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Table of Contents

Editorial Board	2
Table of Contents	4
Paper 1: Of widows and widowers: ageing and widowhood in modern Greece (by Vasilis S. Gavalas)	5
Paper 2: The crisis of the Greek labour market: A Jobs Approach (by Alexis Ioannides)	19
Paper 3: Connecting Corporate Social Responsibility Strategies with Social Enterprises Policies in the concept of the European Union Policies for Sustainable Development (by Dr. Anastasios K. Sepetis, Dr. Gabriel Amitsis and MA. Marilena G Sanida)	35
Paper 4: Social-Ecological Systems in Local Fisheries Communities (by Eirini Ioanna Vlachopoulou, George O. Tsobanoglou)	59
Paper 5: Assessing Entrepreneurial Intentions of Secondary Education Students in Greece (by Dimitrios G. Ierapetritis)	73
Book Review	91
Call for Papers	93
Instructions to Authors	94

Of widows and widowers: ageing and widowhood in modern Greece

Abstract:

The characteristics of the widowed population and the life arrangements of widows and widowers are of the least explored aspects of the family cycle, at least from a demographic point of view. In this paper Greek censuses are used in order to study the evolution of widowhood patterns from 1907 to 2011. The study issues include mean age of the widowed persons by sex, proportion of males and females that are widows/widowers in selected ages, sex ratio of the widowed, and the reasons for the great differences in the family status of the two sexes. Results confirm that widowhood is mainly a female issue, as larger number of females experience widowhood at any age. The proportion of widows to widowers is increasing over time due to the greater gains of the females in life expectancy. Mean age of the widowed persons has also been increased, from around 59 and 56 years for men and women respectively in the beginning of the 20th century to 76 and 74 years of age in the beginning of the 21st century. However, the proportion of the population enumerated as widows or widowers in the censuses has been decreasing over the study period, something that is attributed to the greater propensity of widowed persons to remarry. The headship rates of widowed persons, their changes since the mid-twentieth century, and the probable causes for these changes, are also studied at the extent that census returns allow us to do this.

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Vasilis S. Gavalas¹

¹ Vasilis S. Gavalas, Corresponding Address: Department of Geography, University of the Aegean, Greece.
Email: bgav@geo.aegean.gr

1. Introduction

The transition from married life to widowhood is a critical point in the life of persons who experience it, because it triggers changes of demographic, economic and psychological nature. Very often this transition is accompanied by emotional stress, change of residence of the remaining spouse, degraded quality of life and economic predicaments. Economic difficulties are usually inflicted upon non-working widows, which lose an important part of their deceased husband's income. The consequences of losing a spouse differ between men and women and mirror sex differentials in the labour market, in social relationships and the power relationship between husband and wife during their married life.

From a demographic point of view, widowhood is a female experience more than it is a male one. Women are more likely to become widows and to stay in widowhood for a longer period than men do, for the following reasons: they live more years than men do, they usually marry men older than themselves (making it even more likely to outlive their husbands) and they are less likely to remarry because of the limited availability of male mates in old ages. In the age group 65 and over years of age the sex ratio is strongly feminine, and thus the "pool" of available male mates is small. On the other hand, cultural factors, even in the Western societies, encourage men to marry younger women, and therefore it is easier for a widower to marry a woman younger than himself, while the widows, and especially older widows, do not have access to an expanded "pool" of possible husbands.

Consequently, there are many more widows than widowers, and widows make up a greater part of the female population than widowers do for the male population. Moreover, in modern Western societies, widows are less willing to marry than widowers are. They prefer unofficial relationships to a marital union, which is often accompanied by housekeeping errands (Karlsson & Borell, 2002).

As far as Greece is concerned, the demographic and social aspects of widowhood have not been studied at length, although there are at least two studies on the financial and health-related consequences of this issue (Ahn, 2005; Pappa et al., 2009). The study on the financial consequences of widowhood is a working paper based on data from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) for the period 1994-2001. It compares 13 EU countries and it becomes obvious that the household income of the widowed persons in Greece is the second lowest (after that of Portugal) among the 13 countries in question. However, widowed persons in Greece have the highest share of home-ownership among the studied countries and therefore the difference in the household income decreases if one considers household income net of housing costs (Ahn, 2005:15).

Widowhood has detrimental effects on the health-related quality of life. A study based on a sample of 1007 Greeks living in Athens area (74 of which were widowed) showed that widowhood is associated with a deterioration in mental health aspects of quality of life. In a self-administered health questionnaire the widowed reported low scores in items such as social functioning, role limitations due to emotional problems and mental health. Vitality and general health are also inversely associated with widowhood (Pappa et al., 2009:247).

The present study focuses on the demographic profile of widows and widowers in Greece over a period of more than one century (1907-2011). It also investigates changes that took place in the composition of household heads during the second half of the 20th century as far as their sex, age and family status is concerned, which -changes- are related to the ageing of the population and transformations in the demographic profile of the widowed persons. In order to achieve this, the paper tries to answer the following research questions: what was the trajectory of the mean age at widowhood (for each sex separately) from the beginning of the 20th until the second decade of the 21st century (1907-2011)? What are the reasons for any variations in the mean age at widowhood? What changes took place in the proportions widowed by age and sex over the study period? What are the reasons of these changes? Are there any alterations in the headship rates related to ageing and widowhood? Do these alterations imply any social and cultural developments in the Greek society?

2. Methodological issues

Ideally, one should have at hand longitudinal data to study the demographic aspects of widowhood. An analysis of marriage cohorts would generate results such as age at first widowhood, duration of widowhood, age at remarriage (if applicable), and age at permanent widowhood, which would give us an insight on the issue. Unfortunately, as far as Greece is concerned, in national level there are no such published data. In local levels there have been family reconstitution studies for certain Cycladic islands (Mykonos and Paros), which gave us a knowledge for the long-term trends of the widowhood patterns in these islands (Hionidou, 1993; Gavalas, 2001). This paper investigates aspects of widowhood through the population censuses. One of these aspects is the mean age of widows and widowers. It is possible to calculate mean age of the widowed persons from census returns as one calculates a weighed mean in a frequency distribution table, where the numbers of widowed persons serve as weights in each age group. For 5-year age groups the formula is:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{x=10}^{100} (x+2,5) {}_5w_x}{\sum_{x=10}^{100} {}_5w_x} \quad (1)$$

Where “ ${}_5w_x$ ” is the number of widowed persons in the age group x to $x+5$. The maximum value of x is not always 100. This value is dictated by the data of the census. In some Greek censuses the last age group (which is open-ended) is 85+. In more recent Greek censuses (2001 and 2011) the last age group is 100+.

Nevertheless, the drawback of the censuses is that they are snapshots of the population in a certain moment in time. They record, for example, the family status at the date that the census took place. Yet, many of those who were recorded as “married” may have been widows or widowers in the past and by entering a second (or third) marriage they were enumerated as “married” in the census date. That is to say that from the Greek censuses one cannot have information on the number of widowed persons who have remarried. Moreover, because greater proportions of widowed persons remarry at younger ages, mean age at widowhood as calculated by census returns with formula (1) will be greater than the mean age at the dissolution of first marriage and will not be an exact representation of the age at permanent widowhood either.

Despite these drawbacks, census returns offer us the opportunity to study the evolution of widowhood patterns over time, even if the indexes one produces from census returns do not measure with accuracy age at widowhood, duration of marriage and extent of remarriage. Nevertheless, the long-term trends that loom through successive censuses (concerning the proportions of the population by age and sex that are widowed, the age at widowhood, the different structure of the households of the widows and the widowers) are enough to give insight in some aspects of the life of the widowed persons and to unravel the mechanisms that lead to the change of the widowhood patterns.

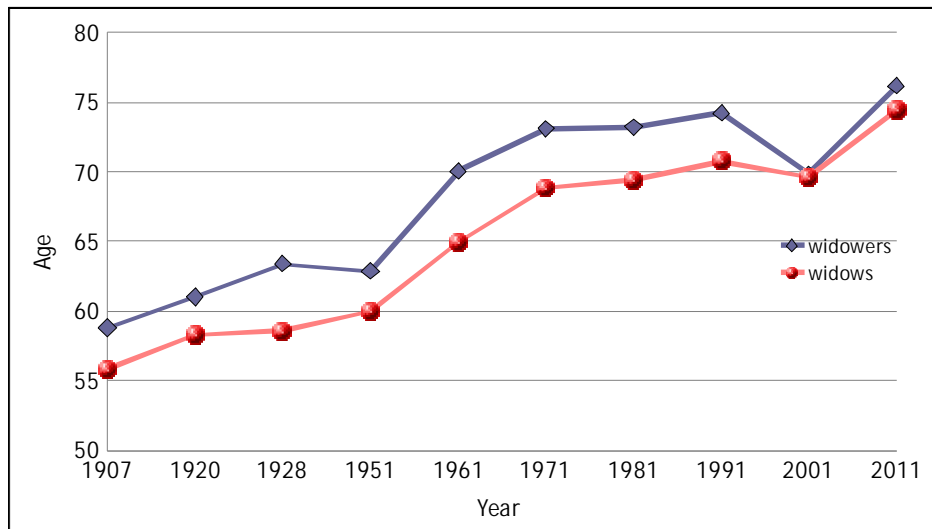
3. Results

Mean age of the widowed

In the beginning of the 20th century the mean age of widows was 56 years of age and that of widowers 59 years of age. The remarkable increase in life expectancy during the 20th century, depicted in figure 4, resulted in a continuous rise in the age at widowhood for both sexes (figure 1). In 2011 widowers were, on average, 76.2 years old and widows 74.5. This implies

that those who marry in the 21st century, all other things being equal, are expected to have greater duration of marriage than their great-grandfathers had had 100 years ago. “All other things being equal” means that the divorce rates have not changed during the last 100 years and that the age at marriage has not change either. None of these has stayed the same, and therefore the gain in the duration of marriage cannot be calculated by subtracting the age at widowhood in 2011 from the age at widowhood in 1907. Another factor that renders ages at widowhood as calculated from census returns incomparable, is the fact that the proportion of widowed persons who entered a second or a third marriage have increased over time (Gavalas, 2005). This means that the inherent inaccuracy of the mean age at widowhood as calculated from census returns, becomes greater as we approach nowadays. In any case, mean age at widowhood as calculated here is neither the mean age at the dissolution of first marriage nor the mean age at permanent widowhood. It is just the mean age that widows and widowers had had at the time of the census.

Figure 1: Mean age of widows and widowers. Greece 1907-2011.



Source: elaboration of census returns

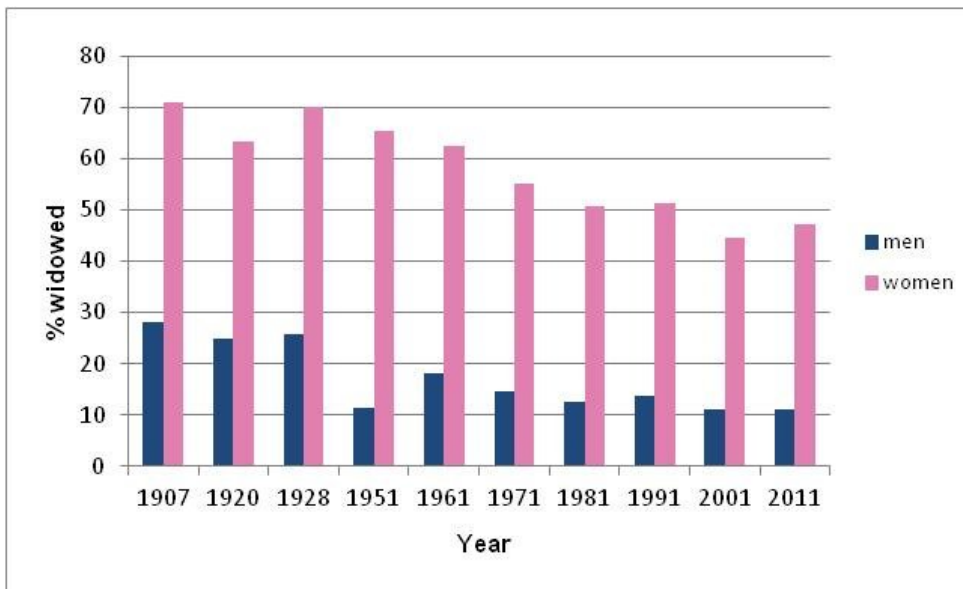
Proportions widowed by age and sex.

Figure 2 presents the elderly widowed persons (age 65+) as percentage of the total elderly population. It is clear that widowhood is predominantly a female experience.

Over time, the percentages of the elderly widowed persons are reducing. In the beginning of the 20th century more than 70% of elderly women (age 65+) were widows. This percentage has gradually declined to reach 45% in the beginning of the 21st century. A concomitant decline is observable in the percentages of widowers, though these percentages

are much lower than the female ones. In 1907 28% of the elderly men were widowers, while in 2011 only 11% of the elderly men were widowers. This fall in the proportion of widowed persons of both sexes is related with an increase in remarriages. Family reconstitution studies have shown that in the beginning of the 20th century a remarriage was rather unusual for women but not for men. Out of all weddings only 1% to 4% were second or third weddings for women and this percentage rose to 6% in the mid-twentieth century. For men the percentage of second or third marriages was between 6% and 11,5% in the beginning of the 20th century (Gavalas, 2005; Hionidou, 1993). Another factor contributing to the decline in the proportion of widows and widowers over time is the decline in the age difference between spouses. In 1907 a Greek groom was, on average, 5.5 years older than his bride. In 2011 this age difference had been reduced to 3.5 years (Gavalas, 2015: 115). The smaller the age difference between spouses, the shorter is the time between the death of the two spouses and therefore the duration of widowhood is also shorter.

Figure 2: Percentages of widowed persons in the ages 65+. Greece 1907-2011.



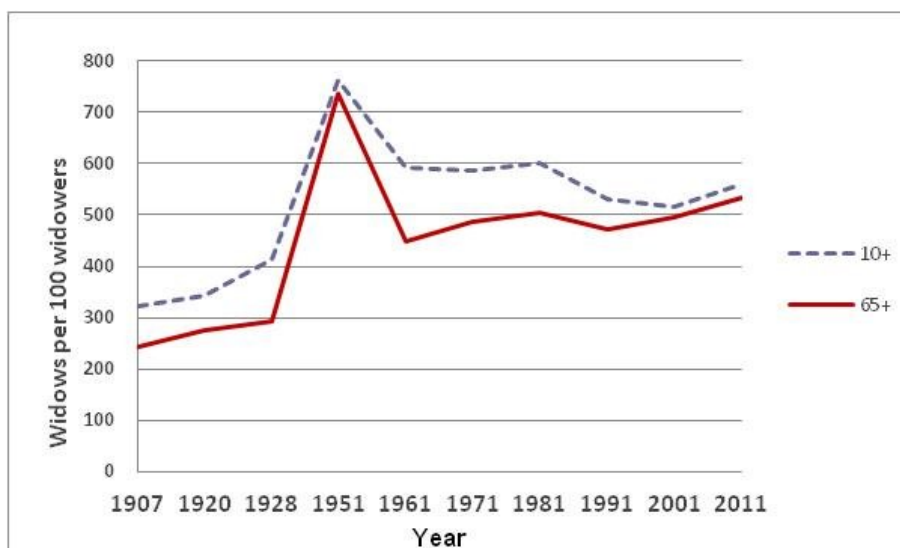
Source: elaboration of census returns.

It is also interesting to study the sex ratio of the widowed persons and the evolution of this sex ratio over time (figure 3). In the beginning of the 20th century (1907) there were 243 widows for every 100 widowers in the ages 65+. In the 21st century (2011) there are 534 widows for every 100 widowers. This trend is similar for the ages 10+. The gradual increase of the sex ratio of the widowed persons can be explained by the greater gain in life expectancy of women compared to that of men. Especially in Greece the improvements in male mortality rates that took place in the first half of the 20th century were slowed down by continuous wars

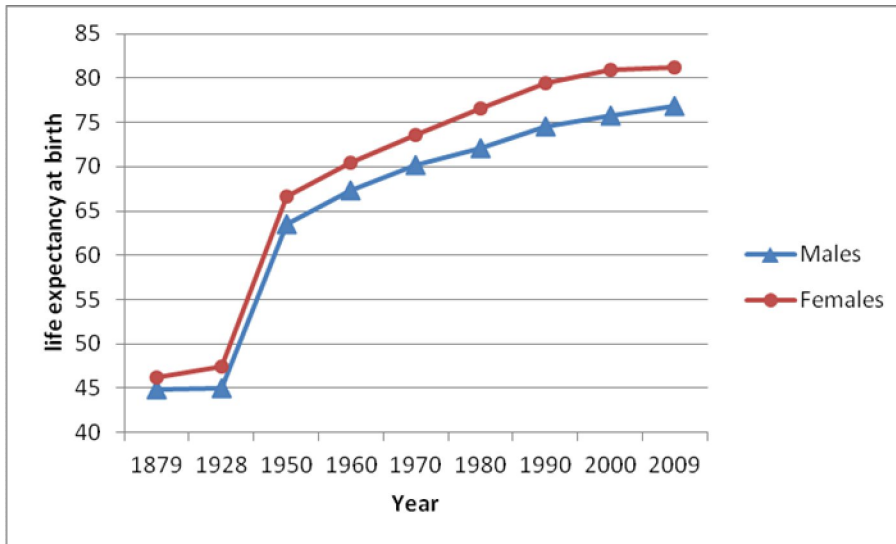
(Balkan wars 1912-13, First World War 1914-18, Campaign in Asia Minor 1919-1922, Greek-Italian war 1940-41 and Greek civil war 1944-49) that elevated the mortality of the male population relative to that of females. Figure 4 shows the greater gain in life expectancy of females relative to that of males over the 20th century.

The extremely feminine sex ratio of widowed persons in 1951 it is likely to reflect the excess mortality of males during the harsh years 1940-1949. About 13.000 Greek men were lost in the Greek-Italian war of 1940-1941 and another 80.000 in the Greek civil war of 1944-1949 (Clogg, 1986:164). Apart from that, there was an excess mortality of males in the famine that struck Greece in 1941-42. According to Valaoras (1946:218) the ratio of male to female deaths in Athens and Piraeus between October 1941 and June 1942 was 1.7, while in Mykonos the excess male mortality was even higher, reaching 2.4 male deaths for every female death between December 1941 and May 1942 (Hionidou, 1993:162). All these excess male mortality of the 1940s is reflected in the sex ratio of the widowed persons in figure 3. In 1951 there were 763 widows for every 100 widowers at the ages 10+ and 736 widows per 100 widowers at the ages 65+. In the next census, that of 1961, the sex ratio of the widowed persons dropped considerably, presumably for two reasons. First, young widows got married in the years after the war (which for Greece lasted until 1949), when more peaceful circumstances allowed marriages to take place. Secondly, the surplus of elderly widows recorded in the 1951 census did not exist in the 1961 census because gradually those widows passed away.

Figure 3: Sex ratio of widowed persons. Widows per 100 widowers at ages 10+ and 65+. Greece 1907-2011.



Source: elaboration of census returns.

Figure 4: Life expectancy at birth (e_0). Greece 1879-2009.

Source: modified from Gavalas, 2015:210.

By comparing figures 2 and 3 the reader will notice that, in the long run, the widows become increasingly more numerous than the widowers (figure 3), while at the same time the percentages of the widowed persons in the population are reducing for both sexes (figure 2). The explanation for this seemingly odd fact is that over the 20th century the percentage of widowers in the population has been reducing at a greater rate than that of widows. A reduction in the percentage of elderly widowers (65+) from 28% in 1907 to 11% in 2011, denotes a 60,4% drop over the period of one century. At the same time a reduction in the percentage of elderly widows from 71% to 47% denotes a drop of only 33,8%. Therefore, the sex ratio of the widowed becomes increasingly feminine, although the percentages of both widows and widowers in the population are decreasing over time.

Heads of households: married men and widowed women?

Although the term “head of household” or “household leader” sounds outdated in a modern society, population censuses keep using it, not only in Greece but in other European countries as well. According to the definition of the National Statistical Service of Greece (now called EL.STAT.) for the 2001 census “responsible of a household is the person that is a member of the household and the rest of the members acknowledge him/her as responsible because he/she takes important decisions concerning the household” (NSSG, 2007:XVIII). If the person recorded as “responsible of the household” by the enumerator is indeed the one who takes the important decisions concerning the household, it is a matter of sociological and anthropological research and it would be interesting to find out whether the above census

definition reflects any reality or not. In this paper the results of our analysis are commented as if the “responsible of the household” enjoys the status and the recognition of the leader from the other members of the household.

In their overwhelming majority Greek households are headed by a married man. In 1951 81.8% of the households were headed by men and only 18.2% by women (table 1). Fifty years later, in 2001, the percentage of households headed by women had increased to 27.5% and the percentage of households headed by men had decreased to 72.5%. Moreover, there was a change in the family status of the females that headed a household (table 2). In 1951 women who were recorded as “heads of households” were mostly widows (72%). In 2001 only 41.4% of women that headed a household were widows. Between 1951 and 2001 the percentage of divorced women who headed a household increased by a factor of four (from 2.6% to 10.4%), the percentage of married women who were household heads almost doubled, and there was a significant increase in the percentage of single women who were recorded as household heads (from 11% to 19%). On the other hand, in the case of the men who were enumerated as household heads, their family status has not changed dramatically between 1951 and 2001. Married men made up more than 85% of male household heads in 2001, while widowers that were headed a household were less than 5% in both censuses (table 2).

Table 1: Percent distribution of households by sex and family status of household head. Greece 1951 and 2001.

Households headed by	Census year	
	1951	2001
1) Male	81,8	72,5
a) single	6,9	6,8
b) married	71,4	61,8
c) widower	3,1	2,2
d) divorced	0,3	1,3
e) separated	-	0,4
f) not declared	0,1	-
2) Female	18,2	27,5
a) single	2,0	5,2
b) married	2,6	7,3
c) widow	13,1	11,4
d) divorced	0,5	2,9
e) separated	-	0,8
f) not declared	0,0	-
Total households (1+2)	100,0	100,0

Source: elaboration of census returns.

Note: The category “separated” (i.e. married people who do not live together and are not officially divorced) does not exist in the 1951 census. The category “not declared” (i.e. people who have not declared their family status in the enumerator) does not exist in the 2001 census.

Table 2: Percent distribution of household heads by sex and family status. Greece 1951 and 2001.

Family status of household head	1951		2001	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Single	8,4	11,1	9,3	18,9
Married	87,3	14,2	85,2	26,6
Widowed	3,8	71,9	3,0	41,4
Divorced	0,4	2,6	1,9	10,4
Separated	-	-	0,5	2,7
Not declared	0,1	0,2	-	-
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: elaboration of census returns.

Note: The category “separated” (i.e. married people who do not live together and are not officially divorced) does not exist in the 1951 census. The category “not declared” (i.e. people who have not declared their family status in the enumerator) does not exist in the 2001 census.

A different interpretation of the data is given by tables 3 and 4, which show headship rates calculated not over the total household heads but over the total population in each category. Comparing the two sexes, it is obvious that the percentage of widowers who are headed a household is not less than the percentage of widows who do so. In 1951 87.5% of widowers were household heads, while the respective figure for widows was just 48.3%. This difference may be explained if one looks at the age distribution of household heads. The majority of widows were household heads in the ages 25-54 in 1951. In older ages this percentage declines and it drops below 30% after the age of 65. This pattern probably means that the widows were household heads as long as they had unmarried children and especially unmarried sons. After the marriage of their children very often they moved in a new household (usually in that of a married son) and therefore they ceased to be household heads, since the new household was headed by the son or the son-in-law (Hionidou, 1993:85). On the other hand, (still talking about 1951) the percentages of widowers who were household heads do not decline by age. On the contrary they are increasing. In the ages 65 and above almost every widower was household head (99.6%). This could have happened either because proportionally more widowers than widows lived alone in their own households, or because the widowers that lived with their married sons continued to regard themselves as the head of the household.

In 2001 the percentages of widowers who were household heads had been reduced and they were at the same level as those of widows (approximately 64%). It is interesting that this decline was not only due to the decline of the elderly widowers who declared themselves as household heads, but due to a general decline (of widowers who were household heads) in

all ages. The decline in the elderly widowers who declared themselves household heads can be explained by the fact that in 2001 many more widowers lived in residential or nursing homes than in 1951. In younger ages, especially in ages under 45 years, the proportional fall in the headship rates of widowers in 2001 may imply that less widowers lived in their own households. The spectacular increase in life expectancy between 1951 and 2001, makes it feasible for these “young” widowers to live in their parents’ households.

Table 3: Male household heads by age and family status as percent (%) of all males in the respective category.

Age	Male household heads as percent (%) of all males in the respective category									
	1951					2001				
	Single	Married	Widowers	Divorced	Single	Married	Widowers	Divorced	Separated	
<25	3,9	38,0	26,2	21,8	3,2	48,9	4,3	5,7	3,0	
25-34	16,4	71,6	43,0	36,7	16,8	70,7	21,1	28,6	23,2	
35-44	35,7	88,4	73,0	55,7	31,0	78,5	37,3	43,9	40,1	
45-54	49,6	93,5	83,9	66,5	48,2	84,5	62,7	57,6	52,6	
55-64	54,7	94,4	80,4	73,8	60,0	87,8	75,0	66,0	57,7	
65+	45,5	87,7	99,6	65,5	62,1	87,1	67,1	66,2	51,8	
All ages	10,8	85,9	87,5	57,4	10,2	82,4	63,8	51,0	41,4	

Source: elaboration of census returns.

Table 4: Female household heads by age and family status as percent (%) of all females in the respective category.

Age	Female household heads as percent (%) of all females in the respective category									
	1951					2001				
	Single	Married	Widows	Divorced	Single	Married	Widows	Divorced	Separated	
<25	0,4	1,9	31,0	15,5	3,3	6,1	12,6	14,4	11,0	
25-34	5,6	2,1	59,8	37,7	17,6	10,0	33,4	45,1	36,6	
35-44	15,7	2,8	77,1	56,4	34,7	11,5	63,6	63,7	55,0	
45-54	26,6	3,6	68,6	58,5	48,2	11,1	75,7	68,3	56,3	
55-64	31,0	4,1	49,3	55,9	57,9	8,8	76,0	68,0	48,7	
65+	26,1	5,1	30,0	47,6	58,1	7,8	60,7	54,9	24,8	
All ages	1,8	3,0	48,3	47,5	9,9	9,8	64,0	60,0	44,4	

Source: elaboration of census returns.

4. Discussion

The mean age of the widowed persons was continuously increasing in Greece over the study period (1907-2011), passing gradually from 56-59 years of age in 1907 to 74-76 in 2011. This increase is partly owing to the great rise of life expectancy that was recorded in Greece during

the study period. Widows are on average older than widowers and this is mainly due to three factors: the age difference between spouses, the differential rate of remarriage between widows and widowers and the difference in life expectancy between the two sexes. As far as the first factor is concerned, husbands in Greece continue to be older than their wives, although this age difference has continuously decreasing in the last decades: from 5.1 in 1981, it went down to 3.5 years in 2011 (Gavalas, 2015:115). Regarding the second factor (the sex differential rate of re-marriage), less widows than widowers are getting re-married in the old age, thus remaining widows for longer period. And finally, the greater gain in life expectancy for women in the course of the 20th century contributes to the sex-differential mean age of the widowed.

The three above-mentioned factors are not only responsible for the fact that widows are on average older than widowers, but they are the reason that widowhood is a female experience more than a male one. Widows were always more numerous than widowers at every age and at any time of the study period. Furthermore, although the percentages of widowed persons are reducing in the population due to reduced mortality and an increase in remarriages, widows are becoming proportionally more numerous than widowers (i.e. there are more widows for every widower now, than in the past) because more widowers are getting remarried than widows.

Another topic of investigation as far as widowhood is concerned, is the changing social status of widows and widowers over time. This can be traced to some degree by looking at the headship rates of households. In the mid-twentieth century the vast majority of the Greek households were headed by a male who, in the most cases was married. Widowers made up 3.1% of household heads and widows 13.1%. In 2001 the percentage of widows who were headed a household had been reduced to 11.4%, but this is not because the status of widows deteriorated but because in 2001 there were fewer widows than in 1951. A comparison of the headship rates of widows in 1951 and in 2001 shows that there were proportionally more household heads among widows in 2001 (64%) than in 1951 (48.3%).

In conclusion, changes that took place between 1951 and 2001 in the composition of household heads, as far as their sex and family status is concerned, reflect mainly changes in the social status of women during the second half of the 20th century. Proportionally more households are headed by women as we approach nowadays, which, in their majority, are not widows. The spectacular increase in the headship rates of single women (from 1.8% in 1951 to almost 10% in 2001) implies that many more women live alone in the beginning of the 21st century than did in the mid-20th century. The increase in one-person households that are

headed by women aged 25+ may reflect their economic independence that came as a result of the greater participation of women in the labour force. In younger ages (below 25 years of age), it reflects massive participation of women in the tertiary education, since many female students live alone, and therefore they are recorded as household heads.

As far as female widowhood is concerned, in the middle of the 20th century young widows (up to 44 years of age) were more likely to be the head of a household than their counterparts in 2001. On the other hand, older widows (45 years of age and above) were less likely to be the head of a household in 1951 than in 2001. This could be explained by a combination of demographic factors and social changes. The remarkable rise in the mean age at first marriage for both sexes offers a plausible explanation. Age at first marriage rose from 23.9 years of age (for females) and 28.1 (for males) in 1928 to 26.9 (for females) and 31.3 (for males) years of age in 2001. At the same period there was a substantial increase in the percentages of never married persons for both sexes in Greece (Gavalas, 2015:111-117). Assuming that Greek widows cease to be household heads upon the marriage of their children, as was the case in Mykonos (Hionidou,1993:85), in the beginning of the 21st century a widow can have unmarried children even in the age of 65, while in the mid-twentieth century this was not very likely. This could be one of the reasons that the headship rates of older widows have increased between 1951 and 2001. This increase in headship rates of older widows could also mean that more widows live alone even after the marriage of their children. However, after the age of 65 the headship rate of widows is decreasing even in the beginning of the 21st century. Explanation for this trend is not offered by census data, but presumably this fall in headship rates of widows concerns the very old ages, when due to health problems and physical limitation widows either move to their children's household (where the married son or son-in-law takes over the headship) or they are placed in nursing homes. A research in the micro level, using fieldwork and quantitative methods, would shed light to the changing patterns of widowhood, something that census returns alone cannot achieve.

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The crisis of the Greek labour market: A Jobs Approach

Abstract:

Greece was caught in the eye of the storm during the last economic crisis and its labour market suffered and is still suffering by world record high unemployment rates. This article utilizes the Jobs approach methodology to examine, for the first time, changes in employment and in Jobs structure during the first years of Greek economic crisis. It also classifies Jobs using not only the standard criterion of wages, but additional multiple criteria with the help of cluster analysis, an analysis carried out for the first time internationally. This new classification is then compared to the 'classical' grouping of Jobs, according to wages. The results provide a comprehensive view of the employment in good and bad jobs in Greek labour market before the crisis and their evolution during the first years of economic crisis. It is found that Job polarization occurred at the beginning of the crisis, which increased the share of bad and good Jobs in the economy. It is also found that multiple criteria analysis provides a more accurate picture of the labour market compared to the 'classical' wage grouping.

Keywords: Jobs approach, job, employment, inequality

JEL classification: J21

Alexis Ioannides¹

¹ Alexis Ioannides, Assistant Professor at the Department of Social Administration and Political Science, Democritus University of Thrace, P. Tsaldari 1 str. Komotini, 69100, Greece. Email: aioann@socadm.duth.gr

1. Introduction

The Greek labour market is going through a long and very deep structural crisis, which is due to the dramatic decline in the GDP of Greece and the subsequent enormous rise in unemployment, which official measurements have augmented to just under one-third of the country's labour force. The dramatic rise in unemployment did not affect equally individual sections of the Greek labour force. It is therefore particularly important to examine the different impact that this reduction in employment had in different categories of workers in Greece.

Specifically, there are indications that the most affected categories of occupations and population consisted of the ones of middle income and salary scale. The impact of the decline in employment in these layers, except for the heavy consequences for the households and their living standard is expected to be significant in terms of both overall demand as well as the stability of the banking system.

For the actualisation of the objectives of the study, a methodological-technical tool will be used, which is relatively recent in international bibliography: the Jobs Approach, which provides a detailed and insightful look at the labour market and more widely at the structure of production of each country. The Jobs Approach is defined firstly at a technical level, using the combination of occupation with the sector of economic activity of each worker, in order to describe the concept of a 'job'. This approach reflects to some extent the dual nature of the division of labour. The dual focus on professions and sectors of economic activity makes the method interesting and combinatory. This particular methodology has not yet been used for the study of the Greek labour market. The objective of this article is to utilize this approach to study the changes that took place in the Greek labour market at the beginning of the crisis.

The second aim of the article is to separate, for the first time, jobs not only on the basis of income but based additionally on a combination of criteria and with the help of cluster analysis methodology.

This research effort is nevertheless subject to a restriction. In 2011 there was a change in the codification of occupations that statistical surveys use². This change disperses the previous four-digit occupation codes into new ones, which in most cases correspond only partially to the previous ones. For this reason, it is impossible to continue the investigation according to the previous codification after the year 2011. Due to the fact that our prime interest is the impact of the beginning of the crisis in comparison with the pre-crisis situation

² Specifically, the codification ISCO - 88 was replaced by ISCO - 08.

in the labour market, the following study extends to the year 2010, that is the last for which the previous codification applies.

The structure of the article is as follows: the second chapter outlines the Jobs Approach methodology. The third chapter presents the most populous jobs in Greece, which are sorted by their generated income and then studied in regard to their evolution at the beginning of the crisis. In the fourth chapter the jobs are classified, with the help of cluster analysis and their temporal development is also examined. Finally, conclusions are made in the fifth chapter.

2. The Jobs approach methodology.

The Jobs Approach is relatively recent in international bibliography³. Its interpretative capacity is based on the dual dimension it attaches to each job, making the approach to the labour market more concise but thorough, by capturing the dual dimension of the division of labour. It has been utilized for the classification of jobs of each economy depending on their quality and the study of their diachronic evolution with regard to this characteristic (see Wright and Dwyer 2003).

A 'job' includes all similar working positions resulting from the combination of the same sector of economic activity and the same occupation (thereafter the word job will be used with this meaning). It is an attempt to describe the division of labour which exists in contemporary societies, by integrating the dimension of a division between different production units that operate in different sectors of economic activity, which is realized through the market, as well as the dimension of division within each sector and each economic unit between different occupations.

This dual dimension of the division of labour is portrayed by the Jobs matrix. The latter consists of the total of jobs in each economy and represents a diagram of the structure of employment.

An important methodological issue is, under which main dimension will each job be examined. The approach is based on the dimension of the quality of work, that has two basic aspects, the quality of the labour process itself, namely the way of fulfilling tasks and the employment relationship quality between the employee and the employer, as well as the effect this has on the worker's well-being. To extend our analysis to the 4th chapter, we will include the concept of the quality of employment relationship, in an attempt to classify jobs in a more composite way.

³ Some of the first studies that used this methodology are: Ilg (1996), Ilg and Haugen (2000), Wright and Dwyer (2000, 2003), OECD (2003), Goos and Manning (2007), Fernández-Macías and Hurley (2008). A comprehensive analysis can be found in Warhurst et al (2012).

In the first level, however, we will focus on the quality of labour process itself. The quality of each job depends on the degree of routinization and the level of expertise required for each task. In the light of the latest technological revolution, there were hopes that machines will largely replace some non-challenging tasks and therefore labour would be improved. A similar way of thinking developed the theories of a technical change that favours the acquisition of skills (Skill-Biased Technical Change, SBTC), according to which the production process increasingly looks for technological expertise by workers, which is expected to intensify wage disparities as well as to favour the demand for skilled workers, to the detriment of the unskilled⁴.

Autor, et al (2003) specialised the SBTC model by categorizing jobs based on the very basic characteristics, such as mental or non-mental work and routine or non-routine work, that were mentioned earlier. As far as routine tasks (either manual or mental) can be substituted by machines⁵, unlike non-routine tasks, a job polarization is expected to occur between the well paid and better quality jobs (non-repetitive mental work) and badly paid (non-repetitive manual work).

However, this approach to the evolution of the quality of each job gives a leading role to technical processes that happen regardless of class struggle and class relationships in the workplace and are independent from the restructuring of production and capital movements and are therefore likely to be restrictive. According to Marx (1867), the division of labour that is created within a capitalist production unit is the result of the fact that a large number of workers sell their labour power to a single capitalist who decides on how to distribute their work, having amassed the means of production. This process is not automatic, since it meets the resistance of workers and their unions and therefore represents one of the dimensions of class struggle. So, whilst the role of class struggle for the control of labour is decisive in the internal division of labour of each production unit, between the production units the products are sold by independent producers through market mechanisms.

This results in a plethora of factors, apart from technological change, that affect the structure of each economy's jobs. Factors such as changes in demand for products, the restructuring of the production process and international trade are expected to play an equally important role (see Goos and Manning 2007).

Especially in the case of Greece, where a reshaping of the productive structure is expected due to the acute economic crisis, the factor of the change in consumer demand is

⁴ For a detailed presentation of those theories see Acemoglu (2002), Violante (2008) and Katz and Autor (1999).

⁵ It has also been named "Routinization Hypothesis", see Fernandez- Macias (2012), Autor et al (2006), Goos and Manning (2007) and Goos et al (2011).

expected to be important in shaping the demand for labour force in occupations and jobs. However, the restructuring of the production process may be due to, excluding changes in demand, capital movements from branch to branch because of the change in the rate of profit but also due to more general phenomena of the crisis. This is related to changes in the organization of the production process, which are not only defined by technological but primarily by social developments and the class struggle in every workplace. In recent decades both in Greece and in the European Union an intense effort is carried out (which intensified much more in Greece because of the crisis) for the change of class balance of power in workplaces at the expense of the working class (Dedousopoulos 2002; Mavroudeas 2013). The changes in the structure of employment find in the above process a more comprehensive interpretation.

International trade is another important factor for the interpretation of changes in the structure of jobs. It had certainly played a key role in some occupations, such as the occupations of the textile industry in Greece.

Finally, there is the approach that emphasises the side of labour supply and argues that it is the changes in the structure of labour force that can explain the changes in the occupational structure of employment. The most significant of these changes is the entry of women in the workforce, the overall increase in educational level, changes in the age of the labour force and the entry of immigrants. According to Goos and Manning (2007), the effect of these factors is relatively small and cannot adequately explain the changes in the structure of jobs.

In any case, the same methodology of Jobs approach does not require the adoption of a particular theoretical answer to the issues raised previously. Under this perspective, the Jobs approach can be compatible with different methodological and theoretical paradigms of Economic science and can be used in alternative ways for the realization of the economic analysis of the labour market.

Another equally important methodological issue is the statistically measurable way in which the concept of work quality can be approached. In the context of Jobs approach is accepted the empirical observation for the existence of a systematic correlation of bad working conditions with low pay and high wages with good (quality) jobs, an assumption that contradicts the typical neoclassical theory of compensating wage differentials (Rosen 1986).

Jobs approach accepts this empirical result, which we also adopt in the analysis that follows, that assumes the existence of a positive correlation between financial reward and other positive characteristics of each job. The salary therefore reflects a whole range of

variables regarding the quality of work⁶ and therefore presents a positive and not a negative correlation with the superior characteristics of each job. For this reason, the majority of related surveys (indicatively, Bluestone and Harrison 1982; Wright and Dwyer 2003; Goos and Manning 2007; Ehrel et al 2008; Fernández-Macías 2012) uses the higher salary as an indication of the higher quality characteristics of each job.

This approach does not contradict but rather can be incorporated and explained by the analysis by Marx of complex labour, according to which complex labour is remunerated with higher salary, given that its reproduction requires more expenses and therefore increases the value of this particular labour force. According to this view, the more complex tasks, which are those that require a high level of education, will receive greater salary and they are very likely the most interesting and not repeated for the workers. It is also useful to note that the Jobs approach does not contradict, rather the contrary, with the theories of labour market segmentation (Doeringer and Piore 1972; Reich et al 1973) and of the association of higher remunerations with the best features of both the labour and the employment relationship, regardless of the theoretical framework within which labour market segmentation is studied. Based on the above analysis, the salary will then be used to classify jobs as the best and the worst and this categorization is assumed to express, in addition to salary, other qualitative characteristics of a job.

However, the originality of this study is that it will implement for the first time an extra method of assessing the quality of jobs (using cluster analysis) with the help of additional characteristics of each job, such as the education level and the duration of work for the same employer.

Finally, it should be noted that, in the analysis that follows, we used the classifications of sectors of economic activity according to NACE and the classifications of occupations according to ISCO that the Labour Force Survey uses for the respective years. We also used three-digit codes for the description of occupations and one-digit codes for the sectors of economic activity, in a differentiation with most surveys of this methodology, which use double-digit codes for both these categories. In our view, the dimension of occupation requires more analysis and therefore a lower level of abstraction than the one of the sectors of economic activity. The codification of occupations changed for the purposes of this research by merging similar occupations, which are thereafter referred by their names, wherever needed.

⁶ For a multi-dimensional presentation of the quality of jobs see Eurofound (2012).

3. Basic Jobs in the Greek economy

At the beginning of the crisis there was a significant reduction of wage labour in Greece. This reduction, as expected, did not affect jobs evenly. Table 1 below demonstrates the most populous jobs and the change of employment in them between the years 2009 and 2010.

Table 1: Most populous jobs of wage labour and employment change per job between 2009 and 2010

	Job		Employed 2009	change 2009 - 2010		Job		Employed 2009	change 2009 - 2010
	Section	Occupation				Section	Occupation		
1	G	Salespersons	209534	-1%	10	O	Armed forces	58106	12%
2	F	Building frame and related workers	153161	-22%	11	H	Motor vehicle drivers	48342	-2%
3	P	Secondary education teachers	152814	-5%	12	Q	Nursing and ass. professionals	47941	7%
4	I	Restaurant services workers	122661	-9%	13	G	Office clerks	37744	1%
5	O	Office clerks	101843	-4%	14	Q	Medical doctors etc	33764	6%
6	P	Primary education teachers	83314	2%	15	F	Construction labourers	32241	-19%
7	T	Domestic helpers, cleaners, launderers	66404	2%	16	H	Office clerks	29823	1%
8	C	Machine operators and assemblers	62368	-6%	17	F	Mining and construction labourers	26754	-8%
9	O	Fire-fighters, police officers	61136	-6%	18	C	Textile workers	23307	-21%

Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

The large decline in the massive employment jobs of the construction section (F) is obvious, although it is not unvarying among the jobs in this sector. A significant decrease but still not an unvarying one is also observed for the massive jobs of section C, that, due to high specialization, consists of many medium-sized jobs, which evolve differently from one another. The massive jobs of section G (trade) show a relative stability that will play an important role in the evolution of the polarization in jobs that will be demonstrated afterward. The reduction in employment at restaurant services workers of section I is particularly impressive, although it is a job that has to do with tourism, that was not significantly affected. Finally, there is a significant increase in jobs related to the public sector, as the impact of the policy of reducing the public sector had not yet become visible.

The best and worst jobs of workers in Greece for the year 2009 are estimated based on the mean income decile. According to our analysis among the worst paid jobs are domestic helpers, cleaners and launderers of sections T, G, N, P, personal care and related workers of sections S and T, agricultural labourers and crop growers of section A.

Among the best paid jobs are the operations managers of the C and K sections, ship and aircraft controllers and technicians of the H section, legal professionals, customs and tax

government professionals of the O section, engineers and architects of the C and O sections and medical doctors of the Q section.

Subsequently, jobs are categorized into five equivalent population quintiles, based on the average income generated, in accordance with the relevant methodology mentioned above. Each quintile contains approximately the same number of workers, with the first quintile including those who are the worst paid and the fifth quintile those who are best paid. The grouping is based on the initial year, that is 2008. The lack of equivalence to the number of workers in each quintile for the year 2008 is due to the existence of populous jobs which are located on the boundary between certain quintiles, thus making it impossible to fully equalize the number of workers that comprise each quintile. This poses no problem to our analysis, as the five quintiles are not required to include the same number of workers and could be separated with other criteria that would make them unequal by definition. What matters is that the incomes of each quintile are larger than the ones of the previous. This data is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Quintiles of jobs and their variation

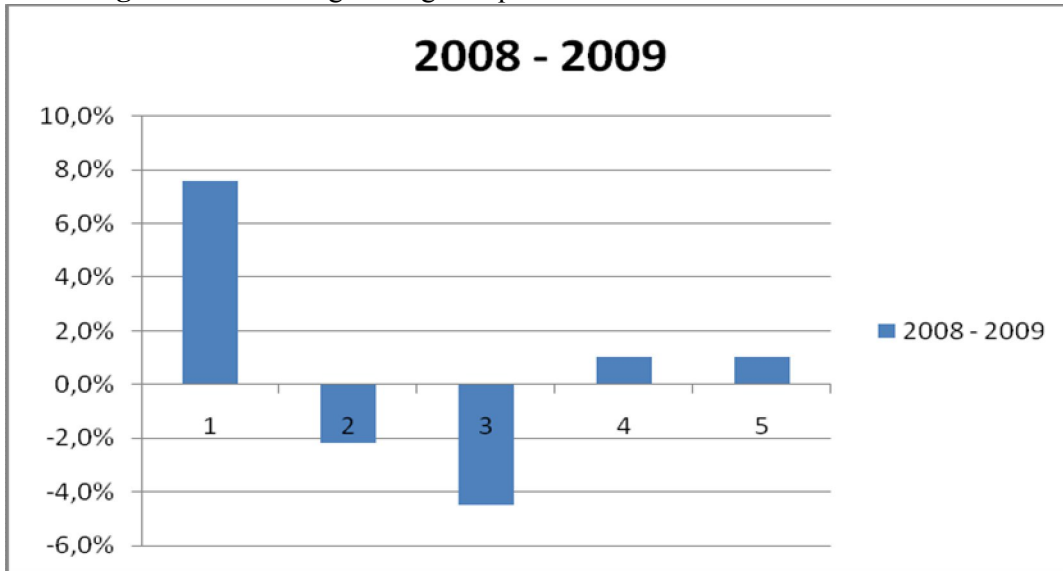
Quintiles	2008		2009		2010	
	Number	Percentage %	Number	Percentage %	Number	Percentage %
1	502.571	17,1	532.645	18,4	538.275	19,2
2	545.932	18,5	525.893	18,1	483.952	17,2
3	721.094	24,5	677.345	23,4	633.676	22,5
4	583.776	19,8	579.523	20,0	561.524	20,0
5	583.875	19,8	580.389	20,0	584.587	20,8
Not assorted	7.459	0,3	2.284	0,1	8.721	0,3
Total	2.944.707	100,0	2.898.079	100,0	2.810.735	100,0

Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

The same table shows the evolution in the number of workers included in jobs of each quintile for the next two years, as well as the overall percentage they occupy in the total of workers of each year.

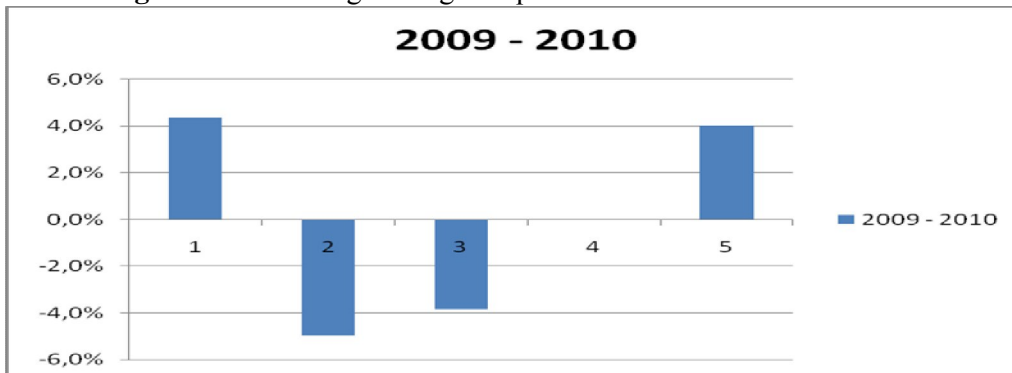
As can be seen, there was an important reduction in employment in quintiles 2, 3 and 4 and a small to marginal increase in quintiles 1 and 5. This is a result of the acute crisis that drastically reduced the jobs already from its early years. This phenomenon continued with the same intensity afterwards.

The percentage changes in the relative share of each quintile of jobs on the total of jobs is presented in the charts below, showing the variation between consecutive years.

Diagram 1: Percentage change of quintiles between 2008 και 2009

Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

Between 2008 and 2009 (Diagram 1), we observe a significant relative increase in the share of the worst paid jobs and at the same time a significant decrease in the share of intermediate jobs as well as a slight increase in the share of the best jobs. This tendency is even more pronounced during the first full year of crisis in Greece (Diagram 2), where there is a significant increase in the share of the worst and the best jobs and a significant reduction of jobs represented by the second and third quintile (The fourth quintile remains unaltered).

Diagram 2: Percentage change of quintiles between 2009 και 2010

Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

The phenomenon presented in the above diagrams, which is similar to what has been termed as polarization of jobs, as discussed in detail above, is extremely interesting because it cannot be attributed to the usual reason, i.e. to technical change, that takes longer to manifest itself. This change is due to social and political conditions, changes in the structure of demand and the productive structure and also due to the escalation of class, social and political

conflicts. Such an interpretation can give a more complete picture of the changes in the Greek labour market.

More specifically, for the first quintile of low wages and presumptively the worst tasks, the increase of its size in absolute values and, even more, of its share is primarily due to the fact that there was not reduction in the employment of populous jobs such as salespersons, labourers and other massive jobs of the wholesale and retail trade section (G). It is also due to the increase of domestic helpers, cleaners and launderers in various sections (I, N, T) as well as in personal care and related workers (section K), i.e. in occupations providing low paid services. The employment reduction that is observed in jobs of C section (manufacturing) does not affect this quintile much, as it does not consist primarily of such types of jobs. The relative increase in jobs related to trade and low paid services, which had started earlier in the Greek economy has been intensified by the crisis at the expense of jobs in manufacturing and construction.

For the second quintile of jobs, low paid as well but in better position than the first, a significant reduction can be noted, in both size and, even more, in share, mainly because of the significant reduction in employment in the construction section, that has influenced both construction labourers (section F) and specialized workers occupied in this section (for example painters, building structure cleaners and related trades workers). It is also a result of the reduction in employment in various manufacturing jobs such as labourers and machine operators, which, being better paid than those in services and commerce, belonged to this quintile. Moreover, it is influenced by the reduction of restaurant workers, which was a result of a change in consumer choices because of the crisis and the increase of taxes in this sector. Finally, the jobs of sector M (professional, scientific and technical activities) involving secretaries, accounting and other clerks, were drastically afflicted.

The third quintile, one that manifests the greatest reduction in employment share, is influenced by the large reduction in the number of building frame workers and building finishers of the F section, who were in the middle of the wage scale and belonged to this quintile. It is also characterised by a great employment reduction in jobs that involve motor vehicle drivers of C and G sections, jobs that are among the first affected in crisis situations. Also remarkable is the reduction in employment in a job that involves client information clerks in tourism, I, an area which has not been so strongly afflicted from the crisis. This suggests a possible internal restructuring that took place in this area, which was anywise characterized by an elasticity and a seasonality of labour relations. Finally, another element that contributes to the reduction of the share of this quintile of intermediate remunerated jobs,

is the reducing employment in some relatively well-paid jobs of section C, such as machinery mechanics, namely the reduction of relatively well-paid workers in manufacturing. This decrease is consistent with more general developments in Greek manufacturing, as connected with the decrease of industrial production in Greece, a long process of internal restructuring of the Greek capital.

The fourth quintile, that consists of relatively high-paid workers, showed a slight decrease in employment and a slight increase in share between 2008 and 2010. This is due to the slight decrease in employment in massive jobs included in this quintile, such as secondary education teaching professionals and office clerks of public administration and defence (O section). Another contributing factor was the noticeable increase in size of the job that includes nursing professionals and associates of section Q and the unexpected increase in the employment of business professionals of section G.

In the fifth quintile, while there is a great reduction in the job of accountants and economists of the C section, and in engineers and architects of the M section, this is counter-balanced by the increase of the related job that includes engineers and architects in section O and in production and operations managers in section G. Namely, section's G executives increased, as did the sector as a whole, but to a greater extent. Medical doctors of section Q also increased considerably. Finally, jobs in the public sector, such as the armed forces and the accountants and economists in section O also increase, albeit slightly, revealing the influence of the public sector to curb the decrease of employment.

Summarizing the changes described above, it is obvious that some resulted from the change in consumer demand, while others from possible restructuring aimed at cutting costs and capital movements. The public role to restrain the decrease of employment is also evident. The change of jobs that took the form of polarization, is the result of an acceleration of the restructuring of the economy, with the reduction in the importance of manufacturing, the drastic reduction of construction and the increase of services, while maintaining a significant segment of the public sector.

4. Jobs grouping using cluster analysis

We will now proceed to a different categorization of jobs using cluster analysis, and more specifically the method “two steps hierarchical Cluster”, by separating the jobs into five quintiles again. The criteria by which the categorization was made are income level, education level and the duration of work for the same employer. All three variables were regularized in order to show values from 0 to 10. Our analysis will now focus on changes from 2009 to

2010, i.e. the first full year of the crisis. The key features of the 5 quintiles-clusters are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Quintiles of Jobs, using cluster analysis and their mean value characteristics

Cluster	1	2	3	4	5
Variable	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Income decile (Scale 1-10)	3,8	4,9	6,3	6,8	7,8
Education (Scale 0-10)	3,3	4,6	5,5	7,6	7,7
Empl. Duration (Scale 0-10)	3,0	4,5	6,4	4,9	7,3
Employees (2009)	301.490	1.065.848	360.785	581.521	195.313

Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

Initially, we note that cluster analysis did not create 5 relatively balanced groups of jobs, but gave particular massiveness to the second group, which absorbed jobs of the first as well as the third income quintile, while the 4th quintile absorbed jobs from the 5th. The first group of jobs is relatively small in size, with relatively low wages and education level and short duration of work for the same employer. The jobs included are the worst-paid and most unstable. It includes the labourers of sections A, C and F, garbage collectors, cleaners and launderers who work in various fields. The second group includes the majority of the traditional, relatively specialized working class, in manufacturing and construction, as well as restaurant workers and office clerks, cashiers and salespersons that work in section G of trade and which constitute a large portion of Greek workers. The third group includes office and accounting clerks in many areas (except for the ones in section G, which are included in the second worst group) and at the same time skilled workers in processing and low-paid civil servants such as fire-fighters and police officers. The fourth group includes scientists, engineers, legal professionals, medical doctors and nurses and also (interestingly) cashiers and tellers of the section K, secondary and tertiary education teaching professionals, while the fifth group includes production and operations managers of sections K and O and the armed forces, police inspectors and detectives and other high-ranking public officers.

This categorization is not very different from the one that preceded, which is based only on income, however it presents some important differences. It separates a relative small group of the worst jobs while it moves many of the low-wage jobs from the first group to the second, taking into account the education level and the duration-stability of employment. This division is closer to reality, as really bad jobs, as described in the previous paragraph, are relatively few. Placing the largest part of underpaid jobs in the second group instead, reflects a comparatively safer though still underpaid state for the majority of relatively skilled workers,

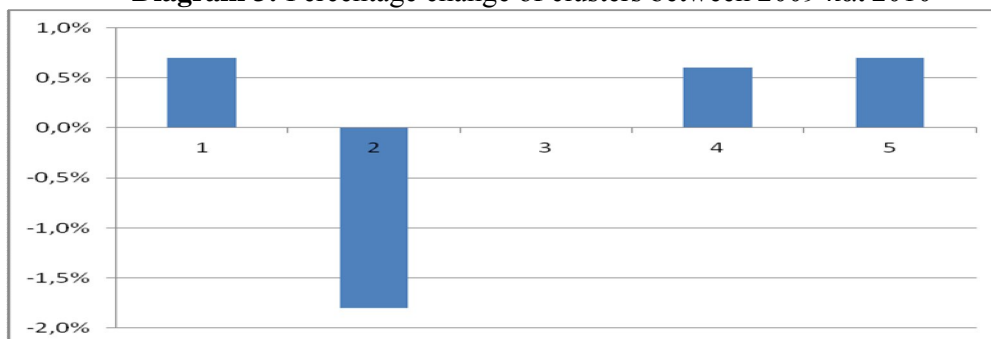
in which the job is at least relatively assured, something that indicates a different type of worker's connection with the job.

The third group, based on cluster analysis, differs significantly from the second and the fourth group due to the greater stability of employment. These are mainly relatively well-paid jobs, taking the level of education into account, which are not of the most well-paid but rather with the important advantage of the stability of employment and could also be described as jobs that offer some career prospects. The fourth group includes highly skilled workers, such as doctors and university professors and other scientists, that nevertheless do not seem to be so well-paid, nor to have an employment stability that corresponds to their qualifications. Finally, the fifth group also includes highly qualified workers, who are either enterprise executives or work in the public sector, having as a main feature, apart from higher wages, employment stability, manifested by the number of years working for the same employer.

Comparing the categorization of jobs based on income only (actualized in chapter 3) and based on the combination of the three criteria in this chapter, it follows that multi-criteria grouping gives an interesting and more close to reality classification of jobs.

Consequently, considering the change in employment for the five clusters between the years 2009 and 2010, we see a similar picture to the one we saw with regard to the sorting based on income alone for the same years.

Diagram 3: Percentage change of clusters between 2009 και 2010



Source: Own estimations using Eurostat's LFS microdata

The relative stability in employment that is a key feature of the third group appears to be confirmed in this change, where employment remains steady. On the contrary, the significant reduction in employment for middle incomes is now expressed by the reduction of the second group, which absorbed some of not so good jobs in the third group. Furthermore, a polarization is once more observed, with a relative increase of the share of the first worst job and the 4th and 5th best job groups. This shows that a separation based on income and based on the three criteria does not lead to large deviations in the behaviour of each group concerning the impact of the crisis.

A general conclusion from both methods is that the methodology of jobs allows for a better and more insightful view at the labour market, since it classifies different occupations in different groups, depending on the sector of economic activity where they are exercised. This dimension would have been lost if the focus of the analysis was only in occupations.

5. Conclusions

In this article we studied the variation of employment at the start of the crisis in the Greek labour market, with the use of Jobs Approach. For the first time, the traditional classification of jobs based on salary was combined with a more complex classification based on additional criteria that additionally describe the quality of the employment relationship.

The analysis showed that during the first two years of the crisis there was a polarization of jobs, i.e. a decrease in the share of intermediate jobs for the benefit of the best and worst jobs. This phenomenon, which is important, even if it is temporary, could not be explained by the traditional interpretation of SBTC but with more complex economic and social approach to the developments. The phenomena observed during the first two years of the crisis in Greece are the combined result of long-term trends that prevail in the Greek economy combined with short-term acute effects due to the intensity of the crisis and of the specific economic and socio-political conditions that are in effect in the country.

The long-term decline in the share of manufacturing has been intensified by the crisis, and it is this that limits employment in jobs of intermediate pay-quality in Greece. This was combined with the rapid reduction of jobs related to construction, either those are skilled or unskilled jobs, or positions of scientists associated with construction. At the same time, reduction in employment was observed in relatively well-paid positions of the sector associated with tourism, despite the fact that this sector was not decisively affected by the crisis. The combination of these developments resulted in a significant reduction in employment in middle-level jobs, something that decisively affected the polarization of jobs.

The relative increase in impact of the trade and tourism sectors, with regard to specific occupations that these areas need, largely continued and intensified with the crisis, boosting the number of low-wage jobs. At the other end of the scale, a significant increase in employment share of better paid jobs was noted. This was mainly the result of a restraint or a small decrease in the employment of massive public sector jobs, which were relatively well-paid positions, in combination with the increase of some executive positions in the private sector and in the health sector.

These developments illustrate the effect of multiple factors in the evolution of jobs in Greece of the crisis. This analysis should be continued for the years after 2011, but with the jobs generated by the new codification of occupations, which makes it impossible to compare them with the data presented in this study.

Finally, the Jobs Approach used in this analysis appeared to be fruitful with regard to the specialized study of changes in the structure of employment in Greece. This methodology of jobs allows for a better and more insightful look at the labour market, since it classifies different occupations in different groups, depending on the sector of economic activity where they are exercised. This dimension would have been lost if the focus of analysis was only in occupations. For this reason, we support that it can be used effectively for a continued investigation of the labour market and its evolution under the light of a technically analytical method. In conclusion, the classification of jobs based on additional criteria, beyond salary and using the method of cluster analysis was particularly interesting. The resulting classification, although it retains the basic properties of the 'classical' one, gives greater accuracy and realism in the classification of jobs, which can be particularly useful in future investigations.

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Connecting Corporate Social Responsibility Strategies with Social Enterprises Policies in the concept of the European Union Policies for Sustainable Development

Abstract:

This paper will negotiate on a basic scientific question and will examine how Social Enterprises can be strengthened through companies, which apply Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and how European Union policy strategies regarding Sustainable Development will promote this mutual and beneficial cooperation. The findings of this scientific question will provide discussion topics on the scope- how companies, which apply CSR can be used by social enterprises and vice versa, in order to create economic and social value for the companies and the local communities. In the era of financial crisis, our research suggests new strategies and innovation practices that will define the cooperation, between companies, which apply CSR and Social Enterprises (SE) in order to create synergy in the EU and Greek Sustainable Development Policies.

Keywords: EU Sustainable Development, Corporate Social Responsibility, Social Enterprises, Social Value and economic value

JEL Classification: Q0,Q5, Z1,O1,O2,O4, P3, M1, I3, J0

Dr. Anastasios K. Sepetis¹, Dr. Gabriel Amitsis² and MA. Marilena G Sanida³

¹ Corresponding author: Dr. Anastasios K. Sepetis, Department of Business Administration, Technological Education Institute, Athens, Greece, Email: tsepet@yahoo.com

² Dr. Gabriel Amitsis, Associate Professor Department of Business Administration, Technological Education Institute, Athens, Greece

³ MA. Marilena G Sanida, Consulting Corporate Social Responsibility and European Union Projects

1. Introduction

During the last years, an increased interest for ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’ has been formed, especially in business level, (Becchetti *et al* 2005, Berkhout 2005, Scholtens and Lammertjan 2007, Albareda *et al* 2007, Holme 2010, Carroll 2015a). Carroll (2015a) claims nowadays, CSR is a global concept that has progressed from the interplay of thought and practice. CSR represents a language and a perspective that is known all over the world and has become increasingly vital as stakeholders have communicated that modern businesses are expected to do more than make money and obey the law (Welford and Frost 2006, Engle 2006, Heslin and Ochoa 2008, Dahlsrud 2008, Carroll 2015a,b). Generally, CSR is a business concept according to which, companies as well as organizations, incorporate in voluntarily basis social and environmental concerns in their entrepreneurial activities, as well as their contacts to other stakeholders. Basically, it concerns companies that have voluntarily decided to go beyond their legal obligations, having as their main goal to cope with the best possible way to social groups needs (Carroll and Buchholtz 2015).

The model of ‘Social Enterprise’ has been added to international literature during the last years (Borzaga and Defourny 2001; Defourny and Nyssens 2006). Social Enterprises aim to the social and professional incorporation of disadvantaged people through the production process. From this point of view, training and employment are of major importance. Under the term ‘Social Enterprise’ their new productive role, their higher autonomy, their ability to create new employment positions and their contribution to local societies are being underlined (Peredo and McLean 2006).

Social value is the relationship and the contribution of companies to the society (Rispaal and Bonler 2010). Mair and Marti (2006) claim that the creation of social value is very important to a Social Enterprise. It is also very important to understand the primary goal of Social Enterprise, which is the use of entrepreneurial and organizational abilities for the creation of social value through innovation. On the other side according to Porter and Kramer (2011), the concept for corporate social responsibility practice of social value can be defined, as policies and operational practices, which strengthen a company’s’ competition, while simultaneously they upgrade the social and economic conditions in the communities, where social value is active.

The text of the European Commission “Europe 2020: A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth” E.C. (2010)⁴ defines the horizontal European Policies and applicable

⁴ <http://ec.europa.eu/eu2020/pdf/COMPLET%20EN%20BARROSO%20%20%20007%20-%20Europe%202020%20-%20EN%20version.pdf>

national strategies in order to manage social issues. Particularly, the European Commission suggests the incorporation of CSR targets in European policies. The concluding remarks of EU research about Social Enterprises⁵ stating notwithstanding the above developments that social enterprises across Europe continue to face a number of barriers and will contribute to the Corporate Social Responsibility strategies that are demanded.

The Europe 2020 Strategy shapes how the European Union may exit stronger from the present financial crisis and build a sustainable environment, having as main elements the high levels of employment and productivity, the environmental and climate friendly energy provision and the intense social cohesion.

All of the above could be succeeded through the use of tools and policies in the EU and Greece that will encourage volunteer business actions and initiatives, to cooperate between companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises and this cooperation will be completed through traditional regulatory structures and business channels.

2. Theoretical approach for companies that apply Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Enterprises

According to Di Domenico, Haugh and Tracey (2014) social enterprise emphasizes on the importance of sustainable growth, as it provides solutions to various social and environmental challenges, through the use of economic methods for pertaining its central functions. Social Enterprises tend to seek the creation of a more human, environmental friendlier, ethical society and choose this business function, which in long term will protect the interests of the society (Rispoli and Bonler 2010). Social Enterprises in Greece have a broader productive and business role, are distinguished from the traditional non-profit organizations, they create jobs and support the development of the local economy (Chrissakis et al. 2002). According to Stravoskoufi and Georma (2013), in the international literature and in Greek business practice, Social Enterprises are shaped as new alternative and innovative institutions, which have as their main purpose, to solve the operational problems of the labor market and its policies. They target to the training and employment of disabled people, the development of productivity, the reinforcement of social entrepreneurship etc. Social Enterprises recognize, incorporate and manage different stakeholders, within a real framework and its activities. Dees and Anderson (2006) have recognized that many social problems have different economic implications. Social Enterprises recognize opportunities in order to develop products and services (co-operative), satisfy customers, mobilize volunteers and/or members

⁵ <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=12988&langId=en>

and manage relationships (Bornstein and Davis 2010). Alter (2003) reassures that Social Enterprises must be able to correspond to the expectations of stakeholders, while at the same time differentiate their economic flows, in order to add social value. As a conclusion, SEs must develop some ways of strategic framework, in order to establish financial instruments. So, the income gained and the financial leverage will allow social enterprises to create new programs related to investments. In that way SEs will secure that organizations will continue to be viable in the future.

Corporate Social Responsibility becomes understood as a balancing act- the enterprise should balance the equilibrium between economic value and social value. This balance can be achieved through different stakeholders (Lantos 2001, Engle 2006, Albareda et al 2007, Carroll, 2015). Also, Corporate Social Responsibility includes the incorporation of social and environmental activities in the heart of business operations (Werther and Chandler 2011). Literature reveals that CSR business practice applies to all organizations of all operational sectors and sizes and the discussions tend to focus on larger organizations, because they can be more visible and also point how complex corporate social responsibility is defined (Dahlsrud 2008). Four strong trends in CSR have firmed up its sustainable trajectory in the social issues conversation over the past several decades. These four trends have provided the impetus for CSR's solid position as the centerpiece for these contending and complimentary conceptions. The four trends include globalization of CSR practices, institutionalization of CSR within companies, strategic reconciliation with financial goals, and academic proliferation (Carroll 2015b). Skoloudis and Evangelinos (2012) reach the conclusion that CSR proves to have the biggest progress in North American and Western Europe, which makes trans-national comparisons difficult. Their research tries to develop a national plan research on CSR. Based on previous theory and on excellent research methods that have been evolved in order to evaluate the multidimensional CSR, they propose a research approach that can be implemented in every country, regardless the extent of the concept that has penetrated the domestic business sector. Sachinidis and Kavoura (2014) in a relevant research conducted in Greece, offer an approach for the big Greek companies towards CSR and they prove the special importance that is given to specific sectors of CSR during the time of financial crisis. Considering the growing importance of CSR practices, by the way entrepreneurship is conducted, the growing tense of adopting such practices and their communication with the participating stakeholders, they reach the result that the knowledge produced regarding corporate practices of CSR, can assist in the creation and strengthening of good practices that can be promoted to the public, which resides in the country, where the enterprise is situated.

Moreover, a significant research was conducted in Greece by Halkos and Sepetis (2007), which is relevant to how CSR (particularly environmental certificated companies), adds profit and financial value to its shareholders, in addition to its contribution to the social good of the society. Recently Carroll (2015a) states nowadays that ethics and philanthropy help to round out the socially responsible expectations placed on modern organizations striving to be sustainable in a competitive, dynamic, global marketplace. Socially responsible firms make a special effort to integrate a concern for other stakeholders in their policies, decisions and operations. Other related competing and complementary concepts such as business ethics, corporate citizenship, stakeholder management, and sustainability have contended for the public's acceptance. The concept of Creating Shared Value has also entered the discussion. All of these are interrelated and overlapping terms that have been incorporated in CSR, which is the benchmark and centerpiece of the socially conscious business movement.

Corporate Social Responsibility includes the external as well as the internal environment of businesses. Concretely, activation and participation in CSR provides "better image" for society and business in front of potential investors, consumers, financial analysts, corporate collaborators, Media, Law makers, etc. Moreover, CSR helps employees, customers, shareholders, members of the Board to "feel better" in the society. Furthermore, there are more and more empirical facts that support that CSR contributes to the recognition of social image and to the improvement of SEs, while at the same time supports local societies. Social Enterprises aim to act upon people, by acting upon their state, which is directly connected to their problems. Such procedure promotes the inter-active connection, which improves the societal impact of a company.

The creation of social and economic value in CSR strategies and Social Enterprises' policies focuses on the definition of the inter-connections, between social and economical progress (Win-Win). The concept is based on the perception that the economical, as well as the social progress can be achieved through principles that rule the value. Porter and Kramer (2006) also believe that we concentrate on fields, where social and financial interests are combined and the organizations apply the demanded resources, in order to assist to the solution of social problems. In long term basis this will create social and economic value and lead to a more 'sustainable enterprise'.

3. The cooperation between companies that apply Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Enterprises creates social and economic value in the era of financial crisis.

Social Enterprises in the E.U. have mixed targets and in many cases financial benefit overcomes social benefit. As a result strategic business targets differentiate. The key question is: “to what extent can companies prove and take advantage of the benefits by supporting SE?” Worldwide, as well as in the EU, SEs are not distinct and defined (E.C. 2014). At the same time, researches and empirical findings are usually concentrated in the relationships between companies, which apply CSR and N.G.Os, which substantially differentiate from SEs. While in the first case, emphasis is exclusively or primarily given to social impact, which in the past consisted a part of the so called “corporate philanthropy”, the cases of SEs are included in the part of the so called “venture philanthropy”. In the last case, most important are parameters such as: *profitability*, *sustainability* and generally the implementation of *management techniques* that are mostly connected with the business success of CSR business model (Lichtenstein et al 2004, Bruch and Walter 2005, Brown and Slivinski 2006, Gainer 2011, Helming and Thaler 2011).

Often the question arises, regarding the limits between Social Enterprises and Corporate Social Responsibility. Some authors consider CSR as a way to promote social entrepreneurship (Mitra and Borza 2010). This happens because the concepts of CSR and Social entrepreneurship have derived from the same context, which is ‘sustainable development’ (Seelos and Mair 2005). Respectively, Wei- Skillern *et al* (2007) suggest that there is a cross line between profit and SE with many common points such as: resource management, faith and trust to the company, strong networking. The closer a social problem lies to a company that applies CSR, the greater is the chance the ways of cooperation with Social Enterprises to be controlled and the possibilities of social value to be developed, in order the society to be benefited (UNESCAP, 2010). Unfortunately, the research that has been conducted points out that there is only few evidence, as to how CSR can act as social value for Social Enterprises. Some authors, such as Wei- Skillern (2007) cite relevant literature that point the similarities between Social Enterprises and companies that apply CSR and, which through innovativeness, creation of reputation and trust, manage to create social value for SEs. Cornelius et al, (2007) contend that due to their size and emphasis upon addressing external social concerns, corporate relationship between social enterprises, social awareness and action is more complex than whether or not these organizations engage in corporate social responsibility (CSR). This includes organizations that place less emphasis on CSR, as well as other organizations that may be very proficient in CSR initiatives, but are less successful in recording practices. In this context, they identify a number of internal CSR

markers that may be applied to measure the extent to which internal CSR practices are being observed.

Social value of Social Enterprises entails a fairer society, which is target for most of the EU sustainable development policies. Social Enterprises are co-operating in order to create social value, for the broader external society and the society as a total. This is easy to understand, if we consider that the concept of social value is a structured value by nature, where both sides are benefited. It is obvious, that the perspective of the creation of social value by different stakeholders is of major importance for Social Enterprises. Social value of CSR on the other side, aims on bringing business perspective to social sector and Social Enterprises are the key that unlock this perspective (Fleming and Jones 2013). Helsin and Ochoa (2008) support the idea that people through CSR can learn from different social business projects (ex. Social Enterprises) and this knowledge can turn back, lead to new innovations and help towards the creation of basic skills for the organization. Social Enterprises through adopting and improving relationships with CSR business model of companies help in creating a new business model for common profit that include a mixture of new ideas coming from the external of a social business. Moreover, SEs as they provide significant benefits to social communities, they can gain many opportunities by learning, and how they can apply their strong points to a CSR new business model, improve the internal motive of employees, stimulate demand from beneficiaries and improve the attractiveness of social enterprise. Social Enterprises can also maintain this relation and even strengthen their identity through aligning social and economical activities with the final purpose, the vision and the strategy of economic and social value, which is similar to CSR business model (Bruch and Walter 2005).

Following this perspective we reach the conclusion that CSR strategies and Social Enterprises policies, process the production of social and economic values in order to succeed organization sustainability. The basic theories of business administration have been primarily set on profit and moral issues. The conception of CSR makes balance between social or environmental and economic value, necessary. This happens because the profit of the one value must not underestimate the value of the other (Werther, and Chandler 2011). On the other side, Social Enterprises develop business models in order to pertain the sustainability of an organization without losing their social mission targets. In a few words, it addresses social issues through the creation of “social value”, which as a result leads to “self-sustained solutions” (Porter and Kramer 2011).

Social Enterprises must have the ability to create economic value, as well as social value at the same time. Social answers that neglect the economic content are considered as a “bandage” that can cover the problem and eventually create even more problems. This is why long term sustainable choices, such as the cooperation of poor people in order to succeed not only social, but also economic value, may be an important clue that will help more people with lower income come and integrate into the economy (Seelos and Mair 2005). For example Yunus *et al* (2010) and other social entrepreneurs have managed to succeed and to promote profit, while they have a very good approach towards social services, whereas other social entrepreneurs have began doing business and they had as an aim only to train and employ disadvantaged people, without trying to succeed economic value. That resulted to failure.

The important contribution of Social Enterprises to the economic development and prosperity has been confirmed with the recent financial crisis. It has been proved that social enterprises on the contrary seek profit maximization, have kept a distance from risky financial activities that have triggered the financial crisis and have kept on focusing on borrowing. In addition, during the crisis, they continued to support their social causes, the family enterprises, employment even when other enterprises were closing. Very important is also the casual relationship, which is duplex, ex the crisis affects the social performance of SEs, but also CSR affects the capability of companies to confront and exit the crisis with less loss (Argandoña 2009). Despite these, it could be claimed that the implementation of CSR practices costs and their cooperation with social enterprises costs as well. The cost that business practices and business co-operations may have can act as the main deterrent for businesses, especially on times of uncertainty and recession (Fernández and Souto 2009). The question comes up: Why does a business choose to invest capitals, time and human resources in adopting CSR practices and co- operations with social enterprises, given the fact that the benefits of this co-operation are long term? The simplest answer is that the co- operation of companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises must be economically efficient for the business, for its stakeholders, as well as for the society. Moreover, Kotler and Lee (2005) claim, that as doctors say that the more a human exercises, the more he gets a better appearance, higher productivity, long life and feels better with himself, the same is also for enterprises that apply far-reaching visions for CSR and co-operation with social enterprises.

4. The connection of companies that apply Corporate Social Responsibility with Social Enterprises will feature synergy to the European Union Sustainable Development Policies

In the framework of this new developed situation, the EU sets the general aims and policies of CSR and Social Enterprises. The European Commission “Europe 2020: A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth” states: “*The Commission is proposing five measurable EU targets for 2020 that will steer the process and be translated into national targets: for employment; for research and innovation; for climate change and energy; for education; and for combating poverty. They represent the direction we should take and will mean we can measure our success*⁶⁷”. The institutional texts define that horizontal European Policies for Sustainable Development and applicable national strategies are demanded, in order to manage social and environmental issues that will contribute to Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Enterprises. Particularly, the European Commission suggests the incorporation of CSR⁸ and Social Enterprises⁹ targets in the European policies. Indeed, in the framework of sustainable and viable development strategies, the EU has committed itself into incorporating environmental, economical and social issues in its policies and in its actions. According to the United Nations, approaching CSR may help Social Enterprises create the most significant social result and as a result gather great benefits for the company (UNESCAP 2010). This happens, because through converting innovation and company competition to products and services, Social Enterprises create social value and shape relationships there, where the success of the society and business come reinforced (Win-Win situation).

The promotion of “social value” of companies by the European Union in the framework of CSR strategies and of policies for Social Enterprises is being succeeded in two levels: inside the framework (internally) and outside the framework of business operation (externally). In the first case companies contribute to social equity and environmental protection (ex. by training, by the protection of health and insurance of their employees and by environmental programs that support local community, through programs and initiatives). While in the second case, companies contribute to social equity through raising local GDP, raising local employment and entrepreneurship and with the contribution of employment to socially vulnerable groups and of environmental innovation.

The terms of CSR and Social Enterprise in the EU framework, in different member countries are dynamic concepts, of which their principles and values continuously evolve and

⁶ http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_en.htm

⁷ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:2020:FIN:EN:PDF>

⁸ <http://www.csreurope.org/our-strategy>

⁹ http://ec.europa.eu/internal_market/social_business/index_en.htm

follow the problems and challenges that local society face, during the time of financial crisis. Today, those challenges demand immediate solutions, under the perspective of future co-operation. This future perspective closely connects the concepts of CSR and Social Enterprise in the framework of the EU strategies for Sustainable Development and in a group of common policies and business implementation practices for the cooperation of companies that apply CSR and Social Enterprises. This co-operation will add social and additionally economic value to every country of the European Union that will apply horizontal and vertical policies and will ensure the viability, while simultaneously will mind the prosperity of future generations, which is the basis of my vision and will be defended in this paper.

The term social value, which derives from companies that apply CSR, from social enterprises and from their co-operation, causes a major problem, which arises, when the term of social value is used today. This problem lies in the fact that often the term social value is connected to the term of 'ethical business' practices. But, ethical business practice in companies has limited business oriental practice, given that it differentiates from country to country, also in the framework of the European Union, because of the different political, social, economical and business culture of each country (Scholtens and Lammertjan 2007). The variability of the concept and the business practice of ethical business affect the policies of Sustainable Development of the European Union and can be obviously transferred in a wrong way to the derivative term of social equity, environmental balance and not to the economic development of each country of the EU. The connection between companies that apply CSR and SEs with horizontal and vertical business practices, will define this cooperation, as a new business practice into the market for quality and sustainable products. This cooperation will add economic and social value to businesses that cooperate, in a local and European level. The products/services that will come from this cooperation will be competitive to local, European and national markets and will differ from business practices of moral enterprises.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Enterprises as policies of EU sustainable development and the business practices of companies in Greece may significantly contribute to confronting critical economic, social and environmental challenges.

In June 2014 the National Strategy Plan for CSR¹⁰ was published for consultation. Main target of this National Strategy Plan for CSR was the formulation of a complete action plan for deepening, disseminating and implementing the principles of CSR in Greece for the period of 2014-2020. Greek companies but also Public Entities are called to implement CSR

¹⁰ <http://www.opengov.gr/ypoian/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2014/07/eke.pdf>

into their business strategy and develop actions and corporate responsibility practices. The National Strategy regarding CSR has the following targets:

- To highlight the States' role through: a) the dissemination of CSR to businesses and materialization of CSR programs by them, b) the development of actions by the State itself
- To specify the key dimensions of a complete CSR National Strategy (policies and standards, measures and tools, implementation fields)
- To describe the supported infrastructures for shaping, implementing and evaluating the National Strategy, as well as the timetable for its realization.

The legislation in Greece for SEs regarding social economy and social entrepreneurship is updated with the Law N.4019/2011. With this Law a new form of Social Enterprise derives, the so called Enterprise of Social Cooperative (in Greek: Κοιν.Σ.Επ)¹¹. This type of social enterprise can take the following form:

- The Enterprises of Social Cooperative having social care as their main cause, aim in labor integration
- The Enterprises of Social Cooperative having production and common benefit as their main causes, the participants as well as the target groups are potentially every single citizen
- The Enterprises of Social Cooperative having social integration as their main cause aim in the integration of less benefited groups through employment.

These actions for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Social Enterprises aim in raising the positive impact of business operation towards society, according to the nature of their business. On this basis, the National CSR Strategic and Social Enterprise legislation tend to lead to the creation of a stable cooperative framework between stakeholders that will contribute to the development of CSR strategies and support Social Enterprises policies and actions in the framework of a completed approach, in order to succeed development with social cohesion, environmental protections and economic development. Special importance is given to the commitment and the participation of actions and interventions of stakeholders for the dissemination and realization of CSR strategies in relation with Social Enterprises policies. The European and international practice and especially the co-operation with Social Enterprises in local, European and international level in E.U. and Greece were taken into consideration for the formulation of the CSR National Strategy. Despite the fact, top companies today in Greece have gone a long way in communicating CSR for different

¹¹ <http://koinsep.org/%CE%BD-40192011/>

stakeholders, such as government entities, auditors and local communities, they have not moved forward to a business model for horizontal and vertical connection between CSR, which is implemented and SE business practices.

5. New business strategies for connecting companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises in the framework of the European Union Sustainable Development Policies

This paper will examine, if social enterprises are possible to reconcile and align the needs of society stakeholders with the entrepreneurial activity of businesses in local societies, in order to create the synergy of social value and to accelerate the implementation process of cooperation with companies that apply Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in local societies and the member states of the European Union. On the other side, companies that apply CSR, while creating the conditions of horizontal and vertical business cooperation with social enterprises are highlighting their role as socially responsible entities in local societies and in the member states of the European Union. Moreover, this paper will try to promote the principles of equal financial development through the creation of social and economic value for local societies and for the EU countries, in the framework of the strategic policies of the EU for Sustainable Development in the time of financial crisis.

Until now the relationship between Strategic Policies of the European Union regarding Social Enterprises has taken in the past several forms. Most of them can be mentioned below:

- **Support strategy:** This strategy is based in providing grants to private social services providers (ex social enterprises, NGO's) with very few restrictions or conditions, as long as its use is socially oriented (ex start up capitals for new social enterprises)
- **Motivation strategy:** In the framework of this strategy, public resources are allocated in private providers according to public policy targets. An example of this strategy is reducing the non wage labor cost, which is being paid as a grant for the recruitment of disabled employees or socially excluded people
- **Outsourcing strategy:** In this case, public administration contracts with a private provider for the provision of certain services, according to the parameters of public administration. This is the most common and known practice, especially in the field of social services
- **Coupon strategy:** The users are entitled access to specific services with the financing provided from public administration. This strategy is used in several countries in order to satisfy the existing demand for the health care of children and home care.

The above mentioned European Union strategies that promote Social Enterprises do not have the same social value to public administration or to other cooperative companies, as these strategies do not have the economic value to be developed, in order the social cohesion and economic development not be able to be benefited. Especially, the outsourcing strategies sometimes tend to limit innovation, as they focus on the provision of services, based on particular social parameters. The strategies of coupons and motives, on the other hand, allow more freedom for the creation of new types of services and new provision strategies, as they do not favor innovation and in some cases (ex coupons do not entirely cover expenses) they draw money from their own privates financing sources. As a result these companies are economically viable only in short term.

In this paper we suggest new strategies and policies for connecting Social Enterprises with companies that apply CSR in Greece and several member counties in the EU. They can take various forms, such as:

- **Sponsorship:** Companies provide financial support to SEs that may include cooperation in the promotion of the CSR program of companies to local society, as Social Enterprises have a thorough knowledge of the local societies' social and environmental problems
- **Counseling:** A company asks the advice of a Social Enterprise in issues regarding CSR, such as for a program that the company tends to elaborate regarding environmental protection or other social issues
- **Cooperation in research:** Both companies and Social Enterprises provide the necessary resources for social or environmental research programs. Companies through the CSR program can offer financing and Social Enterprises knowledge and executives
- **Employee training in order to promote volunteering:** Business executives that apply CSR are called to train Social Enterprises staff
- **Dialog Development:** A company that applies CSR develops systematic dialog with Social Enterprises, such as conducting "round table" discussion for different CSR issues
- **Elaborating common CSR programs:** The cooperative company that applies CSR participates in common actions and implements common social or environmental programs with Social Enterprises
- **Strategic Partnerships:** Long term cooperation between a Social Enterprise and a company that applies CSR can take the form of a written agreement, ex the provision of a common service or a new products/srvices

- **Mediation:** Social Enterprises and their networks are responsible for motivating other entities or local social enterprises in poor or less developed countries in order to cooperate with companies in the implementation of CSR programs
- **Commercial Network of consumer products and supplies:** Many social enterprises act while having as a target the consumer protection and they promote fair trade and certified social or environmental friendly products. In those commercial networks, companies, which apply CSR could cooperate, such as companies with P.D.O (Protected Designations of Origin)
- **Shareholder Activism and Stakeholder Advocate:** Many Social Enterprises and companies that apply CSR are participating in social funds that have adopted “Shareholder Activism and Stakeholder Advocate”. They buy a package of shares from non ethical enterprises and as they have minority interests in the general meetings of shareholders, they condemn potential infringement of business ethics in those companies in social and environmental issues and they suggest substantive changes in corporate policy.

In the framework of the EU policies for Sustainable Development the recognition and the analysis of interactions of the two business practice systems, of CSR and SE, has a theoretical as well as a practical importance. On the one hand, it will assist in the systematic understanding of processes that are developed by this cooperation and will allow accurate scientific predictions (theoretical impact). On the other hand, the collaboration of CSR and SE on European level will be an assessment for Sustainable Development in Europe (practical impact).

6. Innovation practices and policies through connecting companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises, in the framework of the European Union Sustainable Development Policies.

Companies, either the ones that are active in the rich countries of Northern Europe, or those of the poor South, may in the European Union Sustainable Development Policies framework, contribute to the growth of economic development, social cohesion and environmental protection and minimize the results of financial crisis. Companies are not responsible for all the bad things that have happened in this world; neither they possess the strength and the mechanisms of confronting every problem. However, they possess the expertise, the specialized personnel, the financial resources and the structure to contribute to the confrontation of social, environmental and economic aspects that affect them directly (Porter and Kramer 2006). According to Quelch and Jocz, (2009) CSR never had such an important role, as in this financial and social turbulent period in Europe and the USA.

On the other hand, Social Enterprises that operate in local level, provide products and services that affect every human of the local society separately, as well as the communities and the society in general. By helping people return to employment market, diminishing local inequalities in services and raising the access level in services and training, they contribute to the strengthening of social cohesion (Prabhu 1999, Chrissakis 2002). Local society is an integral part of business operation. The later contributes to the communities by providing those with jobs, salaries, social benefits, as well as taxes. Of course, businesses depend on health, stability and prosperity of the communities within they operate (Cannon 2000). There is also an interaction between companies and their natural environment. Many entrepreneurial good practices in the society nowadays have as their main cause the protection of local natural environment, the recruitment of people from local communities, the participation of stakeholders, mostly representatives of the social society in the decision process.

According to the above, during the times of financial crisis, the horizontal and vertical cooperation between companies that apply CSR and Social Enterprises will add new business strategies and new innovation practices and products/services; they will promote economic and social value and will create optimum European Union policies for Sustainable Development.

A short analysis for new business strategy and innovation practices is following:

- **Innovation development:** According to our vision, CSR and SEs as an entity should incorporate business social mission and management in their operation and respond to new market priorities, with new innovative business practices and products in order to succeed profitability. For those reasons products and services of social enterprises, of companies that apply CSR, as well as of those that arise from the cooperation between them must be flexible, adaptable, objective and provide management with a comparative advantage.
- **Corporate reputation improvement and development of new markets.** The improvement of reputation and of the concept of a commercial label of social enterprises and of companies that apply CSR comes from recognizing the improved quality of the product, on behalf of the consumer and of the investor that derives from issues that regard employees and from the sensitivity for social and environmental issues. Corporate reputation that is based on trust and appreciation, needs years to be gained, but can be lost in a short period of time, if the trust of the stakeholders and of the public is lost. Many companies that apply CSR practices and many Social Enterprises should be certificated with the equivalent certification of business management (ISO etc) and with P.D.O (Protected Designations of Origin), in order to declare their uniqueness from other similar products and be recognized in the certified

products and services market. With this business practice and with the proper communication mechanism, the cooperation in the value product chain of social capital of CSR and of Social Enterprises by the local and international market will be recognized.

- **Promoting CSR and social economy in the education.** Since the middle of 2000 field studies have proved the increasing desire of students and the demand in the incorporation of CSR and social economy studies in the educational process, besides traditional Schools, such as Economics and Business Administration (Sepetis and Rizos 2011, Moon and Orlitzky 2011). Many researchers have stated that in order such educational programs to be promoted, a higher demand by the enterprises and the public is needed, in order Moral Conscious in Education and Market to be developed. Many Universities, local administration entities and businesses express their interest for cooperation between CSR issues and social economy on several ways, which can be included as following: a) in the development of university education and research for CSR and social economy to students, to employees and local society, b) in the cooperation with businesses in matters of internships of students and education of employees in matters of CSR and social economy, c) in the development of educational tools for LLL, d) in the development of business tools in teaching CSR and social economy in the local community, e) in the education of students, regarding the principles of CSR and social economy for a fairer and more moral consumer market, f) in the implementation of common educational programs of CSR of the Universities with the local administration, in order to strengthen social enterprises. The success of CSR and of social enterprises derives from EU funding, such as the strengthening of education and the employment of local workforce.

- **Financial risk and improvement of the relationships with investors and financial market.** Financial organizations that apply CSR and investors, who actively participate in a dialogue and in a cooperation with businesses that apply CSR and with social enterprises, have a better view of the potential risks that they face and the capability to manage a potential crisis better and exit faster and with less losses of it. Despite the fact that financial organizations and investors are usually not interested in the non financial sides of social enterprises, the positively proven relationship between CSR and economic performance of businesses is not less interesting to them. For this reason, nowadays, a new financial market service has been created, which finances entirely companies that apply CSR and social enterprises. There are also a number of financial indexes that are used as a benchmark in order to compare the efficiency of companies and companies that apply CSR.

Companies that apply CSR and Social Enterprises are trying to succeed social value through the demonstration of innovation and the promotion of economical and social value. Succeeding this purpose, the cooperation of companies that applies CSR with Social Enterprises is ready!

Even, if this ascertainment seems to be very common, in reality multiple problems arise, that prevent the willingness and the ability that companies and the EU sustainable development policies have to activate towards the right direction.

For this reason a special effort is made here in order to formulate the right problems. In order to shape a common perception and therefore common action, there must be an agreed collaboration, namely a common rule, which will be formulated in order to:

- 1. The co-operation of companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises and the common business patterns will result to the concept of social and economic value and will lead to the improvement of the efficiency of the Common European Market*
- 2. The co-operation of companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises and the common business pattern will result to the concept of social and economic value and will lead simultaneously to the improvement of economic efficiency of businesses that apply it and add a comparative advantage to them, as well as to the countries that exercise their business operation.*

An important innovation that this paper tends to succeed is to provide mutual benefit and the best financial result to companies that apply CSR and to SEs, as well as to put limits on the social chain value of this cooperation. This can be succeeded through the creation of common certified products of social and economic value. The new pioneer ‘certified products of social and economic value’, such as for example the green certified products that will be derived from a vertical and horizontal cooperation between companies that apply CSR and Social Enterprises, will have access to a different market in the local society and in the international market of fair trade and of certified products.

On the other hand, socially responsible consumer and investor behavior is not limited to the market of products and services, but is extended to savings and investments. In other words, consumers pay special attention not only to what they are buying, but to where they invest their money, as well as to how their savings are used. A recent example of this is the movement of “Move your money”, which has started from the US as a reaction to financial crisis, which was caused – according to many people-by the unmoral financial practices of many banks and funds. The movement “Move your money” has been disseminated through internet and through social media and has encouraged public to transfer their savings from big

banks to social and cooperative banks, as they have to reward moral and responsible borrowing practices. Because of the raised sensitivity of the consumers to the above mentioned issues, the movement has rapidly expanded in the US and later to Europe. As a result, more than 10 millions of bank accounts have been transferred within a short period of time.

An additional innovation that is suggested in this research is the creation of certified products with financial social value that can come up as new financial products of the banking and the investment system and will finance and invest capitals only to services and products that have been created by horizontal and vertical cooperation of Social Enterprises with the companies that apply CSR.

According to our perspective in this paper, in every country of the European Union and in the framework of Sustainable Development, every company either applies CSR, or is a Social Enterprise, must for competitive and legislative reasons, incorporate its social mission, give social value and additionally economic value to its business operation and cope with new market priorities, with innovative social and business strategies. For these reasons it must be flexible, adjustable and objective and promote the comparative advantage to the business management of the companies they work with, in order CSR performance of companies to be recognized and the cooperation with social enterprises from the market to be counted as an element that upgrades the economic performance of the companies and their social value.

7. Conclusion and Discussion

The target of this paper is to research how the cooperation of companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises can create social and economic value and to promote a viable and sustainable development for the society in the framework of the European Union operation.

Financial crisis, in the framework of the European Union has caused reduction of companies' profits, and reduction in the financial resources to be allocated to CSR actions and for Social Enterprises. However, the greater the percentage a company has integrated in its strategic planning CSR and not in an ephemeral promotional program, the less the impact of CSR that will be affected by the financial crisis and will help the company escape of it, relatively unscathed. On the other hand, at times of financial crisis one of the first social values that Social Enterprises create is probably the most obvious, as it is shared between entrepreneurs and traditional businesses: the creation of jobs and employment. Social Enterprises use their economic powers in order to help employment for economically exhausted groups of people that seem to face difficulties regarding their social inclusion. In that way, they help in the reduction of unemployment and create a valuable product that benefits the economy as a total, as well as the local communities. Even this investment in human capital has some economic value, even, if it is hard to understand it with monetary terms.

Moreover, in a unique way, cooperation between companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises must co- create the production and supply of products and services in order to create social cohesion, environmental protection and economic development. CSR strategies and Social Enterprises shield the European Market against the financial crisis, help it escape faster and protect it from future crisis.

Etienne Davignon¹², the President of CSR Europe states: *“Companies with modern concepts do not face social and environmental challenges as obstacles, but as opportunities for innovation and development. In the rapidly growing field of corporate social responsibility, the emphasis is being moved towards a more visionary and business approach. The creation of common value and the identification of opportunities for innovation that can benefit equally businesses, society and the environment are being developed in priorities for a growing number of large and small companies. However, for many companies the challenge of the way to promote social entrepreneurship and innovation inside their companies, as well as beyond them, still exists”*.

¹² <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=738&langId=en&pubId=7523>

CSR aims in promoting the business perspectives of social sector through innovation and social leaders, who are positive towards managing and communicating the interest of all stakeholders for social enterprises. Moreover, with the participation of different stakeholders in the creation of social value, where social enterprises develop new products and/or services, they possess the ability of redefining the balance between social, environmental and economic issues of enterprises and local communities. Furthermore, through the incorporation of opinions from different stakeholders, where the benefit of one stakeholder does not mean the downgrading of others, social services are possible to agree with the interests of those stakeholders who have invested. In addition, social enterprises and CSR leaders can combine different stakeholders and help in the creation of multiple relationships between stakeholders that will help them in the future.

Companies, which apply CSR through the network of social enterprises, can use their supply practices for the creation of social value by providing from suppliers that are in a disadvantaged position or are mixed in social and environmental friendly suppliers. Fair Trade had as a goal to provide the producers, who were in a disadvantaged position, with the opportunity to skip out of their misery and allowed them access to the market with beneficial terms. Social value is also produced, when people are pushed to develop and open their businesses to wider communities, through international commerce that recognizes the certified companies and the products /services and creates new certified markets. Our suggestion for certified commercial products/ services and financial products/services, which have been created by the horizontal and vertical cooperation of companies that apply CSR and SE, will lead in these markets. These new products/services that have social and economic value, will incorporate the competitive advantage and the business skills of companies that apply CSR and also have the competitive advantage and the social network of social enterprises, ie. We will develop a Win-Win situation.

The financial crisis demands brave business strategies by business leaders and economic development policies that will be applied by the leaders of the European Union in order to balance the economic system in the framework of Sustainable Development.

The final choice for the connection of companies that apply CSR with Social Enterprises under conditions of financial crisis is based on the effort of responsible leaders for the decision making of businesses and of political leaders that shape the future policy strategies of the EU for Sustainable Development. The leaders, instead of engaging themselves to fruitless controversies, must cooperate and comprehend the social and

economic value that derives from the connection of CSR strategies with SE policies in the framework of the EU sustainable development policies.

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Social-Ecological Systems in Local Fisheries Communities

Abstract:

Even though the study of the commons has been expanding rapidly in the past years, and there have been multiple cases of successful local conservation initiatives, still, significant gaps in knowledge remain. The Social-Ecological Systems framework attempts to analyse the linkages between the “human system” (society) and the “natural system” (ecosystems). In every conservation attempt, the interactions and feedback between the two systems become evident. By examining thoroughly this relationship through the SES lens, we can develop a deep and holistic understanding of the processes that should be taken into consideration before the implementation of conservation actions. This study, through the exploration of the fisheries management procedures in Japan, attempts to develop an understanding of how the adoption of the Social-Ecological Systems approach could promote local development in the insular periphery of the developed world, in countries like Greece, where public participation in the decision-making processes is limited.

Eirini Ioanna Vlachopoulou, George O. Tsobanoglou¹

¹ George O. Tsobanoglou, University of the Aegean, Department of Sociology Email: g.tsobanoglou@soc.aegean.gr

1. Introduction

Grotius (1608), in his book “The Freedom of the Seas (*Mare Liberum*)”, he supported the notion that the sea constitutes a non-disposable common property, as opposed to land. The marine realm should be without borders, free of sovereignty and accessible to navigation (Cocco, 2013). However, this view of the world is treated as somewhat naïve nowadays. Especially in the case of fish stocks, which constitute a profound example of common-pool resources as defined by Ostrom et al. (1994), the current management approaches, based on central planning, and the absence of well-enforced, high quality property rights, have resulted in both declining stocks and decreasing fishermen’s profitability (Arnason, 2009). As governing authorities continue to design and implement managerial plans that cannot combat the “race to fish”, which is the result of constant increasing fishing effort due to the competition between fishermen in order to exploit a common-pool resource (Hardin, 1968), the degradation of the marine ecosystems and the artisanal fishing community livelihoods will only continue to spread (Arnason, 2009).

The current paradigm for conservation plans is far from holistic. In their majority, the management formulas ignore or downplay the importance of the human factor and focus mostly on conservation from a purely biological perspective (Bundy et al., 2008). However, the biotic community that constitutes an ecosystem and interacts with the surrounding environment inevitably includes humans. Humans consist one of the most significant factors of the ecosystem equilibrium, as ecosystem health is highly dependent on human behaviour and vice versa (Bundy et al., 2008). Nevertheless, managers, in their vast majority, tend to consider conservation and livelihoods as two conflicting goals: in order to maintain or increase one, the other must be sacrificed.

It is noteworthy, however, that there is an obvious international shift towards more sustainable fisheries, as the actors have begun to realise that there is an urgent need for a paradigm shift. Apart from the damage done to the marine habitats, unsustainable management decisions have also dealt a fatal blow to the local artisanal communities, resulting in income decline, impoverishment and village depopulation (UNEP-WCMC, 2006). Near-shore communities globally are being abandoned for an “easier” livelihood in the cities. In order to avoid utter collapse, multiple nations have started to adopt managerial frameworks focusing on the idea of decentralised, local management. Research has shown that the most efficient management choices are those that include some form of co-management of the resource. By co-management, in this study, we mean the sharing of responsibilities between governmental institutions and groups of users (Matsuda et al., 2009; Persoon et al., 2005).

This management concept cannot be implemented at the national level and it targets only a local habitat or ecosystem. While it is not panacea, co-management has several advantages, among which, it can create legitimacy, empowerment, and responsibility, especially through the inclusion of resource users in the decision-making process, as those involved in co-management gain not only responsibilities, but also rights, and in particular, management rights. (Jentoft, 2005). Firstly, the incorporation of local knowledge in the planning phase may increase significantly the efficiency of the management framework, as it multiplies the known parameters for the targeted resource. The knowledge that the fishermen and the generations of their ancestors before them, have gathered by working in the targeted area cannot be substituted by scientific research. However, the two can complement each other. In addition, by including the local stakeholders in the decision-making process and the following regulation implementation, the authorities may be relieved of significant financial costs, as the fishermen can undertake the task of enforcing the regulations, monitoring the resource and control the local activity (Jentoft, 2005). This approach also contributes highly to the enhancement of local social capital, by developing bonds between the fishermen, the community members, the authorities and the rest of the stakeholder groups, reducing thus conflict between the actors, by clearly defining rights and responsibilities, and by providing an institutional forum for discussion among decision-makers (Tsobanoglou, 2008; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2009).

In this concept, the importance of decentralization cannot be highlighted enough. It is at the local level that the stakeholders face the most prominent financial issues and it those communities that the management shift should target, in order to increase the success likelihood of income source fortification strategies (FAO, 2005). Participation of a variety of local stakeholders has the potential to improve significantly the legitimacy of management and to promote equity, by building a conservation ethic, through the involvement of fishermen in the decision-making processes and the sharing of responsibilities (Berdej et al., 2015; Cash and Moser, 2000; Reed, 2008). The development of social capital, has in turn, the potential of promoting social cohesion, leading thus to community capacity building (Jentoft, 2005; Pateman, 1970; Pomeroy and Kuperan Viswanathan, 2003; Tsobanoglou, 2008; Tsobanoglou, 2013).

Despite the international efforts, there is still extensive overexploitation of fish stocks all around the globe. The question is whether this turn towards community management can become a weapon against the desertification of the oceans and the collapse of the near-shore communities. This study is examining management concepts that may have the capacity to

promote sustainable marine management. Furthermore, in order to provide with a visualisation of the differences between co-management managerial concepts and the current paradigm, it will briefly explore a co-management best-practice case and will compare it with a management case based on the current paradigm.

2. Ecosystem-based Approach to Fisheries and Social-Ecological Systems

According to the United Nations Convention for Biological Diversity (UNCBD), the Ecosystem-based Approach (EA) is "a strategy for the integrated management of land, water, and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way." (De Young et al., 2008). Management based on the EA, namely Ecosystem-Based Management (EBM), is considered as the most comprehensive conceptual approach, seeking to maintain the food chain intact (Hall and Mainprize, 2004; Pikitch et al., 2004). When seeking to implement the EA and the EBM in the fisheries sector, we should initially consider the complexities that afflict the sector. According to (De Young et al., 2008), the complexities plaguing the fisheries sector consist of:

1. Multiple and conflicting objectives,
2. Multiple groups of fishermen and fishing fleets and conflicts among them,
3. Multiple post-harvest stages,
4. Complex social structures and socio-cultural influences on the fishery,
5. Institutional structures and interactions between fishermen and regulators, and
6. Interactions with the socioeconomic environment and the larger economy (Charles, 2001).

As a result, the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), in an attempt to incorporate the limitations of fisheries into the concept of EA, states that "an Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries (EAF) strives to balance diverse societal objectives, by taking account of the knowledge and uncertainties of biotic, abiotic and human components of ecosystems and their interactions and applying an integrated approach to fisheries within ecologically meaningful boundaries." (De Young et al., 2008).

Under the current global paradigm, conservation and management attempts rarely take into consideration the complexity and multi-level nature of fisheries. And, even though there are multiple documented cases of local-level conservation and management, still significant gaps in knowledge exist, which result in an urgent need for new policy insights (Berdej et al., 2015). The most significant issue within the existing conservation initiatives is

the lack of policy linkages between ecosystem health, livelihoods and other socio-economic goals.

Apart from the notion of ecosystem-based management, we should also take into account a wider range of concepts, such as ethics and social justice. When considering fisheries ethics, we mean the principles and values that people connected to fisheries follow in their everyday lives, varying from fishing activity impacts to social concerns, such as community reliance on local fish stocks (Coward et al., 2000). Social Justice on the other hand, refers to fair access and distribution of the benefits deriving from commercial fishing activity (Hernes et al., 2005; Loomis and Ditton, 1993). Lastly, but most importantly, the significance of power should not be downplayed. In the cases of shared power and responsibility is when the positive use of power is encountered and observed (Bundy et al., 2008).

In order to implement on an ecosystem a management system that assimilates the EAF and fulfills its requirements, it is important to be able to see the case study as an individual system, incorporating all its aspects, social and ecological, including the human factor (Berkes, 2003; Bundy et al., 2008), on a case-by-case examination, as human-in-nature systems are unpredictable and complex (Folke et al., 2002). This can be performed by drawing upon Elinor Ostrom's (2009) vision of the Social-Ecological Systems (SES) theoretical framework, and conducting a Social-Ecological System Analysis (SESA) for the ecosystem under examination (Berkes et al., 2014).

The basic idea of the SESA is based on the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA) (Hassan et al., 2005) and focuses on the explicit description and analysis of the linkages between the "human system" (society, communities economy etc) and the "natural system" (habitats, ecosystems etc). These linkages form a two-way feedback cycle, as in every conservation initiative there are interactions between the two systems. SESA takes into consideration the fact that many of these linkages have their roots and can be explained through local and/or traditional knowledge, legislation, social norms and management institutions (Berkes et al., 2014).

The SESA largely overlaps with the EAF, as it incorporates the basic considerations for management initiatives in the fisheries sector. According to (De Young et al., 2008):

1. The EAF must take place in the context of societal and/or community objectives, which inherently reflect human aspirations and values

2. As the EAF takes into account interactions between fisheries and ecosystems, this includes a wide range of complexities relating to human behaviour, human decision-making, human use of resources and so on.

3. Implementing the EAF is a human pursuit, with implications in terms of the institutional arrangements that are needed, the social and economic forces at play, and the carrots (incentives) and sticks (e.g. penalties) that can induce actions compatible with societal objectives.

While the SESA embraces the basic principles of the EAF, as well as its considerations, it goes beyond being a general management idea, to introducing tangible analytical frameworks and implementing the EAF in practice. On a case by case stage, the SESA can be used as a tool to evaluate the unique characteristics of the specific SES under examination and assist the researchers in the development of case-specific proposals, which incorporate both the natural and the human systems. Apart from the EAF and through it, the SESA embraced important conservation points from several other frameworks, like the Millennium Development Goals. By encompassing the EAF concept, SESA promotes the Millennium Development Goals by definition. More specifically, the most fundamental aspects of the EAF are sustainability of fish stocks coupled with societal objectives, such as poverty alleviation and food security; all of the above being stated as Millennium Development Goals (De Young et al., 2008).

Furthermore, the SESA takes into account the precautionary principle, by assessing the interlinkages between the various compartments of the examined cases and by promoting continuous re-evaluation and adjustment of the management actions, in accordance with FAO (1996) (p.8), "Management according to the precautionary approach exercises prudent foresight to avoid unacceptable or undesirable situations, taking into account that changes in fisheries systems are only slowly reversible, difficult to control, not well understood, and subject to change in the environment and human values. [...] Precautionary management involves explicit consideration of undesirable and potentially unacceptable outcomes and provides contingency and other plans to avoid or mitigate such outcomes. Undesirable or unacceptable harvesting capacity, loss of biodiversity, major physical disturbances of sensitive biotopes, or social or economic dislocations. Undesirable conditions can also arise when a fishery is negatively influenced by other fisheries or other activities and when management fails to take action in the face of shifts in the external conditions affecting, for example the productivity of the fish stocks."

Japan

In Japan, the basic principle of the EAF, that fishing communities ought to be considered as part of the ecosystem (Coward et al., 2000; Sumaila et al., 2000), is the basis for the management framework. The local fishermen are an integral component of the ecosystem, rather than unwanted extras to be eliminated from the “original ecosystem” (Makino, 2011). They are expected to play an indispensable management role, especially with regard to ecosystem monitoring and resource management. Responsible fisheries run by local resource users can contribute to the realization of cost-effective ecosystem-based management (Makino, 2010). They are the principal decision makers and marine resource conservation is an central concept of resource use (Makino and Matsuda, 2005). Through years of trial and error, viable management plans have been adopted, which depend highly on the fishermen themselves. However, they are not the sole actors in the decision making process and its implementation, as the local authorities and national governments play a significant role in delivering the necessary legislation on fishing rights and resource conservation (Makino, 2011). In addition, educational institutions provide support to the decision makers in the form of scientific information and administrative advice (Makino and Matsuda, 2005). In accordance with the Japanese case, in order for fisheries co-management to succeed, it is necessary that the fishermen conceive the stocks as their own, as they adopt a more positive attitude towards management and conservation (Yamamoto, 1995). Fishermen are willing to embrace the management concepts that constitute co-management, as long as they are at least economically neutral, and the potential to increase their economic gains is not unduly constrained (Sumaila et al., 2000). Nevertheless, even when the local fishermen adopt the notion of co-management, research institutions and governments continue to play major roles in this framework (Makino and Matsuda, 2005).

This arrangement steams from the fact that marine management in Japan is characterized by a long history of coastal co-management of fishermen's organizations (Makino et al., 2009; Matsuda et al., 2009). It is due to the complexity of the system and its intensive nature, that fisheries coordination and resource conservation cannot be implemented effectively in a top-down, command-and-control manner. Fisheries management organizations (FMOs) consisting of allied fishermen, play a core role in decision making, and then implementing and enforcing the measures they decide on their own initiative. Local and central government officials and researchers support FMOs' activities with legal advice and scientific information (Makino, 2011). Since the first legal provision for fisheries operations in the 8th century, the fundamental concept of fisheries management in Japan has been

fisheries management by the resource users themselves. This concept has been passed down to even the most recent management system, such as Total Allowable Catches (TACs) which were adopted in Japan in 1997, and the Resource Recovery Plan that was established in 2001 (Makino and Matsuda, 2011). The legal documents support this framework. For example, according to Article 7 of the Fishery Act, a right of common fishery or common-of-piscary right is authorized to each fishery cooperative association upon its application to the prefectural governor on a five-year basis. It is a collective right of the association members. It can then be understood that it is also a right of an individual fisherman as an association member. Each association holds regular or irregular meetings of its members, sets its own fishing regulations and decides on important issues. In the process of decision-making, democracy among members prevails. If the issue under discussion is a crucial one concerned with the future of all member families however, the decision is often required to be unanimous (Murota, 2013).

Best-practice case in Japan – Shiretoko World Natural Heritage Site

Specific fisheries in Japan have an extraordinary record of efficient management practices to display. An extraordinary example can be found in the northern part of Japan, in the Shiretoko Peninsula, where the local stakeholders have come together to develop a holistic management scheme for their marine and terrestrial environmental resources. Their effort was also supported by the fact that the Japanese Government had nominated the Shiretoko Peninsula as UNESCO World Natural Heritage (Makino, 2011; Makino et al., 2009; Matsuda et al., 2009). The publicity urged the stakeholder groups to cooperate more closely in order to fulfil the UNESCO requirements without compromising their communal interests. Through extensive consultation and supported by the Japanese local and national governments and various academic institutions, the Shiretoko World Natural Heritage Site Scientific Council was founded, with the aim to build consensus among the stakeholders and adopt the ecosystem approach. As representatives from most stakeholder groups are participating in the Council, multiple group interests, including tourism, fisheries, governance, agriculture and science are voiced during the decision-making process (Vlachopoulou et al., 2014). The Shiretoko Natural Heritage Site Management Plan has made significant achievements, by adopting viable trade-offs between conservation, fisheries management and tourism, resulting in a sustainable and largely self-funded conservation scheme (Makino, 2011). However, these achievements, and more specifically the high transparency level and consensus building, can be attributed to the fact that UNESCO had very high requirements in terms of sustainability in

order to approve the Shiretoko nomination, and that the Japanese Government had guaranteed that there would be no additional fisheries regulations included in the management plan.

If seen through an SES lens, the local stakeholders show a high level of motivation as the fishermen, holding a long tradition of self-implemented conservation actions, take pride in the protection of the local marine environment, upon which their livelihoods depend (Berkes et al., 2014). Furthermore, the local community, supported by the local and national governments, see the Shiretoko habitat as an area worth protecting, for they have direct benefits from incoming tourism. The nomination for World Heritage played an important role on guiding the public perception towards embracing conservation as it increased the perceived value of the area. Despite the existence of interest conflicts between the stakeholder groups, the participants are effectively using negotiation tools in order to slowly overcome their differences. The fact that the importance of academic input is acknowledged by all parties improves the capacity for conflict resolution through mediation from a third party (Academia).

Greece

In contrast with Japan, the situation in Greece seems quite dire. Despite the fact that extensive legislation on fisheries management, both national and international, is in place, its enforcement is minimal (Vlachopoulou et al., 2013). The marine habitats have been gradually deteriorating, resulting not only in the loss of a large proportion of fish stocks, but also in the reduction of the livelihoods of the local artisanal fishing communities (Special Secretariat for Planning Applications & 3rd Community Support Framework, 2007; Waycott et al., 2009). The EU laws are being disrespected and no management plan has been put in place. Furthermore, the majority of the population is not involved in the control and regulation of the national waters, as the state is highly centralized. The fishermen have minimal participation in the decision-making processes, the management of the marine resources or the enforcement of the legislation, and as result, their needs and local knowledge are not being voiced during the management procedures (Tsobanoglou and Vlachopoulou, 2013). As a consequence, the current status quo does not seem to change, even though the quality of life of the artisanal fishermen and their families has been deteriorating (Tsobanoglou, 2007; Vlachopoulou et al., 2013).

The Greek State is detached from marine management. The General Secretariat for Fisheries was alternating between various Ministries, and it was only settled within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Rural Development and Food during the past two years. Even

though the EU has been promoting Blue Growth with special focus on public participation and sustainability within the Union Area (European Commission, 2013), in Greece the European directions have not been followed and the country is continuously facing the threat of penalties. Although various national projects for fisheries data collection and species-specific conservation have been deployed (e.g. eel), the state has been largely unable to provide the necessary financial support and, inadvertently, the projects have failed to produce results (Stergiou, 2013).

Despite the fact that no general marine management plan exists, some steps have been taken, even though small and incomplete. According to (Abdulla et al., 2008), four Marine Protection Areas have been recognized officially in Greece:

1. Alonissos – Vories Sporades
2. Messolonghi – Aetoliko lagoons, estuaries of Acheloos and Evinos and Echinades Islands
3. Schinias – Marathonas
4. Zakynthos

However, out of the 4 Greek MPAs, there is data available only for the two which are National Parks. Furthermore, in the MPAs, the fishermen have no role to play in the management section, as there is no legislative background to allow participation in the decision-making processes, or even the provision of monitoring and control support (Tsobanoglou and Vlachopoulou, 2013).

4. Conclusions

Even though the international paradigm is shifting towards more sustainable and holistic management approaches, several actors are still not following the same pattern. As Coward et al. (2000) state, “Nothing raises the issues of justice more acutely than conditions of scarcity. When resources are abundant [...] there is little question of how they should be managed.” As the fisheries are still largely perceived as common pool resources, and their abundance -or lack thereof- is difficult to calculate, mostly due to mobility, the question of effective management still remains widely unanswered. This phenomenon is even more evident in areas like the insular territory of Greece, where there is limited communication and collaboration between stakeholder groups. The fishermen are aware of the continuous decline of the numbers of fish stocks, but they believe that they are unable to take action in order to preserve their income source (Vlachopoulou et al., 2013). It is important thus, at both the national and the local level, to understand the significance of the new management trends and

to adopt globally a more sustainable approach, which will encompass both the ecological and the social aspects of conservation.

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Assessing Entrepreneurial Intentions of Secondary Education Students in Greece

Abstract: The present paper, taking into account the significance of secondary education towards the enhancement of entrepreneurship, investigates the factors that strengthen students' entrepreneurial intentions, with the aim to create a much more effective entrepreneurship education that is subsequently anticipated to enhance Greek entrepreneurship in general. More specifically, utilizing the findings of a respective fieldwork with recipients ninety (90) secondary evening school students, it examines and accesses the role and importance of factors such as desire, self-efficacy as well as environmental barriers regarding students' choice/intention to initiate an entrepreneurial related activity in the forthcoming future. Finally, utilizing the findings of the respective research, it attempts to draw specific guidelines with the scope to facilitate effective planning of youth entrepreneurship enhancement in Greece.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurship education, secondary education, Greek education policy, vocational education, Lyceum

Dimitrios G. Ierapetritis¹

¹ Hellenic Open University, School of Humanities.

1. Introduction

Greece is in the sixth year of deep recession. Lower public spending, falling incomes and a drop in consumer spending has caused a sharp decline in the Greek business economy. From 2010 to 2013 Greece lost in total 20.4% of its G.D.P. This fact had a series of vital interconnections and a major impact both on entrepreneurship and on employment. Due to economic crisis, approximately 75,6 thousand enterprises have ceased their business activity – i.e. approximately 30% of the enterprises; the general unemployment rate in Greece reached 27,5% in 2013 (increase of 252,5% in the period 2008 to 2013), whereas the respective unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 reached 58,3% (Bank of Greece, 2014). Wholesale and retail trade have suffered significant losses; since 2008, the S.M.E.s' value added in these sectors recorded a drop of 39%, while on the same period employment has decreased by approximately 21% (European Commission, 2015:2).

Entrepreneurship has been considered as a lever of economic growth as enterprises play a significant role in introducing and implementing innovations, in increasing productivity and in diffusing knowledge (Schumpeter, 1982, Baumol, 1986). Therefore, there were several scientists who sought the ways in which it can be developed, transferred or even better taught by introducing the notion of entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship education was first introduced in higher education. S.Fijii was the first who introduced in 1938 entrepreneurship education at Kobe University in Japan. Nearly thirty years later (1970), twenty five institutions of higher education were teaching entrepreneurial studies in the U.S.. By 1985, entrepreneurship was being taught by two hundred and fifty three schools of higher education, and in 1992 the number was over 500 learning establishments in the U.S.(Dana, 1992). According to L.P.Dana, one of the first courses on entrepreneurship in Europe was introduced in 1974 at Barcelona's Universidad de Navarra. Only some years earlier (1971), Durham University Business School supplied courses on management skills in Small and Medium Enterprises. Entrepreneurship education at its first appearances in Europe recorded certain differences compared with the educational programs in U.S., such as the practical approach of programs in Europe (how to structure a business letter, how to order inventory and how to negotiate a transaction), the spread of entrepreneurship programs to nonmetropolitan schools in Europe and the concentration on managerial skills devoted to training managers for European S.M.E's (Dana, 1992).

Almost all E.U. countries recognise the importance of entrepreneurship education as one of the main directions of their national strategy. Some of these countries have incorporated the promotion of entrepreneurship education in the framework of a wider strategy for lifelong learning, educating young people or even for sustainable development, while others -mostly in Northern Europe- have adopted a specialised strategy for entrepreneurship education (European Commission, (2012b). The basic goal of entrepreneurship education is to cultivate and develop the attitude, the knowledge and competencies that will allow students to operate in a business way in all their activities. It is worth noting that entrepreneurship is one of the eight basic competencies for lifelong learning and training that are considered essential for the personal fulfilment and development, social inclusion, active citizenship, and employment and it includes creativity, innovation, taking risks and at the same time the ability to plan and administrate projects in order to achieve specific objectives¹. This includes, according to the European Council and the Council of the European Union, all the educational activities seeking to prepare responsible *enterprising individuals who have the skills, knowledge and attitudes needed to prepare them to achieve the goals they set for themselves to live a fulfilled life*². In the last few years, the European Commission has developed both at strategic and at operational level, a systematic support in the development of entrepreneurship education³. The strategic plan *Education and Training 2020* provides four strategic objectives for EU member states: making lifelong learning and mobility a reality; improving the quality and efficiency of education and training; promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship; and enhancing creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship at all levels of education and training⁴. At the same time, the *Entrepreneurship Action Plan*, which was launched in 2013, aims mainly at reigniting the entrepreneurial spirit in Europe,

1 European Commission (2011), *Key Competence for Life-Long Learning* <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EL/TXT/?uri=URISERV:c11090>, [in Greek] downloaded in 4.11.2015.

2 European Commission (2011), *Recommendation 2006/962/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning* [Official Journal L 394 of 30.12.2006], <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EL/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006H0962&from=EN> [in Greek] downloaded in 4.11.2015.

3 European Commission (2012), *Commission presents new Rethinking Education Strategy*, Press Release, http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-12-1233_el.htm [in Greek] downloaded in 4.11.2015.

4 Soezen, F., *European Activities in Entrepreneurship education, From Oslo 2006 to European Education and Training Strategy 2020*, SIEC Denver Conference 2012, downloaded from <http://www.siec-isbe.org/uploads/8/9/6/2/8962951/p01.pdf> in 04.09.2015.

through, among other things, educating young people in entrepreneurship¹. Scientists have ascertained that education can positively influence the attitude of students toward entrepreneurship and improve their entrepreneurial perceived self-efficacy (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994, Ahmet *et al*, 2010, Basu and Virick, 2008), while the lack of the latter, results in low levels of intention to establish an enterprise (Franke and Luthje, 2004). Understanding the factors that influence and shape individuals' intentions of starting a business is critical, if educational programs and policies are to be developed to foster entrepreneurial behaviour and for that purpose several conceptual models have been already developed (Kennedy *et al*, 2003). According to Krueger, there is little variation among the different approaches taken in these models (Krueger *et al*, 2000). Ajzen proposed *the theory of planned behaviour* which suggested three key attitudes that predict intentions, namely attitudes towards the act, social norms and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Shapero suggested the model of the “*Entrepreneurial Event*” in which intentions to start a business derive from perceptions of desirability and feasibility and from a propensity to act upon opportunities (Shapero 1982). Krueger and Brazeal designed a model of potential entrepreneurship that incorporated entrepreneurial intentions based on the “*Theory of planned behaviour* and the “*Entrepreneurial Event*”, including perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to act. On the one hand, perceived desirability was related to intrinsic rewards and motivating factors associated with entrepreneurship and on the other hand, perceived feasibility was seen to be related to individual's perceptions of their ability to implement as an entrepreneur, related to their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Alternatively, Bird's model suggests that entrepreneurial intention is based on a combination of personal and contextual factors (Boyd and Vozikis, 1994). Personal factors consist of personality characteristics, abilities and prior entrepreneurial experience. Contextual factors include social, political and economic variables such as changes in markets, displacement and government deregulation (Bird, 1988).

2. Methodology

In the context of this paper, a combination of interpretative models-approaches of entrepreneurial intention is attempted, by employing and accessing as key hypotheses,

¹ European Commission, (2013) Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan downloaded from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EL/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52012DC0795&from=EN> [in Greek] downloaded in 4.09.2015.

firstly whether students with high desire (perceived) have high entrepreneurship intentions in comparison to students with low desire, secondly, whether students with high self-efficacy have high entrepreneurship intentions compared with low self-efficacy students (Salavou, 2013), thirdly, whether students who see no major external barriers apparent for entrepreneurial activities, have increased entrepreneurship intentions compared with students who consider that significant external obstacles are apparent, and lastly, whether Vocational Lyceum students will have increased entrepreneurship intentions in comparison with General Lyceum students.

The survey (questionnaires, explanatory method etc.) was designed exclusively based on the characteristics of Lyceum students in order to overcome the difficulties of the quantitative research methods; this contributed to their high response to the survey. More specifically, a field survey was conducted in spring 2014 in which participated nearly the total of the student population from two different types of Evening Lyceums (General Evening Lyceum of Pallini and 1st Evening Vocational Lyceum of Koropi) located in the areas of Mesogeia, Eastern Attica, in the region of Attica. Ninety (90) students participated in total, fifty (50) of which were students of Vocational Lyceum (55.6% of the total) and the remaining forty (40) were students of the General Lyceum (44.4% of the total). A structured questionnaire was designed including closed questions using mainly the five-point Likert scale (*no, moderate, good, very good, excellent*) and the choice in-between the answers “yes” or “no”. The questionnaire included questions regarding demographic characteristics (gender, employment status, entrepreneurial experience and type of their Lyceum) in relation to entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, it brought to light concerns regarding the perceived desirability the perceived self-efficacy and a number of factors that act as barriers to entrepreneurship.

Key consideration of the respective research was the relation between entrepreneurial intentions and identified determining factors (i.e. perceived desire and self-efficacy as well as the perceived existence of barriers to entrepreneurship). The option to commence or not a new entrepreneurial activity was set as independent variable, while dependent variables selected, comprised a) the four most favorable responses of students to given questionnaire regarding perceived desire (i.e. “to have a job”, “to be able to cover my basic living needs”, “to take advantage of an entrepreneurial opportunity”, “to have the joy of creating”), b) the six most favorable responses of students to given questionnaire regarding perceived self-efficacy (i.e. “I set

targets and I achieve them”, “I use my time effectively”, “I am adaptable to changes”, “I am persistent”, “When I start something I feel excitement and enthusiasm”, “I collaborate effectively with other individuals within a team”), as well as c) the five most favorable responses of students to given questionnaire regarding perceived barriers (i.e. “Taxation”, “High cost of social security contributions”, “Lack of funds”, “Economic crisis – reduced demand” and “Bureaucracy”).

Categorical variables are summarized through tables of absolute (N) and relative (%) frequencies whereas mean and standard deviations are used to summarize the distribution of quantitative ones including those referring to the questions’ scores. Median and interquartile (IQR) range is used to describe the distribution of the derived average scale referring to the whole set of questions on self-efficacy. This average scale was calculated as the average of all self-efficacy questions’ scores. Differences in the distribution of scores by groups were assessed through the Kendall’s tau measure of association and the corresponding test in order to take into account the ordered nature of the scores variables. Correlation of the average self-efficacy scale with age was assessed through the non-parametric test for trend. Univariable and multivariable logistic models were also used to assess the significance and strength of the associations between the questions’ scores and the probability of having entrepreneurship intentions (odds ratio, p-value). P-values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant whereas those between 0.05 and 0.10 were reported as indicative. All analyses have been performed using Stata 11 (Stata Corp., TX USA).

3. Research Results

In the first quarter of 2014 a field survey was conducted in order to investigate the entrepreneurship intentions of Greek Secondary School students. In the survey participated a sample of student population from two different types of Evening Lyceums (General and Vocational) located in the areas of Mesogeia, Eastern Attica. Ninety (90) students participated in total, fifty (50) of which were students of Vocational Lyceum (55.6% of the total) and the remaining forty (40) were students of the General Lyceum (44.4% of the total). Students’ profiling showed that a great percentage of the students were adults, economically active in their majority, as they were working during the day. Many of them had previous business experience and were capable of expressing in a mature and sincere way their intention to commence business activity in the future. The demographic analysis of the total of students

participating in the research showed that 58.4% were men, whereas the remaining 41.6% were women. Regarding the students' age groups, 23.3% were aged 16-19, followed by 24.4% aged 20-29 and 15.6% aged 30-39. A significant 20% of the students were between 40-54 years old (while 16.7% of the students participating did not respond to the specific question) (see Table 1).

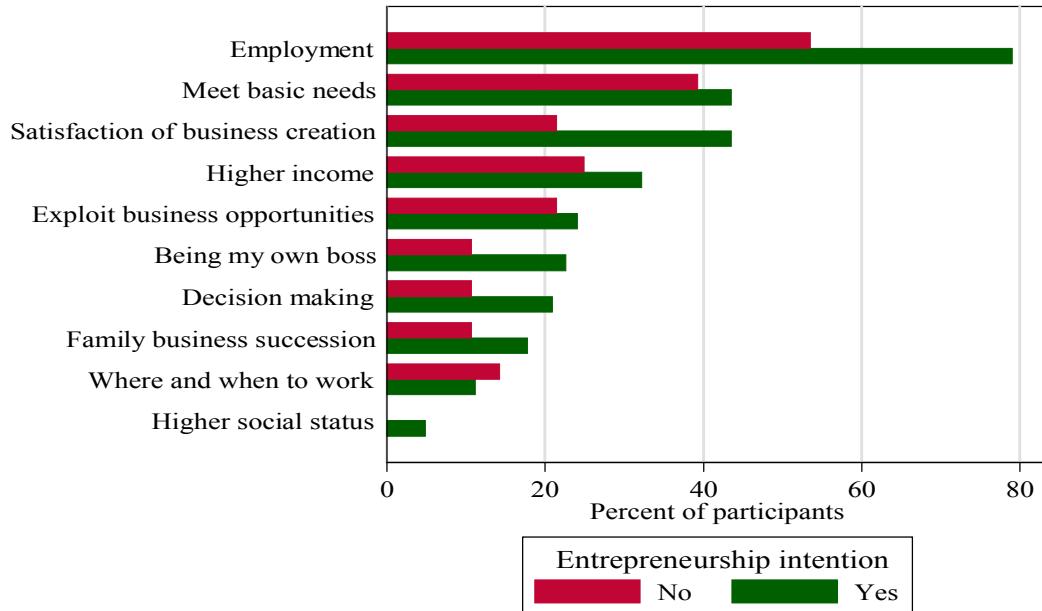
Out of a total of 90 students, 51.8% stated that they work, whereas the remaining 48.2% were unemployed. It is worth noting that 7.9% of the students stated that they were already active as entrepreneurs, strengthening the validity of the survey results. Moreover, it is interesting to note that 14.6% stated that they have previous business experience that the 76.9% of them would consider commencing a business again in the future. Regarding the entrepreneurial intention in relation to the type of Lyceum the survey's results showed that Vocational Lyceum students had stronger intention in comparison with the General Lyceum students (58.1% and 41.7%, respectively). However, moving on to a statistical analysis of the data, it was evident that there was no significant correlation of some of the demographic or social features of the participants with their intention to commence a business in the immediate future (see Table 1).

Afterwards, students' perceived desire was assessed, where the motives-desires based on which, students would decide to proceed to the foundation of an enterprise were recorded. The factors that were analyzed during the said process, inter-alia included, the ensuring of employment, meeting basic living needs, the ability to decide about the "where" and "when" to work, the exploitation of business opportunity, the desire for higher income, the desire of being his/her own boss, the desire to make his/her own decisions, the desire for higher social recognition, family business succession, as well as the satisfaction deriving from the entrepreneurial creativity.

The analysis of survey's results, highlighted that resource to employment (71,1% of the students), as well as meeting basic living needs (42,2% of the students), constitute two significant factors that strengthen entrepreneurial intention, while both further suggested that choice towards entrepreneurship is ruled by necessity. In addition, another particularly important factor of encouraging entrepreneurial intention, was the desire for satisfaction via the business creativity (36,7% of the students). The latter was followed by the acquisition of higher income (30% of students) and the exploitation of business opportunities (23,3% of total). Nevertheless, the said analysis pointed out as statistically significant, the cross-correlation between the declared intentions for taking

an entrepreneurial initiative, the seeking of employment, as well as the desire for business creativity. The latter is self-substantiated by the recorded high rates of unemployment, particularly regarding the young population, as well as the declared high unemployment rates of students participating in the respective research (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. 'Pull' and 'push' factors by entrepreneurship intention (percents are given over number of participants per category)



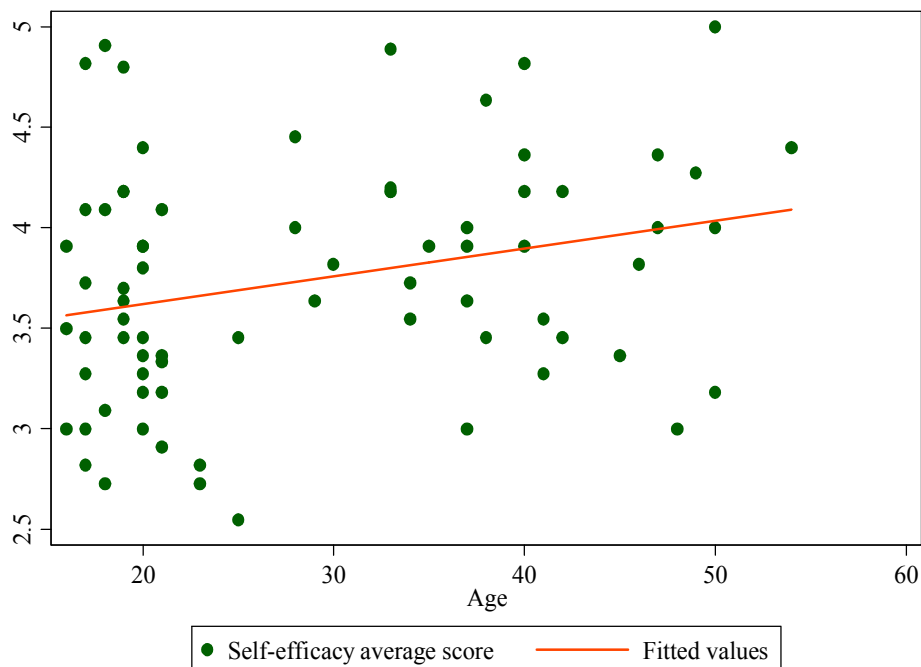
Source: Field Research

The second element assessed and further analyzed from the students of secondary education responses, was the perceived self-efficacy. More specifically, through the survey, students were requested to evaluate their personal capabilities in combination to a series of matters, such as, setting and achieving targets/goals, identifying profit opportunities, managing time effectively, successfully delegating tasks, undertaking risks, working under pressure, adapting easily to changes, being persistent with what they do, embracing with enthusiasm every new initiative taken, collaborating efficiently in teams, as well as overcoming fear of failure.

The results' analysis clearly indicated that a strong positive cross-correlation between the positive intention of students to develop an entrepreneurial initiative in the forthcoming future and their declared self-efficacy (according to the mean of perceived self-efficacy responses; odds ratio:1.76; meaning that one unit increase in perceived self-efficacy, consequently leads to a 76% chances' increase for positive entrepreneurial

intentions to emerge). Moreover, the aforementioned positive cross-correlation was also evident through students' stated opinions regarding their side capabilities and skills that are directly linked to their declared intention "to acknowledge opportunities" (odds ratio:1.85), "to delegate responsibilities effectively" (odds ratio: 1.49), "to be part of effective team work" (odds ratio: 1.44), "to show enthusiasm at the beginning" (odds ratio:1.43), "to set and achieve goals" (odds ratio:1.26), "to efficiently exercise time management" (odds ratio:1.20), and "to be easily adaptable to change"(odds ratio:1.16). Hence, it was vigorously supported that students with high perceived self-efficacy will consequently express high entrepreneurial intentions, in comparison to low perceived self-efficacy students. It is worth noting that the average grade regarding perceived self-efficacy of secondary education students tends to increase in parallel to the age increase of the latter, as further illustrated in Diagrams 2, presented here-below. From the data presented in Table 4, it is evident that the older the student interviewed, the higher his/her average rate of perceived self-efficacy would be.

Figure 2. Distribution (box-plots) of the self-efficacy average score by age



Source: Field Research

Finally, within the context of the present study, it was further investigated whether and to what extent, secondary education students consider as barriers to

entrepreneurship, factors such as “taxation”, “social security cost”, “lack of occupational specialization”, “lack of entrepreneurial education”, “lack of governmental support”, “lack of funds”, “competition”, “economic crisis-weak demand”, “bureaucracy” and “entrepreneurship social acceptance”. The detailed analysis of findings (depicted in Table 6 herein), pointed out that “taxation” constitutes an extremely important barrier to the undertaking of entrepreneurial initiative, as it was illustrated through the declared perception of 71% of the total number of students participating in the survey. The foregoing carries an even heavier weight when considering that similar responses were provided by the majority of students expressing a positive intention towards entrepreneurship (72,6% of total). Moreover, a large number of interviewed students perceived “economic crisis-weak demand”, as well as “bureaucracy” as significant factors influencing entrepreneurship decisions (58% and 50% of total, respectively) (Table 7). The latter were followed by factors such as “social security cost”, “lack of funding” and “lack of governmental support” (48,9%, 48,9% and 46,7%, respectively). The analysis highlighted as significant, the statistical correlation between the perceived barriers and the students’ intention to establish their own enterprise in the future sufficiently substantiating in this way, the argument that the students who consider the existence of low barriers, will express stronger entrepreneurial intentions, in comparison with students which perceive higher barriers as existent (Table 6).

4. Conclusions

The findings of the analysis presented in the present paper, highlighted that resource to employment, as well as meeting basic living needs, constitute two significant factors that strengthen entrepreneurial intention of secondary education students in Greece, suggesting that choice towards entrepreneurship is ruled by necessity. In addition, another particularly important factor of encouraging entrepreneurial intention is the desire for satisfaction via the business creativity.

Furthermore, the survey’s findings indicated that students with high perceived self-efficacy will consequently express high entrepreneurial intentions. It is worth noting that the average grade regarding perceived self-efficacy of secondary education students tends to increase in parallel to the age increase of the latter. Moreover, the study pointed out that “taxation” constitutes an extremely important barrier to the undertaking of entrepreneurial initiative, followed by “economic crisis-weak demand”,

as well as “bureaucracy”. Another outcome of the study was that students, who consider the existence of low barriers, will express stronger entrepreneurial intentions, in comparison with students which perceive higher barriers as existent.

Secondary education students, in order to undertake an enterprising initiative and while acknowledging the apparent barriers hindering any such future intention, are required to have the desire to do so, but more importantly, to be capable in doing so. The introduction of entrepreneurial education from their early school years, is of paramount importance, as this, on the one hand will enhance their respective desire and on the other hand, will improve their related capabilities and skills necessary for guaranteeing a successful entrepreneurial path in the future.

The high percentages of unemployment, the shrinking of the total number of Greek enterprises, as well as the less-favoured competitive place of the existing Greek SMEs, call for the immediate promotion of a national strategic plan for entrepreneurship education and for a National Action Plan in order to implement entrepreneurship education at all levels and types of education in Greece (formal-informal, elementary, secondary and tertiary education) through the institutional co-operation of the Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs, the Ministry of Economy, Development and Tourism and the Ministry of Rural Development and Food in order to plan a national strategy for entrepreneurship education.

Especially in secondary education, the objectives of a national strategy should include the raise of interest and the students' familiarisation with entrepreneurship, the enhancement of business spirit, the development of business knowledge and competencies and the promotion of a business attitude. Needless to say, priority must be given to Vocational Lyceums, where students state to a greater extent their intention to commence a business and formulate a particular professional profile studying in vocational specialisations that in most cases is expected to lead them to the commencement of an enterprise.

Utilizing the findings of the research regarding students' perceived desire, and focusing on the role that the secondary education is required to play in respect to the cultivation and enhancement of students' entrepreneurial intentions, it is evident that respective education should show significant importance to the placement of entrepreneurship as a key resource to employment, as well as an opportunity for the development of students' creativity.

Finally, research findings suggest that during a potential revision of the entrepreneurial education's scope, emphasis should be laid on the strengthening of knowledge, capabilities and skills related to business management. Such skills should inter alia include the creation of business ideas, identification of profit opportunities, team collaboration and effective allocation of responsibilities, as well as business knowledge. In conclusion, entrepreneurial education should focus on management methods, including but not limited to management by objectives, management of change and time management.

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APPENDICES

Table 1. Demographic and other characteristics of study population by entrepreneurship intention and overall

	Entrepreneurship intention			p-value
	No (N=)	Yes (N=)	Overall	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Gender				0.49
Male	18 (64)	34 (55)	52 (58)	
Female	10 (35)	27 (44)	37 (41)	
Employed				>0.9
No	13 (50)	28 (47)	41 (48)	
Yes	13 (50)	31 (52)	44 (51)	
Entrepreneurial				0.20
No	24 (85)	58 (95)	82 (92)	
Yes	4 (14)	3 (4)	7 (7)	
Previous entrepreneurial experience				0.74
No	25 (89)	51 (83)	76 (85)	
Yes	3 (10)	10 (16)	13 (14)	
Secondary Education				0.50
General Lyceum	14 (50)	26 (41)	40 (44)	
Vocational Lyceum	14 (50)	36 (58)	50 (55)	
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	p-value
Age	31.5 (10.1)	27.7 (10.1)	28.8 (10.1)	0.19

Source: Field Research

Table 2. 'Pull' and 'push' factors by entrepreneurship intention and overall (percents are given over number of participants per category)

	Entrepreneurship intention			p-value
	No (N=28)	Yes (N=28)	Overall	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Employment	15 (53.6)	49 (79)	64 (71)	0.00
Meet basic needs	11 (39.3)	27 (43)	38 (42)	0.00
Where and when to work	4 (14.3)	7 (11)	11 (12)	0.00
Exploit business opportunities	6 (21.4)	15 (24)	21 (23)	>0.9
Decision making	3 (10.7)	13 (21)	16 (17)	0.00
Being my own boss	3 (10.7)	14 (22)	17 (18)	0.00
Higher income	7 (25.0)	20 (32)	27 (30)	0.00
Higher social status	0 (0.0)	3 (4.8)	3 (3.3)	0.00
Family business success	3 (10.7)	11 (17)	14 (15)	0.00
Satisfaction of business	6 (21.4)	27 (43)	33 (36)	0.00

Source: Field Research

Table 3. Distribution of responses to self-efficacy questions by entrepreneurship intention (Average score Mean- Standard Deviation)

	No	Yes	Overall	p (Kendall's)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Setting and achieving goals	3,70 (1,08)	3,93 (0,98)	3,86 (1,03)	0,456 (0,08)
Identifying opportunities	3,07 (0,98)	3,75 (1,02)	3,54 (1,00)	0,010 (0,29)
Prooper time management	3,56 (1,08)	3,75 (1,02)	3,69 (1,05)	0,449 (0,08)
Effective division of respon	2,59 (1,08)	3,28 (1,02)	3,06 (1,05)	0,029 (0,29)

Risk Taker	3,52 (1,	3,56 (1,	3,55 (1,	0,954 (0,0
Work under pressure	3,38 (1,	3,32 (1,	3,34 (1,	0,879 (0,0
Adaptation to change	3,85 (1,	4,00 (0,	3,95 (1,	0,626 (0,0
Perseverance	4,42 (0,	4,03 (1,	4,15 (1,	0,195 (-0,3
Enthusiasm at the beginning	4,00 (1,	4,37 (0,	4,25 (1,	0,222 (0,1
Effective team work	3,93 (1,	4,32 (0,	4,19 (1,	0,095 (0,1
Resistance to failure	3,35 (1,	3,30 (1,	3,31 (1,	0,898 (-0,0

Source: Field Research

Table 4. Distribution of the self-efficacy average score by age

	Age				Overall	p-value
	16-19	20-29	30-39	40-49		
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Total	21 (100)	22 (100)	14 (100)	18 (100)	75 (100)	
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	p-value
Self-efficacy score	3.64 (3.33, 4.1)	3.36 (3.05, 3.67)	3.91 (3.6, 4.22)	4.00 (3.69, 4.31)	3.73 (3.33, 4.1)	0.0

Source: Field Research

Table 5. Results from univariable logistic regression models for the probability of entrepreneurship intention

Factor	Odds	95% CI	p-value
Setting & achieving goals per unit	1.	(0.79, 1.26)	0.
Identifying opportunities per unit	1.	(1.16, 2.01)	0.
Proper time management per unit	1.	(0.78, 1.34)	0.
Effective division of responsibilities per unit	1.	(1.04, 2.01)	0.
Risk taker per unit	1.	(0.72, 1.34)	0.
Work under pressure per unit	0.	(0.70, 1.26)	0.
Adaptation to change per unit	1.	(0.74, 1.34)	0.
Perseverance per unit	0.	(0.46, 1.34)	0.
Enthusiasm at the beginning per unit	1.	(0.92, 2.01)	0.
Effective team work per unit	1.	(0.93, 2.01)	0.
Resistance to failure per unit	0.	(0.68, 1.34)	0.
Self-efficacy average score per unit	1.	(0.76, 4.31)	0.

Source: Field Research

Table 6. Distribution of responses to entrepreneurship obstacle questions by entrepreneurship intention (Average score Mean- Standard Deviation)

	Mean	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	p (Kendall's)
	No N	Yes N	Overall N	
Taxation	4,26 (1,1)	4,43 (1,1)	4,38 (1,1)	0,665 (0,03
Social insurance cost	4,32 (1,1)	4,08 (1,1)	4,15 (1,0)	0,214 (-0,13
Lack of business expertise	2,96 (1,1)	3,02 (1,1)	3,00 (1,4)	0,903 (0,01
Lack of entrepreneurship education	3,32 (1,1)	3,29 (1,1)	3,30 (1,3)	0,940 (-0,00
Lack of governmental support	4,17 (1,1)	4,00 (1,1)	4,05 (1,1)	0,361 (-0,09
Lack of funds	4,24 (1,1)	4,14 (1,1)	4,17 (1,0)	0,593 (-0,05
Competition	3,68 (1,1)	3,42 (1,1)	3,49 (1,4)	0,520 (-0,07
Economic crisis- weak demand	4,54 (0,1)	4,21 (1,1)	4,31 (1,0)	0,118 (-0,15
Bureaucracy	4,04 (1,1)	4,14 (1,1)	4,11 (1,1)	0,892 (0,01

Source: Field Research

Table 7. Distribution of responses to entrepreneurship obstacle questions by entrepreneurship intention

	No (N -%)					Yes (N -%)					Overall (N -%)				
Taxation	2	2	2	2	19	0	8	3	5	45	2	10	5	7	64
Social insurance cost	1	1	3	4	16	1	5	10	16	28	2	6	13	20	44
Lack of business expert	4	4	9	3	4	13	11	13	8	15	17	15	22	11	19
Lack of entrepreneursh education	2	3	11	3	6	8	10	16	7	18	10	13	27	10	24
Lack of governmental s	1	2	4	2	15	2	3	15	12	27	3	5	19	14	42
Lack of funds	1	2	1	7	14	1	5	9	14	30	2	7	10	21	44
Competition	2	2	7	5	9	10	6	14	9	21	12	8	21	14	30
Economic crisis- weak c	0	1	3	3	19	3	0	11	15	33	3	1	14	18	52
Bureaucracy	1	3	4	4	14	0	7	9	12	31	1	10	13	16	45

Source: Field Resea

Book Reviews
Book Presentations

**Socio-Economic Sustainability,
Regional Development and Spatial Planning:
European and International Dimensions &
Perspectives**

Edited by:

Prof. Dr. George M. Korres
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Prof. Dr. Elias Kourliouros
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Assoc. Prof. Dr. George O. Tsobanoglou
Department of Sociology
University of the Aegean

Dr. Dr. Aikaterini Kokkinou
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Mytilene 2014

This Book of Proceedings, based on the International Conference on ‘Socio-Economic Sustainability, Regional Development and Spatial Planning: European and International Dimensions & Perspectives’, 4-7 July, 2014, Mytilene, Lesvos, Greece, summarizes the debate for the future and prospects of socio-economic and regional development of the European Union, under the fields of European, Economic-Geography, Sociology, Regional Development and Spatial Planning. This Book of Proceedings considers both an economic and social perspective to increase the information base and derive broader conclusions about the social consequences of the economic crisis, with this issue being of particular current research.

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- **Section 4: Social Economy Innovations and Sustainable Communities**
- **Section 5: Inclusive Recovery and Local City Governance**
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The Editors,
Prof. Dr.E. Kourliouros, Prof. Dr. G. Korres, Prof. G. Tsobanoglou & Dr. Dr. Aik Kokkinou

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gkorres@geo.aegean.gr

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