Kapitola: Podpora podnikání – Rešerše literatury (výtah ze zdrojů)

Typy podpory podnikání a důvody pro podporu podnikatelské activity

Ondřej Dvouletý

“Wennekers and Thurik (1999), Verheul et al. (2001) and Audretsch et al. (eds.) (2002) propose an eclectic theory of entrepreneurship that weaves together into an integrated framework aspect of culture, occupational choice, the resources available to entrepreneurs, and the extent of entrepreneurial opportunities in the economy. This framework is intended to provide insights to policymakers striving to promote entrepreneurship. These researchers suggest a number of possible roles for government policy in influencing the level of entrepreneurship at the country level.” (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005a, p. 9).

“Verheul et al. (2001) outline five types of policy interventions that could have an impact on entrepreneurial activity levels. Type 1 interventions impact on the demand side of entrepreneurship (affecting the type, number and accessibility of entrepreneurial opportunities); Type 2 interventions impact on the supply of potential entrepreneurs (immigration policy, regional development policy); Type 3 interventions affect the availability of resources and knowledge for potential entrepreneurs (advice and counseling, direct financial support, venture capital and entrepreneurship education); Type 4 interventions shape entrepreneurial values in society (through the education system and the media); and Type 5 interventions alter the riskreward profile of entrepreneurship by directing interventions at the decisionmaking process of individuals and their occupational choices (e.g., taxation, social security arrangements, labour market legislation, bankruptcy policy).” (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005a, p. 10).

“Wennekers and Thurik (1999) conclude that there is room for two types of policy interventions - one aimed at promoting the creation of technologybased firms in selected industries and the other aimed at promoting newlycreated firms, regardless of sector, by providing better access to the financial, organisational and technological resources needed to grow. They suggest a role for government in stimulating cultural or social capital and creating the appropriate institutional framework at the country level to address the supply side of entrepreneurship, i.e., focusing on the number of people who have the motivation, the financial means and the skills to launch a new business.” (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005a, p. 10).

“Kantis (2002) derives his recommendations for entrepreneurship policy actions in four South Asia and five Latin American countries from empirical studies of the behaviours, activities and barriers faced by entrepreneurs, particularly at the start-up stage, in each of these nine countries. Besides noting several differences in the environment for entrepreneurs in each region, he draws a number of policy implications from his analysis of the entrepreneurial process experience of new entrepreneurs. He specifically recommends policies aimed to:

- broaden the base of future dynamic entrepreneurs by boosting entrepreneurial capacity (e.g., disseminate information about role models through mass media; stimulate and motivate young people to start new businesses through the education system);
- promote entrepreneurial networks and create settings and incentives for building entrepreneurial teams;
- shorten the inception period for new enterprises by promoting innovative systems, strengthening connections among existing entrepreneurs and potential ones, and facilitating the range of preparatory activities needed to launch a business (e.g., information, networks, access to resources and assistance);

• reduce barriers to the creation and development of new companies by reducing bureaucratic costs and red tape, as well as lack of finances. and high transaction costs in highly imperfect markets (financial, labour, technical and professional services markets) and by building a solid infrastructure of venture finance; reducing red-tape and compliance costs associated with start-ups; helping entrepreneurs resolve their initial start-up problems; and modifying existing incentives for SMEs to meet the specific needs of new businesses (tax credits, tax rebates);

• strengthen the institutional context to promote entrepreneurship; and

• involve participation of a wide range of institutions, the make-up of which varies depending on the specific conditions of each country. Universities, as well as private foundations, chambers of commerce, and civic organisations have a key role to play." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005a, p. 11-12).

"According to our view, governments must address each of these areas of Motivation, Opportunity and Skills using an integrated entrepreneurship policy approach. We define entrepreneurship policy as that which is:

• aimed at the pre-start, the start-up and early post-start-up phases of the entrepreneurial process,

• designed and delivered to address the areas of Motivation, Opportunity and Skills,

• with the primary objective of encouraging more people in the population to consider entrepreneurship as an option, move into the nascent stage of taking actions to start a business and proceed into the entry and early stages of the business." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 47).

"One of the difficulties governments may have in the process of adopting entrepreneurship policy is not being able to identify precisely "who" the client is. In SME policy, the client is a firm, an existing entity that can be identified relatively easily. In entrepreneurship policy, the client is an individual who may not yet have an enterprise - they may be considering employment options, thinking about becoming an entrepreneur, or be in the process of taking some steps to start a business. As such, they are hard to identify. Existing SMEs are easier to deal with than nascent and start-up entrepreneurs because they already have a base, that is, some experience, knowledge and capital resources. Their owners are able to articulate, at least to some degree, their needs. Existing SMEs tend to be represented by SME associations, employer organisations or industry groups that can represent these needs to governments." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 52).

"Policies fell into five general areas: (1) creating a favourable business environment; (2) reducing administrative burden; (3) enhancing SME performance; (4) improving the quality of business support; and (5) increasing SME access to procurement opportunities." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 61).

""Promotion" is an area of entrepreneurship policy worthy of further development because of the critical role it plays in fostering a culture supportive of entrepreneurship, changing "mind-sets", and influencing the Motivation component of the policy framework." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 64).

"Lack of access to financing is viewed as one of the most significant barriers to the start-up and growth of small businesses. With a history of at least half a century,26 it is one of the oldest SME policy issues. Because of the lack of access to financing, entrepreneurs are impeded in their efforts to start, expand, modernise and grow their businesses. This stunted growth prevents small firms from increasing employment and productivity and diminishes their capacity to contribute fully to overall economic growth in the economy. In today's economy, capital markets are much more developed. Traditional lenders are increasingly targeting the small business sector as a profitable growth market. However, financing gaps still appear to exist in segments of the market, defined either in terms of stage of business development, target group, sector or geographic region." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 92).

"There appear to be five major reasons for making interventions in the SME financing arena, all based on "market failure" arguments:

• loans to small firms pose higher transaction costs for traditional lenders and thus reduce the competitive ability of new and small firms to secure debt financing.

• small firms pose a higher lending risk because of perceived higher failure rates.

• new and young firms are less likely to meet the collateral security requirements of traditional lenders and less able to demonstrate through a proven track record that their businesses will generate sufficient profits to repay the loan and service the debt.

• new technology-oriented and early-stage firms pose a high risk because of the uncertainty of their commercial viability, making it difficult for them to attract financing.

• entrepreneurs are subject to information asymmetries and thus disadvantaged in terms of access to information about sources of financing and financing options compared to large firms.

Government intervention seeks to address these failures by introducing measures to: (1) reduce the transaction costs of lending to small businesses (simplifying loan approval processes, using online loan applications); (2) reduce the risk banks take in lending to small businesses (guarantees, loan loss reserves); (3) improve access to financing in cases where innovative entrepreneurs are unable to attract traditional financing (risk-sharing measures); (4) increase the flow of equity capital (incentives for informal investors and venture capitalists); and (5) reduce the asymmetry of information for SMEs (initiatives to bridge the communication gap between financiers and entrepreneurs and to improve the flow of information about financing options/sources)." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005b, p. 93-94).

""Niche" entrepreneurship policy focuses on stimulating higher start-up rates among particular segments of the population. The rationale for target group policies could be job creation, social inclusion, gender equity, labour market integration, or wealth creation. The overall target of this approach is either to improve the business ownership levels of under-represented groups, for example, women, young people, ethnic minorities, and the unemployed (Type 1), or to accelerate the take-up of high-tech, innovative entrepreneurship from amongst post-secondary graduates and scientifically, technologically-oriented researchers and experts (Type 2). In either case, governments justify their interventions on the basis of social, systemic or market failures. Under-represented groups may face social or economic barriers to the entrepreneurial process and techno-starters may face market failures due to the uncertainty and high risk associated with high-technology businesses. "Niche" policy is likely to include Motivation and Skillsoriented measures as well as Opportunity measures." (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005c, p. 122).

""Holistic" entrepreneurship policy is the most comprehensive type. It incorporates the policy measures of the other three types - reducing barriers to business entry; ensuring the small business support system is able to respond to the needs of nascent and new entrepreneurs (from all walks of life); and making financing available for start-up businesses - but, in addition, focuses on integrating entrepreneurship within the education system, promoting an entrepreneurial culture and creating a positive climate for entrepreneurship. ” (Lundström and Stevenson, 2005c, p. 124).

“This leads us to consider whether entrepreneurship and institutions, in combination as an ecosystem, might represent the “missing link” in explaining cross-country differences in economic growth (Braunerhjelm et al. 2010; Acs et al. 2017a, b; Sussan and Acs 2017). The idea is that the stronger the entrepreneurial ecosystem, the more productive will be the technology, and hence the stronger the impact of technology on economic growth. Entrepreneurs thereby act as the agents who, by commercializing innovations, provide the transmission mechanism transferring advances in knowledge into economic growth. However, even where entrepreneurial initiative is present, this process of transmission may be either hampered or facilitated by the institutional environment (Baumol and Strom 2007). “ (Acs et al., 2018, p. 502).

“The entrepreneurial ecosystem approach has only occurred during the last five years. There is not yet a widely shared definition. The first component of the term is “entrepreneurial” and refers to entrepreneurship, a process in which opportunities for creating new goods and services are explored, evaluated and exploited (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

Generally formulated, entrepreneurship includes the process by which individuals exploit opportunities for innovation (Schumpeter, 1934). The entrepreneurial ecosystem approach often narrows this entrepreneurship down to “high-growth start-ups”, claiming that this type of entrepreneurship is an important source of innovation, productivity growth and employment (Mason & Brown, 2014; World Economic Forum, 2013). Empirically, this claim seems too exclusive: innovative start-ups or entrepreneurial employees can also be forms of productive entrepreneurship (Baumol, 1990) and in that way the source of earlier mentioned welfare outcomes. But it is clear that the entrepreneurial ecosystem approach does not by definition include the traditional statistical indicators of entrepreneurship, such as “self-employment” or “small businesses”, into entrepreneurship. This distinction between the traditional measures of entrepreneurship and the conceptually more adequate measures of entrepreneurship, such as innovative and growth-oriented entrepreneurship, is increasingly emphasized in the entrepreneurship literature (Shane, 2009; Stam et al., 2012; Henrekson & Sanandaji, 2014).

The second component of the term is “ecosystem”. The biological interpretation of this concept, in which the interaction of living organisms with their physical environment is at the centre, is obviously not to be taken too literally within the context of entrepreneurial ecosystems. The entrepreneurial ecosystem concept emphasizes that entrepreneurship takes place in a community of interdependent actors. More particularly, the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems focuses on the role of the (social) context in allowing or restricting entrepreneurship, and in that sense is closely connected to other recent “systems of entrepreneurship” approaches (Sternberg, 2007; Ylinenpa¨a¨, 2009; Acs et al., 2014; Levie et al., 2014), which aim to bridge the innovation system approach and entrepreneurship studies. What the entrepreneurial ecosystem approach has in common with other established concepts—such as clusters, industrial districts, innovation systems and learning regions—is the focus on the external business environment. The approach differs from these concepts by the fact that the entrepreneur, rather than the enterprise, is the focal point. The entrepreneurial ecosystem approach thus begins with the entrepreneurial individual instead of the company, but also emphasizes the role of the entrepreneurship context.” (Stam, 2015, p. 1761).

“Next to the key role of entrepreneurs themselves (in leading the development of the ecosystem and as mentors or advisors), the nine attributes by Feld (2012) emphasize the interaction between the players in the ecosystem (with high network density, many connecting events and large companies collaborating with local start-ups) and access to all kinds of relevant resources (talent, services and capital), with an enabling role of government at the background." (Stam, 2015, p. 1762).

Table 1. Nine attributes of a successful start-up community

Attribute	Description
Leadership	Strong group of entrepreneurs who are visible, accessible and committed to the region being a great place to start and grow a company
Intermediaries	Many well-respected mentors and advisors giving back across all stages, sectors, demographics and geographies as well as a solid presence of effective, visible, well-integrated accelerators and incubators
Network density	Deep, well-connected community of start-ups and entrepreneurs along with engaged and visible investors, advisors, mentors and supporters. Optimally, these people and organizations cut across sectors, demographics and culture engagement. Everyone must be willing to give back to his community
Government	Strong government support for and understanding of start-ups to economic growth. Additionally, supportive policies should be in place covering economic development, tax and investment vehicles
Talent	Broad, deep talent pool for all levels of employees in all sectors and areas of expertise. Universities are an excellent resource for start-up talent and should be well connected to community
Support services	Professional services (legal, accounting, real estate, insurance and consulting) are integrated, accessible, effective and appropriately priced
Engagement	Large number of events for entrepreneurs and community to connect, with highly visible and authentic participants (e.g. meet-ups, pitch days, start-up weekends, boot camps, hackathons and competitions)
Companies	Large companies that are the anchor of a city should create specific departments and programmes to encourage cooperation with high-growth start-ups
Capital	Strong, dense and supportive community of venture capitalists, angels, seed investors and other forms of financing should be available, visible and accessible across sectors, demographics and geography

Source: Feld (2012, pp. 186–187).

(Stam, 2015, p. 1762)

"Isenberg (2011) lists six distinct domains of the ecosystem: policy, finance, culture, support, human capital and markets. This largely overlaps with the previously mentioned attributes and the eight pillars in Table 2, as listed by the World Economic Forum (2013) for a successful ecosystem, each with a number of components." (Stam, 2015, p. 1763).

Table 2. Entrepreneurial ecosystem pillars and their components

Pillar	Components
Accessible markets	Domestic market: large/medium/small companies as customers and governments as customer Foreign market: large/medium/small companies as customers and governments as customer
Human capital/workforce	Management talent, technical talent, entrepreneurial company experience, outsourcing availability and access to immigrant workforce
Funding & finance	Friends and family, angel investors, private equity, venture capital and access to debt
Support systems/mentors	Mentors/advisors, professional services, incubators/accelerators and networks of entrepreneurial peers
Government & regulatory framework	Ease of starting a business, tax incentives, business-friendly legislation/policies, access to basic infrastructure, access to telecommunications/broadband and access to transport
Education & training	Available workforce with pre-university education, available workforce with university education and those with entrepreneurship-specific training
Major universities as catalysts	Promoting a culture of respect for entrepreneurship, playing a key role in idea-formation for new companies and playing a key role in providing graduates to new companies
Cultural support	Tolerance for risk and failure, preference for self-employment, success stories/role models, research culture, positive image of entrepreneurship and celebration of innovation

Source: World Economic Forum (2013, pp. 6–7).

(Stam, 2015, p. 1763)

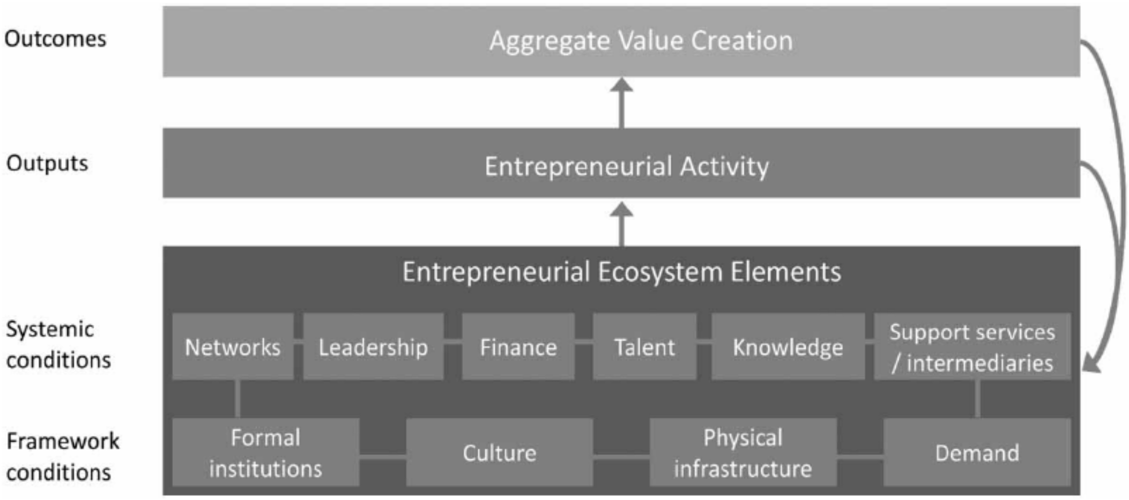

Figure 1. Key elements, outputs and outcomes of the entrepreneurial ecosystem.

(Stam, 2015, p. 1765)

"In line with Thurik et al. (2013), the next shift would be from regional "entrepreneurship policy" to policy for an "entrepreneurial regional economy", that is, an entrepreneurial ecosystem. So regional policy will not be about maximizing a certain indicator of entrepreneurship, but about creating a context, a system, in which productive entrepreneurship can flourish." (Stam, 2015, p. 1767)

“Policy makers’ interest in stimulating entrepreneurship suggests a general consensus about their beneficiary economic effects that exist. For example, the goal of the EU 2000 Lisbon Agenda to become the world’s most innovative area by 2010 relies on the entrepreneurial power of regions. The European Commission , in its Green paper on Entrepreneurship in Europe (European Commission 2003 , p. 9), makes it more explicit: The challenge for the European Union is to identify the key factors for building a climate in which entrepreneurial initiative and business activities can thrive. Policy measures should seek to boost the Union’s levels of entrepreneurship, adopting the most appropriate approach for producing more entrepreneurs and for getting more firms to grow.” (Bosma et al., 2009, p. 59)

“Recently, productivity growth is seen as the more relevant indicator. The two dominant empirical definitions of entrepreneurship are the creation of new organizations (a new legal entity; including both independent start-ups and spin-offs) and selfemployment (performing work for personal profit rather than for wages paid by others). Some studies also take into account people with a preference for entrepreneurship (“latent entrepreneurship”), or people who take steps to start a new business (“nascent entrepreneurship”).” (Bosma et al., 2009, p. 64)

“The regional context affects entrepreneurship in two ways: first, through its more objective “regional economic attributes” and second, in offering a specific regional entrepreneurial attitude or culture. Regional economic attributes affecting entrepreneurship cover market size, structure and growth, economic structure in terms of competition, specialization and market concentration, accessibility, and the availability of cheap business locations. The growth of product demand, for instance, opens up new niches for entrepreneurs – and this effect might even be larger for the more specific group of ambitious entrepreneurs (Davidsson 1991) . When regional income and welfare is high or growing, people expect market growth that can benefit a new ambitious firm.” (Bosma et al., 2009, p. 68)

“First, network effects in the region are important. Regions where many individuals personally know someone who recently started a business exhibit more innovationoriented entrepreneurs. Second, at the national level we found a profound negative effect of the degree of employment protection on involvement in both growth- and innovation-oriented entrepreneurship. The underlying reasons may be twofold. First, potential growth- or innovation-oriented entrepreneurs who are currently employed may feel that the benefits of being employed are too high compared to the risks of becoming an entrepreneur. Second, early-stage entrepreneurs may perceive the employment protection as a burden and limit their growth or innovation ambitions. Further research into the effects of employment protection on specific types of entrepreneurship is required. A third main finding is the positive effect of immigration on early-stage entrepreneurship with innovation ambitions, while its effect on employment growth ambitions is tentatively negative. This may be linked to the argument of Lee et al. (2004) that an immigrant community creates specialized market niches and brings about new business opportunities for both natives and immigrants.

The total supply of entrepreneurs varies across societies due to different prevailing values and beliefs related to entrepreneurship, that is its entrepreneurial culture. Economists generally share the opinion that it is not the role of government to change the attitude of its people, perhaps even leading to “social engineering” (Storey 2002) , or that public policy cannot change the culture of a country in order to stimulate the supply of entrepreneurship, on the short term (Baumol 1990) . Some economists argue that entrepreneurship is an omnipresent aspect of human action, and that for economic development to take place, certain institutions must be present for the entrepreneurial aspect of humans to flourish (Boettke and Coyne 2003) . This omnipresence also means entrepreneurship cannot be the “cause” of economic development: it is caused by proper institutions that channel entrepreneurship in a direction that spurs economic growth (cf. Baumol 1990) . Entrepreneurship policy might also include integrating entrepreneurship in the education system in order to develop entrepreneurial skills and promote an entrepreneurship culture in the long run. The other more direct role for public policy involves changing the formal institutions in order to stimulate productive entrepreneurship. Examples of these formal institutions relevant for entrepreneurship are taxation rules, bankruptcy regulations, social security rules, and immigration laws.” (Bosma et al., 2009, p. 82-83)

“Reyolds et al. (1994) define entrepreneurship policies as policies which

1. encourage economic agents to conceptualize business ideas;
2. facilitate the entry of new businesses;

– Indirect measures, i.e., the facilitation of entry by modifications or improvements of institutions, regulations, and/or infrastructures

– Direct measures, i.e. the facilitation of entry by measures directly targeting economic agents, which potentially might start a business

1. facilitate the growth of businesses; and
2. facilitate the exit of businesses.

This definition is consistent with the definition suggested by Lundström and Stevenson (2001 , p. 19): “ Entrepreneurship policy consists of measures taken to stimulate more entrepreneurial behavior in a region or a country …. We define entrepreneurship policy as those measures intended to directly influence the level of entrepreneurial vitality in a country or region.” Thus, entrepreneurship policies focus on the process of change.” (Karlsson and Andersson, 2009, p. 112).

“The framework presented above can serve as a general background for a discussion of entrepreneurship policies. It focuses on the central entrepreneurial decision, which is about comparing different alternatives with different risk–reward profiles. It illustrates that government can influence the general conditions for entrepreneurship by influencing the demand side, i.e., changing the opportunities for entrepreneurship, or the supply and cost side in the economy, i.e., changing the resources available for entrepreneurship and their costs. Furthermore, the government can influence the costs of entrepreneurial actions and it can influence the risk level experienced by entrepreneurs.″ (Karlsson and Andersson, 2009, p. 114-115).

“The mandate for public policy intervention must be motivated by the existence of fundamental sources of market failure. When market failures prevail, there is a gap between the evaluation of entrepreneurial activities by private economic agents and the value of such activities from a social point of view. In the sequel, we discuss various types of market failures and their implications for entrepreneurship policies. However, it is important to realize that market failure is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for government action (Auerswald 2007) . One reason is that the market outcome of a perfectly competitive market is not necessarily an equitable one. Naturally, concerns over equity can be a legitimate motivation for government action. However, from some aspects an unequitable market outcome is ultimately a market failure. More problematic is that if rigorously defined, market failures are present almost everywhere. Furthermore, as we will discuss in Sect. 6.5 , there is no guarantee that the policies implemented will be optimal. We also have the problem with the second-best, which implies that in an economy where many markets exhibit market failures, it is not given that policies trying to alleviate market failures in one market is the optimal policy response for all. Actually, one might claim that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship policy exist in a world of second-best options and that entrepreneurship policies should address the various challenges that entrepreneurs face, such as uncertainty, asymmetric information, indivisibilities, and high transaction costs (Auerswald 2007) ." (Karlsson and Andersson, 2009, p. 118-119).

These include according to Karlsson and Andersson (2009):

- Information Failures
- Collective Goods
- External Effects
- Economies of Scale and other barriers to entry
- Unemployment

References

Acs, Z. J., Estrin, S., Mickiewicz, T., & Szerb, L. (2018). Entrepreneurship, institutional economics, and economic growth: an ecosystem perspective. *Small Business Economics*, *51*(2), 501-514.

Audretsch, David B., Roy Thurik, Ingrid Verheul and Sanders Wennekers (eds.) (2002). *Entrepreneurship: Determinants and Policy in a European-US Comparison.* Boston/Dordrecht/London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Bosma N., Schutjens V., Stam E. (2009) Entrepreneurship in European Regions. In: Baptista R., Leitao J. (eds) *Public Policies for Fostering Entrepreneurship. International Studies in Entrepreneurship* (pp. 59-89), vol 22. Springer, New York, NY

Feld, B. (2012). *Startup Communities: Building an Entrepreneurial Ecosystem in Your City* (New York, NY: Wiley).

Kantis, Hugo (2002). *Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies: The Creation and Development of New Firms in Latin America and East Asia.* Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.

Karlsson C., Andersson M. (2009) Entrepreneurship Policies. In: Baptista R., Leitao J. (eds) *Public Policies for Fostering Entrepreneurship* (pp. 111-131). International Studies in Entrepreneurship, vol 22. Springer, New York, NY

Lundström, A., & Stevenson, L. A. (2005). *Entrepreneurship policy: Theory and practice*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Lundström, A., & Stevenson, L. A. (2005a). Introduction. In: *Entrepreneurship Policy: Theory and Practice* (pp. 5-39). International Studies in Entrepreneurship, vol 9. Springer, Boston, MA.

Lundström, A., & Stevenson, L. A. (2005b). Entrepreneurship Policy — Definitions, Foundations and Framework. In: *Entrepreneurship Policy: Theory and Practice* (pp. 41-116). International Studies in Entrepreneurship, vol 9. Springer, Boston, MA.

Lundström, A., & Stevenson, L. A. (2005c). Entrepreneurship Policy Typologies. In: *Entrepreneurship Policy: Theory and Practice* (pp. 117-152). International Studies in Entrepreneurship, vol 9. Springer, Boston, MA.

Stevenson, L., & Lundström, A. (2001). *Patterns and Trends in Entrepreneurship / SME Policy and Practice in Ten Economies*, Stockholm: Swedish Foundation for Small Business Research.

Stam, E. (2015). Entrepreneurial ecosystems and regional policy: a sympathetic critique. *European Planning Studies*, *23*(9), 1759-1769.

Verheul, Ingrid, Sander Wennekers, David Audretsch and Roy Thurik (2001). *An eclectic theory of entrepreneurship: policies, institutions and culture.* EIM Research Report 0012/E. Zoetermeer: EDVI Business & Policy Research. March

Wennekers, Sander and Roy Thurik (1999). Linking entrepreneurship and economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, 13, 27-55.

EVROPSKÁ UNIE
Evropské strukturální a investiční fondy
Operační program Výzkum, vývoj a vzdělávání

MINISTERSTVO ŠKOLSTVÍ, MLÁDEŽE A TĚLOVÝCHOVY

EVROPSKÁ UNIE
Evropské strukturální a investiční fondy
Operační program Výzkum, vývoj a vzdělávání

MINISTERSTVO ŠKOLSTVÍ,
MLÁDEŽE A TĚLOVÝCHOVY