

Białorusi do roku 2003 wynosiła 67 mln USD, co oznacza, że ponad 11% wszystkich inwestycji zagranicznych na Białorusi pochodzi z Polski.

Podsumowując powyższe rozważania należy zauważyć, że podlaskie przedsiębiorstwa w swej działalności na rynkach zagranicznych nie wykorzystują w pełni dogodnej lokalizacji względem rynku białoruskiego. W dużym stopniu jest to wynikiem ograniczonego za pomocą środków taryfowych i pozataryfowych dostępu polskich towarów do rynku białoruskiego. Dlatego jedną z możliwości aktywizowania współpracy polsko-białoruskiej może być rozwijanie powiązań kooperacyjnych.

EFFECT OF GLOBALISATION ON WORK PRACTICES IN A WORKPLACE

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This paper will examine the effect of globalisation on employment in the UK and the US in a context of new working practices. In this text 'globalisation' is defined as 'the intensification of worldwide social and business relationships which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by distant events and vice versa' (Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:869). The work practices here are post-collective bargaining systems such as 'flat' or 'flexible' organisation together with teamwork and outsourcing and the Japanese 'lean' production techniques. In this chapter we will present the critical viewpoint of globalisation and its benefits together with the resulting changes in a workplace.

Two viewpoints of globalisation

'Globalisation is the massification of segments... In almost all nations are identical segments for Bach, Bauhaus, bicycles, pitta bread, punk rock... What may start out as a small local segments... become gigantically global.'

Theodore Levitt 1983 (McQueen 2001:204)

According to David Buchanan and Andrzej Huczynski, two British Organisational Behaviour experts, globalisation as a set of trends and development processes started in the 1970s as a result of competition from low-cost manufacturing countries such as Japan, Hong Kong and Korea. Prior to that, the organisational models from the US were copied by the British and Continental companies. The management systems in Japan were investigated, found to be effective in obtaining high performance from the employees, and successfully implemented in many western countries. Since the 1980s the Scandinavian autonomous team model has been replicated in many companies all over the world.

Globalisation involves 'the death of distance', (Cairncross, 2001 in Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:38) which means that geographical distance between countries and various company locations becomes irrelevant. Global communication with internet, mobile telephones and satellite links aids this process. As does the development of free trade supported by national and international deregulation processes. The organisations such as the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), the Association of South East Nations (ASEAN), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the Council of The Baltic Sea State (CBSS), the European Union (EU) and the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA) all reduce the role of single states in its economic affairs (Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:38). The companies can move goods and currencies around the world and manufacture in low-cost countries.

Countries have become interdependent to a degree that frightens the critics of globalisation. The mobility of transport, communication and capital with no political barriers is beneficial to a few and damaging to many (Dowd 2004:217). According to Humphrey McQueen, the economic historian, the world trade that started in the 17th century initiated the whole process of the exchange of resources, manufacturing processes and manufactured goods between West Africa, North America and England. Imperialism (meaning: of empire) was a term used later to describe the exploitative nature of these relationships. The term 'globalisation' started being used in 1987 in a context of IT, international stock market transactions and communications (McQueen 2001:198). Until the 1970s the international trade was steered by national economies; now the reverse is the case. McQueen quotes from Lenin's 'Imperialism, The Highest Stage of Capitalism' of 1915 the three important elements which he sees in globalisation: the dominance of monopolies (now large transnational companies), the export of capital (now called financialisation by Dowd in Dowd 2004:180). The next factor which he sees as relevant is 'the division of the globe by the great capitalist powers', now the former colonies that supply cheap labour in a form of outsourced manufacturing facilities, and migration and as well as raw materials which are priced to benefit the former colonists (McQueen 2001:198).

Changes in the nature of jobs

The combined effects of globalisation, development in IT and migration changed the contemporary workplace in the last twenty years. The jobs have become polarised and are either service, or very sophisticated and requiring constant skill updating to match the latest technology. The routine manual and clerical work has been outsourced abroad with a resulting increase in unemployment in the US and the UK (The Economist 2004:106).

The new work practices have increased productivity and reduced workforce. The 'flat' organisational structures, also called delayering and restructuring removed layers of middle managers for operational and financial flexibility. 'Flexible firm' originated by Atkinson in 1984 (Armstrong 2004:224) applied the principle of increasing and decreasing employee numbers in line with requirements. Numerous companies in the US and the UK have cut down the numbers of full-time staff in line with a 'core' staff idea. The rest of workforce are made up of part-time, contract, temporary and self-employed workers. In the US, in 1996, only 55% of the workforce were in full-time employment (Schulman 2003:70). The 'core' workforce idea has been developed into a 'shamrock' model of organisation by Charles Handy, the British management consultant. The workforce here consists of three parts of which one is 'essential' (full-time), the second is peripheral (sub-contractors) and the third -flexible, i.e., part-time (Handy 1990:205). As a result of applying this model across the UK there are in the current year 2.5 mln people in short-term employment (Armstrong 2003:225). The flexible work pattern dispenses with job security and career progression and excludes employment benefits in a form of a sick pay, holiday pay and pension entitlement. Both the wages and administration costs are thus reduced.

This model has been further developed into a 'knowledge worker' or 'portfolio worker'. A traditional employment relationship has been replaced by a transactional period-defined employment based on a contract, usually a short-term one, and lacking employee benefits, as per flexible working pattern described in previous paragraph. In a 'knowledge worker' contract situation, 'talent and knowledge are purchased as and when necessary', according to Laurie Mullins (Mullins 2005:778).

The popular work pattern used in high-volume manufacturing and increasingly in many kinds of workplaces is teamwork. It has been found to increase job satisfaction of team members and to produce high performance. It also draws on a collective pool of talent and

improves decision-making. The critics of teamwork system emphasize the self-controlling nature of team. It needs no supervision, as team members supervise each other. A critical reflection on teamwork quoted in Mullins 2005 p.542 states:

While teamwork may be about empowering the workers, devolving responsibility, and reversing repressive workplace control structures, it can also mean intensifying attention. Instead of an individual exercising a degree of influence over their own work, they can now influence the work of the others in their team through suggestion, demonstration, and exhortation. Life in teams can be stressful as individuals are subject to intense peer pressure to conform to group norms.

Wilson, F.M. *Organisational Behaviour: A Critical Introduction*, Oxford University Press (1999), p.93

Finally, the Japanese systems of 'lean production' include Total Quality Management (TQM) and Just-In-Time (JIT) and together with Quality Circles (kaizen) are used in high-volume manufacturing. All these brought improvements to product quality, efficiency of processes and elimination of waste. From critical viewpoint, they are seen as 'management by stress', as defined by Parker and Slaughter, because of intensification of work with timed movements, reduced inventory and streamlined continuous production (Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:95).

From multicultural workplace to outsourcing

The demographic changes that effect the UK and the US lie within three areas: one-increasing numbers of working women; two-ethnic minorities' participation in a workplace; and three-the aging of the working population (Cassell 2005:405). Demographic predictions indicate that in 2007 the US workforce will have a participation of women of 47%, of workers of over 45-40%, and of ethnic minorities-27% (Guffey 2000:88). These trends are being addressed by many governments and companies via introduction of the new legislation effecting employment. In the UK; Sex Discrimination Act 1975, Race Relations 1976; 2000 and Disability Discrimination Act 1995 guarantees all participation in the UK workforce (Mullins 2005:775).

Foreign workers participation in the US workforce was 39% in 1994. This figure included all legal and illegal workers together with those on tourist or student visas. This 'low-skill jobs' sector has kept down the overall level of the wages in the US (Dowd 2004:175). Also, most companies have had to address the issue of relations between multicultural groups in a workplace. Cultural diversity training is commonplace in the US and increasingly so in the UK companies for the purpose of integrating ethnic groups and promoting tolerance and harmony. The popular initiatives include workshops, support groups and special training opportunities for targeted sections of the workforce. The critics of diversity training maintain that pointing out differences between different groups create hostilities and are generally disliked by all participants (Cassell 2005:410).

As demographic trends indicate lack of skilled workforce in the US and the UK, the governments encourage economic migration from other countries and large companies outsource their jobs abroad. Originally, outsourcing was defined as 'a situation in which an organisation sub-contracts to another supplier work that was previously performing in-house' (Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:875). Manufacturing in low-cost countries has been a common practice of global companies for many years. A new trend is to outsource service jobs as well; call centres, IT support, software, product development, accountancy, architecture and graphic design are increasingly supplied by countries that benefit from

influx of high-skill jobs. These include Mexico, Costa Rica, South Africa, India, Philippines, China, and Eastern European countries such as Hungary, Poland, Czech Republic, Romania, Bulgaria and Russia (Buchanan and Huczynski 2004:42).

The reason for outsourcing is not only a profit opportunity for businesses, but also the local labour retention problem. The company NCO

OneSource employs 22,000 people in the US in their call-centres and debt-collecting centres. It has started moving its jobs to India and the spokesman for the company concludes: "It's very hard to hire in the US"

(The Economist 30/10/04:101). One could also conclude that the working conditions as well as the stresses of the job cause high workforce turnover.

The working conditions in the outsourced factories in the Third World countries are on the average poor with low wages. These conditions are being compared to the 19th century conditions of early capitalism in Britain (Dowd 2004:204). In China, factory workers are paid about 60 Euros per month and working hours often exceed legal limits. 'The pressure on Chinese factories, already the lowest cost in the world, to supply goods even more cheaply is enormous', says Alexandra Harney (The Financial Times 19/3/04). Thus the cycle of pressure on reducing costs in order to compete on a global scale continues.

Conclusion

From the evidence presented above we can see that the accelerated pace of business competition created by globalisation exert pressures on businesses as well as workforce of many countries. In the UK and the US the workplace changes reduced numbers of available and already polarised jobs and the workforce has become impoverished in skills as well as income. The workplace changes, in turn, were introduced in order to compete with successful Far Eastern economies. The constant skills update the jobs require, and the flexible nature of labour market prompts global businesses to export their jobs to low-cost economies. Societies there, in turn, polarise and become destabilised. The section of the population that does not participate in outsourced jobs, migrate to the West and participate in low-skill, low-wage economies, like the UK. The foreign workers contribute to suppressing the overall level of wages. As a result of this cycle, no country seems to benefit from free trade. The questions are being asked about globalisation serving the public interest.

The European economists are of opinion that the globalisation process needs to be slowed down. The national governments have a role to play here, as they are ultimately responsible for the economies of their countries (Schulman 2003:180). The viewpoint of the UK and the USA business model recommends self-regulation by applying the concept of business ethics. Increasingly, globalisation also involves the media and the consumers who will monitor social responsibility of multinational companies. There is evidence that in response to customer and stakeholder attitudes corporate values are changing. Businesses want to be seen as operating within a sphere of business ethics. Global companies will increasingly accept global responsibilities towards societies in which they operate. As HRH The Prince of Wales said in his foreword to Grayson and Hedges's book (Mullins 2005:162):

For the business community of the twenty first century, 'out of sight' is no longer 'out of mind'. Global communications and media operations can present every aspect of a company's operations directly to customers in stark, unflattering and immediate terms. Those customers increasingly believe that the role of large companies in our society must encompass more than the traditional functions of obeying the law, paying taxes and making a profit. Survey after survey reveals that they also want to see major corporations helping to 'make the world a better place'. That may be in some respects a naive ambition, but it is, nevertheless, a

clear expectation; and one that companies ignore at their peril... It is immensely encouraging to find that there are business leaders who recognise the challenge of running their companies in ways that make a positive and sustainable contribution to the societies in which they operate. It is a huge task, not least in finding ways of reaching out to the thousands of managers at the 'sharp end' of the business, who, every day, take the decisions that have real impact on employees, on whole communities and on the environment.

HRH The Prince of Wales

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AKTYWNOŚĆ ZAWODOWA Kobiet A PRZEOBRAZENIA MODELU RODZINY W POLSCE

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Początków aktywizacji zawodowej kobiet należy doszukiwać się w okresie powstania Drugiej Rzeczypospolitej, kiedy to nastąpiło nadanie Polkom praw wyborczych w 1918 roku. Rozpoczął się powolny proces znoszący ograniczenia i dysproporcje w sytuacji prawno-ekonomicznej kobiet i mężczyzn. Obecnie sukces zawodowy niejednokrotnie wypiera plany rodzinne kobiet, które samorealizację i satysfakcję z pracy oraz niezależność finansową traktują jako główny priorytet życiowy.

Wejście kobiet na rynek pracy; aktywność zawodowa wykraczająca poza obowiązki domowe spowodowała zmianę pozycji społecznej kobiet. Przejęły one część odpowiedzialności utrzymania rodziny, dotychczas ponoszonej jedynie przez mężczyzn. Aktywizując się zawodowo, kobiety wkroczyły w życie społeczne, gospodarcze, polityczne i kulturalne, a więc w te strefy, które dotychczas były głównie udziałem mężczyzn i podstawą ich prestiżu społecznego, a przez to i rodzinnego. Przeobrażenia te miały niewątpliwy wpływ na