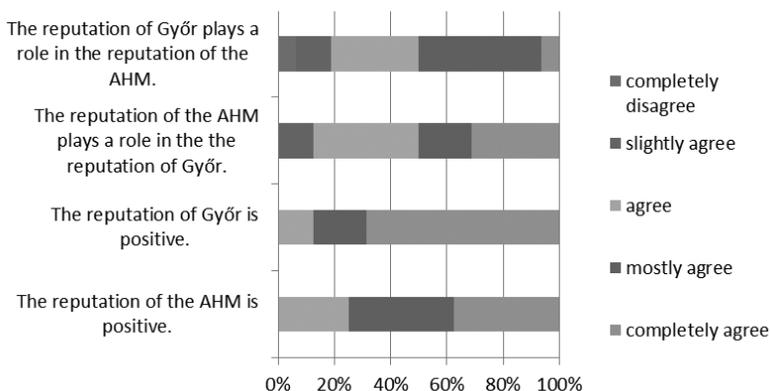
Source: own compilation.

In the following part we asked the positive and negative characteristics of Győr as a headquarter. Among the positive ones the dominance of good infrastructure, geographic location, industrial centre and the proximity of West-Europe, Austria was clear. Among the negative answers the lack of workforce was mentioned 7 times. Besides this it is strange that there were complaints about the proximity of the border, which was also significant among the positive ones. The proximity of the western border – Győr is located only 50 km away

from Austria – is a truly Janus-faced capability, since Austria, the West, played a significant role due to the Austrian capital and its mentality in the growth of the former commercial, later industrial city, as they still play nowadays, too. However, the favourable transport and economic-geographical location contributes to the growing lack of skilled workforce in the region^[13] due to the liberalization of employment since the beginning of the millennium and our membership in the European Union.

While the skilled workforce was among the main motivations of the settling of most companies in Győr, nowadays we have to face a lack of it due to the attracting force of the West. Naturally, the leaders of the city of Győr and the actors of the educational and vocational training sector have been taking actions against the process, and restructured the educational system of the city, initiated a scholarship system in the vocational training and a dual education system. The cooperation between the chamber, the companies, educational institutions and the municipality is strong. The height of this cooperation is the Automotive Career Model, which was launched in Győr 3 years ago, as an outstanding initiative.^[14]

Figure 2: The effect of Győr and the AHM on each other, on their reputation



Source: authors' own research.

In the following part of the questionnaire we asked the partners to rate our statements on the Likert-scale. (Figure 2) They mostly agreed with them. In case of the statement 'The reputation of Győr is positive', we didn't get any negative

[13] The minimum wage in Austria is 3 times more than in Hungary, also the fringe benefits, the health and insurance system are more developed, and so is the building, hotel and catering industry, as well as in the labour-intensive branches.

[14] Jakab, Petra (2014): Sikeres gazdasági modellváltások Győrben. In: Honvári, János (ed.): *Győr fejlődésének mozgatórugói*. Universitas-Győr Nonprofit Kft., Győr. 154.

answers, moreover, 11 from the 16 responders completely agreed, which means 70%. According to the responders' point of view, the created image of the factory plays, without a doubt, a role in the opinion about the city. There were no disagreements; however, 6 answers said 'I agree', 3 had the opinion 'I mostly agree' and 5 people answered with 'I completely agree'. The correlation exists also in the reverse direction in the majority's opinion but it isn't so clear. In this statement we faced a negative answer, and 2 persons slightly agreed. We received the answer 5 times 'I agree', 7 times 'I mostly agree', and only one respondent's opinion agreed completely with our statement.

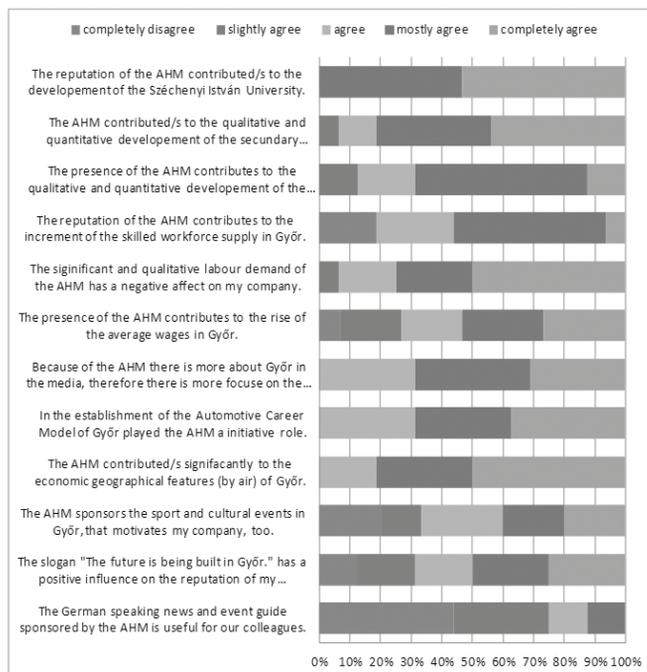
Following the RepTrak Model we asked about the relevant dimensions playing a role in the relation of the city and the car-manufacturing company and being interpretable for the interview stakeholders. (Figure 3)

The answers express that the partners perceive the importance of reputation also in the single dimensions of the relationship between the city and the company. It can be felt most dominantly in education (higher education). Since there was a dichotomy in the opinions in terms of the workforce supply and demand, AHM's impact on the labour market and on the run of the average earnings divided the responders.

To go into more detail, the statement about AHM's contribution to the development of Széchenyi István University was met with 47% mostly agreements and 53% complete agreements. Staying within this educational issue, in the case of secondary vocational or technical education, the contribution of the factory met mainly compliance. Roughly the same percentage of mostly and complete agreements came from the respondents; however there was one slightly agree response. Observing the factory's contribution to the qualitative and quantitative development of the accommodation and catering supply in Győr, 2 answers slightly agreed, 3 agreed, the main part of the partners mostly agreed with our statement. We could see in the above-presented figure of the motivations of settling that the skilled workforce plays an important role in the city's economy and it has meant a positive externality there. Yet, as emerged from the positive and negative characteristics of Győr as a headquarter, many complained about the shortage of skilled workforce. Examining the factory's reputation contributing to the increment of the skilled workforce supply in Győr, 3 respondents completely disagreed, which could mean the attracting force of AHM as an employer being a negative externality for other employers in Győr and the region. With the next statement - which is almost the reverse of the last one - 50% of the answering partners completely agreed. They think that the significant and qualitative labour demand of AHM has a significant effect of their company. There were three more statements, which totally divided the answering companies: the factory's contribution to the average wages, the multiplier effect of its sponsoring activity and usage of the common slogans. Also three statements received the totally agreement of the 16 respondents, half of them completely agreed with the contribution of AHM to the economic geographical features (Győr-Pér International Airport), meanwhile 5 mostly agreed and 3 agreed. The initiative

role played by AHM in the establishment of the Automotive Career Model of Győr was also acknowledged among the answers. This was also the case with the statement about the AHM-generated media focus on Győr. Our last statement regarding the importance of the German speaking news in the local radio sponsored by AHM got a negative answer from most of the companies.

Figure 3: Opinion about the single dimensions according to the stakeholders



Source: authors' own research.

SUMMARY

In our questionnaire research we examined the connection between the reputation of AHM and the city of Győr. We then examined the effect of AHM on the reputation of the city in the opinions of the stakeholders.

According to the above we can assume, the company, which disposes of a positive reputation, and so the city, plays an important role both in the image of the city and its reputation. In addition, the respondents agreed fully with the fact that the company's reputation has an effect on the headquarter's reputation, and this correlation can be seen in the single dimensions showed by the charts above. The whole reputation research will be based on a multi-component-model for which the interviewing of the other stakeholder groups and the monitoring of the marketing and PR materials will be needed.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

Mint ahogy verseny folyik a vásárlókért a piacon, ugyanúgy versenyeznek a 21. században a városok a lakosságért, a turistákért, a befektetőkért és a vállalatokért. Ebben a versenyben a pozitív imázs és a jó hírnév tudatos kialakítása az egyik legfontosabb eszköz. Győrnek, a dinamikusan fejlődő városnak a gazdasága az autógyártásra épül. Ebben a legnagyobb szereplő 1993 óta az Audi győri leányvállalata, az Audi Hungaria Motor Kft. (AHM). Kutatásunk során arra kerestük a választ – a vállalat legfontosabb stakeholdereinek megkérdezésével –, hogy hogyan hat a város hírnevének megítélésére az AHM jelenléte, illetve hogyan befolyásolja kölcsönösen a város és a vállalat hírneve egymást. Mindennek a bemutatására a kapcsolódó elméletek bemutatása után kerül sor.

Value co-creation relating to cultural and health services



Service providers need to obtain a competitive edge generated from memorable experiences in order to retain their customers. The consumer activity during the co-creation process, the support of the activity during the co-creation process enables service providers to fit their services to the consumers' needs. In international research there are two recognised types of customers' co-creation behaviour; consumer participation behaviour and consumer citizenship behaviour. Customer participation behaviour refers to the required role of customer, which is necessary for successful value co-creation. Customer citizenship behaviour is voluntary behaviour, which gives extra value to the firm. For purpose of our research we conducted a survey with reference to two generations (Y and X). We applied factor analyses and determined the dimensions, factors of customer participation and citizenship behaviour. The findings can be used to identify the level of consumer co-creation, to support co-creation behaviour and to segment the service's market.

INTRODUCTION

The services sector faces challenges in the 21th century. Lifestyle and the structure of consumption have changed, especially among the young generations. Service providers need to develop a competitive advantage on the market to secure a share of consumers' leisure time. One strategy is co-creation, which means a mutual creation of value and experience, especially in the case of cultural services and services for health and body image.^[2] According to the concept of Service Dominant Logic (SDL) the customers are always active participants and collaborative partners in exchanges, customers co-create value

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[2] Ercey, I. (2014): *Közös az értékteremtés a kulturális szektorban?* Marketing&Menedzsment, 48(3). 36-46.

with the firm.^[3] Gummesson and Grönroos^[4] and Grönroos and Voima^[5] developed the Service Logic theory, which differs from SDL, and the authors state that value co-creation is primarily a function of interaction between employees and customers. Previous studies of co-creation focused on generic and industry specific (retail, tourism, health, and manufacturing) empirical studies.^[6] The authors discuss the frameworks of co-creation from the aspect of the encounters, the suppliers and the customers. In generic frameworks customer contributions and behaviour are distinguished. According to the authors' approach other studies describe the attributes of co-creation from the aspect of the customer,^[7] the experience,^[8] the capability,^[9] the service,^[10] the value,^[11] the roles,^[12] and the activities.^[13] Durugbo and Pawar^[14] developed a unified model for co-creation that integrates the functions of the supplier and consumer involvement based on existing value-in-exchange and value-in-use and for selecting co-creation techniques. In marketing literature few paper investigate the dimensions of the customer value co-creation behaviour. Previous authors use a multidimensional approach to explore the components of the customer value co-creation behav-

[3] Vargo, S. L. – Lusch, R. F. (2008): *Service-Dominant Logic: Continuing the Evolution*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36. 1-10.

[4] Gummesson, E. – Grönroos, C. (2012): *The emergence of the new service marketing: Nordic school perspectives*. Journal of Service Management, 23(4). 479-497.

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[6] Oh, L. B. – Teo, H. H. (2010): *Consumer value co-creation in a hybrid commerce service-delivery system*. International Journal of Electronic Commerce, 14. 35-62.; Prebensen, N. K. – Foss, L. (2011): *Coping and co-creating in tourist experiences*. International Journal of Tourism Research, 13. 54-67.; Gill, L. – White, L. – Cameron, I. D. (2011): *Service co-creation in community-based aged healthcare*, Managing Service Quality, 21. 152-177.

[7] Tynan, Caroline – McKechnie, Sally – Chhuon, Celine, (2010): *Co-creating value for luxury brands*, Journal of Business Research, 63(11). 1156-1163.

[8] Gentile, C. – Spiller, N. – Noci, G. (2007): *How to sustain the customer experience: An overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer*. European Management Journal, 25. 395-410.; Prahalad, C. K. – Ramaswamy, V. (2004): *Co-creation experiences: The next practice in value creation*. Journal of Interactive Marketing, 18. 5-14.

[9] Yoshirou, Fujioka (2009): *A consideration of the process of co-creation of value with customers*. Artificial Life and Robotics, 14(2) 101-103.

[10] Vargo, S. L. – Maglio, P. P. – Akaka, M. A. (2008): *On value and value co-creation: A service systems and service logic perspective*. European Management Journal, 26. 145-152.

[11] Ueda, K. – Takenaka, T. – Fujita, K. (2008): *Toward value co-creation in manufacturing and servicing*. CIRP Journal of Manufacturing Science and Technology, 1. 53-58.

[12] Andreu, L. – Sanchez, I. – Mele, C. (2010): *Value co-creation among retailers and consumers: New insights into the furniture market*. Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 17(4). 241-250.; Grönroos, C. (2008): *Service logic revisited: Who creates value? And who cocreates?* European Business Review, 20. 298-314.

[13] Gebauer, H. – Johnson, M. – Enquist, B. (2010): *Value co-creation as a determinant of success in public transport services: A study of the Swiss Federal Railway operator (SBB)*. Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 20(6). 511-530.

[14] Durugbo, C. – Pawar, K. (2014): *A unified model of the co-creation process*. Expert Systems with Applications, 41(9). 4373-4387.

our.^[15] Besides this other researchers apply a one-dimensional approach and use single- or multiple-item measures.^[16] Yí and Gong^[17] identified the dimensions of customer behaviour in co-creating value, and developed a scale to measure it. Companies can use this scale to detect the weaknesses and strengths of the customer value co-creation behaviour.

Marketing literature lacks research regarding co-creation consumer behaviour in different service types of culture and healthy lifestyle. Our study aims to identify whether the co-creation concept and the positive consumer attitude towards the theory is relevant related to various service industries. The consumer activity during the co-creation process, the support of the activity during the co-creation process enables the service providers to fit their services to the consumers' needs. We formulated four research questions to investigate factors of customer participate behaviour and customer citizenship behaviour in cultural activities and health context. The findings can be used to identify the level of consumer co-creation and to support co-creation behaviour.

LITERATURE REVIEW OF CUSTOMER VALUE CO-CREATION BEHAVIOUR

According to service dominant logic (SDL) the co-creation value is developed by mutual activity of the consumer and the service provider through establishment of different sources. The value is determined in use through activities and interactions of customers with the service provider and other customers. The concept of SDL places the intangible resources, co-creation and relationships into the focus of marketing. Co-creative customers are those customers who are capable to apply their competencies providing the service for the benefit of other customers and themselves. These customers not only co-produce but also co-consume or collaborate with firms and other customers.

Previous studies have explored the nature and the dimensions of customer value co-creation behaviour. In a conceptual paper, the authors divide the value co-creation into six dimensions or types of actions performed by users and providers. Researchers also identified the antecedents (communicative inter-

[15] Bettencourt, L. A. (1997): *Customer voluntary performance: Customers as partners in service delivery*. Journal of Retailing, 73. 383-406.; Groth, M. (2005): *Customers as good soldiers: Examining citizenship behaviours in internet service deliveries*. Journal of Management, 31. 7-27.; Bove, L. L. - Pervan, S. J. - Beatty, S. E. - Shiu, E. (2008): *Service worker role in encouraging customer organizational citizenship behaviours*. Journal of Business Research, 62. 698-705.

[16] Cermak, D. S. P. - File, K. M. - Prince, R. A. (1994): *Customer participation in service specification and delivery*. Journal of Applied Business Research, 10. 90-97.; Dellande, S. - Gilly, M. C. - Graham, J. L. (2004): *Gaining compliance and losing weight: The role of the service provider in health care services*. The Journal of Marketing, 68. 78-91.; Fang, Eric - Palmatier, R. W. - Evans, K. R. (2008): *Influence of Customer Participation on Creating and Sharing New Product Value*. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36. 322-336.

[17] Yi, Y. - Gong, T. (2013): *Customer value co-creation behaviour: scale development and validation*. Journal of Business Research, 66. 1279-1284.

active profile-, relational- social profile -, and knowledge- cognitive profile) of the concept.^[18] However, their model does not conform to the assumptions of Vargo and Lusch,^[19] because it does not completely follow the SDL concept but complies with Grönroos and Voima.^[20] Furthermore, this theoretical paper included no empirical validation. Regarding empirical research, Randall et al.,^[21] Mc-Coll Kennedy et al.,^[22] Yi and Gong^[23] and Chen and Raab^[24] are particularly relevant.

The first study^[25] proposes the construction of a measurement scale composed of three dimensions: connection, trust and commitment. The authors used a mixed method, a combination of qualitative (in-depth interviews) and quantitative (survey) analysis techniques, for examination of customer relationship management.

In the second work, Mc-Coll Kennedy et al.^[26] has divided the construct into eight activities, pinpointing the different types of value co-creation practices in terms of activities and interactions actually accomplished by users, not only in the moment of interaction with employees. The researchers have identified eight value co-creation activities: cooperating, collating information, combining complementary therapies, co- learning, changing ways of doing things, connecting, coproduction and cerebral activities. However, they did not semantically analyse the differences between the dimensions, but merely present examples derived from respondents' answers. It is proposed that customer value co-creation behaviour has a hierarchical factor structure, which in turn can be divided into several sub-dimensions: cognitive activities, cooperation, information research and collation, combination of complementary activities, changing habits, co-production, co-learning and connection.

Yi and Gong^[27] applied third order factor through the lens of two theories: customer participation behaviour and customer citizenship behaviour, related respectively to the concepts of in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours. Customer participation behaviour belongs to the required behaviour

[18] Neghina, C. – Caniëls, M. C. J. – Bloemer, J. M. M. – Van Birgelen, M. J. H. (2014): *Value co-creation in service interactions: Dimensions and antecedents*, Marketing Theory, 10. 1-22.

[19] Vargo, S. L. – Lusch, R. F. (2008): op. cit. 1.

[20] Grönroos, C. – Voima, P. (2013): op. cit. 1.

[21] Randall, W. S. – Gravier, M. J. – Prybutok, V. R. (2011): *Connection, trust, and commitment: dimensions of co-creation?* Journal of strategic marketing, 19(1). 3-24.

[22] McColl-Kennedy, J. R. – Vargo, S. L. – Dagger, T. S. – Sweeney, J. C. – van Kasteren, Y. (2012): *Health Care Customer Value Cocreation Practice Styles*. Journal of Service Research, 15(4). 370-389.

[23] Yi, Y. – Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

[24] Chen, S. C. – Raab, C. (2014): *Construction and validation of the customer participation scale*. Journal of Hospitality Tourism Research, esdoi: 10.1177/1096348014525631.

[25] Randall, W. S. – Gravier, M. J. – Prybutok, V. R. (2011): op. cit. 3.

[26] McColl-Kennedy, J. R. – Vargo, S. L. – Dagger, T. S. – Sweeney, J. C. – van Kasteren, Y. (2012): op. cit. 3.

[27] Yi, Y. – Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

necessary for successful value co-creation. Customer citizenship behaviour is voluntary behaviour that provides extraordinary value to the firm but is not necessarily required for value co-creation.^[28] The empirical results show that in-role and extra-role behaviours follow different patterns and have different antecedents and consequences.^[29] Yi and Gong^[30] conceptualized the customer value co-creation behaviour as a multidimensional concept, which consists of two factors (customer participation behaviour and customer citizenship behaviour), and each factor contains multiple dimensions. Customer participation behaviour comprises of four dimensions: information seeking, information sharing, responsible behaviour, and personal interaction. Besides this customer citizenship behaviour consists of feedback, advocacy, helping, and tolerance.

Finally, Chen and Raab^[31] developed and validated the mandatory customer participation (MCP) scale which originated from the Engel-Blackwell-Kollat model. This scale can be divided into three dimensions: information participation, attitudinal participation and actionable participation. Authors applied this scale to investigate the consumer decision process related to the restaurant service. Table 1 shows the focus and research methods relating to customer value co-creation behaviour.

Table 1: Focus and research methods of customer value co-creation behaviour

Focus	Research methods	Authors
Conceptual paper		Neghina et al (2014)
Church	Qualitative and quantitative	Randall et al (2011)
Health sector	Qualitative	McCull Kennedy (2012)
Several industries: retailing, full-service restaurant, hair salons, health care facilities, and travel.	Qualitative and quantitative	Yi and Gong (2013)
Restaurant	Qualitative and quantitative	Chen and Raab (2014)

Source: own compilation.

Information seeking is important for customers because information reduces uncertainty and helps to understand and control their co-creation conditions.

[28] Groth, M. (2005): op. cit. 2.; Bove, L. L. - Pervan, S. J. - Beatty, S. E. - Shiu, E. (2008): op. cit. 2.; Yi, Y. - Gong, T. (2008): *If employees “go the extra mile”, do customers reciprocate with similar behaviour?* Psychology and Marketing, 25. 961-986.; Yi, Y. - Natarajan, R. - Gong, T. (2011): *Customer participation and citizenship behavioural influences on employee performance, satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention.* Journal of Business Research, 64. 87-95.

[29] Groth, M. (2005): op. cit. 2.; Yi, Y. - Natarajan, R. - Gong, T. (2011): op. cit. 4.

[30] Yi, Y. - Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

[31] Chen, S. C. - Raab, C. (2014): op. cit. 3.

Besides, information seeking enables customers to perform their role as value co-creators.^[32] For successful value co-creation, customers should share information with employees.^[33] If customers do not share essential information, the employees cannot begin or perform their duties^[34] and the quality of value co-creation may be poor. The customers' responsible behaviour pertains to identify their duties and responsibilities as partial employees in value co-creation. The customers need to be cooperative and accept directions from employees for successful value co-creation.^[35] The personal interaction refers to interpersonal relations between customers and employees, which are necessary for successful value co-creation. The interaction between customers and employees contains courtesy, friendliness, and respect.^[36] Furthermore, the positive social environment of service influences the customers to engage in value co-creation.^[37] Customer feedback gives information to the employee, which helps the employees and the firm to improve the service creation process.^[38] Customers offer suggestions to the employees, because customers have experience with the service and are experts from a customer perspective.^[39] Feedback from customers can be valuable, and constitutes extra-role behaviour. The advocacy refers to recommending the firm or the employee to others, such as friends or family.^[40] Positive word-of-mouth contributes to the development of a positive firm reputation, promotion of the firm's products and services, higher service quality evaluations, and it is an indicator of customer loyalty.^[41] The advocacy is voluntary and optional for the successful value co-creation. The help implies the customer behaviour to directly assist other customers in a service co-creation process. The authors^[42] note that customers recall their own experiences to help other customers experiencing similar difficulties. Tolerance denotes to the customer willingness to be patient when the service delivery does not meet the customer's expectations of correct

[32] Kelley, S. W. - Donnelly, J. H. - Skinner, S. J. (1990): *Customer participation in service production and delivery*. Journal of Retailing, 66. 315-335.; Morrison, E. W. (1993): *Newcomer information seeking: Exploring types, modes, sources, and outcomes*. The Academy of Management Journal, 36. 557-589.

[33] Lengnick-Hall, C. A. (1996): *Customer contributions to quality: A different view of the customer-oriented firm*. The Academy of Management Review, 21. 791-824.

[34] Ennew, C. T. - Binks, M. R. (1999): *Impact of participative service relationships on quality, satisfaction and retention: An exploratory study*. Journal of Business Research, 46. 121-132.

[35] Bettencourt, L. A. (1997): op. cit. 2.

[36] Ennew, C. T. - Binks, M. R. (1999): op. cit. 5.; Kelley, S. W. - Donnelly, J. H. - Skinner, S. J. (1990): op. cit. 4.

[37] Lengnick-Hall, C. A. (1996): op. cit. 4.

[38] Groth, M. - Mertens, D. P. - Murphy, R. (2004): *Customers as good soldiers: Extending organizational citizenship behaviour research to the customer domain*. In: Turnipseed, D. L. (ed.): *Handbook of organizational citizenship behaviour*. Nova Science Publishers, Hauppauge, N. Y. 411-430.

[39] Bettencourt, L. A. (1997): op. cit. 2.

[40] Groth, M. - Mertens, D. P. - Murphy, R. (2004): op. cit. 5.

[41] Bettencourt, L. A. (1997): op. cit. 2.; Groth, M. - Mertens, D. P. - Murphy, R. (2004): op. cit. 5.

[42] Rosenbaum, M. S. - Massiah, C. A. (2007): *When customers receive support from other customers: Exploring the influence of intercustomer social support on customer voluntary performance*. Journal of Service Research, 9. 257-270.

services.^[43] Customer tolerance may help the firm because service encounter failure is the second largest cause of customer switching behaviour.^[44] We collected dimensions from different papers concerning customer value co-creation activities. These dimensions are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Measurement of the customer value co-creation activities

Dimensions or customer activities	Authors
Individuating, relating, empowering, ethical, developmental, and concerted joint actions.	Neghina et al (2014)
Trust, commitment, and connection.	Randall et al (2011)
Cooperation, searching and sorting information, combining complementary activities, co-learning, changing habits, connecting, co-production and cerebral activities.	McCull Kennedy (2012)
Customer participation behaviour (information seeking, information sharing, responsible behaviour, and personal interaction). Customer citizenship behaviour (feedback, advocacy, helping, and tolerance).	Yi and Gong (2013)
Information participation, attitudinal participation, actionable participation.	Chen and Raab (2014)

Source: own compilation.

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: RESEARCH QUESTIONS, METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

In our empirical research we focused on the examination of the level of voluntary and non-voluntary co-creation behaviour in terms of different services. We search for answers to the research questions below in the cultural and healthy lifestyle services context:

1. What are the dimensions of customer participation behaviour in co-creation of cultural and healthy lifestyle services?
2. What are the dimensions of customer citizenship behaviour in co-creation of cultural and healthy lifestyle services?

For the purpose of our research we conducted a survey this year in April and May. The target population of our quantitative research is two segments, which can be separated based on age, family and occupy status: generations Y and X. The consumption preferences of members of the millennial generation, especially students, is a meaningful research topic in domestic and also international research.^[45] We applied a quota sampling method using quotas for ages and gender.

[43] Lengnick-Hall, C. A. (1996): op. cit. 4.

[44] Keaveney, S. M. (1995): *Customer switching behaviour in service industries: An exploratory study*. The Journal of Marketing, 59. 71-82.

[45] Platz, P. - Veres, Z. (2014): *Understanding consumer preference biases*. Journal of Applied Economics and Business 2(1). 105-119.; Platz, P. (2014): *Egy gazdaságtudományi axióma marketing manifesztációja*. Tér - Gazdaság - Ember, 2(1). 9-23.

The sample size is 335 persons and 57 percent of them are between the age of 18-26 and the other part belongs to generation X. 40% of the respondents are women and 60% are male. Twenty three percent of the respondents live in county seats where more kinds of services are provided than in other cities (46%) or villages (31%). The composition of the sample is based on age: the rate of 18-26-age category is 57 percent (192 persons), and the rate of elderly people is 43 percent (143 persons).

For the examination of our research questions first we adopted a previous scale^[46] to measure co-creative customer behaviour. Our decision was confirmed by an adaptation of scale in Spain and its results.^[47] We asked the respondents to evaluate their last cultural activities (e.g. theatre, interactive museum, festival) or services to health and body image to investigate customer co-creation behaviour. A notable part of young respondents participated in cultural activities (58%), and used a health service (42%). The older ones preferred health services (52%), and less of them visited a cultural provider (48%). We assumed that a generation gap exists in cooperation skills of the service production. Our results show that seeking information is more important for members of generation X than for students. Furthermore, the elderly have more a favourable attitude to information sharing with personnel.^[48] We found that elements of the respondents' citizenship behaviour are lower level than participation behaviour. According to the results there is only one variable of feedback; advocacy and helping gave appreciable values in case of generation X.^[49]

For recognizing dimensions of customer participation behaviour we measured it using 15 items (on five point scale) according to validated scale.^[50] Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the items of the customer value co-creation activities to recognize the dimensions of customer participation behaviour. The KMO (0.875 > 0.7.) and Bartlett test (2029.124, Sig. =0.000) indicate that the data is suitable for factor analysis.^[51] We found three factors by applying Principal components analysis and Varimax rotation method. The cumulative percentage of explained variance by extracted factors is 61.4 percent, which is above the expected level (60%). The original 15 items are appropriate for the measurement the individuals' role to perform the service. Cronbach analysis supported the reliability of the participation behaviour scale ($\alpha=0.896$). The information seeking and information sharing can be distinguished within the customer participation behaviour similarly to previous pieces of research about services. But the elements of responsible behaviour and personal interaction constitute one factor.

[46] Yi, Y. - Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

[47] Revilla-Camacho, M. A. - Vega-Vázquez, M. - Cossio-Silva, F. J. (2015): *Customer participation and citizenship behaviour effects on turnover intention*, Journal of Business Research, 68(7). 1607-1611.

[48] Ercsey, I. - Platz, P. (2015): Fogyasztói magatartás vizsgálata a közös értékteremtés tükrében. In: *Marketing hálózaton innen és túl. Az Egyesület a Marketing Oktatásért és Kutatásért XXI. Országos Konferenciájának tanulmánykötete*. 113-124.

[49] Ercsey, I. - Platz, P. (2015): op. cit. 6.

[50] Yi, Y. - Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

[51] Malhotra, N. K. (2010): *Marketing Research*. Pearson, New Jersey. 638-649.

This result is due to inconsistent previous research,^[52] because English and Spanish respondents made a distinction between the factors of personal interaction and responsible behaviour. The items of customers' responsible behaviour emerge in interaction between personnel and customer and they are necessary to produce the successful service expected by customers. This factor in connection with personal interaction contains the respondents' attitude and behaviour to the personnel and provider. We summarized the results of factor analysis in Table 3.

Table 3: Factors of customer participation behaviour

Variables of customer participation behaviour	F1 Personal interaction and responsible behaviour	F2 Information sharing	F3 Information seeking
	Factor loadings		
I was friendly and kind to the employee.	0.799		
I was polite to the employee.	0.764		
I fulfilled responsibilities to the business.	0.750		
I adequately completed all the expected behaviours.	0.749		
I performed all the tasks that are required.	0.723		
I was courteous to the employee.	0.672		
I followed the employee's directives or orders.	0.671		
I didn't act rudely to the employee.	0.632		
I gave the employee proper information.		0.855	
I provided necessary information so that the employee could perform his or her duties.		0.849	
I clearly explained what I wanted the employee to do.		0.791	
I answered all the employee's service-related questions.		0.693	
I have asked others for information on what this service offers.			0.720
I have paid attention to how others behave to use this service well.			0.675
I have searched for information on where this service is located.			0.542
Explained variance	37.4%	15.2%	8.8%

Source: own compilation.

[52] Yi, Y. – Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.; Revilla-Camacho, M. A. – Vega-Vázquez, M. – Cossio-Silva, F. J. (2015): op. cit. 6.

The order of the factors and the percentage of explained variance by factors show that in service production the respondents' responsible behaviour and the quality of personal interaction play a bigger role than the information sharing and information seeking factors. As we expected, in customer participation behaviour we can differentiate between information sharing, information seeking, and personal interaction-responsible behaviour dimensions, three distinct dimensions can be recognised in the co-creation of cultural and healthy lifestyle services.

For recognizing dimensions of customer citizenship behaviour we measured it using 13 items (on five point scale) according to validated scale.^[53] Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the items of the customer value co-creation activities to recognize the dimensions of customer participation behaviour. The KMO (0.761 > 0.7,) and Bartlett test (1371.905, Sig. =0.000) indicate that the data is suitable for factor analysis.^[54] We found four factors by applying Principal components analysis and Varimax rotation method. The cumulative percentage of explained variance by extracted factors is 65.7 percent, which is above the expected level (60%). The original 13 items are appropriate for the measurement the individual' extra role to perform the service. Cronbach analysis supported the reliability of the participation behaviour scale ($\alpha=0.874$). Giving help, advocacy, tolerance and feedback can be distinguished within the customer voluntary behaviour similarly to previous pieces of research about services. Our result corresponds to the numbers and names of factors in previous studies. These factors imply extra value to the provider in case of customer 'active' behaviour. Two recognised factors, tolerance and feedback, emerge in the relationship between the respondents and personnel. The other factors, giving help and advocacy are realized in the transaction between the respondents and other customers. We summarized the results of factor analysis in Table 4.

Table 4: Factors of customer citizenship behaviour

Variables of consumer citizenship behaviour	Factor1 Helping	Factor2 Advocacy	Factor3 Tolerance	Factor4 Feedback
	Factor loadings			
I teach other customers to use the service correctly.	0.826			
I give advice to other customers.	0.772			
I help other customers if they seem to have problems.	0.764			
I assist other customers if they need my help.	0.681			

[53] Yi, Y. – Gong, T. (2013): op. cit. 2.

[54] Malhotra, N. K. (2010): op. cit. 7.

Variables of consumer citizenship behaviour	Factor1 Helping	Factor2 Advocacy	Factor3 Tolerance	Factor4 Feedback
	Factor loadings			
I recommended the given service and the employee to others.		0.836		
I encouraged friends and relatives to use the given service.		0.829		
I said positive things about the given service and the employee to others.		0.757		
If the employee makes a mistake during service delivery, I would be willing to be patient.			0.844	
If I have to wait longer than I normally expected to receive the service, I would be willing to adapt.			0.833	
If service is not delivered as expected, I would be willing to put up with it.			0.574	
When I experience a problem, I let the employee know about it.				0.764
When I receive good service from the employee, I comment about it.				0.686
If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I let the employee know.				0.638
Explained variance	29.7%	14.7%	12.3%	9.0%

Source: own compilation.

The order of the factors and the percentage of explained variance by factors show that in the service production respondents giving help and recommendations to potential customers play a bigger role than the other two factors. The respondents' positive attitude to personnel through tolerance and feedback it is not significant. As we expected, in customer citizenship behaviour we can differentiate between giving help, advocacy, tolerance and feedback dimensions and four behavioural dimensions can be recognised in the co-creation of cultural and healthy lifestyle services.

CONCLUSIONS, FURTHER RESEARCH

In our paper we highlighted the young and older generations' participation and citizenship behaviour by the evaluation of different cultural activities, and services, which contribute to the improvement of health and body image. Our results show that customer feeling for co-creation can be examined with a multi-dimensions construct. The activity and attitude of individuals related to performing extra-role in service interaction is less favourable than the required in-role behaviour. We conclude that value co-creation not only refers to co-production

through the company-customer interaction but also the co-creation of value through customer-to-customer interaction. Moreover, the customers can search for information from the firm directly or indirectly. According to our empirical research the older generation shows greater cooperation based on customer mandatory and voluntary behaviour.

Future research should examine which demographical and psychological features influence customers to participate in service co-creation. It would be very useful to pay more research attention to examining the characteristics of the co-creative customers. The findings can be used to identify the level of consumer co-creation, to support co-creation behaviour and to segment the service's market. Previous researchers revealed the consequences of customer co-creation value behaviour in reference to buying intentions, customer satisfaction, and loyalty. It is a matter of great professional curiosity on our behalf whether the respondents' participation behaviour or citizenship behaviour has a stronger influence on the perceived value of service.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

A szolgáltatóknak fontos az egyediség, az emlékezetes élmények által generált versenyelőny megszerzése a vásárlók megtartása szempontjából. Nemzetközi kutatásokban a vevő közös értékteremtő magatartásának két típusát azonosították: a vevő részvételi magatartását és a vevő fogyasztópolgári magatartását. A vevő részvételi magatartása magában foglalja a vevőtől elvárt szerep betöltését, és azt a magatartást, amely a közös értékteremtés sikeréhez szükséges. A vevő fogyasztópolgári magatartása olyan „önkéntes” magatartás, amely extra-értéket biztosít a cég számára. Tanulmányunk célja annak vizsgálata, hogy milyen faktorok határozzák meg a szolgáltatást igénybevevők részvételi és fogyasztópolgári magatartását a közös értékteremtés során. A kutatás célkitűzésének megfelelően megkérdezést folytattunk le két generációra (Y és X) vonatkozóan. Faktorelemzés alkalmazásával meghatároztuk a fogyasztó részvételi és fogyasztópolgári magatartásának dimenzióit, faktorait. A kutatás eredményei felhasználhatók a közös értékteremtés mértékének azonosításához, a vevők közös értékteremtésben való részvételének támogatásához.



Tibor Szervátiusz: Blessed Virgin and the mythological White Stag, which lead Hunor and Magor, the fathers of Hungarians, into Scythia

Sustainable health – emotional eating or cognitive control?



Overweight and obesity is an epidemic that appears in the developed countries of the world. Overweight and obesity means a serious expenditure for the consumers, for the employers and for the states both in the prevention and in the treatment phases. In the national and international literature many authors deal with the research from the dimensions of healthy lifestyle either in a complex way or focusing on a special area (e. g. smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity or eating behaviour). There are many tests investigating food consumption, but the most widely used ones are the Three Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ) and the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ). These scales were validated in many countries on the population with normal weight and overweight obese individuals and three types of eating behaviour were identified, namely emotional eating, restrained eating and external eating.

The aim of this study is to introduce the adaptation possibilities of each scales (TFEQ 16, DEBQ, TFEQ 20) measuring eating habits. In an empirical research 1323 adult people were interviewed and 407 people answered to the attitude statements of TFEQ 16, 404 people reacted to the DEBQ and finally 512 people filled in the TFEQ 20.

The results of the primary research do not completely support the original factor structure. In the case of TFEQ 16 the emotional eating appears in two factors. In the case of DEBQ the external eating can be classified into three factors, (1) the effect of taste, (2) the effect of smell and (3) the effect of society. In the case of TFEQ 20 only three items of cognitive control can be validated. In the future the authors plan to extend the research to examine different relationships with BMI and to segment the population based on their eating styles in order to develop an effective marketing program for them.

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the conditions of modern market economy, overconsumption and physical inactivity characterize the eating and life styles of the population of developed countries, which together with the combined effect of individuals' genetic endowments inflict overweight and obesity.^[3] According to the announcement of OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) from 2014, among the population aged over 15 years 17.7% of men and 18.7% of women living in the 34 countries of OECD were obese in 2012 (BMI \geq 30). In the first place we can find the United States, where this problem affects more than one third of the population. The United States is followed by New-Zealand, Australia and Mexico. In Hungary 29% of the population aged over 15 years are considered obese (26.3% of men and 30.4% of women), which is more than one and a half times higher than the average of OECD member states. With this data we belong to the 'leading group' within the EU. According to the health survey of KSH (Central Statistical Office) from 2014, more than half of the entire Hungarian population (54%) is overweighed-obese ($25 \leq$ BMI $<$ 30). This rate is higher in the case of men (61%) than in the case of women (48%), however, the survey found that women underestimate their weight and overestimate their height, because the establishment of body mass index was based on self-declaration. Based on temporal comparison, it can be stated that considering the combined rate of overweighed and obese an obvious increase among middle-aged and older men, a decline among middle-aged women, and stagnation among older women can be observed. During 21st century a slight drop among young men and a slight increase among young women could be observed (European Health Interview Survey 2014). Diseases appearing as a consequence of overweight and obesity mean a significant financial burden for consumers, for employers and for national states as well both in the prevention and in the treatment phases. In Hungary health care expenditures were 2 216 billion HUF (7.9% of GDP) in 2012, which meant almost 223 400 HUF/capita/year.^[4]

The analysis of the relation between obesity and eating habits were mainly published in psychological and sociological studies both in international and in domestic literature. A relatively few scientific publications deal with the management of BMI and eating style from a marketing viewpoint. The present study is a part of a complex research, and in the current phase of the research we reveal the main dimensions of eating behaviour among adult population.

[3] Tolnay, Pál – Szabó S., András (2004): *Testtömeg-optimalás, a sikeres fogyókúra ismérvei*. Élelmezési Ipar, 58(2). 60–61.

[4] KSH (2013): *Az egészségügyi kiadások legfőbb jellemzői, 2007–2012*. Statisztikai Tükör, 98.

LITERATURE REVIEW OF EATING BEHAVIOUR

Psychologists elaborated more measuring methods for the analysis of obese people and individuals with normal body weight: latent obesity survey,^[5] eating attitudes test,^[6] restraint scale.^[7] In present research we highlight the Three Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ),^[8] and the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ)^[9] from the food consumption behaviour tests as these were developed and validated based on previous tests. Our choice is supported by the fact that the use of these tests is the most widespread within the scientific fields of psychology and sociology.

The Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire Revised-21 item (TFEQ-R21) was constructed from the 51-item scale compiled by Stunkard and Messick. First, Karlsson et al., then Tholin et al. defined its current form.^[10] TFEQ analyses food consumption through three subscales: uncontrolled eating scale, cognitive restraint scale and emotional eating. Uncontrolled eating scale analyses whether individuals keep or lose control over eating during their food consumption in case if they are hungry and in case if they are exposed to external stimuli. Cognitive restraint scale measures the reduction of food consumption in favour of affecting body weight and figure, while emotional eating scale examines whether the individual overconsumes during their meals in the moods of anger, sadness, loneliness and dispiritedness.^[11] The scale was tested related to both psychological and marketing fields of researches in Hungary.

Edit Czeglédi^[12] executed the adaptation of 21-item TFEQ to Hungarian language and its psychometric analysis in the sample of university students

[5] Pudel, V. – Metzдорff, M. – Oetting, M. (1975): *Zur Persönlichkeit Adiposier in psychologischen Tests unter Berücksichtigung latent Fettsichtiger*. Zeitschrift für Psychosomatische Medizin, 21. 345-361.

[6] Garner, D. M. – Garfinkel, P. E. (1979): *The Eating Attitudes Test: an index of the symptoms of anorexia nervosa*. Psychological Medicine, 9. 273-279.

[7] Herman, C. P. – Polivy, J. (1980): *Restrained eating*. In: Stunkard, A. J. (ed.): *Obesity*. Saunders, Philadelphia. 208-225.

[8] Stunkard, A. J. – Messick, S. (1985): *The Three-factor Eating Questionnaire to Measure Dietary Restraint, Disinhibition and Hunger*. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 40. 71-83.; Karlsson, J. – Persson, L. O. – Sjöström, L. – Sullivan, M. (2000): *Psychometric properties and factor structure of the Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ) in obese men and women. Results from the Swedish Obese Subjects (SOS) study*. International Journal of Obesity, 24(12). 1715-1725.; Tholin, S. – Rasmussen, F. – Tynelius, P. – Karlsson, J. (2005): *Genetic and environmental influences on eating behavior: the Swedish Young Male Twins Study*. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 81. 564-569.

[9] Van Strien, T. – Frijters, J. E. R. – Bergers, G. P. A. – Defares, P. B. (1986): *The Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) for Assessment of Restrained, Emotional, and External Eating Behavior*, International. Journal of Eating Disorders, 5(2). 295-315.

[10] Czeglédi, E. – Bartha, E. – Urbán, R. (2011): *Az évesi magatartás összefüggéseinek vizsgálata főiskolai hallgatóknél*. Magyar Pszichológiai Szemle, 66(2). 299-320.

[11] Czeglédi, E. – Bartha, E. – Urbán, R. (2011): op. cit.

[12] Czeglédi, Edit – Urbán, Róbert (2010): *A háromfaktoros évesi kérdőív (Three Factor Eating Questionnaire Revised 21-item) hazai adaptációja*. Magyar Pszichológiai Szemle, 65(3). 463-494.

(262 respondents). 20 items of the questionnaire have to be evaluated on a 4-point scale, whereas one item has to be evaluated on an 8-point scale. The cross-sectional questionnaire survey confirmed the original factor structure, and 3 factors were identified with confirmative factor analysis: 1. Uncontrolled eating (9 items), 2. Cognitive restraint (6 items), and 3. Emotional eating (6 items). However, psychometric analysis showed a moderate or poor fit, therefore further examinations are needed. Czeglédi executed the control of factors' temporal stability as a result of which the temporal stability of binge eating / and cognitive restraint factors was confirmed. Czeglédi et al. identified the three factors of eating behaviour by confirmative factor analysis within the frames of a research applying complex approach, similarly to the previously conducted research. Nevertheless, the findings can be generalized to the Hungarian female population with restrictions, since the sample was chosen from a special target population.

Szabó et al.^[13] examined the health behaviour of Hungarian population referring to eating attitude and body attitude. As an examining method they used the means of a questionnaire which was filled in by a nationally representative sample of 1000 people from adult population. Based on the “Three Factor Eating Questionnaire” and the “Body Attitude Test” they executed the determination of factor structure, and then they conducted cluster analysis and they classified the Hungarian population into five consumer groups. Based on their research findings they identified 3 factors: 1. emotional eating (6 items), 2. uncontrolled eating (3 items), 3. cognitive restraint eating (3 items). They excluded 9 items from the 21-item scale validated by Czeglédi, since these items had low factor loading. The 1st of the factors characterizing the eating behaviour of university students corresponds with the elements of emotional eating factor of the entire population. In case of 2nd factor 6 items were removed, since these did not contribute to the explanation of binge eating. From the 3rd factor 3 items regarding cognitive restraint were removed. It can be stated that emotional eating has a greater role in the eating behaviour of the entire adult population than cognitive restraint, which is confirmed by the explanatory power of the factors. To check the internal consistency of the newly formed scales they counted Cronbach alpha values which were above 0.8 in case of all three eating styles, thus it is considered reliable to execute further research in this sample. The analysis of eating habits resulted in the correlation with other elements of health behaviour in more Hungarian researches through the questioning of teenagers from the West-Transdanubian region.^[14]

[13] Szabó, S. – Szigeti, O. – Soós, M. – Szakály, Z. (2014): Az élelmiszerfogyasztás mögöttes dimenziói: étkezési és testi attitűdök kapcsolata. In: „Marketing megújulás”. Marketing Oktatók Klubja 20. Konferenciája. Szeged. 1-10.

[14] Huszka, Péter – Ercsey, Ida (2014): *Fiatalok egészsége az életminőség és a fogyasztói magatartás tükrében*. Táplálkozásmarketing, 1(1-2) 87-95.

The Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ) containing 33 items was elaborated in 1986 by van Strien and her colleagues.^[15] The questionnaire originally included 46 items, but the number of its attitude statements was reduced to 33, which was validated in more countries (The Netherlands, Spain, France, USA, Hawaii).^[16] DEBQ analysed food consumption through three subscales: external eating, restrained eating and emotional eating. External eating means food consumption due to external stimuli irrespective of the individual's feeling of hunger. Restrained eating scale analyses the deliberate reduction of food consumption to avoid being overweight. Emotional eating examines whether the negative emotions of the individual – anger, fear, anxiety, stress, loneliness – lead to overconsumption. The elaboration of DEBQ took place in a sample of 657 people containing obese and non-obese men and women. Originally a distinction was made between eating due to diffuse emotions (boredom, loneliness, idleness) and eating due to clearly labelled emotions (maltreatment, depression, gloom, unpleasant experience, anxiety, fear, frustration); however, later these were contracted. The final questionnaire contains 33 attitude statements measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale; from these 33 statements 10 refers to restrained eating, 10 refers to external eating and 13 refers to emotional eating. To check the internal consistency (validity and reliability) of the thus formed subscales, Cronbach alpha values were counted in different subsamples – women, men, obese people, and people with normal weight. Thus, the validity and reliability of restrained eating, emotional eating and external eating was confirmed by high Cronbach alpha values.

DEBQ was used in more countries for the comprehensive examination of health. We can also highlight those researches where the main aim is the psychometric analysis of DEBQ. Each of these researches included the analysis of some certain correlations and eating style was analysed as a latent variable of research models. In the present study we refer to the revealed relations, however we put the emphasis on the identified factors and the eating style.

[15] Van Strien, T. – Frijters, J. E. R. – Bergers, G. P. A. – Defares, P. B. (1986): *The Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) for Assessment of Restrained, Emotional, and External Eating Behavior*. International Journal of Eating Disorders, 5(2). 295–315.

[16] Van Strien, T. – Frijters, J. E. R. – Bergers, G. P. A. – Defares, P. B. (1986): op. cit.; Evers, C. – Stok, F. M. – Danner, U. N. – Salmon, S. J. – Ridder, D. T. D. – Adriaanse, M. A. (2011): *The shaping role of hunger on self-reported external eating status*. Appetite, 57. 318–320.; Bailly, N. – Maitre, I. – Amand, M. – Hervé, C. – Alaphilippe, D. (2012): *The Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ): Assessment of eating behavior in an aging French population*. Appetite. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2012.08.029>.; Nolan, L. J. – Halperin, L. B. – Gelibter, A. (2010): *Emotional Appetite Questionnaire. Construct validity and relationship with BMI*. Appetite, 54. 314–319.; Schembre, S. M. – Geller, K. S. (2011): *Psychometric Properties and Construct Validity of the Weight-Related Eating Questionnaire in a Diverse Population*. Obesity, 19(12). 2336–2344.

The relation between eating styles and total energy intake (fat and carbohydrate consumption)^[17] by controlling body weight and physical activity was examined among university female students (475 respondents) in the Netherlands.^[18] The 33-item DEBQ scale was validated in the sample of young women with normal weight. Restrained eating has the highest factor loading in the factor structure, and this was followed by external eating and emotional eating. In another Dutch study, within the frame of two different empirical researches (one cross-sectional research with 382 respondents followed by an experiment with 74 people), it was analysed to what extent hunger affects the external eating behaviour of individuals. In the research the relation between external eating and hunger was examined (3 questions on a 7-point Likert-type scale: how hungry the respondent is, to what extent the respondent wants to eat something, to what extent the respondent wants a bite). The scale of external eating (EE – external eating) and the 33-item DEBQ scale were validated based on the questionnaire which was filled in by university female students.

The correlation between emotional appetite questionnaire (EMAQ) and DEBQ as well as between EMAQ and BMI were analysed to make a more complex analysis of emotional eating. The 22-item EMAQ scale distinguishes eating due to positive and eating due to negative emotions or situations. Each item was measured in a 9-point Likert-type scale (1: I eat much less, 5: I eat the same amount, 9: I eat much more). Nine attitude statements refer to eating in response to negative emotions (sad, bored, angry, anxious, frustrated, tired, distressed, feared, lonely), whereas five statements refer to eating in response to positive emotions (satisfied, happy, reposed, heart some, eager). Five statements refer to eating in negative situation (under pressure, after a heated debate, due to the tragedy of a close person, after the end of a relationship, after losing money or fortune), while three statements refer to eating in positive situation (be in love, after starting an enjoyable hobby, hearing good news). During the research the validity and the reliability of EMAQ was confirmed and it was verified that there is a strong relationship between emotional eating and BMI. The 13-item emotional eating scale could be validated among American adults (aged between 18 and 52) population by questioning 272 respondents with normal weight (74.9%) and with obese-overweight (25.1%). The researchers found that EMAQ scale is more suitable for the measurement of emotional eating than the 13 items of the DEBQ's emotional eating subscale.

[17] To state total energy intake, respondents had to note which they had consumed from the 145 food enumerated in the questionnaire for 28 consecutive days. Calorie intake was counted with the help of software developed for this purpose.

[18] Anschutz, D. – Strien, T. – Ven, M. O. M. – Engels, R. C. M. E. (2009): *Eating styles and energy intake in young women*. *Appetite*, 53. 119–122.

French researchers^[19] developed a shortened, 16-item version of DEBQ scale. Their analysis was conducted among women (178 respondents) and men (84 respondents) aged above 65 years, the 65.6% of whom were obese or overweighted. The attitude statements irrelevant for elder people (e.g. I can't stand against fast food restaurants, I eat during cooking, I eat less if I put on some weight) were removed from the survey for the easier use of DEBQ applied by diverse scientific fields. As a result of their research, in case of external eating 5 items, in case of emotional eating 6 items and in case of restrained eating 5 items of DEBQ could be validated among the older population. Each subscale is well-differentiated and their internal consistency is appropriate. The explained variance is sequentially 30.27%, 13.39% and 10.37%.

A prominent researcher of eating styles van Strien and her colleagues^[20] examined the relationships between SANOS (sport, alcohol, nutrition, obesity, smoking) lifestyle factors and eating styles (external eating, emotional and restrained eating), as well as the relationships between obese, workplace activity and the perceived general state of health within the frames of a monumental cross-sectional research. The survey was conducted among sedentary office staff (1254 women and 2018 men) working at Dutch large banks, and 49.2% of the sample can be considered obese or overweighted. Factor analysis was executed involving each examined variables and two factors were revealed from which the first is lifestyle factor related to health, while the other is lifestyle factor related to obesity. To measure eating style the English version of Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire was used, all 33 items of which could be validated according to the original questionnaire.

Cebolla et al.^[21] examined food consumption from more viewpoints, thus in their research they analysed eating behaviour, eating disorders and restrained eating. The survey was conducted among Spanish adults (aged between 18 and 65 years) women, the sample size was 647. The findings confirmed the conclusions of previous international surveys, therefore it can be stated unequivocally that there is a positive relationship between emotional and external eating and the management of body weight. Eating behaviour was measured by using the 33-item DEBQ. Having executed the factor analysis, three factors could be identified: emotional eating, external eating and restrained eating. In case of the Spanish adaptation of DEBQ one item had low factor loading (“Desire to eat when nothing to do.”), while it is not clear in case of another item (“Desire to eat when bored.”) to which factor it belongs based on its factor loading. DEBQ is an effective means to measure

[19] Bailly, N. – Maitre, I. – Amand, M. – Hervé, C. – Alaphilippe, D. (2012): op. cit.

[20] Van Strien, T. – Koenders, P.G. (2012): *How do life style factors relate to general health and overweight?* Appetite, 58. 265-270.

[21] Cebolla, A. – Barrada, J. R. – Strien, T. – Oliver, E. – Banos, R. (2014): *Validation of the Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) in a sample of Spanish women.* Appetite, 73. 58-64.

the eating behaviour of women, and in Spain minimal modifications must be made to apply the scale.

The above-introduced researchers were able to validate the 33-item Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire. The attitude statements of each item were measured by a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 meant ‘never’ and 5 meant ‘very often’. High Cronbach α (above 0.76 in each case) values prove the validity and the reliability of scale items. All in all, it can be stated that TFEQ and DEBQ are questionnaires measuring similar constructs; but only the previous one was adapted in Hungary.

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OF EATING BEHAVIOUR

The purpose of analysis is to adapt the previously introduced scales regarding eating behaviour (TFEQ16, DEBQ and TFEQ20), and to do so, one cross-sectional research was chosen from primary research methods.^[22] Quota sampling method was used to do the fieldwork. During sampling our aim was to question nearly the same number of individuals in case of the three eating behaviour tests and to follow proportional sample based on gender and age within each subsample: 50-50% is the rate of women and men, 20% is the rate of each age group (five age groups altogether). The planned size of sample was 1500 respondents.

The empirical research took place in March 2015 by the means of self-administered online questionnaire and of paper-based questionnaire. The survey was conducted by the authors and university students, and finally 1323 people were questioned. According to the purpose of the questionnaire, 407 respondents filled in the ‘A’ type (TFEQ16) questionnaire, 404 respondents filled in the ‘B’ type (DEBQ) one and 512 respondents filled in the ‘C’ type (TFEQ20) one (Table 1).

Table 1: Demographic distribution of the sample

	Gender		Age categories (years)				
	males	females	19-25	26-30	31-39	40-49	50-59
Type A - TFEQ16	52.6%	47.4%	27.8%	19.7%	27.0%	19.2%	6.4%
Type B - DEBQ	41.6%	58.4%	16.6%	31.9%	21.3%	0.2%	30.0%
Type C - TFEQ20	39.3%	60.7%	24.4%	14.6%	27.9%	11.7%	21.3%
Total sample	44.1%	55.9%	23.1%	21.5%	25.6%	10.5%	19.3%

Source: own research, n = 1323 respondents.

[22] Malhotra, Naresh K. (2010): *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. Prentice Hall.

Research findings

The basis for 'A' type questionnaire is the shortened, 16-item version of the three factor eating questionnaire (TFEQ 16). The variables of eating behaviour were measured on a 4-point coercive scale. In this case we examined those variables, the scale items of which were the same and can be measured on interval scale. In this case the value of Cronbach alpha is 0.88, therefore our scale is reliable. Having analysed whether this value could be increased, we found that the elimination of certain scale items only minimally would increase this value. Based on these facts, our scale is appropriate for further analysis. As the first step of factor analysis we checked the values of KMO and Bartlett sphericity test to prove the applicability of the method. The value of KMO is 0.87, and the high value of the second indicator (2510.058) suggests that the analysed variables can be explained by other factors (Sig.: 0.000). Based on the analysed variables the following factors could be distinguished (Table 2).

Table 2: The results of factor analysis in case of Three Factor Eating Questionnaire

	Statement	Eigen value	Factor
1.	When I see a delicious food or I can smell it, I find it very difficult to keep from eating, even if I have just finished a meal.	0.785	uncontrolled eating (37.9; 0.83)
2.	Being with someone who is eating often makes me hungry enough to eat also.	0.734	
3.	I am always hungry enough to eat at any time.	0.657	
4.	When I see a real delicacy, I often get so hungry that I have to eat right away.	0.633	
5.	Sometimes when I start eating, I just can't seem to stop.	0.629	
6.	I get so hungry that my stomach often seems like a bottomless pit.	0.506	
7.	I am always hungry so it is hard for me to stop eating before I finish the food on my plate.	0.460	
8.	When I feel anxious, I find myself eating.	0.775	emotional I. (12.7; 0.79)
9.	When I feel blue, I often overeat.	0.752	
10.	When I feel lonely, I console myself by eating.	0.726	
11.	When I am stressed, I eat.	0.812	emotional II. (7.95; 0.83)
12.	I usually eat too much if I am sad.	0.664	
13.	When I am stressed or upset, I often feel I must eat.	0.549	
14.	I do not eat some foods because they make me fat.	0.845	cognitive control (6.75; 0.75)
15.	I consciously hold back at meals in order not to weight gain.	0.835	
16.	I deliberately take small helpings as a means of controlling my weight.	0.720	

Source: own research. n = 407 respondents. Method: main component analysis, Varimax rotation.

According to literature we were able to identify ‘uncontrolled eating’ factor which contains those variables which describe those life situations when we eat in response to external effects. In Table 2 we can see those factor loadings based on which factors were classified into the given factor. Contrary to literature, the following factor (eating in response to negative effect) can be identified as two different factors based on the present research. Neither variance proportion nor correlation coefficients make it possible to handle these two factors as one factor. Based on these, we differentiated two factors, which were given the names of emotional I. and emotional II. factors. According to this, the second identified factor (emotional I.) contains those variables in case of which a kind of negative emotion (anxiety, dispiritedness, loneliness) leads to eating as well as when eating provides solace. In this case all three variables correlate with the factors with very high loadings. The third identified factor (emotional II.) contains those variables which mean eating in response to anger, sadness and stress. In our research the fourth identified factor (cognitive control) is exactly the same as was identified in the literature. Here we can find variables related to deliberate control and restraint, based on which the aim is to avoid weight gain and to keep body weight in check.

In connection with Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire 33 statements were examined. In this case the value of Cronbach alpha was 0.899, therefore our scale is consistent. The values of indicators proving the appropriateness of factor analysis are appropriate (KMO: 0.910, Bartlett: 6777.593, Sig. 0.000). Contrary to previous international publications, five factors can be distinguished in this research (Table 3)

Table 3: The results of factor analysis in case of Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire

	Statement	Eigen value	Factor
1.	Desire to eat when you are emotionally upset.	0.862	emotional eating (29.57; 0.95)
2.	Desire to eat when you are irritated.	0.862	
3.	Desire to eat when something unpleasant to happen.	0.847	
4.	Desire to eat when you are depressed or discouraged.	0.843	
5.	Desire to eat when things are going against you or when things have gone wrong.	0.842	
6.	Desire to eat when you are disappointed.	0.837	
7.	Desire to eat when you are cross.	0.830	
8.	Desire to eat when you are feeling lonely.	0.820	
9.	Desire to eat when you are anxious, worried or tense.	0.814	
10.	Desire to eat when you are frightened.	0.771	
11.	Desire to eat when nothing to do.	0.650	
12.	Desire to eat when somebody lets you down.	0.475	
13.	Desire to eat when you are bored or restless.	0.473	

	Eigen value	Eigen value	Factor
14.	Eat less than usual the following days when you have eaten too much.	0.749	restrained eating (15.79; 0.868)
15.	Eat less than usually do if you put on weight.	0.739	
16.	Try to eat less at mealtimes than you would like to eat.	0.709	
17.	Try not to eat in the evening because you are watching your weight.	0.680	
18.	Refuse offered food or drink because you are concerned about your weight.	0.665	
19.	Take into account your weight with what you eat.	0.644	
20.	Deliberately eat foods that are slimming.	0.629	
21.	Watch exactly what you eat.	0.582	
22.	Try not to eat between meals because you are watching your weight.	0.569	
23.	Deliberately eat less in order not to become heavier.	0.509	
24.	If food tastes good to you, you eat more than usual.	0.798	effect of taste (8.75; 0.8)
25.	If you have something delicious to eat, you eat it straight away.	0.790	
26.	If food smells and looks good, you eat more than usual.	0.789	
27.	If you see or smell something delicious, you have a desire to eat it.	0.691	
28.	When preparing a meal you are inclined to eat something.	0.471	
29.	It is difficult to resist delicious food.	0.405	effect of smell (3.95; 0.62)
30.	If you walk past a snack bar or a cafe you have the desire to buy something delicious.	0.693	
31.	If you walk past the baker, you have the desire to buy something delicious.	0.571	effect of society (3.32; 0.62)
32.	Eat more than usual, when you see others eating.	0.776	
33.	If you see other eating, you also have the desire to eat.	0.573	

Source: own research, n = 404 respondents. Method: Main component analysis, Rotation: Varimax.

The first factor contains those variables which characterize negative emotions and the eating in response to them. In this case the findings of the present research perfectly fit to the findings described in literature, where we can also find the factor of emotional eating. The next factor includes those variables that examine the topic of deliberate control that is restrained eating. In this factor we can easily identify those responses that are related to fear from obese and to the deliberate control of body weight. The other three factors belong to one factor (external eating) based on the cited source; however, in this case we have three, clearly distinguishable background variables. Based on the results, the third factor contains those variables which analyse the effect of taste and its seduction during physical contact with food. Based on these, this is the so-called “effect of taste” factor. In case of the fourth factor past experience and smell are the main reasons for eating, since the view of a fast food restaurant or a bakery as well as smell as effects elicit stimulus from the respondents. The fifth factor contains the “effect of the society” as it includes those variables which comprise eating in company and eating as cohesive force.

We analysed the scale of Three Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ - R21) and its background variables with the previously mentioned methods, and we adapted them to the present research. In this case (compared to 'A' type) we also examined whether the respondents deliberately avoid having tempting foods around them; and we also examined the probability of that whether they deliberately eat less and how often they feel themselves hungry. The question in connection with food intake was removed from the scale due to researcher's consideration, thus factor analysis was conducted with 20 variables. The value of Cronbach alpha is appropriate here as well (0.775), and the indicators of factor analysis also showed good values (KMO: 0.886; Bartlett sphericity test: 3588.292, Sig, 0.000). Table 4 shows the identified factors.

Table 4: The results of factor analysis in case of Three Factor Eating Questionnaire

	Statement	Eigen value	Factor
1.	When I am stressed or upset, I often feel I must eat.	0.827	emotional eating (31.75; 0.912)
2.	I usually eat too much if I am sad.	0.815	
3.	When I feel anxious, I find myself eating.	0.799	
4.	When I feel blue, I often overeat.	0.796	
5.	When I am stressed, I eat.	0.760	
6.	When I feel lonely, I console myself by eating.	0.720	
7.	I am always hungry enough to eat at any time.	0.709	uncontrolled eating (12.79; 0.696)
8.	When I see a real delicacy, I often get so hungry that I have to eat right away.	0.709	
9.	I am always hungry so it is hard for me to stop eating before I finish the food on my plate.	0.697	
10.	When I see a delicious food or I can smell it, I find it very difficult to keep from eating, even if I have just finished a meal.	0.622	
11.	Do you go on eating binges though you are not hungry?	(-0.603)	
12.	I get so hungry that my stomach often seems like a bottomless pit.	0.579	
13.	Being with someone who is eating often makes me hungry enough to eat also.	0.530	
14.	Sometimes when I start eating, I just can't seem to stop.	0.528	cognitive control I. (7.77; 0.733)
15.	I consciously hold back at meals in order not to gain weight.	0.856	
16.	I do not eat some foods because they make me fat.	0.789	
17.	I deliberately take small helpings as a means of controlling my weight.	0.682	cognitive control II. (5.29; 0.163)
18.	How frequently do you avoid 'stocking up' on tempting foods?	0.811	
19.	How likely are you to consciously eat less than you want?	0.616	
20.	How often do you feel hungry?	(-0.422)	

Source: own research, n = 512 respondents. Method: Main component analysis, Rotation: Varimax.

Based on the results, we proved two factors (emotional eating and uncontrolled eating) which can be found in literature with minimal divergence. Emotional eating is fully justified. In connection with uncontrolled eating the 20th item of cognitive control 2 factor deviates in this research; however, the medium, but negative – due to scale items – value exceeding the limit classifies this scale question to this group. The items originally belonging to one factor (cognitive control) belongs to two factors in the present research. The first – cognitive control I. – factor contains those variables which are related to body weight control and fight against obesity. These variables are separated from those ones which deal with tempting foods, own efforts and the frequency of hunger. The value of consistency analysis of this factor is very low, thus this will be removed from further research methods.

THE FURTHER RESEARCH AND THE PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

To continue the empirical research we perform the full processing of the available dataset, with the help of which we can get answers to more questions regarding eating behaviour. We look forward whether we find differences regarding eating behaviour among the subsamples defined by gender or age groups. From marketing viewpoint, it is important to map the different groups appropriately, and to identify the differences. Based on the factors of eating behaviour, consumer groups could be identified and described by their eating behaviour characterizing their food consumption by using cluster typology. We are looking for an answer to the question what influence psychological factors and reference group have on the eating behaviour of the different clusters and on the consumption of hedonistic products. The research findings could contribute to determine and elaborate in which ways marketing tools can improve the consumers' health behaviour and lifestyles. According to previous researches the perceived health of customers and other factors e.g. cultural activities influence also on the evaluation of subjective quality of life in young and elder generation.^[23]

By elaborating relevant literature, the following research purposes were defined. In the future it would be better to use the EMAQ scale suggested by Schembre et al.^[24] to measure emotional eating. Based on our empirical research findings, it can be seen that emotional eating has an important role in our everyday food consumption and lifestyle. From practical aspect it is of great importance to analyse which eating style leads to overweight and obesity. It would be

[23] Ercsey, Ida (2014a): *The Subjective quality of life and the cultural activities*. Contemporary Research on Organization Management and Administration, 2(2) 94–105.; Ercsey Ida (2014b): *Közös az értékteremtés a kulturális szektorban?* Marketing & Menedzsment, 48(3). 36–46.

[24] Schembre, S. M. – Geller, K. S. (2011): op. cit.

also useful to reveal which groups of consumers can be distinguished based on following a healthy lifestyle by applying SANOS segmentation technique. The final purpose is to elaborate a marketing program for each consumer group.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

Az elhízás a fejlett országokat érintő népbetegség. A túlsúly és az elhízás mint rizikófaktor komoly anyagi terhet jelent egyéni, foglalkoztatói és állami szinten, mind a megelőzés, mind a kezelés fázisában. A nemzetközi és hazai szakirodalomban több kutatás foglalkozik az egészségmagatartás dimenzióinak vizsgálatával komplex megközelítésben, vagy egyes kiemelt területekre (pl. dohányzás, alkoholfogyasztás, testmozgás, élelmiszerfogyasztás) fókuszálva. Az élelmiszerfogyasztás vizsgálatához kifejlesztett tesztek, nevezetesen a háromfaktoros evési kérdőív (TFEQ) és a holland evési magatartás kérdőív (DEBQ) három evési stílust azonosított elhízott és normál testsúlyú célcsoportokra: (1) érzelmi evés, (2) visszafogott evés és (3) külső hatásokra történő evés.

A tanulmány célja az evési magatartással kapcsolatos skálák (TFEQ 16, DEBQ és a TFEQ 20) adaptálási lehetőségének bemutatása. Az empirikus kutatás keretében 1323 felnőtt egyént sikerült elérni: 407 ember válaszolt a TFEQ 16, 404 fő a DEBQ skálákra, míg 512 fő a TFEQ 20 attitűdállításaira. A kutatás eredménye nem teljes mértékben támasztotta alá az eredeti faktorstruktúrákat. A TFEQ 16 esetében az érzelmi evés két faktorba különül el. A DEBQ esetében a külső hatásokra történő evés három faktorba sorolható: az ízhatás, az illathatás és a szociális faktorokba. A TFEQ 20 esetében a kognitív kontroll faktor 3 tétele validálható. A kutatás jövőbeli iránya az összefüggések vizsgálata és a fogyasztók evési magatartása alapján történő szegmentálása, illetve a rájuk irányuló marketingprogramok kidolgozása.



Statue of Miklós Pálffy and Adolf von Schwarzenberg, the heroes who reoccupied Győr from Turks in 1598

Urban-Rural Differences in Level of Various Forms of Trust in Hungary



This study examines the association between urban/rural residence and various forms of trust in Hungary, including control variables such as age, gender, income, marriage, qualification into the analysis. Trust is a basic dimension of human capital and a very often used concept in everyday situations too. Trust research became increasingly popular in recent years. However, urban-rural and spatial differences of specific forms of trust remains a rarely investigated question.

Trust can be measured with one question (global or general trust) or with many questions. Global measures of trust have serious methodological and interpretative problems. Therefore a research was conducted with 19 questions concerning the various personal or impersonal subjects of trust. Respondents (n=2031) of a countrywide representative survey in Hungary rated their trust in various groups or institutions on a 10-point Likert scale.^[3]

The results were analysed along the settlement hierarchy at four different levels: Budapest, the country capital; cities with county rights (namely the biggest Hungarian cities, apart from Budapest); smaller and medium sized cities; villages. Various sociodemographic factors were included into the analysis. In some cases age and gender is a more significant factor in differentiating the results as the settlement type, but age and gender can have a different effect on results for different settlement types.

The results have a great variability according to the subject of trust. General differences between settlement types show a higher trust level in cities with county rights, then towns, villages and at last Budapest. Exceptions from this general picture are highly interesting: trust in personal contacts is much lower

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in Budapest, trust in institutions or abstract institutions (law and legal system, market system, political system, banks) is higher than in villages, institutions with more concrete personal contacts is higher in villages than in Budapest. The difference is bigger in the case of church.

In Budapest, compared to other settlements, trust is lower in personal contacts, but the differences between settlement categories are lower than the differences of trust between the personal and impersonal contacts. Gender differences according to the settlement categories are also interesting. The highest trust level can be seen in elder age. However, trust of younger adults is higher in Budapest, mainly thanks to the much higher trust level in abstract institutions. Trust of younger adults in personal contacts and health institutions is not higher in Budapest.

INTRODUCTION

Trust is a basic dimension of human capital and a very often used concept in everyday situations too. Positive attitudes towards one's neighbors contribute to cohesion within the local community, and thus leading to residents' willingness to participate in local affairs and to cooperate in everyday matters. It has been asserted that, in societies where people trust each other, social relations are solidified, transaction cost are reduced, problems and conflicts are solved in a more effective way, economic activities and institutions function effectively, and government and political institutions work better. "Social life without trust would be intolerable and, most likely, quite impossible".^[4]

This paper gives an analysis of the various form of trust, from the point of view of urban-rural dichotomy in Hungary. The empirical basis of the analysis is the county-level population survey (N=2031) conducted in 2013. The first part of the paper deals with some conceptual and methodological questions, supplied by minor references to literature. The second part is an exploratory study, where besides the urban-rural aspects some important socio-demographic variables are taken into consideration too. The paper disregards from the various illusory, utopian suggestions, which is sometime ballasts this research topic.

1. GENERAL CONCEPTUAL AND METHODOLOGICAL QUESTIONS

1.1 The spatial level of analysis

This research treats the settlements as basic spatial units. Interestingly, the

[4] Newton, K. (2001): *Trust, Social Capital, Civil Society, and Democracy*. International Political Sciences Review, 22. 202.

majority of spatial research deals with either bigger units (countries) or smaller units (neighborhoods inside the settlements). Urban-rural differences cannot be defined generally and principally. Each criterion (sociological, historical, legal, economical, human geographical, size and functional) used for definition can be criticized. Each settlement lies somewhere in the individual farm - world metropolis continuum. However, this is not an obstacle for the practical analysis for examining the effects of obvious size and functional differences of settlements. This paper uses the legal settlement definition, which has a strong relation with the size categories of settlements. In Hungary, town status is given once in a year by the president and the parliament to the applicant villages. In 2013, there were 346 towns (or cities) in Hungary. Seven towns have less than two thousand inhabitants. The legal limits between towns and villages are strict and explicit, but the functional limit, of course, is indistinct: there are villages which are almost towns, there are towns which are almost villages. However, as groups, towns and villages are clearly different. The capital city, Budapest has 1740 thousand inhabitants, the second largest city, Debrecen, has 208 thousand inhabitants. There are 23 cities with county rights: the 18 county capitals, plus 5 cities with more than 50 thousand inhabitants. This paper distinguishes these three categories in the cities: Budapest (as a dominant city, without any other city close to it), cities with county rights and other cities (named as towns for now). This categorization is good for that reason too, because it is almost the same, as the categorization according to the size of the settlements.

From the methodological point of view, the location of settlements would be important, besides the above mentioned difference in size and legal form. First of all, the difference between suburban villages, close to the cities, and the villages farther from the cities is potentially interesting. In these two categories, the spatial arbitrariness can occur, because there is no strict difference between the two categories. Secondly, an own category for the farm population would be reasonable. Due to the space limitation, these two aspects are not investigated in this paper. However, these two factors should be investigated in a more detailed analysis, as well as the various districts inside the settlements.

The duration of homeownership is also an important indicator, which mixes the spatial, temporal and personal characteristics. Several previous investigations have shown the importance of this factor and its relation with the evaluation of neighborhood environment. Longer residence means stronger local ties, stronger local integration, more friends, relatives and formal contacts too.

1.2 The spatial factor, as a unique explanatory variable

Examination of socio-demographic characteristics can be extremely complex in the case of simultaneous examination of several socio-demographic factors. This can be further complicated with the inclusion of behavioral and attitude variables. However, any inclusion of spatial characteristics leads to a more complex

connections between various factors and makes the effect and directions of causality uneasy to arrange. The reason behind this is, that spatial characteristics are simultaneous with any other non-spatial variables, therefore it is necessarily a new and peculiar dimension. Spatial characteristics are categorically independent from the demographical and behavioral characteristics, which can be cause (for example, the neighborhood has an influence on family status or on the choice of job) and effect too (for example, the family status or the job has an influence on the choice of neighborhood). The direction of causality cannot always be decided, the interrelated connections are more frequent.

Some basic forms of causal relationship, however, can be distinguished. Firstly, spatial variable has a direct effect on behavior. The most obvious case is the effect of climate or weather. Secondly, spatial variable has an indirect effect on behavior, because the direct effect influences the socio-demographic characteristics through both the mobility of people and by autonomous spatial processes. Thirdly, the socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on the choice of location, and in this case socio-demographic characteristics have an effect simultaneously on location and behavior. Fourthly, socio-demographic characteristics have an indirect influence on behavior through the choice of location. The fourth case can be accepted by a spatial researcher, but it is a rare case in the mainstream sociology.

To put differently the main dilemma of explanation: either the neighborhood, settlement type has an influence on behavior through spatial mobility, or the settlement type has an effect on the behavior of inhabitants. Both form of explanations can be true at the same time.

1.3 Definition and measurement of trust

The concept of trust is widely used in everyday life, everybody has an opinion about it, its essence can be a subject of fierce discussions. The concept is examined by sociologists, economists, politician analysts, psychologists and other human sciences. The notion became trendy for the research. This manifested also in the publication of new academic journal by famous publisher, namely the Journal of Trust Research. Parallel to this tendency, operationalization of the concept is a popular research area. Tremendous suggestion exists for measurement of the concept.

The common point in the definitions of trust is the uncertainty of the future. To give only some typical examples, Misztal^[5] defines trust as believing that the consequences of someone else's intended action will be appropriate from our own point of view. Luhmann^[6] equates trust with subjective reduction of complexity

[5] Misztal, B. (1996): *Trust in Modern Societies: The Search for the Bases of Social Order*. Polity Press, Cambridge.

[6] Luhmann, N. (1979): Trust: a Mechanism for the Reduction of Social Complexity. In: Luhmann, N.: *Trust and Power: Two Works*. Wiley, Chichester.

or uncertainty. Barber (1983) defines trust as the expectation of the persistence and fulfillment of the natural and the moral orders. Gambetta^[7] summarises the different conceptions of trust as “trust is a particular level of subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action, both before he can monitor such action... and in a context in which it affects his own action.” Sztompka^[8] defines trust as a bet on the future contingent action of others. Rose-Ackerman^[9] writes that trust implies confidence, but not certainty, that some person or institution will behave in an expected way. Cook^[10] notes that trust is rooted in uncertainty as well, but suggests that trust should be defined as knowledge or belief – not action. Hardin^[11] contends that what actually constitutes trust is its manifestation in the realm of action.

In spite of the mushrooming possibility of surveys, measurements can be made principally in two ways: either with only one question (general or global, thin or moralistic or diffuse trust) or with many questions (particular or thick, strategic or specific trust; trust in something). In the first case a question (or a similar one) is used: “Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?” However, the answer to this question can be misleading, because it is not known, how wide a circle of other respondents imagine as a „most people” – and this problem makes comparisons between individuals and countries problematic. Circle of others can be different not only from geographical, but racial, ethnical and other points of view too. As Reeskens and Hooghe^[12] asks, “does the concept of ‘most people’ have the same meaning for a respondent in the middle of the metropolitan areas in London or Paris, as it has for a respondent in some remote village in the north of Sweden?” According to Sturgis and Smith,^[13] substantial number of respondents report having thought about people who are known to them personally (family members, friends, neighbors, and colleagues). Delhey, Newton and Welzel^[14] found that radius of trust is significantly different in different countries; therefore generalized trust measures are not comparable across countries.

[7] Gambetta, D. (1988): Can We Trust Trust? In: Gambetta, D. (ed.): *Trust: Making an Braking Co-operative Relations*. Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

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[10] Cook, K. S. (2001): Trust in Society. In: Cook, K. (ed.): *Trust and Society*. Russell Sage, New York.

[11] Hardin, R. (2001): Conceptions and Explanations of Trust. In: Cook, K. (ed.): *Trust and Society*. Russell Sage, New York.

[12] Reeskens, T. - Hooghe, M. (2008): *Cross-Cultural Measurement Equivalence of Generalized Trust: Evidence from the European Social Survey*. Social Indicators Research, 85. 515-532.

[13] Sturgis, P - Smith, P. (2010): *Assessing the Validity of Generalized Trust Questions: What Kind of Trust Are We Measuring?* International Journal of Public Opinion Research, 22(1). 74-92.

[14] Delhey, J. - Newton, K. - Welzel, C. (2011): *How General Is Trust in „Most People”? Solving the Radius of Trust Problem*. American Sociological Review, 76. 786-807.

In this research trust was measured with 19 questions. This is a good situation, because general or global trust, as it was previously demonstrated, means almost nothing. Trust can be interpreted much better as a trust in someone or something (person or institution).

Contemporary and recent research papers on trust often declare the novelty of this research topic. This is minimally questionable. Thoughts about trust of popular ideologist, such as Fukuyama, Putnam or Coleman are close to the triviality and well-known for classical economists too.

2. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

As in the introductory part of the paper about trust was written, mainly positive contents are attached to the trust. This is acceptable generally but not always. Trust in an irrational, corrupt, inconsistent institution can be harmful too. Therefore, surveying trust is much better with a questionnaire with many items than only measuring the global or general trust. The EU-SILC survey resulted with a 10 grade scale for general trust 5,30 (5,20 for women, 5,54 for men). This result can be hardly interpreted, even in the light of temporal or international comparison, which suffers from various language and contextual problems.^[15] Our analysis is able to give a more sophisticated, exact, unambiguous description, because trust was measured with 19 distinct groups of persons or institutions.

The results have a great variability according to the subject of trust. (Table 1) Settlement type, age and gender differences can be significant too. The highest score (8.88) belongs to the family members, which is not surprising, but important, because it shows the hard interpretability of general questions or those types of questions which are concerned with an unknown group. The mental processes behind the valuation of general or unknown situations are obscure. Opinions and attitudes exist about known phenomena. More precise questions (for example “Do you trust your mother in specific situation”) can give more different results.

Table 1: Trust in various groups and institutions according to the settlement type

Do you trust in...?	Total	Budapest	Cities with county rights	Other towns	villages
Family members	8,88	8,79	9,14	8,91	8,70
Friends	8,01	7,79	8,33	8,08	7,86
Colleagues	7,51	7,16	7,66	7,40	7,76
Employer	7,18	7,17	7,22	7,06	7,28

[15] About the comparability of the Likert scale between different cultures, or about the reference-group effect, see Heine et al (2002).

URBAN-RURAL DIFFERENCES IN LEVEL OF VARIOUS...

Science	7,06	7,31	7,08	7,10	6,86
Neighbors	6,83	6,20	6,92	6,98	7,01
Fellow countrymen	6,51	6,29	6,60	6,66	6,43
Inhabitants of the settlement	6,36	5,97	6,30	6,43	6,57
Do you trust in...?	Total	Budapest	Cities with county rights	Other towns	villages
Police	6,12	5,91	6,33	6,17	6,03
Education	6,05	5,86	6,11	6,20	5,95
Law, legal system	5,91	6,09	5,88	6,09	5,63
Local government	5,82	5,57	5,86	5,64	6,14
Market system	5,72	5,86	5,79	6,00	5,25
Health institutions	5,58	5,01	5,77	5,78	5,60
Civil societies	5,57	5,51	5,69	5,40	5,73
Church	5,44	4,68	5,50	5,71	5,55
Government	5,07	4,99	5,13	5,22	4,90
Political system	5,05	5,13	5,10	5,10	4,90
Banks	4,68	4,92	4,93	4,64	4,39
Mean	6,28	6,12	6,39	6,35	6,24

Source: own calculations, Conflict survey, 2013.

Only personal contacts are in the first four places, the first abstract institution is science in the fifth place, followed by neighbors. Fellow countrymen and inhabitants of the settlement mean more general groups of people than the previous groups with a higher trust level, but they are not entirely abstract. These eight items are only followed by institutions or abstract institutions. This is a healthy, sound and understandable ordering: why would the people have, for example, higher trust in a civil society than in their own neighbors? Which world would it be, where people could have higher trust in a bureaucratic institution than in personal acquaintances?

General differences between settlement types show higher trust level in cities with county rights, then towns, villages and at last Budapest. Exceptions from this general picture is highly interesting: trust in personal contacts is much lower in Budapest, trust in abstract institutions (law and legal system, market system, political system, banks) is higher than in villages, institutions with more concrete personal contacts is higher in villages than in Budapest. The difference is bigger in the case of church.

This distinction between abstract and non-abstract institutions, however, is not perfect, because persons can have personal experiences about banks too, and not everybody has direct experience with church, moreover, church may

have different meaning for different people and this difference can be a spatial pattern too. Anyway, higher level of personality in villages surely plays an important factor in explanation of these differences. Cities with county rights and towns have a higher trust level than villages. This is in accordance with the social psychology claim that between too impersonal, too open and too small, personal communities there is an optimum somewhere.

In Budapest, compared to other settlements, trust is lower in personal contacts, but the differences between settlement categories are much lower than the differences of trust between the personal and impersonal contacts.

The average of the 19 items was 6,39 for women and 6,15 for men. This result is the opposite of the EU-SILC survey. Men have a higher trust only in family members but the difference is not significant (0.02). The biggest difference occurs with church, where the average of women is 0.87 higher than men. Gender differences according to the settlement categories are interesting. Trust in family members is the same in Budapest and in villages, but men have a higher scores in Budapest (difference is 0.35), women have higher scores in villages (difference is 0.10). Similar results are not known, but, of course, these could be calculated easily from the basic data of similar surveys.

The highest trust level can be seen in elder age: above 60 years, the average is 6.49. Between younger adults (under 40 years) and middle age adults there are no differences (6.18 and 6.20, respectively). However, trust of younger adults is higher in Budapest, mainly thanks to the much higher trust level in abstract institutions. Trust of younger adults in personal contact and health institutions is not higher in Budapest.

Two other factors, namely neighborhood satisfaction and happiness, is connected to the level of trust. This is a typical two-directional connection: people with higher neighborhood satisfaction are happier, and happier people have higher neighborhood satisfaction. This is true for trust and happiness, as well. Claiming that from the two factors one is reason and the other one is effect is a rather philosophical or view of life question than a scientific research task.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

A tanulmány célja annak vizsgálata, hogy a bizalom különböző formáinak szintje eltérő-e Magyarországon a városok és falvak között. Az eredmények forrása egy kérdőíves felmérés, amelyre választ adók egy 10 pontos skálán fejezhették ki bizalmuk szintjét összesen 19 különböző személyes kapcsolattal és intézménnyel szemben. A legfőbb különbségek úgy foglalható össze, hogy a személyes kapcsolatokhoz kötődő bizalom szintje alacsonyabb, az intézményekben való bizalom szintje magasabb Budapesten, mint a falvakban. A különbségeket tovább árnyaljuk a nemek és az életkor változó bekapcsolásával, valamint a 19 különböző személyes kapcsolat és intézmény iránti bizalmi szint megkülönböztetett elemzésével.

Senior citizens and the TV advertising in Hungary



It is not surprising that consumers in older age groups are becoming a more important part of the market, because their number and disposable income is growing in the wealthier industrial countries. Marketing for the 50+ age group is focused on the needs and the customer behaviour of the elderly. We are experiencing a major change in the researched group related to the way these consumers spend as they grow more discerning in their purchasing choices. 50+ marketing in Hungary is still struggling to catch up with European trends. Through our survey and analysis we hope to take the first steps in improving this state of affairs. 556 seniors were asked about their needs, purchasing habits, their opinions of advertising, and in general, how marketing is changing their purchasing decisions. We were surprised by some of the responses and these results have helped us to achieve a deeper understanding of their attitudes and motivations.

Over the last two decades, the advanced industrial nations of the world have experienced a relatively new phenomenon: population stagnation and even a fall in population numbers. While the birth rate has been decreasing, at the same time these nations have been experiencing vastly increased economic and industrial productivity, improvements in healthcare and pharmaceutical advances, greater wealth creation and the adoption of healthier lifestyles. This has led to a whole new chapter in human history in which the number of households of predominantly older ages groups has increased and those with younger members has decreased. Many advanced industrial nations now have higher numbers from the upper age groups than children, creating a new episode in human history in which the elderly are dominant.^[3]

Overall this is a genuinely global phenomenon. The ageing of the world's

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[3] Giddens, Anthony (2008): *Szociológia*. Osiris, Budapest, 65–67.; Meyer-Hentschel, H. (2009): *Seniorenmarketing*. Business Village, Göttingen. 17–18.; Otten, D. (2009): *Die 50+ Studie*. Rowohlt Verlag, Reinbek bei Hamburg. 54

population may be the most important demographic change in human history.^[4] The “ageing society” brings into question every economic and social assumption that we previously held. We do not have developed social standards, values, appropriate social structures, institutions or cultural patterns to meet this new phenomenon. This lack of adequate social mechanisms is perhaps understandable for now, as we are only at the beginning of what has been referred to as the ‘Age Wave’,^[5] but it will become an increasingly urgent task to prepare for the challenges of this new situation in the near future.

The trend of an increasingly top-heavy generation pattern is influencing every sub-system of society from politics and health-care to pensions and migration, and the economic impact is extremely varied and complex. Among other results, it will certainly influence economic growth, the labour market and consumption. None of the countries currently seeing this phenomenon have any experience in how to deal with it or how to fit their economic requirements to the change in the size of their population groups of younger and older citizens.

One of the key areas in which these changes will be felt is the marketplace for goods and services. Markets throughout the world are going through significant changes and competition is fierce. The number of customers is getting lower with their structural and compositional changes. This will lead to a rearrangement in demographic trends and in the nature of the market itself. Relatively few market segments will grow in the next few years, and those who are successful in these areas will be able to reap great benefits in these changing times. One of most significant segment projected to expand is that of the older population, which until recently has been neglected by marketers. However in the future it will become one of the most important submarkets, with huge potential. It is likely in fact that the older age group will become the most important, the largest, and the most solvent group in the first half of the 21st century.^[6]

Consumption among younger age groups will decline, partly due to the decline in the number of young people, and partly because there will be a greater need for them to save for pension insurance in preparation for the future, resulting in a decline in consumption per capita. The bell is already tolling for marketing and advertising activities that target younger people; the significance of the youth from a consumer point of view will atrophy. While the second half of the last century was about the young, it is the older age groups which will dominate marketing in the first half of this century.

In a society composed mostly of older members, products and services require a radical transformation. Every enterprise needs to adapt to these demo-

[4] Hofmeister-Tóth, Á. – Kelemen, K. – Piskóti, M. (2011): *A kognitív életkor és az 50+ generáció környezettudatos fogyasztói magatartása*. Marketing&Menedzsment, 3. 56.

[5] Dychtwald, K. – Flower, J. (1990): *Age Wave*. Bantam Books.

[6] Hock, E. M. – Bader, B. (2001): *Kauf- und Konsumverhalten der 55plus-Generation*. Thexis Fachbericht Marketing, 3. 1-2.

graphic changes. Those enterprises which switch to products oriented for the older age groups, and who place less emphasis on youth market segments, so that they can target older consumers with products, services and advertising, will be able to achieve greater profit.

With the average growth of prosperity in developed states, the size of the older age groups will grow in parallel with the number of consumers. The elderly have never previously been so wealthy on average. Savings for people over 50 are higher than any other age group in the population.^[7] There is a powerful consumer trend in developed countries: the older age groups enjoy purchasing goods and services and are much more likely to spend more, and more often, than their ancestors.

These trends may vary slightly from country to country, but the general direction and intensity of the trends is undeniable in Western Europe, North America, and Japan.^[8] As far as the structure of the population is concerned, the nations of Central Europe have similar patterns to Western Europe even today, but due to the difference in economic development, consumption is lower by comparison.

In Hungary, the salary of people over 50 shows a wide variation, and financial, market opportunities are nowhere near as good as in the more developed western states. Working families with grown up and independent children are in the best position. The pension income in the country, however, is not very high, the state pension of 260,000 older consumers barely reaches 30,000 forints (appr. 100 Euros), and almost 2 million people live on minimum income levels.^[9] Thus most people in Hungary over fifty do not yet have a genuinely disposable income and only a small percentage can be counted as regular consumers. However, the age group taken on average is still a significant market segment. The financial circumstances of the oldest age groups are especially modest, but they can still represent target market segment for sales and store reductions.

Overall, the potential economic impact of the older age groups is undeniable. Despite the purchasing power of these groups and the demographic and social trends which point to their potential in the future, it is evident that the markets have not yet discovered them. So the common stereotypes for the elderly, which are clearly outdated and inaccurate, live on. They are still characterised as ailing, lonely, passive, poor and cautious. The image is one of a group that barely consumes anything, rarely even goes shopping and in short is simply insignificant from a marketing point of view and thus excluded.^[10]

[7] Branger, K - Tillmann, R. - Röthlisberger, P.: (2000): *Ältere Menschen in der Schweiz*. Neuchâtel. 7.; Rutishauser, F. (2005): *Seniorenmarketing*. Hamburg, Diplomica GmbH. 2.; Deutsches Seminar für Tourismus (2002): *Ran an die Alten - Seniorenmarketing im Tourismus*. DSFT, Berlin. 5-8.

[8] Otten (2009): op. cit. 17.

[9] Monostori, J. (2009): Nyugdíjrendszer, nyugdíjba vonulás. In: Monostori, J. - Őri, P. - S. Molnár, E. - Spéder, Zs. (eds.): *Demográfiai portré 2009*. 89-90.

[10] Stroud, D. (2006): *The 50-Plus Market*. Kogan Page, London. 1-6.

Until recently, marketing and advertising professionals have simply ignored the elderly, and marketing aimed at these age groups is a brand new phenomenon. Marketing effort remains focused on the needs of the youth segment. Most attention goes to those between 18 and 35, and companies spend the greater part of their budgets in marketing targeted at this age group, while the older age group only receives passing attention. The older people are, the less companies spend to reach them (80% of marketing budgets targets the youth segment).^[11]

In theory, this should not be a difficult task for marketers – in developed countries the older age groups represent the wealthier social class, they have greater disposable income, the numbers of these consumers are increasing, and there is almost no competition for this segment. In view of these factors, these sections of society should be a simple and clear target for marketers. In Hungary, the financial status of these segments is very modest so far, even if individually there may be some exceptions, but the numbers are large and growing continually, thus adding to the total, so that even today they could be counted as an important market segment.

The near future belongs to the older age groups. The attitude of society towards these people is becoming a more and more important question: will they continue to be regarded, from the consumer point of view, as insignificant and inconsequential, or will their value be recognized and acknowledged?

MEDIA CONSUMPTION OF OLDER AGE GROUPS WITH REGARD TO TV

Media consumption plays a significant role in how the older members of society spend their free time, and this has been shown in a number of surveys. The consumption of radio, television and newspapers for these groups is fairly evenly balanced. The internet is not as popular in this group, but in the last decade the number of internet users has seen a notable increase. An interesting phenomenon is that in parallel with the number of internet users, time spent watching television or listening to the radio has also grown, so the internet does not replace these media but in fact supplements the classic media sources and this is discernible among the older age groups as well. This is because they use each media channel for a different purpose: the web for communication and fact-checking, and TV and radio for entertainment and more detailed, in-depth information gathering.^[12]

As far as traditional media consumption among older age groups is concerned, there is no discernible difference between wealthier Western-European nations and Hungary. Consumption and significance only diverges in the area of internet use, since the internet is not used as much among these groups.

[11] Niemelä-Nyrhinen, J. (2007): *Baby Boom Consumers and Technology: Shooting down stereotypes*. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 24. 305–312.; Kirsch, J. (2003): *Senioren – Marktsegment der Zukunft*. In: Rabe-Lieb (hrsg.): *Zukunftsperspektiven des Marketing – Paradigmenwechsel und Neuausrichtungen*. Berlin. 182–183.; Stroud (2006): op. cit. 181.

[12] Rutishauser (2005): op. cit. 22–23.

Table 1: German and Swiss Media Consumption by Age Group (%)

Regular users	14-49 years old	50-65 years old	over 66
TV	66	72	82
Rádió	74	77	82
Daily newspaper	50	76	82
Free newspaper	56	57	55
Other newspapers	42	52	56
Internet	40	22	4
Movie	30	11	5

Source: Rutishauser (2005): op. cit. 23.

Older age groups often use different media sources from the youth, and they also use it in a different way. The motivation for choosing media sources among the older groups is different from the youth. Younger consumers are more interested in entertainment, while people over 60 tend to be looking for detailed information. The media consumption of people above 50, in terms of time spent, is somewhat above the average. At the beginning of the 21st century in Germany, it was specifically 500 minutes (almost six and a half hours). In comparing the most popular media, the difference was greater: in younger age groups the radio is more popular, while in older age groups television is becoming more popular.

Media usage obviously does not depend only on the age; it also depends on personality, literacy, and educational level. A more educated and active person is more likely to seek in-depth information from print media, for example.

A majority of the elderly is dissatisfied with and critical of what the media can offer. Survey respondents over 50 feel that there is an over-abundance of choice in the media. This dissatisfaction is shared with a third of the 14 to 49 age group respondents.^[13]

Listening to the radio or watching television represents the largest proportion of leisure time usage among the older age groups. In the higher age ranges, watching television is more popular and after retirement it shows an enormous rise, while time spent listening to the radio among those over 60 decreases. In western countries, recreation activities for the over 50's are: 42% watching television, 40% listening to the radio, while reading a daily newspaper represents only 8%. In 2000, people

[13] Kaupp, (2000): Senioren als Zielgruppe der Werbung. In: Meyer-Hentschel Management Consulting (hrsg.): *Handbuch Senioren-Marketing*. Frankfurt am Main. 174.

over 50 watched television for almost 4 hours a day, while respondents between 30-49 watched an hour less.^[14] Older citizens listen to the radio – primarily news channels – more often in the morning or in the early afternoon. The radio is less significant in terms of commercials. Although there are many listeners among these age groups, they switch the channel during the broadcast of commercials.

Table 2: Average TV viewing time (minutes) in Germany at the Millennium

	14-49 years old	50-59 years old	60-69 years old	over 70
Radio	167	181	178	150
Television	146	183	215	227

Source: Kaupp (2000): op. cit. 176.

An initial view of the habits of older age groups in watching TV or listening to the radio may lead us to the conclusion that if marketers want to reach these groups then they need to use these two media (television and radio). But we need to exercise some caution. Television is extremely complex (in terms of images and sound), and it may be that as a medium for reaching older people, the pace of traditional commercials is too fast to generate an effective message. For this reason, commercials with a message aimed at older audiences are effective only when the information is clear and comprehensible. Similarly, radio commercials can also be somewhat difficult, although the problem is not so complex as the message is limited to sound.

In contrast with younger consumers, older people use television for obtaining news, commentary, and for travel planning/learning. They watch political shows, and in Germany for example, 95% of older citizens watch news programmes, followed by political magazines and movies (72-77%), and in third place the preference is for travel channels, cultural shows and nature documentaries. Fewer people among these age groups watch sports (44%), or talks shows (38%), health care programs (31%) or drama/music (20%).^[15]

The older audience grew up with public service broadcasting, and they are still loyal to it, and although nowadays they have access to a lot more commercial broadcasting, watching such commercial channels is less popular. 60% choose the TV programs that they want to watch from the newspaper, so programmes that target younger people are unlikely to be seen by the over 60's.^[16]

[14] Blödorn, S. – Gerhards, M. (2004): *Mediennutzung der älteren Generation*. Media Perspektiven, 4. 163-175.

[15] Otten (2009): op. cit. 109-110.

[16] Popular TV channels in Germany: RTL, SAT1, NTV, ARD1, ZDF, Kabel1. Rutishauser (2005): op. cit. 24.

Senior Hungarian citizens are more likely to spend their leisure time watching television than other age groups, and for most of them this is their only source of information, entertainment, and the only way to spend their free time. According to representative surveys, retired people between 60 and 80 spend more than 20 hours each week watching TV, couples over 40 without children spend more than 5 hours a day, and single pensioners spend 7 hours a day.^[17]

OLDER CONSUMERS IN HUNGARIAN COMMERCIALS

Television commercials, especially when looking at the TV viewing habits of the over 60's, are crucially important to marketers and it is extremely useful to analyse how this age group is portrayed in commercials. In the advanced western countries the role of older people in commercials is shown more often in a more positive way, although this is not universally the case. In Hungary the position is more unfavourable.

Some research in Hungary has already investigated the role of the over fifties in commercials and in public broadcasting.^[18] The key questions in these surveys were whether advertisers targeted the elderly, what kind of role the older characters play in a commercial, whether they portray older people in a respectful way, as a valuable member of society, or whether they portray the elderly as an unnecessary burden on society.^[19] After analysing over a hundred advertisements it was revealed that the elderly are barely shown at all in commercials and in the few instances where they were given a role, they were depicted mostly in a negative context.

350 advertisements were examined in one of the surveys and of these, 77% did not deal with issues related to older age groups or include these groups as characters. 18% of the commercials made references to statistics about the elderly, or included an older actor. Another study, which analysed 100 different advertisements with the same aim, found only six such advertisements.^[20]

It is possible that the quantitative data alone does not fully account for the portrayal of the elderly in commercials, and that there may still exist a positive reflection through the values of what is shown or a more understanding and sympathetic depiction of older people. Unfortunately, the studies found that this was not in fact the case.

In television commercials, which included the use of older actors, fewer than a fifth were positive illustrations of the elderly (e.g. knowledgeable adviser, narrator, conversation partner, or helper). Around Christmas, the role that actors play

[17] Kollányi, B. – Székely, L. (2006): *Hátrányos helyzetű csoportok az információs társadalomban*. Információs társadalom, 2. 48-67.; Zelenay A. (2005): *Tévéfogyasztás a különböző családi életciklusokban*. Jel-Kép, 4. 11.

[18] Jászberényi J. (2008): *Az öregek nem is léteznek? Az időskorúak ábrázolása a magyarországi televíziós reklámokban*. Médiakutató, 9(3). 35-36.

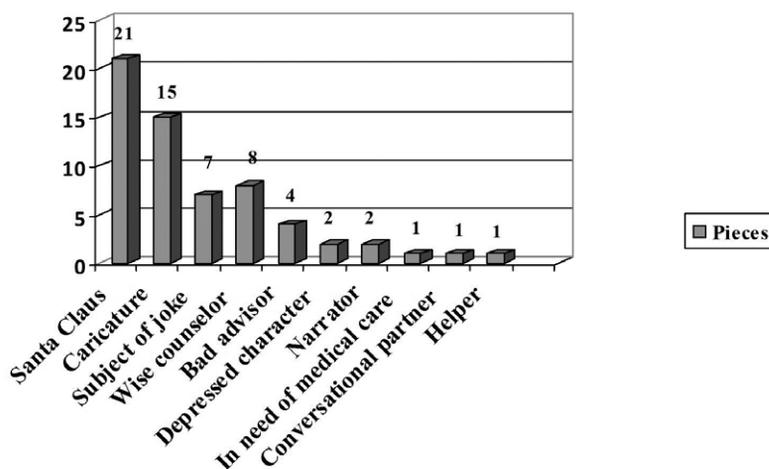
[19] In every season there are around 150-200 commercials, which are replaced every quarter.

[20] Jászberényi (2008): op. cit.

is more positive (if only because Santa Claus is traditionally played by an older male), but this is only seasonal and at other times of the year it is certainly not the case. In 22% of the commercials, the elderly are portrayed negatively (as the target of a joke, depressed, giving poor advice, in need of medical care), while in 25% of commercials featuring older actors, they are depicted in neutral roles.^[21]

It turns out that in Hungarian commercials there are surprisingly few old narrators – compared with western countries and with our own traditions (e.g. the type of a story-teller grandparents). The most sought-after commercial male voice (CIB, Chappi) belongs to an actor who is also an official voice on Duna TV public broadcasting. In the last few years he has been warned several times that he has only a few years left in this profession because his voice is starting to be “aged out”.^[22]

Figure 1: Employer and employee point of view



Source: Jászberényi (2008): op. cit.

The conclusion of these studies is that the advertising industry regards the elderly as an obstacle and that they do not view the older audience as worthy of attention. They request old actors only if the script specifically requires it – such as the role of a Santa Claus – and an older person is rarely portrayed as a positive figure but rather a caricature, a negative character or the subject of a joke. This type of negative portrayal reaches its peak in the commercials for the store ‘Electro World’, where the oldest member of the family is depicted as a helpless idiot.^[23]

[21] Jászberényi (2008): op. cit.

[22] Jászberényi (2008): op. cit. 41 footer 8: We mentioned Tamás Széles, who was in 2013 40 years old.

[23] Commercial can be found at: <http://www.reklamfilmek.com/video.php?firm=26&video=54>, Jászberényi (2008): op. cit. 41.

In Hungary, advertising is still in the initial stages of turning away from this discriminative portrayal of older people, but good intentions are sometimes also displeasing and unreal; characters bursting with health and constant smiling faces are far from reality. One such failure can be seen in the 2007 *Dove ProAge* advertising campaign, which presented an unfeasibly young model in the role of an older woman. The purpose of the campaign was to provide information about older people and their desire to be appreciated, but instead they showed a woman who posed as a young girl, implying that they are unable to accept the fact of their ageing, and this results in both the commercial and the product being unappealing. Even life insurance campaigns are built upon a misunderstanding. These commercials suggest that elderly people are inactive, that they cannot take care of themselves and that is why they need financial help.^[24]

Of course there are always a few exceptions: a well-executed, representative, respectful depiction of older people who can provide help to the younger generation. The cleaner commercial with an old famous actress is one of these positive examples. There is also an advertisement for potato crisps in which the grandfather misses “the good old things” of his youth, and his daughter-in-law offers him this product, which reminds him in a positive way of his youth. This commercial is also important because it reminds the elderly that they have their own prejudices against youth, or anything that is new.^[25]

The Hungarian advertising industry’s aversion to the elderly can be attributed to several factors. Without any doubt, what commercial professionals themselves feel or think about the elderly can affect their work by generating negative prejudice. The main reason is more complex, because this behaviour reflects Hungarian society’s views in general of the elderly. It confirms that commercials, which portray the elderly in a poor light, are popular with younger generations.^[26]

Our own research results

In October 2012 we undertook a survey, which focused on the role of the elderly in television commercials in Hungary. We watched 180 different commercials over a two-week period from both public and commercial broadcasting (m1, TV2, RTL Klub, Viasat3). Commercials for older age groups during peak times were barely aired at all, and these commercials were shown only in the afternoon, at a time of day when these age groups would make up the majority of TV viewers.

Our study confirmed the findings of similar research carried out four years previously. In Hungary, only a few commercials directly target the elderly or use an elderly actor. Of these 180 commercials, almost 90% (161 cases) did not show anyone over 50 years old at all, and neither were any of these commercials aimed

[24] Jászberényi (2008): op. cit. phrases from the author.

[25] Examples from Jászberényi (2008): op. cit.

[26] Jászberényi (2008): op. cit. 40–41, last footer.

at the older generation. Only 19 advertisements (or one in ten of the commercials included in this study) involved older actors. Of these, only three involved products specifically aimed at older consumers (Supradyn 50+, Proenzi3, Corega denture paste) and obviously these commercials used older actors. These three commercials were positive, and portrayed the elderly favourably. The Supradyn 50+ advertisement depicted the older generation particularly well, and the sporting lifestyle of the good-looking older male character was very well portrayed.

The remaining 16 commercials – which mostly targeted younger generations – also showed older actors and in 13 cases illustrated them with positive and life-like characteristics. Of these, 5 involved an older person in the principal role (Tchibo, Takarékpont Bank, Saga fruit tee, Eurovit vitamins, Housewives from Aldi). In 8 commercials the older actors were portrayed in a supporting role or as a caricature (Actimel, American Express, Blend-a-med with an old dentist, Weekly Answer, Jofogas.hu, Telekom, Merci chocolate).

Table 3: The role of the elderly on TV commercials (in 2012 October)

No older actor, the product is not for the elderly	161
Commercial with elderly actor	19
Negative or unreal portrayal of the elderly	3
Positive or realistic portrayal of the elderly	16
Older actor, the product is for the elderly	3
Other commercial with older person in main role	5
Other commercial with older person in subordinate role	8

Source: authors' own research.

We found only three commercials where the illustration of the elderly was troubling. These included the Nestea campaign, of which both advertisements portrayed a young and an old actor. Young actors are mostly used in soda commercials, which is why Nestea's idea might seem exciting and unconventional. However they showed an old lady positively in only one of their ads, and this as a completely unreal, unsophisticated character who jumps off a cliff. The other Nestea advertisement showed an old male as an odd and inept character. The Erste Bank commercial was the only one in which an especially negative older character was portrayed - as the clearly malicious old lady next door.

Overall, of the currently-aired commercials, it is rare to find even one which includes a role for an older person or in which the product is aimed at the elderly. However, at the same time it is a big step forward that in those cases where an older character is shown, he or she is portrayed in a positive light.

HUNGARIAN SENIORS' OPINION OF TV COMMERCIALS – OUR RESEARCH

In the Spring of 2013, we organised a survey of older age group students at Széchenyi University in Győr before the first semester of the “Senior University”. 556 people – half of the participants in that programme – completed our questionnaire.

The survey included several themes through which we tried to obtain a clear picture of our respondents, and of their habits. We were curious to know

- how they felt about their age,
- how they spent their free time,
- what kind of media they were using and at what time of the day,
- how much they were using the internet and for what purpose,
- whether they were buying online,
- what their opinion of commercials was,
- whether they had ever bought a product after seeing a commercial,
- which aspects influenced their decision to buy,
- where they shopped.

The answers provided us with very interesting opportunities for analysis.

The general characters of the sample

In terms of its gender distribution, the sample is not representative, since 77.7%, 432 of respondents were women, and only 124 (22.3%) were men. It is true that nationally women predominate, but not to such an extent (over the age of sixty, 61% of the population in Hungary is female).^[27]

The average age of the sample was 67.2 years, with males a little higher (68.8 years), while females were half a year younger (66.7 years). The youngest respondents were 54 and the oldest was 90 years old.

Almost 80% of the respondents had a declared income of less than €600. This confirmed our assumption that in Hungary the older age group has a lower disposable income. In our samples, women had, on average, far less income than men, and there seemed to be a trend that in the lower income categories, women vastly outnumbered men.

Table 4: Income distribution

	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%
under 70,000 Ft	31	5.6	2	1.6	29	6.7
70 to 120,000 Ft	250	45.0	35	28.2	215	49.8

[27] http://www.wesley.hu/sites/default/files/fajlok/cikk_idosek_helyzete.pdf. In Hungary there are around 2.2 million people over 60, and of these, 1.35 million are female, 850.000 male. (Academy of the Elderly 2010.)

	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%
120 to 170,000 Ft	168	30.2	50	40.3	118	27.3
170 to 220,000 Ft	65	11.7	24	19.4	41	9.5
above 220,000 Ft	22	4.0	10	8.1	12	2.8
No response	20	3.6	3	2.4	17	3.9
Total	556	100.0	124	100.0	432	100.0

Source: authors' own research.

Table 5: Income distribution by gender

		Male (%)	Female (%)
under 70.000 Ft	31	6.5	93.5
70.000-120.000Ft	250	14.0	86.0
120.000-170.000 Ft	168	29.8	70.2
170.000-220.000 Ft	65	36.9	63.1
above 220 000 Ft	22	45.5	54.5
No response	20	15.0	85.0
Total	556	22.3	77.7

Source: authors' own research.

The students of the Senior University had higher levels of educational attainment than average Hungarians of the same age. 37% had a university degree, and only 13% had not reached high school graduation level.

Educational level represented a significant difference between genders, with males being better qualified, and more of them had a university degree than the 50+ age group nationwide. This university degree advantage was observed among those over 54, and high school graduation among those over 69. Women in younger generations have a higher educational level.^[28]

Our survey indicated a strong correlation between level of education and income levels. If someone in the sample had a higher level of education, they were more likely to have a higher income to provide for their old age. Those who completed only elementary school, can be found only in lower income categories, and the trend suggests that the higher the income of the respondent, the more likely it is that they will have a university degree.^[29]

[28] Central Statistics Office: census 2011. Regional data from Budapest. CSO, Budapest. 2013. 14.

[29] The correlations of the income and qualifications table is seen at the annex.

Table 6: Qualifications by gender

	Total	%	Female	%	Male	%
Elementary school	15	2.7	14	3.2	1	0.8
Vocational school	59	10.6	47	10.9	12	9.7
High school graduate	275	49.5	223	51.6	52	41.9
University graduate	207	37.2	148	34.3	59	47.6
Total	556	100.0	432	100.0	124	100.0

Source: authors' own research.

Quarter of the respondents were single, or widowed (which, over 70, is common), 60% were married or living with a partner. There is an enormous difference between men and women. While 90% of men in the sample were living with a wife or partner, almost a half of the women were living alone, or widowed. This could be due to the longer life expectancy of women; data from national statistics show more widows than widowers (in Hungary of the 700,000 people over 60, 70% are female and 50.4% are also widows).^[30]

Table 7: Marital status

	Total	%	Female	%	Male	%
Single	75	13.5	68	15.8	7	5.7
Living as couple	337	60.6	227	52.5	110	88.6
Widow/Widower	144	25.9	137	31.7	7	5.7
Total	556	100.0	432	100.0	124	100.0

Source: authors' own research.

Household living arrangements were as follows: 54% of the respondents lived in a household of two with their partner, 30% of them lived alone, 16% of them lived with at least two other people. Three-quarters of the males, and almost a half of the females were living together with their partner, and a male living alone was rare, while among the women this was quite common.

For marketing communication experts, this suggests that if they want to reach older males, then they should start with couples who live together as a model, but if females are their main target then it would be more relevant to use single living model.

[30] 20 respondents completed this advertising part (who decided no to answer the income questions) 14 of them marked 1 point, only one of them marked 2 points.

Conclusion

It is clear that our survey is not a representative sample, as it does not reflect in every aspect the attributes of the average Hungarian in these older age groups. The difference from the national average in our survey primarily concerned educational levels and gender composition. Nevertheless, the answers provided can be evaluated scientifically, and we obtained usable data for analysis. Our conclusions are applicable to certain subsets of older people; particularly those for educationally qualified female seniors are general and valid, while aspects from the whole age group are relevant only within certain limits.

Attitudes of older consumers to television advertising

In the following section, we examine responses to the questionnaire from this group concerning their attitudes towards television advertising. The questionnaire includes six questions in the advertising section on this theme specifically but we look at just three here: 'I enjoy watching a lot of commercials', 'The quality of television commercials is excellent', and 'I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials'). The responses to each of these statements will be analysed one by one, based on gender, qualifications and income.

Television commercials viewing habits among older age group

First of all, we examined responses to the statement: I enjoy watching a lot of commercials.

Table 8: TV advertising viewing habits based on gender, qualifications and income^[31] (on a scale from 1 to 5)

	Total	%	Female	%	Male	%
Not typical (1)	383	85.3	294	85.5	89	84.8
.(2)	46	10.2	36	10.4	10	9.6
.(3)	13	2.9	10	2.9	3	2.8
.(4)	5	1.1	2	0.6	3	2.8
Very typical (5)	2	0.5	2	0.6	-	-
Total	449	100	344	100	105	100
Average (based on the scale)	1,21	-	1,20	-	1,18	-

[31] 20 respondents completed this advertising part (who decided no to answer the income questions) 14 of them marked 1 point, only one of them marked 2 points.

SENIOR CITIZENS AND THE TV ADVERTISING IN HUNGARY

	Elementary	Vocational	High school	%	University	%
Not typical (1)	3	32	196	88.3	152	83.1
.(2)	1	4	17	7.7	24	13.1
.(3)	-	2	6	2.7	5	2.7
.(4)	-	-	3	1.3	2	1.1
Very typical (5)	1	1	-	-	-	-
Total	5	39	222	100	183	100
Average (on the scale)	-	1,31	1,17	-	1,22	-

	<70,000 Ft	70 000-120,000	120-170,000	170-220,000	>220 000 Ft
Not typical (1)	14 77.9%	181 91,4%	114 78.1%	43 82.7%	17 85.0%
.(2)	2 11.1%	11 5.6%	23 15.8%	6 11.6%	3 15.0%
.(3)	1 5.5%	5 2.5%	5 3.4%	2 3.8%	-
.(4)	-	-	4 2.7%	1 1.9%	-
Very typical (5)	1 5.5%	1 0.5%	-	-	-
Total	18	198	146	52	20
Average (1-5 scale)	1,44	1,26	1,31	1,25	1,15

Source: authors' own research.

Most of the respondents are dismissive of commercials on television, and if they can, they prefer not to watch them. This five-grade scale shows after 449 answers an average of only 1.2 points. Answer 3 was chosen only in 4.5% of cases, so a small and insignificant fraction showed just a little enthusiasm for advertising as an entertainment source. There was no difference between male and female responses; their enthusiasm for commercials both remained at a very low level.

Analysis based on education indicated no difference between the answers concerning viewing habits, for TV commercials. They all equally disapproved. The group with the high school graduation level was most strongly opposed (88% of them marked the 1 point on the scale, and their average point was only 1.17). Graduates were slightly less strongly opposed (83% of them chose 1 point and their average was 1.22) and those who graduated from a vocational school were less harsh (82% of them marked 1 point and their average was 1.31).^[32]

There were differences in the study as a whole based on incomes, but clearly these trends were not significant (especially if we note the actual numbers). The viewing habits for older groups watching TV commercials are independent of income factors; they do not enjoy watching them.

[32] The number of those who finished elementary school is so low that it would be misleading.

Opinions of the quality of TV advertising

The second question we looked at involved analysing responses to the statement - ‘The quality of television commercials is excellent’.

Table 9: ‘The quality of TV commercials is excellent’ – answers in total by gender, by education and by income^[33] (on a scale from 1 to 5)

	Total	%	Female	%	Male	%
I do not agree (1)	317	70.6	241	70.1	76	72.4
.(2)	80	17.8	63	18.3	17	16.2
.(3)	39	8.7	32	9.3	7	6.7
.(4)	10	2.2	5	1.4	5	4.7
I completely agree (5)	3	0.7	3	0.9	-	-
Total	449	100	344	100	105	100
Average (on this scale)	1,45	-	1,45	-	1,44	-

	Elementary	Vocational	High school	%	University	%
I do not agree (1)	3	29	169	76.1	116	63.4
.(2)	1	4	32	14.4	43	23.5
.(3)	-	5	13	5.9	21	11.5
.(4)	-	-	7	3.2	3	1.6
I completely agree (5)	1	1	1	0.4	-	-
Total	5	39	222	100	183	100
Average (on this scale)	-	1,46	1,37	-	1,51	-

	<70,000 Ft	70-120,000	120-170,000	170-220,000	>220,000 Ft
I do not agree (1)	12 66.6%	158 79.8%	89 61.0%	33 63.5%	13 65%
.(2)	1 5.6%	23 11.6%	38 26.0%	11 21.2%	6 30%
.(3)	2 11.1%	15 7.6%	13 8.9%	7 13.4%	1 5%
.(4)	1 5.6%	1 0.5%	6 4.1%	1 1.9%	-
I completely agree (5)	2 11.1%	1 0.5%	-	-	-
Total	18	198	146	52	20
Average (on this scale)	1,89	1,30	1,56	1,54	1,40

Source: authors' own research.

[33] Of the 20 respondents who decided not to answer the income question 15 of them filled out the advertisement block, 12 marked 1 point, 2 and 3 points received one hit each and only one of them marked 4 points as the highest result.

Our respondents believe that the quality of television commercials is poor. This five-grade scale shows an average of only 1.45 from 449 responses and option 3 or 4 or 5 was chosen by only eighth of people in the study. The responses were only slightly less disapproving than those concerning commercial viewing habits. There was no difference of opinion based on gender. Both males and females were equally critical of the quality of the commercials.

There is no significant difference based on educational attainment levels; they all equally think that the quality of advertising on television is poor. Most dismissive were the high school graduates group (only 10% of them gave 3 points, their average was 1.37). University graduates were a little less opposed (13% of them gave 3 points, their average was 1.46) and those who finished a vocational school less harsh (15% of them gave 3 points and their average was 1.51).

There were differences based on income compared with the study as a whole, similar to viewing habits for TV commercials, only a little greater, but clearly the trends were not significant (especially if we note the specific numbers). The two lowest income brackets were the biggest supporters. Those who earn less than 70,000 Ft in income are the most tolerant towards the quality of advertising. On this five point scale their average point almost hit 2 and 28% selected option 3 (however the actual number of responses is very low in these brackets). Those who earn between 70,000 Ft and 120,000 Ft are the most dissatisfied; their average score is 1.3, and less than 9% marked 3 points on the scale (where there were the highest number of answers). It can be concluded therefore that views concerning the quality television commercials in the older age group do not depend on income factors.

Opinion of the elderly on the portrayal of old age in commercials

The third area we looked at was responses to the statement: ‘I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials’.

Table 10: ‘Satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials’ – answers by gender, by qualification and by income (on a scale from 1 to 5)⁴

	Total	%	Female	%	Male	%
I do not agree (1)	321	71.5	251	73.0	70	66.7
.(2)	65	14.4	46	13.4	19	18.1
.(3)	48	10.7	35	10.1	13	12.4
.(4)	12	2.7	9	2.6	3	2.8
I completely agree (5)	3	0.7	3	0.9	-	-
Total	449	100	344	100	105	100
Average (on this scale)	1,47	-	1,45	-	1,51	-

	Elementary	Vocational	High school	%	University	%
I do not agree (1)	4	30	167	75.2	120	65.6
.(2)	-	4	25	11.3	36	19.6
.(3)	-	4	21	9.5	23	12.6
.(4)	-	-	8	3.6	4	2.2
I completely agree (5)	1	1	1	0.4	-	-
Total	5	39	222	100	183	100
Average (on this scale)	-	1,41	1,43	-	1,51	-

	<70,000 Ft	70-120,000	120-170,000	170-220,000	>220,000 Ft
I do not agree (1)	11 61.1%	160 80.8%	100 68.5%	28 53.9%	14 70%
.(2)	4 22.2%	14 7.1%	24 16.4%	14 26.9%	5 25%
.(3)	1 5.6%	20 10.1%	15 10.3%	8 15.4%	1 5%
.(4)	-	3 1.5%	7 4.8%	2 3.9%	-
I completely agree (5)	2 11.1%	1 0.5%	-	-	-
Total	18	198	146	52	20
Average (on this scale)	1,78	1,34	1,51	1,69	1,35

Source: authors' own research.

The depiction of elderly people in television commercials is a great cause for disappointment among older age viewers. Of the 449 answers, this five-point scale showed an average of only 1.47 and only 14% (or seventh) of respondents scored it at least 3 points. These responses are slightly less harsh than we saw in the viewing habits, and show almost the same opinion as the responses concerning the quality of commercials. There were only minor variations between males and females concerning this issue and generally their opinions coincide.

We cannot find any significant differences between the respondents based on educational levels alone. They were all dissatisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials. Whether they had graduated from vocational school, or had high school graduation or a university degree, their opinions were more or less the same: around 14% marked the 3 point on this scale. On this five-point scale their average range (between 1.41 and 1.51) represents a small margin.

The differences in the income categories here were bigger than they were for commercial viewing habits, and were similar to responses for the quality of advertising. There were no unequivocal trends that could be drawn from the results based on whether the respondents had a high or low income.

The two lowest and the two highest income categories are the two corner points. In addition, this time the group with an income of under 70,000 Ft is the bigger average value. The income group 170,000–220,000 Ft represented the lowest percentage which gave only 1 point; and the highest percentage who

marked 3 points. Those with an income of between 70,000–120,000 Ft income and above 220,000 Ft income were the most negative. They gave the minimum amount of 3 points.

It is clear that the responses are not income-dependent. There was equal disappointment in the way the elderly were portrayed in commercials.

Respondents who decided not to answer questions about advertising

It is noteworthy that 107 people decided not to answer this part our questionnaire (19.2% of the whole sample, almost all fifth of all respondents) and for this reason we could examine only 449 returned answers, which was 80.8% of the whole sample.

The composition of those who chose not to provide answers in this section is instructive.

There were 88 women and 19 men. So taking into account the gender balance of the whole sample (77.7% were females), a slightly larger proportion of the women left this part of the questionnaire empty (in 82.2%).

55 of this group were over 70, while 52 were younger. This suggests that a higher proportion than would be expected of those over 70 chose not to answer (33.6% were at least 70 years old). This also might indicate that in older age groups, people consume less and for this reason they are less concerned about advertising, on the other hand they spent more of their lives exposed to less sophisticated advertising.

In terms of educational levels, 9.3% had completed elementary school, 26.2% had graduated from vocational schools, 46.7% were high school graduates, and 15.9% were university graduates (10, 28, 50 and 17 people). This suggests that the educational level of those people who decided not to answer these questions was in general lower than those who did.

We also examined income ranges for these non-responders but it did not show significant differences compared to the whole sample, and therefore we were unable to draw meaningful conclusions from it.

Factor analysis

The questionnaire data was sufficient to apply further statistical study that could provide a deeper and more comprehensive level of analysis. One such opportunity is factor analysis. We examined the six variables which concerned advertising with relevant statistical methods and after it proved to be applicable to factor analysis, we added them to 3 factors which explain 81% of the variance across the original variables in the whole survey.^[34]

[34] Bartlett test, Kayser-Meyer-Olkin values, MSA (Measure of Sampling Adequacy) – Annex 2.

Two variables determine the first factor ('I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials'; 'The quality of commercials is excellent'), is the factor which explains this variance the strongest. We also used two variables in the second ('I enjoy reading free advertiser newspapers' or 'I am interested in advertisements in newspapers') and the third factor ('I enjoy listening to advertisements on the radio'; 'I enjoy watching commercials on the TV').

We can label the first factor 'TV commercial satisfaction', the second, 'Printed advertisements', and the last one concerns 'Radio and television commercials'.

Table 11: Consumers' perception of advertising – whole sample, rotated factor matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in TV commercials	.876	.155	.227
The quality of commercials is excellent	.794	.254	.331
I enjoy reading free advertiser newspapers/catalogues	.233	.883	.073
I enjoy reading newspaper advertisements	.126	.811	.348
I enjoy listening to advertisements on the radio	.209	.266	.844
I enjoy watching commercials on the TV	.432	.127	.737

Source: authors' own research.

We found that looking at the main component analysis by gender explained 80% in older females and 85% in older males. By applying rotated factor loading, we were able to determine three principal components, which cover three different attitudes between males and females, the pattern being identical to the whole sample in both gender groups.

We can use factor analysis to examine together two of the three relevant questions about television advertising ('I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in commercials' and 'The quality of the commercials is excellent'). The given answers on these two variables can be analysed together, and this indicator shows how satisfied the respondents of the sample were with the commercials - especially with those which included an elderly character. The answers provided on these two variables show a very strong correlation, and this factor indicates the aversion of the elderly to television commercials.

ANNEX

Annex 1.

These 161 television commercials viewed for this survey, did not target the elderly, and did not include older actors:

007 Parfüm, 7 Days Hazelnut

Actival, Activia, Afrin, Aldi's housewives II., Algoflex, Always, Ambipur, Apród.hu, Aspirin, Audispray, Avon - City Rush, Avon Anew

Balaton chocolate, Baumax, Bepanthen, Béres Csepp, Bioapon, Bio Slim, Biovanne, Blend-a-med II., Boci chocolate, Bonduelle, Brise - Glade, Budapest Bank

Calgon, Canespro - Canesten, Carefree, Centrum multivitamin, Cheetos, Cofidis, Coldrex maxi grip, Colgate Maxwhite

Dacia Duster, Danette, Decathlon, Digi Okos, Dipankrin, Domestos Attax, Dormeo, Dove, Dulcolax

Elseve L'Oreal, Erste II. - Ferrari pack, Espumisan,

Fem3, F & F, Finish, Ford, Friskies, Frosta, Fundamenta

Garnier BB, Gillette Proglide, Giuseppe Pizza, Györi Édes (biscuit)

Hankook, Heineken, Herz,

Jó reggelt (biscuit), Jovital, Jysk

Kalmopyrin, Calvin Klein, KFC, K&H Bank, Kia Ceed, Kinder Bueno, Kinder Maxi, Kinder Slice of Milk chocolate, Knoppers, Knorr -chinese

Lancome, Lidl I., Lidl II. Italian pastas, Listerine, L'Oreal-Revital

MagneB6, Marvel - Spiderman, Max Faktor, McDonald's Mamot, McDonald's II., Magnezium+ Orotat, Magyar Posta (post), Medve cheese, Mexx, Milka, Mindig Tv, Mindig Tv II., Mizo, Mucopront,

Negro I., Negro II., Neocitran, Neogranormon, Nescafe, Nesquik, Nivea, Nők Lapja, Normaflore, No-Spa, Nurofen forte

Ofotért, Old Spice, Online kupon, Orbit

Palette, Panadol, Pantene, Parodontax, Playboy parfüm, Pervoll, Prémium, Provident, Pur

Quamatel

Raiffeisen, Rama, Renault Master, Rennie, Rubophen Thermo

Salonpas, Samsung Galaxy - T-Mobile, Sanytol, Schweppes, Uma Thurman, Septofort, Shell Power, Silverkart, Snickers, Somat, Spar, Spar II. , Stodal, Strep-sils, Supradyn, Szavo

Teekanne, Telenor I. music, Telenor II. Hipernet, Tesco, Thermocare, Tchibo II., Tolle, Tomi washing pulver

Unibet, Unicredit, UPC I. Fiber Power, UPC II. direct

Valeriana, Vanish, Velux, Verbena, Vichy, Visine, Vodafone I. endless talk, Vodafone II., Voltaren

Westend, Wick, Triactin, Wick II.

Annex 2. Factor analysis

Bartlett, KMO and MSA results				
	Bartlett significance	KMO value	MSA result are greater than	Commonalities are greater than
whole sample	0.000	0.816	0.770	0.740
females	0.000	0.803	0.760	0.740
males	0.000	0.844	0.810	0.810

Total variance explained on the whole sample									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.331	55.511	55.511	3.331	55.511	55.511	1.699	28.323	28.323
2	.932	15.538	71.049	.932	15.538	71.049	1.612	26.873	55.196
3	.591	9.857	80.906	.591	9.857	80.906	1.543	25.710	80.906
4	.449	7.488	88.394						
5	.387	6.444	94.838						
6	.310	5.162	100.000						

Opinion concerning commercials, consumption – females, rotated factor matrix			
	Component		
	1	2	3
I am satisfied with the portrayal of the elderly in TV commercials	.868	.165	.211
The quality of commercials is excellent	.810	.226	.305
I enjoy reading free advertiser newspapers/catalogues	.220	.881	.075
I enjoy reading newspaper advertisements	.136	.817	.328
I enjoy listening to advertisements on the radio	.178	.302	.824
I enjoy watching commercials on the TV	.406	.088	.754

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

Míg a nyugati országokban az idős fogyasztók fontossága mára már rég tudatosult, a nyugdíjas marketing széles körben elterjedt, addig Magyarországon a vállalkozások is csak a közelmúltban kezdték felismerni a kérdés jelentőségét. A kérdés vizsgálatára alkalmas az idősek televízió reklámokban való jelenlétének az elemzése, amely szintén mutatja a nyugati országok és Magyarország közötti különbségeket. Emellett empirikus kutatást folytattunk az idősek körében a televízió reklámok megítéléséről, amelynek egyes eredményeit közöljük a tanulmányban.

MEDIA

Making the employer attractive on the job market, talent management, HR strategy



It is a well-known fact amongst HR professionals that – especially in the long run – putting effort into making employees feel good about their place of work, and making their company look attractive on the job market is a worthwhile investment.

The employers' problem in the near future might be the lack of a skilled workforce on the Hungarian job market to ensure further growth and profitability. To discover and keep the more talented workers, there needs to be a more effective method than the one currently in place. This is especially true when analyzing generation X and Y.

Today in Hungary just a few companies measure and track their reputation. Only every second of the biggest employers come up with a well-organised and communicated employment strategy, and only every fifth uses constant communication via mass media to improve the reputation of the employers' brand.^[3]

According to Mark Schumann and Libby Sartain, the companies in today's globalised world need 3 different types of branding:^[4]

- *Product brand*: To attract customers a business needs a compelling brand as a place to buy
- *Employer brand*: To attract employees a business needs a compelling brand as a place to work
- *To become a magnet* for talent a business needs to market its brand as a place to work

This study will not only discuss specifics of the Y and Z generations employment finding strategy, but will shine light upon how to attain, and keep talents through HR strategies.

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[3] Schumann, Mark – Sartain, Libby (2010): *Tehetségmágnesek. A kiválóakat vonzó munkáltatói márka felépítése*. HVG Kiadó, Budapest. 269–270.

[4] Schumann, M. – Sartain, L. (2010): op. cit. 15.

THE SPECIFICS OF FINDING SUITABLE WORK FOR GENERATIONS X AND Y

Fitting everyone in a generation in a group brings the dangers of stereotyping. The different generations' traits are then all generalised, so the aforementioned traits do not fit each and every individual. Despite this fact, it is still vital to study these traits, even if only in relation to the job market.

Members of generation Y are the first to be a “digital generation”, people who use the Internet every day for their personal life. The employment market faces a huge challenge with this generation, mainly because they go against the long-standing norms with never before seen courage and self esteem. They grew up with technology, are especially practical and use the Internet extremely well. Employees from generation Y want to enjoy their workplace: it needs to be modern, with huge open spaces, which break from the norm, and a kitchen to eat and socialise in.

This new generation greatly appreciates working in groups to achieve common goals. They feel right at home in the big world, they cherish freedom, and a democratic, informal work environment. These people want to do several things at the same time, not at a desk if possible, but from various places using laptops and mobiles. Personal freedom is important to them, they are anything but conformists, and they tend not to follow rules very well. The world has changed around them: consumerism is now on top, new values, a completely new world altogether. Members of generation Y have high expectations towards their employer, they wish to build their work life around their personal life instead of the other way around.^[5]

Employees of generation Y are not an “obedient workforce”, but more often than not rebelling characters, whose workplace is just one of many, which can be changed whenever they want.^[6]

Their parents have become accustomed to the changes in the job market, they have given up their previous lifestyle and have got used to the ever-increasing demands of the employer, giving up their personal wishes, because if they wanted to keep their jobs, they needed to act accordingly. Members of generation Y think differently; they want to live differently from their parents. They are conscious in the job market, “and they no longer have the subsuming attitude their parents had towards the company management. This was so self-explanatory back then people didn't even realize in the daily routine.”^[7] They prefer partnerships instead of being underlings, they raise their expectations according to the trade they are in. If the job doesn't live up to their expectations, they simply go and find another one.

[5] Novak, Milan (2010): *People You May Know – Innovatív toborzási megoldások*. Personal Hungary, Budapest. www.personalhungary.com; Toldi, Gábor (2010): *Toborzás új lehetőségekkel*. Personal Hungary, Budapest. www.personalhungary.com.

[6] Tari, Annamária (2010): *Y generáció. Klinikai pszichológiai jelenségek és társadalomlélektani összefüggések az információs korban*. Jaffa Kiadó, Budapest. 23.

[7] Tari, A. (2010): op. cit.

This generation searches for jobs like others search for consumable products. Generation Y consumes jobs, they are conscious, collect information, have clear preferences, compare and make a verdict even before they meet the employer. Career building and continuous progress are basic expectations in this age group, but as of now not many employers can react satisfactorily.

The ones who are just starting their life in the world of jobs can find themselves in a difficult situation, since they are affected by age discrimination. The young who have just finished their studies start their search optimistically, but after the first failures this enthusiasm lowers. Even getting into an interview is a challenge, the majority of the ads say one, or even two-three years experience is essential. There are always some possibilities though; there are companies who see the future entrepreneurs in them. The ones who just start conform more easily, they don't have bad habits, and they become accustomed to the company's culture easily. The majority of youngsters don't have an established independent life, so they want to achieve one in the first two-three years, this makes them endure more, they are more enthusiastic and they want to prove themselves more than their more experienced colleagues. They are motivated by the job itself, personal growth and the chance of a career.^[8]

Table 1: Generation Z's demands towards employers in the light of generational differences

distinctiveness of Generation Z	expectations towards employers
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal relationships in the workplace • Direct contact with the boss • Chatter and common breaks with the others • Time off with others
immediate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boss can be reached instantly • They need to be in when everyone else needed for the job, in case some unexpected trouble comes up they can help with
Involvement, experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • work needs to flow • no need to be bored, something always needs to happen. If nothing else, let them use Facebook • they want to experience more in the workplace
Experimental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They need to face a challenge, let them unfold their potential • The boss should just check on the finished work, not in-between fazes
Need for a structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let there be limiting conditions • A set table is asked for • Need for an office

[8] Kissné András, Klára (2010): Hogyan motiválhatóak a különböző generáció tagjai? www.hrportal.hu/index.phtml?page=article&id=84579.

distinctiveness of Generation Z	expectations towards employers
Values: Coomunity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for personal relations • Wants to be a part of a community –work community
Well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boss needs to have a high emotional intelligence • Good relations with co-workers • Self harmony, personal-work life balance • “I love my job”

Source: Ferincz (2015): op. cit.

Employees of the generation Z want to enter the job market in a management position from the start, though they don't have the relevant experience. Moreover, they want to progress as fast as possible; to achieve this, they are willing to learn, and prefer practical knowledge over theoretical. They believe in themselves, that they can get the practical knowledge needed for their jobs throughout their capabilities. They accept leader roles with confidence. The tempo of the older generation is too slow for them. They have a higher expectation of their wages from the start, they simply want to earn a lot of money at the same time as keeping their personal freedom. Working in a group motivates them.

Generation Z is just starting to get into the job market actively. The organizations need to adapt, and change accordingly to the people who grew up with internet-based knowledge. In the study of Adrienn Ferincz, which revolves around the attitude of members of generation Z when it comes to work, her conclusion was that the new generation's demands could be broken into 2 separate dimensions: The need for a structure, and the need for flexibility.^[9]

The structure involves the organization of the job's rules and terms. Fixed working hours are just as important to them as a fixed place to work and a serried job role. In between the borders and the fixed rules, they wish for freedom and flexibility. They deny procedure control; they feel that it will rob them of their creativity. Total and borderless freedom means anarchy to them; they don't like to live without restrictions.

A good leader's trait is that he or she can balance these two points, so a positive relationship is made possible between employee and employer

Generation Y and Z can be categorised by their lifestyle, but their expectations towards their employees are similar. These are the following:

- New values and different motivational systems
- A work environment which enhances their effectiveness
- Work enjoyment (this is more and more common amongst age groups)
- Personal differentiation, the importance of individuality
- Growing of immaterial values
- Balance between work and personal life
- Training availability

[9] Ferincz, Adrienn (2015): *Az új generáció elvárásai a munkahelyekkel szemben*. www.irisro.org.

The result of multi-layered changes is a new category of workers, the “creative or new-type worker”, who has exact expectations towards their employers, but in return, the employer should have the same.

The “new type worker” is a result of historical progress. In the 1950s workers in groups were the norm, while in the 1980s it was time for the more skilled, achievement-striving workforce.

The biggest losers of the economic crisis since 2008 are the young and well trained job seekers. In Spain, the unemployment rate amongst fresh university graduates is 50%. In Germany, there is a certain generation whose members go from training to training, but never actually find work. This means that being well trained and knowledgeable isn’t always a guarantee to get hired.

Table 2: Expectations of the employer and employee

Employers expectations towards “Creative Workers”	The “Creative Workers” expectations towards employers
To be susceptible for innovation	New values
The ability to improvise	Weighted priorities
Flexibility	Autonomy, to be self-sufficient
Creativity	Sustainability and computability

Source: www.hrportal.hu.

The “Creative Worker” wishes to work in an environment that focuses on the specialities. This imposes a huge challenge for the organizations.

People in their 20s are distinctly different in Hungary as well compared to the older generations.

Aon Hewitt has been conducting studies of the “Best place to work” for more than a decade. According to the Hewitt benchmarks’ data of 2009-2010, with almost 56000 questioned, the following conclusion has been reached of employees of generation Y in Hungary:^[10]

- Every tenth fresh college graduate has foreign experience
- Only a quarter thinks working for more than 3 years is plausible
- Less then every third thinks they are capable of literal and verbal communication in English, and only every tenth in German.
- A career is a vital part in their decision (for three-quarters in the trade, the rest are CEOs)
- Company culture and company values are more and more vital.

What differentiates them the most from the average is self-realization, success, ambition, creativity, innovation, and constant learning. Besides all these they

[10] Schumann, M. – Sartain, L. (2010): op. cit. 279-281.

find humour, well-being, the balance between personal and work life, globalization and environmental awareness.

FINDING AND KEEPING TALENTS, HR STRATEGY

Elements of HR strategy: achieve, seduce, make it committed. These are the vital steps for employer brand building and communication.

Employers for keeping talents

Reaching out to members of generation Y can only be successful if the employer is made visible on channels people actually visit. In the past, newspaper ads were sufficient enough, but nowadays social media has the top spot. Information needs to be trustworthy and fast: the biggest organizations make appointments with the top talented found in trade shows; they keep in contact with them online, and following the interview a decision is made in one or two days. Reaching out to those who don't think they want to change is important; this requires an aggressive strategy.

Now we know what channels the talented can be reached upon, and what their preferences are. Yet, for many companies, it's not clear where they stand when it comes to their judgement amongst jobseekers, and compared to other companies.

According to Jack Murphy CEO of Dresser Industries *"our people vote with their feet. they walk in, or they don't. This makes our judgement continuous"*^[11]

So, seducing the workforce is not enough, keeping them is important as well. Today's employees don't think they'll only work for one company their whole lives. They think at least two to three, but in reality it's seven or eight.

According to Hewitt's Hungarian and foreign studies, the promises an employer makes has a direct effect on employee loyalty. Amongst the Hungarian workforce only less than half think their company's reputation is in line with their personal experiences.

More often than not though, employees won't get what they expect. Employees' commitment lowers along with the trust they put in their employers. This makes keeping talents just as important as finding them.

In the early 2000s job seekers were not only motivated by career and salary, but self-realization in the workplace and well-kept company policies. Since then, company reputation and well-kept promises towards the employee has become a priority.

Employers are more likely to become attached to a company, if the expectations below are met:

- Sufficient chance of progress

[11] Schumann, M. - Sartain, L. (2010): op. cit. 48.

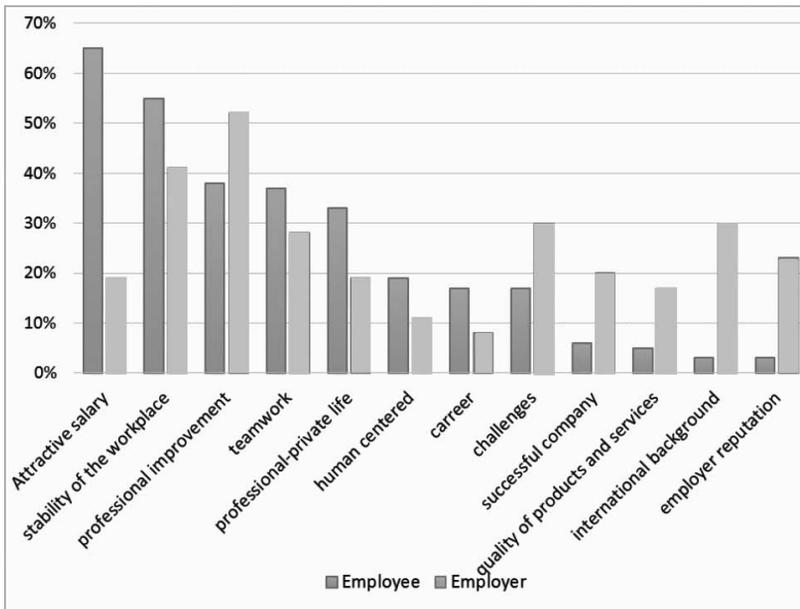
- The employees are paid and respected for the amount of work they do
- Leadership is human-centric, which sees the employee as the most valued resource
- The company is attractive and trustworthy, this makes keeping talents easier

The best traits of companies since 2001 remain the same: these organizations can keep the most talented, they're appealing, have a good reputation and a human and trustworthy leadership.^[12] In the past couple of years HR, the performance-focus company culture and sustainable development have been growing in importance as well.

Employees and employers point of view

When analysing the points of views of employers and employees, it's clear that the demands of jobseekers are not, or not fully met, by employers. See Figure 1. below for explanation.

Figure 1: Employer and employee point of view



Source: Schumann – Sartain (2010): op. cit. 271.

[12] Kik a legjobb munkahelyek? – Tizedszer! A Legjobb Munkahely Felmérés 10 éve Magyarországon. <http://was2.hewitt.com>.

This chart clearly shows that at first the salary is greatly appealing. This can be higher or lower in between age groups. Employers don't think informing employees about salary is important, most of the advertisements promise a "competitive salary", from which the jobseeker can't really find out anything useful. The candidates more often than not only hear a full offer at the last stage of their interviews.

The biggest expectations are the same amongst employers and employees. These are professional advancements in specific field, and emphasize company stability and credibility.

The companies find their most valued and distinctive traits are their success, the quality of their products and services, and international background. This message falls on deaf ears amongst jobseekers, even though from quarter to a third of the companies do advertise themselves in this topic.

Companies in Hungary still see the classical traits and advantages as a vital part of their employer image. They tend to become more appealing, if more and more talented people take notice, and if company values are clearly communicated towards the segments of the job market. The practice of the biggest companies clearly shows that an all-around talent and workforce management aspect needs to be in place. Messages need to be communicated not only inwards, but outwards as well; these all add to the credibility of the employer. Employer's promises need to be in line with human practices and resource systems, which can make the employers more motivated and strengthen their loyalty.^[13]

Employer brand building, talent magnets in HR strategy

The first step in achieving business goals is to define a company strategy, which provides a framework for the operation of the HR department. According to Magdolna Csath, "*HR is a functional strategy, and needs to serve the company's overall strategy. HR needs to -with its own tools - support the improvement of competitiveness.*"^[14]

In the opinion of higher managements HR's current strengths are training and development, and the importance of improvement.^[15] They also mentioned evolvement of company culture, effectiveness-evaluating systems as a well working HR activity.

Amongst the leaders asked, the view on HR's effectiveness is thought to be low, only every tenth manager said that career building is a thing at their companies. Obtaining and keeping talents will be HR's biggest challenge of the next 3-5 years. This is followed by the motivation of employees, strengthening their loyalty, and maintaining a system which rewards effectiveness.

[13] Schumann, M. - Sartain, L. (2010): op. cit. 272.

[14] Csath, Magdolna (2010): *Versenyképesség - menedzsment*. Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest. 270.

[15] *A topvezetők dicsérik a HR-t*. <http://www.vg.hu/vallalatok/karrierklub/a-topvezetok-dicserik-a-hr-t-333145#>.

Because of the changes in the job market HR can't be the same as it used to be: HR's role is to acquire and keep the talents. These talents make up the values the management and owners require. To acquire said talents, an employee brand needs to be in place. Besides this, three other groups are essential:

- *HR specialists*, who create policies to support the employer brand, the company culture, improving on talents and corporate initiative
- *HR recruiters*, or generalists, who bring in, build up or borrow talents
- *HR leaders*, who enforce and manage policies and processes

HR strategy's first and foremost issue: building a group out of competent employees, which can make the companies' goals happen. Strategic planning is one of the basics in survival in the world of business. Its vital part is system management: connecting departments, quality and knowledge management, change management, and inserting HR strategies into the strategic leadership systems. A balance needs to be made between business goals and the HR strategy, the business culture and separate human resource systems. Furthermore, employees have to be directed to a clear goal, and they need to be made loyal so these goals can be achieved.

It's a common practice in companies to hire leaders from outside as well as training out the most talented ones. Combining these two methods is surely effective, since people from the outside freshen up the organization, but by keeping the more valuable inside workforce they can not only benefit the company, but improve their own knowledge and skills for themselves as well. Even though a talent management program costs time and money, it's still cheaper to find someone internally for any vacancies, rather than to pay headhunter fees and train the new employee. A talent-training program that works well can withhold fluctuation, and this lowers the costs even more for any organization.

When introducing these talent-training programs, clear and honest communication is the key. Employees need to be informed in several ways (company newspaper, group and personal meetings, intranet) about the goals of this program, what it is all about, what it takes to get in and how many people will be selected.

Roughly 5-10% of the employees are considered to be the real talents. Actually picking these people out is a multi-phased process. First, objective aspects can be used in the choosing process (i.e.: higher education, advanced knowledge of a foreign language, etc.). In the next step, the supervisors and leaders are asked about the workforce, whose efficiency they find extraordinary, or who has specialised knowledge needed for the department in question.

Most companies use slightly different "talent measuring" tests. It's worth bringing a consulting agency on board when it comes to picking this talent. Their opinion is much more objective. Most organizations even pay to establish so-called appraising centres (AC).

These ACs are open, candidates can see each other's performance, and they accept the results more easily.

More often than not the last stage is a structured interview, where bringing in someone from the outside is providential. The HR department can try as they

might, even if the talent management program is well communicated, a perfect introduction is almost never feasible. Informal channels can't be blocked out altogether, and someone, or several others might hold information back.

For the chosen, extra labour awaits. Since their effectiveness can be measured on an objective level, the ones who have not lived up to expectations get expelled from the group.

In conclusion, it can be said that finding and keeping talent can't be done like it has been in the past. Everything changes, even the growing new generation, whose demands need to be met by HR management. This needs to be taken into account in every company when planning and executing HR strategies, and this of course imposes a great challenge for skilled workers and management alike.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

A HR-el foglalkozó szakemberek számára már régóta ismert tény, hogy a vállalatok/vállalkozások számára hosszú távon megéri, ha erőfeszítéseket tesznek arra, hogy a munkavállalók jól érezzék magukat a munkahelyükön, valamint a cégük vonzó legyen a munkaerőpiacon. A munkaadók nagy problémája a közeljövőben az lehet, hogy nem képesek elég szakembert felvenni a hazai piacaikról a további növekedés fenntartásához és a jövedelmezőség megtartásához. Így a tehetségek felkutatásában és megtartásában az eddigieknél hatékonyabb módszerek használatára kényszerülnek. Különösen érvényes ez a megállapítás az Y és a Z generációkat illetően. Ma Magyarországon kevés cég fordít figyelmet munkáltatói hírnevének mérésére és nyomon követésére. A legismertebb munkáltatók közül csupán minden második szervezet jelenik meg egységesen összeállított és kommunikált toborzási arculattal, és minden ötödik biztosítja folyamatos kommunikációs kampánnyal a vállalat munkáltatói minőségének hangsúlyozását a tömegkommunikációs eszközökben. A tanulmányunkban egyrészt felvázoljuk az Y és a Z generációk munkahely-választásának sajátosságait, másrészt a munkáltatóknak a tehetségek megszerzésének és megtartásának lehetőségeit a HR stratégián keresztül.

The regional media's chances – or under double pressure in a competition



A superficial view of regional media in Hungary is that it is not worth researching because it does not exist: Regional television channels and regional radio stations have been abolished, real regional newspapers do not exist. In spite of the fact that the above statements do not cover the whole truth, it is worth dealing with these sentences a little more in depth. People who question the existence of regional media usually support their statements with following arguments: There is no need for regional media, because the national one can perform its tasks and functions, as the local one fulfills its role. Regional *media* cannot perform an actual regional function, or its standard is not good enough, or because it is not viable economically. In my paper I would like to refute these statements. In Hungary research on the press and the media emphasises mainly the market aspect; it aims at a somewhat bigger audience. This alone is not sufficient to consider the statement of admission to be scientific. Only a few analyses with a scientific claim have been published. Fokasz Nikosz writes about news trends in the press; however he deals with the national press only. The media science institute researches the media consumption of Hungarian expats. The local press is researched only by Laszlo Zöldi. For this reason I considered it important to focus on regional media under a double pressure - against the national one - and prove that it can be competitive with the local media.

Before we deal with the misbeliefs and their refutations, let us define the term “regional media”. The question is most precisely answered by the Media Act. According to the legislation definition „Regional media service is the media service that’s transmission area is greater than that of the local media, but the population of its transmission area is less than half of the country’s population” (Mass Comm. Act 2010). The definition of local media service is based on the number of residents in the transmission area. If the transmission area covers one city, it will be maximised in 500.000 residents, if it is more than one settlement, the maximum resident number will be 100.000. As a consequence, regional media is a media that, if it covers one city, will be available to more than 500.000 residents; if more settlements, to more than 100.000 residents, but less than half of the country’s population.

According to the frequency allocation published on the home page of the National Media and Info Communications Authority (NMIA_1, 2015), 17 regional radio

stations operate on the 100MHZ USW length, out of which 11 are available in Budapest, 4 in Miskolc, one in Nyíregyháza and in Eger, respectively. Following the linear radio media service competition initiated by the media authorities, 19 radio stations were considered successful. From these 9 are in Budapest, 3 in the agglomeration of Budapest (Radio Maria, Catholic Radio, Radio Lánchíd), one in Miskolc, one in Nyíregyháza, and 5 in various multiple settlements (NMIA_2, 2015). From the latter 3 can be linked to Miskolc as well. Even if we consider those, in terms of the availability of regional radio stations, Budapest's dominance is obvious in both cases.

Regarding television, 19 regional linear audiovisual media service stations are registered (NMIA_3, 2015), 15 of which are based in Budapest. However, in this case the location of the station is irrelevant, as cable service providers enable coverage throughout the country. A few examples of this category of stations are: Film Mania, Spektrum Home, Fishing and Hunting, Parliament TV, Pax TV.

If we consider the intent of the legislator, county newspapers belong here as well, as their „coverage” includes multiple settlements, and they are available to more than 100.000 inhabitants. Though sold copies are below 100.000, if multiplied by the number of the actual readers it well exceeds that number. Based on content too they must be considered regional. Since the Pest Megyei Hírlap (Pest County News) ceased to exist, we can count 18 printed products.

Those who question the necessity of regional media claim that its functions are already covered by the national and local media. To decide if this statement is true or false, we have to examine the extent of regional news in a national and local media. My test subjects are the Déli Krónika, broadcasted by Radio Kossuth as a piece of national media, and the free council-sponsored newspaper named Győr+ as a piece of local media.

I examined the broadcasts of the Déli Krónika between the 19th and 28th of January 2015. During this 10 day period the most popular radio news included 18 news articles pertaining to the countryside, detailed as follows:

- 28. 2 (1 commentary and 1 news item) Surveillance cameras are installed in Kaposvár, New ambulances (Tiszaújváros, Mór, Szeged, Budaörs, Szigetszentmiklós, Érd).
- 27. 1 Flooded soil in the Alsó-Tisza region
- 26. 0
- 25. 1 Trains delayed between Győr and Veszprém
- 24. 1 Number of flu infections are increasing in Csongrád county as well
- 23. 2 Ócsa has reached its full capacity, Discussions to increase employment rate in Szeged
- 22. 1 (news) Road closure in Balmazújváros due to demonstration
- 21. 4 (3 commentaries, 1 news item) Wine conference planned in Eger, Shelter for the homeless renovated in Békés, Szeged university turns green + Fake ink cartridges found at Rajka
- 20. 3 (2 + 1 news with sound) Waiting list decreasing in Borsod, New factory in Székesfehérvár + Fake bank cards

19. 3 (2 + 1 news item with sound) Homage to victims of air catastrophe in Hejce, Community development program in Debrecen + Unlicensed meat in Zala county.

To be able to place the above data it should be taken into consideration that in the 20 minute program there is only 1.5 minutes for a piece of news.

At the same time it is worth examining if more news could fit into the program. The only newspaper I monitored during the same time interval (between 19 and 28 of January) is Kisalföld, resulting in the following 15 articles that would have been worthy of a national news program as well:

- 23. (updated on the 29th) Closure of Tescos in Győr: properties for rent and/or sale
- 28. Head injury caused by falling tree – casualty rushed to Győr by air ambulance
- 28. Three times murderer sentenced to 40 years in Győr
- 28. Solution for overcrowded trains? Hourly IC train service to be installed on Csorna-Győr-Budapest line
- 27. Rats running among the children in playground in Győr
- 27. Strategic agreement between the Government and NEMAK Győr Kft.
- 26. Medical miracle – severed arm stitched back on and moving
- 23. Shock: 107 illegal border crossers caught on two trains in Győr
- 23. Little girl drowned in toilet – verdict in Győr: no one to go to prison
- 23. Roma mayor of Acs ID-ed
- 22. Conductor called passenger a cheat for using civil servant's discount
- 21. Mayors work together to build Euro Velo 6 bicycle road
- 17 mayors from the banks of the Danube from Győr to Szentendre signed a mutual agreement
- 21. Successful project of 140 million Ft at university in Győr

The two-year project aimed at the promotion and promulgation of scientific results at Széchenyi University.

- 21. Government promises a road between Sopron and Csorna
- 19. Fellow patients witness suicide jump at hospital in Győr

Based on the above findings it can be established that there would have been enough regional news, but the national news did not deal with them because it was not created for that purpose. This is also without mentioning the fact that these 15 pieces of news originated from one county only, therefore, due to their quantity as well, the national news could not have included them. In summary it can be ascertained that national media is not able to cover the functions of the regional news service. It should also be emphasized that the above analysis did not include the whole program of Radio Kossuth, but solely one segment of it, the Déli Krónika.

We shall now take a look at the local media. During the same time interval 5 articles appeared with regional news in the Győr+. The issue of the 23rd January includes an article „Road to avoid Győr from the East, and the issue on the 30th has an article titled „Fatal accident on motorway M1 (and subsequent closure and diversion)”, „NEMAK: the strategy of development (the government signed a strategic letter of agreement with the Mexican NEMAK Győr Kft located in the Győr Interna-

tional Industrial Park)”, „Third anniversary of the hospital helipad. The helicopter makes fifty life-saving trips every year’, „University overview: where to?”

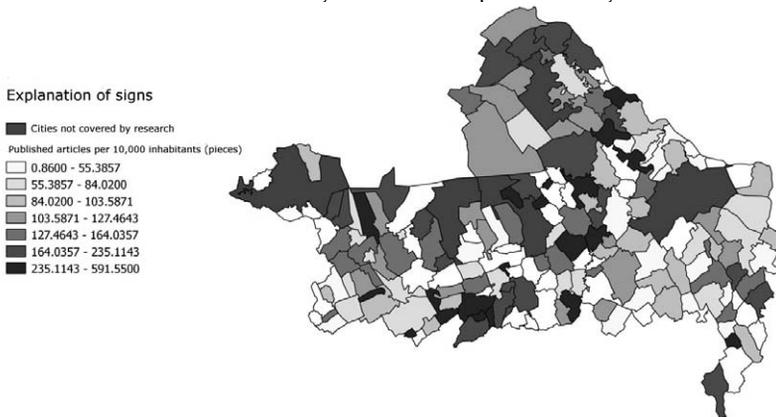
Considering all the above it can be stated that neither the national radio station nor the local daily covers regional functions, and they are not designed for that purpose either.

Some argue that regional media is unnecessary as it is not able to cover the entire region, because they only broadcast from the city where they are based. To refute this I am citing the analysis of the local daily, *Kisalföld*. In the program titled „The Győr Vehicle Production Region as the new direction and means of regional development” we have examined the connection between the number and length of the articles written about a certain settlement and the distance of this settlement from where the newspaper headquarter is based.

In our study we examined 294 issues from 2013. We didn't deal with the large towns such as Győr, Sopron and the medium sized towns such as Mosonmagyaróvár, Csorna and Kapuvár, since they already have designated pages in every issue. We examined the quantity of the articles, the cover page appearances, the length of the articles and we compared those with the distance from the city where the publishing company is based, so basically the distance the correspondent needs to travel in order to write the article.

The number of articles per 10,000 residents is depicted on the map (figure 1.). It can be seen that even though there are blank areas, these cannot be definitely linked to the distance. It is obvious that the newspaper dealt more with the small towns halfway between Győr and Kapuvár, Győr and Mosonmagyaróvár, to the benefit of Abda, Lébény, Ásványráró, Rábapatona and Enese, respectively. Around Sopron you can see Fertőd in darker colours, around Mosonmagyaróvár it is Jánosomorja, Hegyeshalom, Rajka, Dunakiliti, and to the South Tét and Beled.

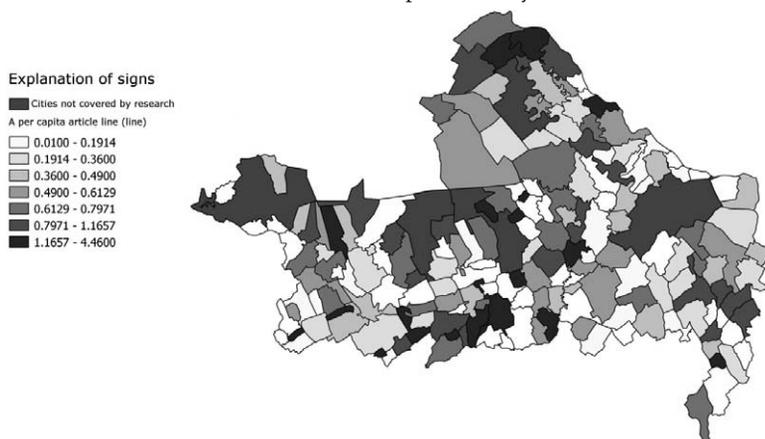
Figure 1: Number of articles per 10,000 residents in the 2013 issues of *Kisalföld* in Győr-Moson-Sopron county



Source: own edition based on data in *Kisalföld*.

Figure 2. shows the same except it is based on the length of the articles instead of their quantity. The two maps are almost the same, so with the distance from Győr the length of the articles does not either.

Figure 2: Number of article lines per resident in the 2013 issues of Kisalföld in Győr-Moson-Sopron county



Source: own edition based on data in Kisalföld.

Even common sense dictates that neither the amount nor the length of the articles decreases with distance. It is in the newspaper's interest to cover all areas in the region; failing to do so would ruin its reputation. Why would it be regional/countywide, if it didn't deal with a settlement just because it is too far away from the location of the newspaper headquarters? Therefore they monitor the frequency of articles about each settlement and if there is a longer gap, they will create one even if nothing special happens.

Capital residents are often astonished about the severity of cultural and other values of the countryside, about the existence of newspapers, television and radio. Usually they are the ones to argue for the unnecessary of regional media, referring to its low standards. Table 1 demonstrates the opposite; it shows that journalists who work in the countryside are able to perform at the same level as their counterparts from the capital.

Table 1: Performance of a journalist from the countryside in Radio Kossuth

	November	December	January
Number of days his writings appeared	26	28	29
Redaction-hosting	5	3	6
Interview, report, commentary	53	66	70

Source: own research.

He did all of these in 11 programs: Jelenlét (Presence), Hajnal-táj (Dawn), Közelről (Close-up), 180 perc (180 Minutes), Szombat délelőtt (Saturday Morning), Szombat délután (Saturday Afternoon), Vasárnap délután (Sunday Afternoon), Belépő (Entry), A hely (The Place). Beforehand this person had worked in regional media, just like the majority of the countryside correspondents working for the radio station. Obviously he is successful in the national programs of Radio Kossuth, otherwise his employment would have been terminated a long time ago.

Although maybe a weaker argument, but since opponents of regional media often claim that it is not economically viable, it is still worth an examination. Table 2 shows the number of copies of the county and national newspapers. I would like to point out that the copy number of the historically leading news source, Népszabadság, has decreased from 108,000 to 43,000 in 6 years, and at the same time Kisalföld's copy numbers decreased from 76,000 to 64,000. This means that while the national newspaper lost 60% of its readers, the regional one lost only 16% of them.

Table 2: Number of newspaper copies between 2008 and 2014

Title	Sold copies altogether during the first 6 months of 2008	Sold copies altogether during the first 6 months of 2013	Sold copies altogether during the first 6 months of 2014
Kisalföld	75819	65401	63772
Vas Népe	53761	43891	42878
Zalai Hírlap	52519	42117	41202
Népszabadság	108503	49189	43571
Magyar Nemzet	59231	38708	37539
Népszava	22447	15245	14001

Source: own edition based on MATESZ data.

If assumed that the selling rate is linked to the economical power of the newspaper and accepted that just like in every other economical context it is true for the media as well, that only the economically powerful companies can subsist, then we have to ascertain that the local daily is by no means weaker than a national one.

After the analysis of the data released by the National Media and Infocommunications Authority (Table 3) it can be stated that between 2011 and 2013 the same happened with regards to the local media: the regional stations were more lucrative than the local ones.

Table 3: Profit of local and regional electronic media between 2011 and 2013

	Produced profit			Produced loss			Even		
	2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013
Local radio	47%	53%	69%	46%	39%	31%	7%	8%	0%
Local TV	54%	37%	55%	43%	55%	37%	3%	8%	8%
Regional radio	50%	70%	62%	44%	30%	38%	6%	0%	0%

Source: own edition based on NMIA data.

In the research mentioned earlier we also examined the question: where do local citizens get their information? Then we examined the relation of local and national versions of the same media type to the local and national information collection based on all the answers. (Table 4) 2706 people answered the question regarding their information source of national news and 2712 the question regarding news of their close environment. Concerning the media, local and regional news is read in the newspapers, national news is viewed on national TV channels.

Table 4: Differences between references to local/regional and national media

media	national (2706)	local, regional (2712)
weekly newspaper	193	1024
daily newspaper	422	998
national TV	3151	632
commercial radio	531	832
online	729	456
networking	1173	1560

Source: own edition based on answers in FAQ.

From the comparisons it can be ascertained that people use more local printed media for local news than for national news, regardless of the frequency of the issues (daily or weekly). However, concerning national news people predominantly use national TV and the Internet. This means that people are willing to pay for local information, but not, or very seldom, for national news.

In sum, this writing tells us that regional media definitely has a place, as it is able to meet its objective. Its role is covered neither by national nor by local media. It is economically self-reliant and is even able to compete with national media. Journalists working in local daily are competent enough to perform at the same level as their counterparts in the national media.

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HUNGARIAN SUMMARY

A magyarországi médiarendszerben a legnehezebb a regionális média elhelyezése. A nehézséget az okozza elsősorban, hogy a felületes szemlélő szerint olyan, hogy regionális média nem is létezik. Hiszen a regionális televíziók kapuira éppúgy lakat került, mint a regionális rádiókéra, tényleges, valódi regionális újságok meg nem léteznek. Ezek a mondatok már önmagukban sem fedik le a teljes igazságot, de ennek ellenére érdemes mélyebben megvizsgálni az állításokat. Azok, akik megkérdőjelezik a regionális média létezését, általában a következő érveket szokták felsorolni: nincs szükség a regionális médiára, mert egyrészt az országos, másrészt a helyi ellátja a feladatát. Az is gyakran elhangzik, hogy azért nincs rá szükség, mert nem tud ellátni tényleges regionális feladatot, vagy mert nem életképes gazdaságilag. Végül a regionális média létét tagadók szerint azért sincs rá szükség, mert nem megfelelő a színvonala. Írásomban tényekkel cáfolom ezeket az állításokat.

BOOK REVIEW

Crowdfunding – sooner or later all of us will turn innovator



Kevin Berg Grell – Dan Marom – Richard Swart (2015): *Crowdfunding. The Corporate Era*.^[1]

A book by Kevin Berg Grell, Dan Marom and Richard Swart titled „Crowdfunding: The Corporate Era” contains five chapters, and guides the reader in the shape of case studies through the incredibly wide spectrum a crowdfunding campaign can be used for, save for the non-marginal fact that we can raise funds by it.

Total funds raised on Indiegogo website increased by 1,000% in two years.^[2] This figure can in itself arouse anyone’s interest in raising funds from crowds, i.e. crowdfunding. On the other hand, the figure also shows that this is not only a successful campaign, but a novel method of financing innovation. As ever accelerating innovation creeps into our daily lives, we, deliberately or not, are becoming parts of developments. We support a company’s innovative activities not only by purchasing its products, but by several other means. These methods are demonstrated by this book on crowdfunding, published in November 2015. The collecting of goods for some reason is as old as the birth of private ownership. Nevertheless, these collecting activities set some kind of religious, charitable or cultural, but in any event social and non-profit, goal. It is, however, a novel phenomenon for an individual or even a big company to raise funds for themselves, with the aim of making profits on their own. And crowdfunding methods achieve exactly this goal.

The biggest challenge of financing innovation is that it is unpredictable how much money it costs to reach the point at which it can be seen whether it will bear fruit financially or not. Ideas that flop too late are the most costly. The investor thus finances uncertainty, and not business.

Financing innovation will a particularly important issue in Hungary in the coming couple of years. The transformation of the structural funds of the Euro-

[1] Elliott and Thompson, London. 218 p.

[2] See: www.indiegogo.com/contact/press.

pean Union, and refundable grants brought to the fore are to be expected. This way the system providing companies with funds to be spent on innovation activities will totally change. Henceforth, it is especially timely to demonstrate novel methods of financing innovation.

Globally, there are numerous means aimed at reducing uncertainty in marketing the results of innovation:

- devise special enterprise development strategies^[3]
- search only for companies with traction (i.e. having turnover and a professional past)
- use state funds at the beginning of the process
- search for the best solutions in incubator “factories”
- organise contests, and invest in their winners
- raise funds from a community or fan club.

The latter is called crowdfunding. It originally meant that a population, or „crowd”, adds up contributions to fund a development, which can thus be fulfilled. After that it was realised that crowdfunding not only yields a pool of money, but much more.

The book’s list of authors also guarantees that the reader has the best summary of the topic of the last decade in his hands. Kevin Berg Grell was one of the first researchers to realise the use of crowdfunding. With his works he laid the basis for dismantling several legal obstacles standing in the way of crowdfunding. Previously, Dan Marom published several books on this topic, and has spent time managing Israeli start-ups. Richard Swart, lecturer at the University of California, Berkley, is the organiser of the first scientific-level research on crowdfunding.

The most important benefit of crowdfunding is that it brings together innovators with the market. Developers need to “take to the streets” to acquire customers, and tell them what the “product” is, and how much they have to pay for it. The innovator, as well as his investor, face feedback at the very beginning of the process, i.e. before squandering the investment on developing a product not in demand by anyone. Or, he touches on success at the beginning, manifested in the large number of endorsers, and it immediately turns out that he has found something worth developing. Bringing market tests of a product forward, to the initial phase of development, promises amazing growth in efficiency. It means we can confront potential customers even when we have neither a prototype, nor an investor.

The book analyses in detail that crowdfunding does not substitute traditional venture capital. It is not a competitor to it, but rather serves to complement it. It can be used at a later phase, mostly during testing and reflection. It helps create some kind of scalable business model that has traction, that is to say, turnover. It also makes it possible for seed financing to enter the product development process at a later stage. What does an investment-ready start-up have?

[3] Blank, Steve - Dorf, Bob (2012): *The Startup Owners Manual*. K&S Ranch, California.

Technology, a product with a good value proposition, a good team, a bunch of early users, small turnover, as well as some results of market tests: these are the results one can obtain by launching a crowdfunding campaign. Moreover, if lucky, one can even take steps further on the road of development.

By starting a crowdfunding campaign one can involve several resources for enterprise development other than money, the most important of which are the following: tracing who are the ones who not only use, but like the product (affinity group); gaining market feedback; testing price determinations; sharing investors' risks; widening the partnership network; obtaining IP; bringing to surface creativity produced as a "by-product" at the organisation; and saving the best employees who, based on their own ideas, would like to build their own enterprise, maybe one competing with their parent company.

All these constitute an immense business advantage also for a big company interested in innovation. In the case of a small enterprise it can be decisive regarding its survival whether or not it needs to pay for the above functions as a service at times when it does not have the resources for these anyway. Either way, there will be unnecessary developments on the market, but amount of costs they entail matters.

The second chapter of the book demonstrates through corporate examples that a crowdfunding campaign can fully take over the following three phases of product development:

Market validation: In traditional trade one has to obtain the necessary capital, then develop the product, and in the end manufacture and sell it. In the case of a crowdfunding campaign we publicise a very early phase of product development, or even only the idea, with the aim of providing the capital necessary for further development and manufacture. It is the customers who act as financiers, so the traditional process of product development described above changes.

Searching for a market for the product: The majority of products are developed by big companies. They already have an established customer base, so before developing a new product they explore what new needs this base has, and strive to meet these. As for smaller enterprises, development centres around a single product, but most of the time nobody can guarantee that there will be demand for it, and especially that it will be able to carve a market share. A successful crowdfunding campaign means great assistance to this end.

Building a committed customer base: Many products become trends in the field of innovation, and express that their users are modern and open-minded persons. The product is not simply purchased, but it exerts an identificative power. Committed customers who serve as advertising spaces represent a huge value for a company.

- The book showcases four models of crowdfunding:
- debt-based: backers provide loans, and expect interest yields in exchange;
- equity-based: backers buy shares of the project, so they too profit financially if it succeeds. Such service is offered for example by CrowdCube;

- rewards-based: backers expect some kind of reward in exchange for their support. The reward itself is usually the opportunity to buy the first marketed product, but it can also be only a T-shirt or a symbolic object. Kickstarter and Indiegogo belong to this category;
- donations-based: backers give their support to the fundraiser without charge, in order to reach a specific goal. YouTube, for instance, runs such a service. A big advantage of this model is that one can continuously gather contributions, as, in the absence of rewards, one does not need to set a deadline for the campaign. One does not need to define whether the campaign succeeded or flopped, as each contribution is a great help for the campaigner. The big disadvantage of this model is, however, that if there are no goals and deadlines, donors feel less urgency to make contributions. A campaign usually lasts 30-50 days.

Crowdfunding websites are visited by people who are open to novelties, and are willing to voice their opinions and promote good products. They are willing to listen to pitches with pleasure. The developer does not have to jostle through the usual plethora of ads to be well-heard. It is particularly useful to let the audience raise questions, and not only make contributions. YouTube, for instance, offers a moderator opportunity, which serves to fulfil exactly this goal.

It means a real brain-cracker for big companies that their employees, having gained the necessary knowledge, and fed up with the inability to get through corporate bureaucracy, start up a new business of their own. By doing so, they often deal setbacks to their previous workplaces. The book gives examples of how owners of ideas can be moved towards joint enterprise development, or how to identify talents, and involve them in innovative activities.

One of the characteristic trends of recent campaigns is that they do not emphasise the name of the developer, because they give importance to the real intrinsic value of the product, and not to the circumstance whether fans of the brand would purchase a few items of it. A good example for this is the smart-watch campaign launched by Sony, omitting the Sony brand name itself.

Although crowdsourcing techniques are still in their infancy, there are visible trends reaching beyond the above-mentioned benefits. The websites promising a really interesting future are the ones that do not require the project owner to have the qualifications of an engineer to be able to develop a product. A good example for this is provided by the MESH platform introduced by Sony. These solutions blur the line between game and product development. They are similar to LEGO in that they can be constructed from separate components and be played with, topped by the promise of reaching profit at the end, which manifests in the shape of a concrete product. Engineering knowledge, as well as the internal functioning of the product are provided by the programme itself.

Minor backers are dissuaded from making contributions by the lack of knowledge whether the company performs well enough to meet its undertakings. They wonder if the product can really be developed utilising the pool of funds the company would like to collect. The book does not cover another trend

at this point, namely open innovation.^[4] This is usually understood as a process during which the developer makes the results of his research public, in order to let others use them. An extension of this is when we do not publicise research data, but the evaluations of single projects.

Myriads of organisations deal with the evaluation of RDI projects. Banks, funding agencies, venture capital firms and pitching competitions are the things representing the huge amount we spend on evaluating ideas and enterprises. A lot of these exert a motivating effect. For example, if a business wins financing in the framework of the EU's Horizon 2020 programme, there is good reason to believe that it is a serious company with serious plans. If the evaluation of this company were made public, backers would be encouraged to make contributions more boldly, because they would be sure that their contributions have a good chance of getting to the right place. If evaluation cornerstones were made public, the risks taken by small backers would be mitigated, and the approach would gain traction that crowdfunding is not a charitable activity not expected to result in efficiency, but a business activity run by limited sums.

Big companies can also utilise crowdfunding, a tool with which the motive is to generate competition for their internal product developer and innovation teams. Venture capital companies can invest in trends that do not relate to the core activities of the parent company.

If large company endorses a crowdfunding project, it has to face two risks besides the several advantages. First, few projects get realised by the promised deadline. Postponing the time of delivery is usual, which can be embarrassing in the case of a big business. Bearing in mind that it has to do with innovation, the extension of the deadline is deemed natural. However, this can discourage backers from making further contributions, not to mention that it may occur that the product cannot be developed at all. Or, there arises a fault in the manufacturing process, and the backer is not rewarded, if arrangements on this were made before. It may also happen that the company simply withdraws the sum raised, and does not spend it on reaching the goals set previously. All these constitute a considerable erosion of prestige for the big company.

The other emerging problems are those connected to confidentiality and publicity. The strength of open innovation comes from the fact that copying an innovation is generally not as simple as it seems. Companies usually lose more on engaging in secrecy than they would on being the subject of theft. The losses incurring as a result of secrecy can be categorised into two major groups: the one relates to the phenomenon that during secrecy the market testing of a product is insufficient. In this case not only the sheer viability of the project is questionable, but also if functions are developed unused by anyone in the end. Also, are such functions omitted that need to be integrated into the product retrospectively?

[4] Chesbrough, Henry (2003): *Open Innovation*. Harvard Business School.

These entail a loss during development, and later during sales too. The other phenomenon causing loss occurs when something is developed that somebody else already has at hand. There could be partial solutions, employee skills or experience already gathered by somebody else, and they would even share them, if they were notified of the development of the specific product.

As noted earlier, Sony did not confer its brand name to a product developed during a crowdfunding campaign. This move ensured that nobody spotted that the idea was owned by an industry heavyweight, and thus worth stealing.

In today's economy the "winner takes all" principle rules, which means that there is neither room, nor time for fast followers to make real profits. More and more areas arise where the "winner takes all". We can observe that while several taxi providers operate in Budapest, Uber covers the global market alone. Such leaders are Airbnb or Waze too in their respective areas. While back in the day social networking websites existed only until the waves of fashion abated, an overwhelming majority of them have been crowded out of the market by Facebook, and there are no indications that this will change. So, it is that one has to be a leader all the time, and followers are outweighed in this new, innovative economy. Crowdfunding is exactly the method mitigating such effects.

The book is laced with readable, interesting examples and stories. It is just as digestible for company executives temporarily out of the treadmill, as for economists and businesspeople used to the rigid use of scientific definitions. This book can necessarily be recommended for those who would like their companies to be leaders in a given area, and for those who are inclined to engage in innovation, even if they do not yet understand how they will utilise the knowledge referred to here. Those dealing with innovation management can save a lot of money if they get to know the contents of the book.

Finally, this book can be recommend for those who would like to become a part of the future, and who spend some time and money evaluating and expressing their opinions, and perhaps supporting its first green shoots of the future. Let them be amongst the first users. Let them fascinate their environments that they are familiar with the latest trends, and have the answers for questions not even raised by others. Let them think about what kind of future they would like to live in. Let them be the advertising spaces of the future, talk about, cheer for and express enthusiasm for a novelty, as for most of them crowdfunding is none other than a novel method for technicised use of leisure time.

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Minerva baglya csak a beálló alkonnyal kezdi meg röptét.
(G. W. F. Hegel)

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- ◆ *Zoltán Ditrői* deals with the regional media in Hungary. He concludes that regional media definitely has an important place, because its role is covered neither by national nor by local media.
- ◆ *Endre Spaller* evaluates a book written about the crowdfunding, namely the practice of funding a project or venture by raising monetary contributions from a large number of people.

