

e-ISSN 2353-0758

MODERN | MANAGEMENT | REVIEW |

Quarterly, Volume XXIII

(October - December)

Research Journal 25

(4/2018)

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Pawel Perz**

MMR Journal indexed, among others, on the basis of the reference of the Minister of Science and Higher Education in ERIH PLUS and Index Copernicus Journal Master List 2017

Issued with the consent of the Rector

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The printed version of the Journal is an original version.

p-ISSN 2300-6366
e-ISSN 2353-0758

Publisher: Publishing House of Rzeszow University of Technology
12 Powstańców Warszawy Ave., 35-959 Rzeszow (e-mail: oficyna@prz.edu.pl)
<http://oficyna.prz.edu.pl>

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From the Editorial Committee

We are giving you the next 25th (4/2018) issue of the Quarterly of the Faculty of Management of the Rzeszow University of Technology entitled “Modern Management Review”.

The primary objective of the Quarterly is to promote publishing of the results of scientific research within economic and social issues in economics, law, finance, management, marketing, logistics, as well as politics, corporate history and social sciences.

Our aim is also to raise the merits and the international position of the Quarterly published by our Faculty. That is why we provided foreign Scientific Council, as well as an international team of Reviewers to increase the value of the scientific publications.

The works placed in this issue include many assumptions and decisions, theoretical solutions as well as research results, analyses, comparisons and reflections of the Authors.

We would like to thank all those who contributed to the issue of the Quarterly and we hope that you will enjoy reading this issue.

With compliments
Editorial Committee

Ceslovas BARTKUS¹

USING THE RELATIVE STRENGTH INDEX FOR ACTIVE INVESTMENTS IN THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET

The Foreign Exchange market is constantly affected by a huge amount of economic and political events, such as decisions of Central banks, changes of various economic ratios, elections, official announcements of country leaders, etc. Various investors, financiers and scientists had created many economic ratios, mathematical formulas and investing strategies to help improve the results of investments in financial instruments. The paper presents and discusses the data collected using the American analyst's Welles Wilder's Relative Strength Index in spot trades of the European Euro and the United States dollar pair. All data has been gathered from 01-01-2016 to 01-07-2017 and analyzed from a few points of view. The aim of this research is to find the best Relative Strength Index modification for trading in FOREX market. The research departed from classic Relative Strength Index to more sensitive modifications of original formula. Eight trading scenarios have been investigated with eight different Relative Strength Index modifications. Only one of them had positive result on return despite most of scenarios had the accuracy above 50%. The article analyzes the reasons of trading losses also. The index was wrong when strong fundamental factors such as speeches of the ECB and FED heads took place. These mistakes brought trading losses of more than 2% unprofitability each. All work was based on the literature analysis of different authors from different countries and information from the FOREX brokers.

Keywords: financial markets, FOREX, Relative Strength Index.

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the first financial products appeared on the market, people have been trying to make a profit or save their capital by trading these products. Various approaches and theories have been developed to evaluate the risks, future value, future profit or loss. Despite many of the existing approaches, financial instruments need new ones. The reasons for that are new risks, new products and new technological possibilities for researching. The main ways to make a decision to invest in a financial market are fundamental and technical analyses. In 1978 Welles Wilder invented the Relative Strength Index (RSI). It has become very

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popular and widely used among technical analysts. Originally this index was created for stock market predictions. However, the methodology of the RSI calculation allows us to use it in other financial markets; such as the Foreign Exchange market (FOREX). FOREX is the biggest of the markets of financial products with a daily turnover of 4-5 trillion dollars. One of the attributes of this market is the high price volatility. From the point of view of securities trader, this type of volatility forces you to monitor the FOREX instruments daily or hourly. In other words, an investor has to be very active and react to changes in the market. This article presents the results of active trading between the European Euro and the US dollar (EUR/USD) currency pair with various interpretations of RSI. The biggest difference from W. Wilder's RSI is that this indicator is also used on hourly charts. Meanwhile, the author recommends doing this on daily charts. The main aim of the research is to find the best RSI modification for active trading in the FOREX market. Along with this result the paper seeks and discusses the fundamental reasons influencing the changing price of the EUR/USD currency.

2. THE USE OF TECHNICAL AND FUNDAMENTAL ANALYSIS IN FOREX MARKET

The Foreign Exchange market (FOREX) is a place where buyers and sellers meet. Moreover, it is a place where supply and demand set the exchange rate². In 2001 daily FOREX turnover was 1.2 trillion US dollars. Since then until 2013, it peaked 4 times and reached 5.3 trillion³. A few factors had a major impact on this huge jump of activity. Firstly, technological progress created an environment where investors and traders can make deals on laptops, computer tablets and mobile phones. Therefore, the FOREX market became available to all of us 24 hours a day and 5 days a week from almost any place on earth. Secondly, the retail FOREX brokers started providing financial services for low capital investors. Retail brokers have created new financial products⁴ which work with a large financial leverage. The daily turnover slightly decreased to 5.07 trillion USD in 2016. It is possible that a certain part of traders have chosen investing in cryptocurrencies instead of the regular currencies. The market value of main cryptocurrencies⁵ has risen from 10 billion USD in the beginning of 2016 to 30 billion USD in the second quarter of 2017⁶.

The FOREX market is different from the traditional financial markets because it has no physical trading place, such as New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) or Chicago Board of Trade (CBOT). However, the same methods of analysis used by the investor in the stock, bonds, funds or commodities markets can be adapted. The main ways to make a decision to invest in the financial market are the fundamental and technical analyses⁷. Fundamental

² C. Bartkus, *Reliability Trends in Retail Foreign Exchange Brokers Market*, „Ekonomiczne Problemy Usług” 2017, 2 (127).

³ *Foreign Exchange Turnover in April 2016*, „Triennial Central Bank Survey” 2016, www.bis.org/publ/rpfx16fx.pdf

⁴ A very popular product among the retail FOREX brokers is the Contract for Differences (CFD).

⁵ The most popular cryptocurrencies are Bitcoin, Ethereum, Monero, Litecoin.

⁶ G. Hileman, M. Rauchs, *Global Cryptocurrency Benchmarking Study*, 2017, www.jbs.cam.ac.uk/fileadmin/user_upload/research/centres/alternative-finance/downloads/2017-global-cryptocurrency-benchmarking-study.pdf

⁷ C. Bartkus, *Financial Markets*, 2014, p. 47.

analysis is based on economic ratios and indexes. Technical analysis is based on mathematical or statistical formulas and indicators. A trader's task is to select the right one.

Fundamental analysis is the study and interpretation of factors which influence the changing value of the analyzed financial object. The fundamental analysis has to see the object through a wide spectrum of factors and events. Such factors could be political events, changes in micro and macro economical situation. The main fundamental indexes in studies of the FOREX market are the Central Bank's Base Interest Rate (BIR), Inflation Rate (IR), Unemployment Rate (UR), and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, the fundamental analysis is suitable not only for monitoring indexes. A trader has to track the changes in fiscal policy of governments and monetary policy of central banks. The right interpretation provides an opportunity to forecast future economic situations. At the same time, these types of forecasts allow us to predict the future currency prices in the FOREX market. The most evident recent example is the Quantitative Easing (QE) program. The QE is a simulation of an economy program in which the central bank purchases securities from the financial market. For the first time the phrase "Quantitative Easing" was mentioned by Japanese economists Ugai⁸ and Shiratsuka⁹ to describe the monetary policy followed by the Central Bank of Japan since 2001. During the QE, the amount of money grows until the consumer prices start rising. High goods prices promote the creation of new businesses and reduce unemployment. The start of the QE program means the depreciation of currency for country that chooses this monetary instrument. For example, in September 2014, president of the European Central Bank (ECB) Mario Draghi announced the beginning of the QE in the eurozone, starting January 2015. The Euro currency started losing its value to other major currencies straight after his announcement. The Euro against the US dollar lost ~15%, against the Great Britain pound – ~12%, against the Swiss Franc – ~10% during the first year since Draghi's announcement.

The technical analysis is based on the past data; it is a method for the analysis and forecast of future prices, future trading volumes and tendencies of financial instruments. A technical analyst investigates the market without worrying about the fundamental factors¹⁰. The technical analysis tools are the indicators that can be divided into 4 groups:

1. *Trend indicators*. Securities prices can move in 3 directions: rise (uptrend), decline (downtrend) or stay stable (sideway trend). On the price line chart, uptrend is displayed as down rising line. Downtrend is showed as down declining line. The line is horizontal during the sideway trend in the market. The main aim of the trend indicators is indentifying trends as soon as possible. The indicators called "Parabolic Stop and Reverse", "Moving Averages", "Bollinger Bands", and "Moving Average Convergence Divergence" belong to this group.
2. *Moment indicators*. They can determine the situation in a finance market. In the situation when buyers dominate the market, prices always increase. Eventually the enthusiasm of buyers declines and they stop buying. This moment is called the "overbought market". Moreover, this moment signals about the possibility of price

⁸ H. Ugai, *Effects of the Quantitative Easing Policy: A Survey of Empirical Analyses*, 2007, www.imes.boj.or.jp/research/papers/english/me25-1-1.pdf

⁹ Sh. Shiratsuka, W. Takahashi, K. Ueda, *Financial System and Monetary Policy Implementation: Summary of the 2009 International Conference by the Institute of Monetary and Economics Studies of Bank of Japan*, 2009, Tokyo: Discussion Paper No. 2009-E-20.

¹⁰ Ch. Kirkpatrick, J. Dahlquist, *Techninèanalizè*, 2013.

decrease. Vice versa, in the situation when sellers dominate the market, prices always decrease. Eventually the enthusiasm of sellers fades and they stop selling. Therefore, this moment is called the “oversold” market and it signals about the possibility of price increase. The indicators called “Relative Strength Index”, “Stochastic Oscillator”, and “Williams %R” belong to this group.

3. *Volume indicators.* The volume indicators calculation methodology is based on the trading volume in the market. Important economic and politic events always affect the increase of the financial products trade. For example, if a certain company announces about a new technological invention, investors will hurry to buy shares of that company because of the expectation of bigger profit and dividends for the shareholders. The volume indicators determine when the trading volume exceeds usually frames. According to B. Dormeier¹¹, the indicators called “Money Flow Index”, “Volume-Weighted Moving Average”, and “Negative Volume Index” belong to this group.
4. *Other indicators.* These indicators that can be hardly assigned to the already described groups are characterized by the complexity of the calculating methodology. For example, the “Ichimoku Clouds” can show the market’s trend, momentum, levels of resistance and support¹². The next one, called the “Elliott Wave”, is more of an investing philosophy or strategy than a simple indicator. R. N. Elliott believes that markets move in repeating cycles instead of chaotic directions. Cycles reveal themselves in five waves up and three waves down. After the first part of waves follows another five up and three down. A trader can identify the cycle of market in present time, if he uses the “Elliott Wave” indicator properly.

The “Relative Strength Index” (RSI) has been chosen for the later described investigation for two reasons. Firstly, it is available on almost all PC, mobile and web trading platforms. Secondly, RSI is widely observed in technical analysis books, articles and online forums. For index calculation, first of all, the Relative Strength (RS) has to be calculated:

$$RS = AUP / ADP \quad (1)$$

where: RS – Relative Strength;

AUP – average gain of Up periods during the specified time frame;

ADP – average loss of Down periods during the specified time frame¹³.

The RSI inventor W. Wilder recommends using 14 days periods. The RS data of the 1st formula has to be used in RSI calculation:

$$RSI = 100 - (100 / (1 + RS)) \quad (2)$$

¹¹ B. Dormeier, *Investing With Volume Analysis. Identify, Follow, and Profit from trends*, 2013, <http://ptgmedia.pearsoncmg.com/images/9780137085507/samplepages/0137085508.pdf>

¹² M. Patel, *Trading with Ichimoku Clouds: The Essential Guide to Ichimoku Kinko Kyo Technical Analysis*, 2010.

¹³ L. Rakesh, P. Selvam, *Relative Strength Index Application in Identifying Trading Movements of Selected IT Sector Companies in India*, 2017, “International Journal of Management & Business Studies”, Vol.7, www.ijmbs.com/Vol7/vol7.1/7-p-selvam.pdf

The calculated RSI value is always between 0 and 100. The aim of the indicator is to indicate the moment of the “overbought” market and the “oversold” market. If RSI goes above 70 (Figure 1), W. Wilder suggests calling this moment the “overbought” market. It is mean that desires of the securities buyers are satisfied and their enthusiasm starts to fade. Therefore, it is the moment of the so-called “Bear Market”¹⁴. Thus, in the FOREX market, a trader can make a “short” (sell) order for earning the profit of currency’s depreciation.

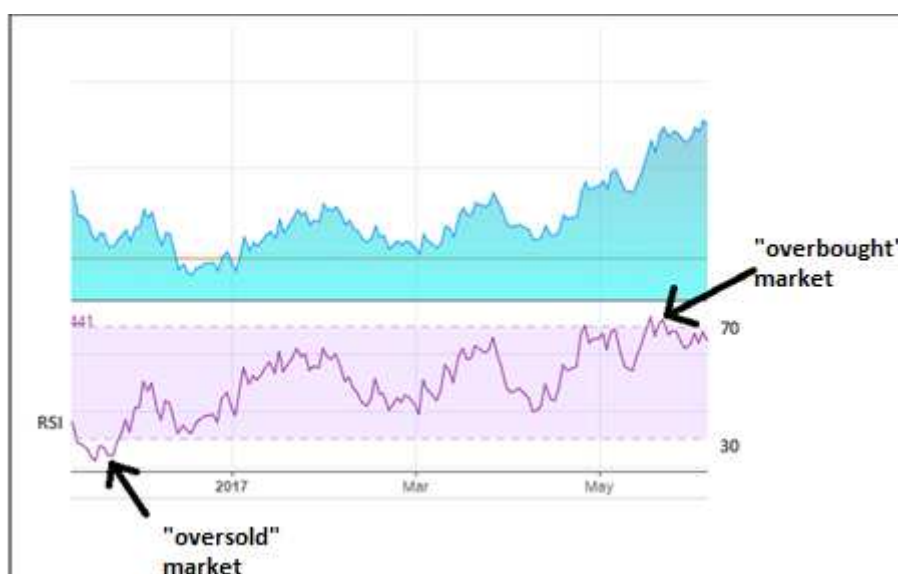


Figure 1. RSI signals of “overbought” and “oversold” market

It becomes the “Oversold” market when the RSI drops under 30 (Figure 1). It is the sign that the securities prices will be reversed and the so-called “Bull Market”¹⁵ will begin. At the moment of the indication, a trader can make a “long” (buy) order and hope for profit of currency’s value gain. Worth to mention, traders developed other techniques for interpretation of RSI value. One of those is the using of centerline for understanding the trend of price. The meaning of RSI’s centerline is 50. The up-trend starts when RSI line crosses centerline from the bottom. The opposite crossing means down-trend. The RSI has certain disadvantages. The inventor and other researchers of this index do not recommend relying on it 100%. W. Wilder has tested this index in the US stock market. He recommends using the RSI alongside with the divergence between price line and RSI line. His other recommendation is monitoring the resistance and support levels. A. Taran-Morosan¹⁶ reduced the highest level of RSI to 67.5 and increased the lowest level to 32.5 in his research. He asserts that the investment results of the US stock market are better than using the classic RSI.

¹⁴ A „Bear Market” is a condition in which securities prices fall.

¹⁵ A „Bull Market” is a condition in which securities prices rise.

¹⁶ A. Taran-Morosan, *The Relative Strength Index Revisited*, 2011, “African Journal of Business Management”, Vol.5, www.academicjournals.org/article/article1380724011_Taran-Morosan.pdf

Ch. LeBeau¹⁷ applied the indicator in futures market. He suggests using RSI with 75 as the “overbought” and 25 as the “oversold” markets for better results. Most of index researches are done in stock or futures markets with modification of the classical RSI, i.e. the calculation based on 14 daily periods. Does the indicator work in the FOREX market? Is the classical modification suitable to analyze currencies? The most actively traded currency pair is the EUR/USD. That particular pair has taken 23% of the entire FOREX turnover in the year 2016¹⁸. The USD is the absolute leader in currency trading. Together with Euro and all the other currencies, it has been chosen by 88% of all trades. Euro was next, with 31%, and Japanese yen was the third.

3. TRADING THE EUR/USD PAIR WITH HOURLY RSI

The FOREX market’s most popular EUR/USD pair is chosen for future investigations. Imaginary trades have been made with the help of hourly RSI signals. Full conditions and rules for opening or closing trades have been described in Table 1.

Table 1. The rules and conditions for trading orders

Currency Pair	Entering LONG position	Exiting LONG position	Entering SHORT position	Exiting SHORT position	Trading amount, €	Beginning date	Finishing date
EUR/USD	RSI < 30	RSI > 70	RSI > 70	RSI < 30	1000	1.01.2016	30.06.2017

However, some differences have been made to the classical RSI by using it with hourly periods instead of daily periods. The “Overbought” and “oversold” markets’ conditions have left the classical RSI (Table 1). The long position is a transaction in financial markets when traders buy securities hoping that the price will rise. Imaginary 1000 € long orders were opened when RSI was under 30 and closed when RSI was above 70. The short position is a transaction in financial markets when traders sell securities hoping that the price will fall in the future. Imaginary 1000 € short orders were opened when RSI was above 70 and closed when it was under 30. The research period is 18 months from 1.01.2016 to 30.06.2017.

8 scenarios are simulated with 8 (H8), 10 (H10), 12 (H12), 14 (H14), 16 (H16), 18 (H18), 20 (H20) and 22 (H22) hourly periods. The H8 scenario had the biggest number of possible transactions. The sensitivity of RSI signals becomes lower in the cases when more periods are used in the calculation. Therefore, the H22 had 5 times less imaginary transactions (Table 2). Moreover, Table 1 shows that the H8 has been the leader in number of trades and had 56% of them that were correct. However, the total return was negative because of 6 very unprofitable trades. One of the biggest unprofitable transactions happened between 11.05.2017 and 18.05.2017.

¹⁷ Ch. LeBeau, *Technical Traders Guide to Computer Analysis of the Futures Market*, 1991.

¹⁸ *Foreign Exchange Turnover in April 2016*, „Triennial Central Bank Survey”, 2016, www.bis.org/publ/rpfx16fx.pdf

Table 2. Trades results

Scenario	Trades	Accuracy, %	Total return, €	>2% profitable trades	>2% unprofitable trades
H8	248	56	-76	0	6
H10	182	50.5	-113	0	5
H12	128	56.3	-48	0	8
H14	94	60.6	-20	2	7
H16	76	57.9	-42	2	8
H18	58	58.6	102	4	5
H20	55	61.8	67	3	6
H22	51	64.7	-63	3	8

The RSI suggested selling the Euro when in his speech the ECB president M. Draghi expressed a very positive message for the Euro currency; that the QE will end soon¹⁹. Very similar situations happened in other 4 biggest RSI mistakes, i.e. the indicator showed a different direction than the ECB and FED heads suggested during their speeches. The Sixth big error occurred during the presidential elections in the US. The indicator suggested buying the EUR/USD pair; however, the news about the D. Trump's win raised the dollar.

The H10 experienced the largest losses (-113 €) because of the lowest accuracy of trades (50.5%). All the biggest losses happened in the same conditions as in the H8 scenario. Meanwhile, the H12 had one new factor in the biggest unprofitable trades account. The meeting of G7 leaders directed the EUR/USD to a different trend than the RSI. The H14 scenario reached 60.6% accuracy of trades with total losses of 20 €. Together with the H16, the H14 scenario's RSI synchronized twice with fundamental events and gained over 2% of profit. However, both scenarios have 4 times higher number of the same size unprofitable transactions. The H18 is the most promising RSI modification with profit of 102 € and accuracy of 58.6%. The main reasons of these results can be observed. Firstly, 4 trades have gained over 2% of profit and it is the best result among all the scenarios. Secondly, the H18 has the lowest (together with the H10) number of trades with over 2% of losses. 2 out of 5 such trades happened during M. Draghi's speeches. Other 3 belong to the J. Yellen announcement, the G7 meeting and France presidential elections.

The H20 and H22 gained in accuracy, but lowered the profit accordingly to 67 € and -63 €. These scenarios increased the number of the most unprofitable trades and lowered the number of the most profitable trades to 3 against 4 of the H18. It is important to notice that the RSI's H22 modification has become insensitive and the few trades that continued for about 40 days brought bigger losses than usually. Table 3 shows that longer trade time means less accuracy.

In the H8 scenario, on the first day the opened and closed trades had 100% accuracy (Table 3). On the second day the accuracy slightly decreased to 87.5%. However, these two days gained profit of 349 € with average 3% profitability per trade. For unclosed trades, troubles started after the second day when the accuracy started falling sharply. From this point of view, the reason of the H8 losses is trades which last longer than 2 days. Hence, for a better result, ways to get out of trades should be found on day 3.

¹⁹ M. Draghi, *Introductory remarks at the House of Representatives of the Netherlands*, 2017, www.ecb.europa.eu/press/key/date/2017/html/ecb.sp170510.en.html

Table 3. Trade's results in aspect of time

	1 day	2 days	3 days	4 days	5 days	6 days	7 days	>8 days	Total
H8									
Trades	36	80	41	30	26	17	9	9	248
Return, €	164	185	-36	4	-100	-61	-115	-117	-76
Accuracy, %	100	87,5	53,6	53,3	38,5	23,5	0	11,1	
H10									
Trades	14	49	31	16	29	13	15	15	182
Return, €	74	194	25	10	-52	-42	-104	-218	-113
Accuracy, %	100	89,8	65,5	75	58,6	30,8	6,7	13,3	
H12									
Trades	8	30	15	11	12	12	13	27	128
Return, €	61	184	41	10	-8	17	-45	-308	-48
Accuracy, %	100	96,7	86,7	81,8	58,3	83,3	15,4	14,8	
H14									
Trades	6	15	11	6	7	5	12	32	94
Return, €	68	125	50	26	42	20	-6	-345	-20
Accuracy, %	100	100	100	100	85,7	80	41,7	18,8	
H16									
Trades	2	11	9	4	1	7	10	32	76
Return, €	23	93	75	15	8	61	29	-346	-42
Accuracy, %	100	100	100	100	100	85,7	80	18,2	
H18									
Trades	1	1	5	5	2	4	8	32	58
Return, €	27	9	62	58	36	45	19	-154	102
Accuracy, %	100	100	100	100	100	100	75	28,1	
H20									
Trades	2	1	6	4	1	4	5	32	55
Return, €	44	10	89	28	9	47	29	-189	67
Accuracy, %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	31,3	
H22									
Trades	1	1	4	6	2	3	6	28	51
Return, €	40	12	32	60	20	36	41	-304	-63
Accuracy, %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	35,7	

A very similar situation is with the H10 and H12, i. e. the accuracy was 100% in one day trades (Table 3) and the biggest part of profit was obtained in 1-2 days trades. The only difference is the longer period of days (4 days) with quite high accuracy (>80%).

The H14 was 100% precise in the first 4 days and had accuracy over 80% in day 5 and day 6. The fact that 50 of 94 trades were made during this period is very promising. The H16 extended 100% precision up to 5 days and over 80% precision up to 7 days. During these 7 days, 44 transactions were made against 32 made beyond the first 7 days.

The H18 scenario gained the biggest profit of 102 €. What helped doing that? We can see in the table 3 that 100% accuracy extended up to 6 days with 75% of accuracy in day 8. But the amount of trades was lower than the amount of trades beyond 8 day: 24 against 32. It is possible that fundamental reasons have made bigger impact to profitability than the

time length. The scenarios H20 and H22 had similar tendency of lowering amount of trades during the days of high accuracy (Figure 2).

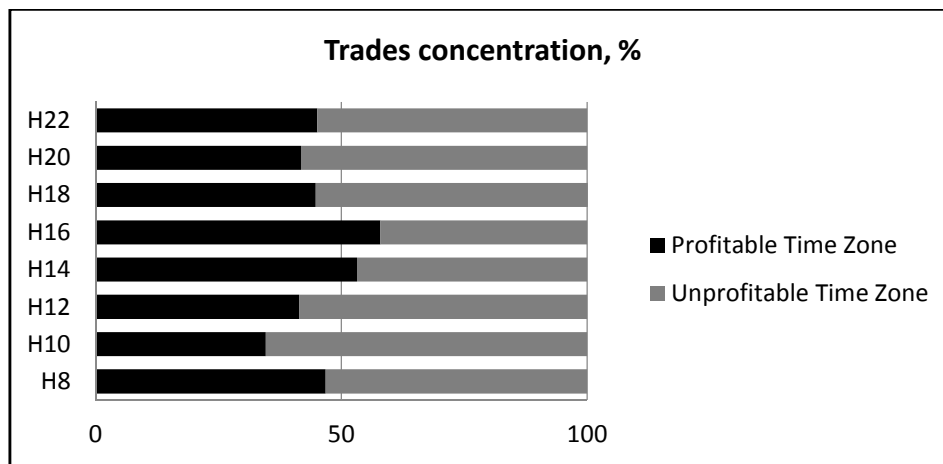


Figure 2. Trade concentration of all RSI modifications

The biggest part of transactions made in a profitable period of time is only in two scenarios: the H14 and H16 (Figure 2). Although, this result is good, less trades made in the unprofitable period of time brought bigger losses and a total negative return. The answer to the question of how the long lasting unprofitable trades can be identified as soon as possible will help to improve the results of return.

All the observed scenarios have positive and negative aspects. In active trading with RSI, the negative side is the index incapacity to predict the fundamental factors which impact the EUR/USD pair. Verbal interventions of heads of the ECB and FED along with elections of country leaders make RSI incorrect. However, the obtained data of some scenarios about the accuracy during the periods synchronized with the fundamental agenda could be valuable for the management of active trading portfolio.

4. CONCLUSIONS

1. Fundamental factors have an impact on the EUR/USD pair and the RSI accuracy. 7 out of 8 trading models with various RSI modifications experienced losses. Only the H18 had positive return during the period from 01.01.2016 to 30.06.2017. The biggest negative result received during the period of time was when the index forecasts coincided with the ECB, FED heads announcements, the G7 meeting and the presidential elections. The H18 had the least coincidences of this type (5) and the biggest portfolio profitability (10.2%).
2. Results of better accuracy were obtained in the H14 and H16 RSI modifications when more than 50% of trades were made in the period of time with a precision above 80%. Although, the perfect accuracy period of time increases together with the calculated number of periods in RSI, the number of trades decreases and gains a total negative

return. The biggest problem for the H14 and H16 is a relatively large amount of trades with unprofitability over 2%. In future, another RSI modification could be used for seeking less of trades and better control of currency based portfolio. For example, daily or weekly RSI modifications probably could be used in the similar trading scenarios. Rosillo, Fuente and Brugos²⁰ investigated stock markets and concluded that most of the companies where RSI showed best results have big market capitalization in comparison to the rest. So, the same research could be applied for inactively traded currency pairs in the future. Such pairs have less capitalization and represent countries with less impact on global markets and economy. Herewith, the fundamental factors could do less damage to RSI signals.

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WYKORZYSTANIE WSKAŹNIKA SIŁY WZGLĘDNEJ W CELU AKTYWNYCH INWESTYCJI NA ZAGRANICZNYM RYNKU WALUTOWYM

Rynek walutowy jest nieustannie dotknięty ogromną liczbą wydarzeń gospodarczych i politycznych takich jak decyzje banków centralnych, zmiany różnych wskaźników ekonomicznych, wybory, oficjalne ogłoszenia liderów krajowych itd. Różni inwestorzy, finansści i naukowcy stworzyli wiele wskaźników, wzorów matematycznych i strategii inwestycyjnych w celu poprawy wyników inwestycji w instrumenty finansowe. W artykule przedstawiono i omówiono dane zebrane za pomocą indeksu względnej siły Wellesa Wildera, amerykańskiego analityka w transakcjach kasowych euro i pary amerykańskiego dolara. Wszystkie dane zebrano od 1 stycznia 2016 r. do 1 lipca 2017 r. i analizowano z kilku punktów widzenia. Celem tych badań było znalezienie najlepszej modyfikacji indeksu siły względnej w celu handlu na rynku FOREX. Badania odbiegały od klasycznego indeksu względnej siły do bardziej wrażliwych modyfikacji oryginalnej formuły. Osiągnięto osiem scenariuszy handlu z ośmioma różnymi modyfikacjami indeksu siły względnej. Tylko jeden z nich uzyskał pozytywny wynik, mimo że większość scenariuszy miała dokładność powyżej 50%. W artykule przeanalizowano również przyczyny strat w transakcjach. Indeks był błędny, gdy wystąpiły silne fundamentalne czynniki, takie jak przemówienia szefów EBC i szefów FED. Błędy te spowodowały, że straty w transakcjach wyniosły ponad 2% nieopłacalności. Wszystkie prace opierały się na analizie literatury różnych autorów z różnych krajów i informacji od brokerów FOREX.

Słowa kluczowe: rynki finansowe, FOREX, wskaźnik siły względnej.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.39

*Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.
Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.*

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E-HEALTH AS A TOOL FOR STRENGTHENING THE ROLE OF A PATIENT IN THE PROCESS OF PROVIDING HEALTH SERVICES

The development of information and communication technologies has contributed to the emergence of e-health, the sphere of digital activity, related to support for prevention, diagnosis, treatment, monitoring and health management. The patient's involvement in the process of providing health services becomes an important factor conditioning the effectiveness of treatment. A particularly important role of e-health tools is the creation of opportunities to involve patients in the treatment process, increasing their knowledge, personalising and individualising medical care to obtain, strengthening their role in the decision-making process, which on the whole enhances the position of patients. The range of health-enhancing activities that can be carried out using e-health tools is wide and includes the transfer of information, its collection, analysis, processing to support decision-making processes, health education, and furthermore, training of medical personnel and management with administrative aspects. The purpose of the article is to try to identify the possibilities of supporting the process of providing health services through the use of e-health tools. The article consists of three main parts. The first part describes the role of the patient in the process of providing services, including such concepts as subject patient empowerment, patient-centred medicine and personalised medicine. Next, the characterization of the essence and forms of e-health was made. The last part consists of an attempt to identify conditions, possibilities, areas of information application and communication technologies in the health care system. The final conclusions address the challenges faced by health systems and their participants to ensure the effective use of e-health tools in shaping the relationship between patients and healthcare professionals.

Keywords: e-health, health services, mobile health, telemedicine, e-patient, patient-centered care, patient empowerment.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Health is a social good that is important for the socio-economic development of the state and a significant and desirable value in the individual dimension. According to the definition of the World Health Organization “health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”³. The challenge facing every state is the need to shape a health care system capable of satisfying the health needs of citizens by ensuring availability and high quality of health services.

The range of factors affecting health is wide, as it includes environmental factors and personal determinants, such as: the social and economic environment, the physical environment, and the person’s individual characteristics and behaviours. In particular, determinants of health can be as follows: income and social status, education, physical environment (safe water and clean air, healthy workplaces, safe houses, communities and roads all contribute to good health), employment and working conditions, social support networks, culture or else genetic inheritance. They all play a part in determining lifespan, healthiness and the likelihood of developing certain illnesses, personal behaviour and coping skills. Furthermore, balanced eating, keeping active, smoking, drinking, gender (men and women suffer from different types of diseases at different ages) and how we deal with life’s stresses and challenges – all affect health, health services access and use of services that prevent and treat diseases influencing health⁴.

This means that all participants of the system are responsible for health at the state, institutional level and patients themselves. This requires active cooperation of all system participants in the process of shaping and delivering health services, adapted to the changing health needs and opportunities, resulting from the progress of medical knowledge and technology development. The attitude and involvement of the patient in the process of providing health services become important factors, conditioning the effectiveness of treatment. Therefore, it is important to act at the systemic and institutional level aimed at educating, promoting and encouraging the involvement of patients. In this context, the ideas of strengthening the role of the patient, patient empowerment, patient-centred care and personalised medicine are an important challenge for the health care system. The development of intelligent healthcare means the necessity to use new technologies for communication between medical staff and patients, educating, and supporting all phases of the treatment process. The following research questions can be formulated: how new technologies can support strengthening the role of the patient in the process of ensuring the implementation of health needs, providing health services, furthermore, what opportunities they create for the development of the idea of patient’s focused medicine.

The aim of the article is to describe the role of the patient in the process of providing health services, including the ideas such as: empowerment of the patient, patient-centred medicine, personalised medicine. Will also be characterised the essence, conditions and forms of e-health with an attempt to identify areas of application of information and communication technologies in health services. To implement the adopted objective, the method of analysis and criticism of the literature (desk research) as well as the method of analysing documents, legal acts and reports and statistical data were used. The study is conceptual

³ <http://www.who.int/about/mission/en/> (accessed: 3.05.2018).

⁴ <http://www.who.int/hia/evidence/doh/en/> (accessed: 10.05.2018).

and based on in-depth review of literature and documents, focused on the analysis of modern trends in the development of e-health services and tools.

2. THE ROLE OF THE PATIENT IN THE PROCESS OF PROVIDING HEALTH SERVICES

One of the fundamental activities in the process of providing health services is efficient communication between medical staff and patients. Relations between participants of the health service have a diverse, multi-faceted character. In order to characterize the health care services, it is necessary to analyze the scope and purpose of activities as well as the nature and conditions of relations between the participants (patient-medical staff relationships). The scope of the health service should be considered widely, taking into account not only the content itself, the activities within the service, but also the entire process of its provision. The health service is therefore complex and covers all activities consisting in providing access to health care, shaping the service potential, communication, pro-health information and educational activities. In legal terms, health services include “actions to preserve, rescue, restore or improve health and other medical activities resulting from the treatment process or separate provisions regulating the principles of their execution”⁵. Running a service activity in the area of health is a professional one and requires compliance with a number of formal requirements regarding the qualifications of medical personnel and the powers of the healthcare provider. This means the necessity to apply the given methodology of the health service provision (i.e. a health procedure), that is a description of the manner in which the benefit is provided or a procedure schedule⁶. The health service is a qualitative and quantitative standard consisting of activities, materials and devices (fixed assets) necessary to achieve the assumed goal and includes medical services implemented in the field of medicine and pharmaceutical services implemented in the field of pharmacy⁷.

The specificity of health services, however, manifests itself in terms of such features as: intangibility and lack of guarantee of the health service effectiveness, psychological complexity of the process, constant interaction between the doctor and the patient, the necessity of good communication between the doctor and the patient that is conducive to building trust, a small possibility of differentiating services, dependence of the effectiveness and quality of the health service on the patient's state of health⁸. It can be assumed that the relationship between the patient and the medical staff has a significant impact on the quality and availability of health services. Patients, reporting health needs, expect professional, safe services taking into account their individual circumstances. Ensuring the quality of health services requires the orientation of service activities on the patient, his specific needs and respective position. Among the approaches that accept the role of the patient in the process of providing health services, empowerment patient, patient-centered medicine, and personalized medicine can be distinguished. According to the World Health Organization, in the

⁵ Ustawa o działalności leczniczej z dnia 15 kwietnia 2011 r. (Dz.U. z 2011 r., nr 112, poz. 654 ze zm.), art. 2, ust. 1, pkt 10.

⁶ <https://www.osoz.pl/osoz/web/osoz-cms/definicje> (accessed: 10.05.2018).

⁷ *Ibidem*.

⁸ A. Bukowska-Piestrzyńska, *Marketing usług zdrowotnych. Od budowania wizerunku placówki do zadowolenia klientów*, Warszawa 2009, p. 17–18.

system dimension, one of key characteristics of good service delivery is quality, the provision of which requires effective and safe actions, centred on the patient's needs and given in a timely fashion⁹. WHO indicates the following features of person-centredness: health services are organized around the person, not the disease or the financing, users perceive health services to be responsive and acceptable to them, there is participation from the target population in service delivery design and assessment, patients are partners in their own health care¹⁰.

The essence of the concept of person-centred medicine is to provide patients with good experiences, including such aspects as: respecting people's values and putting people at the center of care, taking into account their preferences and expressed needs. This approach is based on coordinated and integrated care, which includes: working together to make sure there is good communication, information and education, making sure people are physically comfortable and safe, emotional support, involving family and friends, making sure there is continuity between and within service and ultimately, making sure people have access to appropriate care when they need it¹¹. These activities are very broad, diverse, have a holistic and subjective character in the approach to patients and their health needs. The main goal of these actions is communication that builds lasting relationships. Mc. Beach and T. Inui proposed interesting relationship-centered care (RCC) model, in which all participants appreciate the importance of their relationships with one another, based on the following principles: relationships should include the personhood of participants, important elements of these relationships are the affects and emotions, all relations have the character of mutual influence and creating and maintaining genuine relationships has a moral value¹².

The concept of focusing on the patient is not only shaping good relationships but also improves proper communication between participants of the health service. An individual approach, taking into account specific, individual social and biological determinants, is related to the possibilities of personalising medical services. Personalised medicine is defined as a multidisciplinary, dynamically developing field in which the patient's treatment is carried out in an individualised way, thanks to the use of modern diagnostic methods, mainly molecular biology methods¹³. Personalised medicine focuses on patients as well as on the mechanisms of health and disease prevention, and includes, among others, such activities as: searching for drugs compatible with individual sensitivity, anticipating the development of disease changes, adjusting nutrition and lifestyle to the state of disease¹⁴.

The condition for the development of personalised medicine is the focus on the patient (with his/her human attributes) and not only on the disease itself and optimal active parti-

⁹ *Monitoring the building blocks of health systems: a handbook of indicators and their measurement strategies, section 1, Health service delivery*, WHO 2010, p. 3. http://www.who.int/healthinfo/systems/WHO_MBHSS_2010_section1_web.pdf (accessed: 11.05.2018).

¹⁰ *Monitoring the building blocks of health systems...*, p. 3, http://www.who.int/healthinfo/systems/WHO_MBHSS_2010_section1_web.pdf (accessed: 11.05.2018).

¹¹ *What is person-centred care and why is it important?*, Health Innovation Network South London, March 2016, s. 2, https://healthinnovationnetwork.com/system/ckeditor_assets/attachments/41/what_is_person-centred_care_and_why_is_it_important.pdf (accessed: 8.06.2018).

¹² MC. Beach, T. Inui, *Relationship-centered care – A constructive reframing*, "Journal of General Internal Medicine" 2006, 21, s. 53.

¹³ A. Fronczak (red.), *Medycyna personalizowana. Mity, fakty, rekomendacje*, Łódź 2016, s. 78.

¹⁴ M. Pasowicz, *Medycyna nowej generacji [in:] M. Pasowicz (red.), Zdrowie i medycyna – wyzwania przyszłości*, Kraków 2013, p. 86 i n.

icipation of patients¹⁵. This requires the patient to be involved in identifying changes, reactions, symptoms, needs and appropriate information transfer. The patient becomes an active participant in the process of providing a health service. It is therefore necessary to strengthen the role of patients, making them active, even involved participants in the health service. Getting a patient to play an active role is a complex task, requiring the inclusion of a number of conditions. Among the factors affecting patient involvement, the following are distinguished: acceptance of the new role of the patient, the level of health awareness and knowledge about health, belief in one's own abilities, the type of decision to be taken, the rank of problems to which the decisions apply, the type of illness and accompanying diseases, age, gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity, using the methods of alternative medicine and specialisation of a healthcare staff member¹⁶.

Therefore, a comprehensive approach to the patient involvement and patient empowerment is necessary. The concept of patient empowerment is characterised by six components, such as: communication (facilitating patient communications with health professionals, education and health literacy), information (access to personal medical information furthers patients' control in the management of their health), good-quality personalised health information, self-care (support and engaging in health management in many routine activities of daily living e.g. nutrition, physical activity), decision aids (preparing and helping patients for making informed decisions about their care options and support services e.g. patient organization) and contact with fellow patients (sharing experiences and information, supporting other patients)¹⁷.

To ensure the provision of patient-oriented health services, process-based operation is required, starting from recognising patient's needs. The following fundamental principles of the concept are distinguished: getting to know the patient as a person and recognising their individuality, seeing the patient as an expert about their own health and care, sharing power and responsibility, taking a holistic approach to assessing people's needs and providing care, including families where appropriate, making sure that services are accessible, flexible and easy to navigate, looking at people's whole experience of care to promote coordination and continuity, making sure that the physical, cultural and psychosocial environment of health services supports person-centred care, making sure that staff are supportive, well trained in communication and striving to put people at the centre of their care¹⁸.

Summing up, it can be stated that the concept of person-centred care is based on effective communication, enabling shaping mutual relations between participants of the health service. The patient must therefore have knowledge about his role, activities, and capabilities and have access to the tools necessary for constant communication.

¹⁵ L. Chouchane, R. Mamtani, A. Dallol, J.I. Sheikh, *Personalized Medicine: A Patient – Centered Paradigm*, "Journal of Translational Medicine", 2011 9:206, DOI: 10.1186/1479-5876-9-206, p. 2–3.

¹⁶ Y. Longtin, H. Sax, L. L. Leape, S. E. Sheridan, L. Donaldson, D. Pittet, *Zaangażowanie pacjenta: stan wiedzy i wpływ na bezpieczeństwo opieki*, „Medycyna po dyplomie” 2010, Vol. 19, No. 6, p. 118.

¹⁷ L. Alpay, P. van der Boog, A. Dumaij, *An empowerment-based approach to developing innovative e-health tools for self-management*, "Health Informatics Journal" 2011, 17(4), DOI: 10.1177/1460458211420089, <http://jhi.sagepub.com/content/17/4/247> (accessed: 8.06.2018), p. 248.

¹⁸ *What is person-centred care and why is it important?...*, p. 4,

3. THE ESSENCE, GOALS AND FORMS OF E-HEALTH

The development of digital technologies has contributed to the progress in the delivery of health services. Digital innovations have created opportunities for changes in the processes of communication and management of relations between participants in the healthcare system. E-health in a broad sense means the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) for health¹⁹.

World Health Organization defines e-health as “the cost-effective and secure use of information communication technologies (ICT) in support of health and health related fields, including health-care services, health surveillance, health literature, and health education, knowledge and research”²⁰. The scope of activities related to the use of information and communication technologies is wide and concerns all participants and stakeholders of the health care system. According to the definition of the European Commission “digital health and care refers to tools and services that use information and communication technologies (ICTs) to improve prevention, diagnosis, treatment, monitoring and management of health and lifestyle. Digital health and care has the potential to innovate and improve access to care, quality of care, and to increase the overall efficiency of the health sector”²¹.

E-health tools include exchange of information and data between patients and healthcare providers, hospitals, health professionals and entities responsible for information networks; electronic medical records; telemedicine services; portable devices for patient monitoring, scheduling software, robots used in surgery and basic research in the field of the virtual model of human physiology²². According to G. Eysenbach e-health is more than a set of tools and technical development, “but also a state-of-mind, a way of thinking, an attitude, and a commitment for networked, global thinking, to improve health care locally, regionally, and worldwide by using information and communication technology”²³. E-health is a phenomenon closely related to the growing possibilities of digital support for satisfying health needs.

The main forms of e-health include mobile health and telemedicine. One of the rapidly developing forms of e-health is a mobile health (m-health); the development of mobile telephony has created new opportunities for communication between healthcare service providers and patients. It is estimated that the number of mobile phone users in 2018 will reach the level of 5.135 billion²⁴. In 2017 there were 325.000 health apps (health & fitness and medical apps) available on all major app stores²⁵.

M-health covers “medical and public health practice supported by mobile devices, such as mobile phones, patient monitoring devices, personal digital assistants (PDAs), and other

¹⁹ <http://www.who.int/ehealth/en/> (accessed: 5.05.2018).

²⁰ *Global diffusion of eHealth: making universal health coverage achievable. Report of the third global survey on eHealth*, World Health Organization, 2016, p. 11, http://www.who.int/goe/publications/global_diffusion/en/ (accessed: 5.05.2018).

²¹ https://ec.europa.eu/health/ehealth/overview_en (accessed: 6.04.2018).

²² https://ec.europa.eu/health/ehealth/overview_pl (accessed: 6.04.2018).

²³ G. Eysenbach, *What is e-health?*, “Journal of Medical Internet Research” 2001, Vol. 3, iss. 2, e20, doi:10.2196/jmir.3.2.e20.

²⁴ <https://wearesocial.com/uk/blog/2018/01/global-digital-report-2018> (accessed: 15.06.2018).

²⁵ *mHealth Economics 2017 – Current Status and Future Trends in Mobile Health*, Research2Guidance 2017, s. 10, <https://research2guidance.com/product/mhealth-economics-2017-current-status-and-future-trends-in-mobile-health/> (accessed 12.05.2018).

wireless devices²⁶. M-health includes applications such as lifestyle and wellbeing apps that may connect to medical devices or sensors (e.g. bracelets or watches) as well as personal guidance systems, health information and medication reminders provided by SMS and wirelessly provided telemedicine²⁷. World Health Organization identifies the following types of mobile health, within the following dimensions of communication²⁸:

- communication between individuals and health services, health call centres/ health care telephone helplines, emergency toll-free telephone services,
- communication between health services: treatment adherence, reminder to attend appointments, community mobilization/health promotion campaigns,
- consultation between health care professionals: mobile telehealth,
- intersectoral communication in emergencies, emergency management systems,
- health monitoring and surveillance, health surveys, surveillance, patient monitoring,
- access to information and education for health care professionals: access to information, resources, databases and tools, clinical decision support systems, electronic patient information, m-learning.

The next group of tools is telemedicine identified with telehealth. Telemedicine is defined as “the delivery of health care services, where distance is a critical factor, by all health care professionals using information and communication technologies for the exchange of valid information for diagnosis, treatment and prevention of disease and injuries, research and evaluation, and for the continuing education of health care providers, all in the interests of advancing the health of individuals and their communities”²⁹. Telemedicine solutions include³⁰:

- tele-diagnostics – diagnosis is made on the basis of medical data sent via information and communications technology (ICT networks, computer files), for example: tele-diagnosis in teleradiology (description of the study by the teleradiology center) or cardiology (tele-electrocardiography),
- telemonitoring – a patient with a chronic illness is equipped with a device that measures vital parameters at specified intervals, and the measurement results are sent to the telemonitoring centre, then specialised algorithms analyse influencing results, and in emergency situations, alert the doctor on duty, who intervenes,
- teleconsultation – video-conversation between an internist, a patient and a specialist physician (or team of doctors of various specialties) to gather an interview from the patient and even conduct an examination,
- tele-rehabilitation – providing instructional materials on rehabilitation and video conferences, during which the therapist controls the quality and correctness of the rehabilitation exercises performed,
- tele-teaching – trainings, lectures and presentations, online platforms and portals transmitting the online course of innovative operations,

²⁶ *GREEN PAPER on mobile Health ("mHealth")*, European Commission, Brussels, 10.4.2014, COM(2014) 219 final, p. 3.

²⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 3.

²⁸ *Global diffusion of eHealth...*, p. 29.

²⁹ *Telemedicine. Opportunities and developments in Member States Report on the second global survey on eHealth Global Observatory for eHealth series*, Vol. 2, WHO 2010, p. 9.

³⁰ M. Jankowski, A. Klimczak-Wieczorek, M. Kloc, M. Matuszewski, J. Rozum, *Telemedycyna w Polsce możliwości i szanse rozwoju*, Warszawa 2016, p. 5.

- tele-surgery – operations “at a distance”, the surgeon remotely controls the surgical robot, which according to its commands and movements performs the various stages of the operation.

The multitude of digital solutions in healthcare means that the beneficiaries of the use of e-health tools are patients, medical personnel, administration and management staff of health service providers, as well as the entire healthcare system. E-health includes interaction between patients and health care providers, data transfer between institutions or between partners, between patients and healthcare professionals that aim to improve citizens' health, increase the availability of health services, efficiency and productivity in delivering health care and the economic and social value of health³¹. The scope of health improvement activities that can be carried out using the e-health tools is wide and includes: information transfer, its collection, analysis, processing to support decision-making processes, health education, training of medical personnel, and management of administrative activities.

4. THE APPLICATION OF E-HEALTH TOOLS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PATIENT INVOLVEMENT

Access to knowledge about the state of your health, the possibility of obtaining reliable, comprehensive information on treatment methods, healthy behaviours, healthy lifestyle are the foundation in providing patient-centered healthcare. One of the main obstacles to increasing patient involvement is low patient health awareness and lack of knowledge related to health³². For this reason, it is crucial to consider the key activities in the patient empowerment concept, described in Table 1.

For the development of personalised medicine, it is necessary not only to provide information but also to collect and analyse it by creating secure databases including personalised data (electronic patient records). The role of information systems is therefore not only to enable the analysis of data on the patient's health status and the decision-making process of medical staff, but also to make the knowledge available to patients, thanks to which they become much more involved in monitoring their own health³³. Technological solutions covering e-health tools (including mobile applications) create opportunities for acquiring, collecting, processing information and sharing them with doctors and other patients, making the patient more aware, educated, motivated and involved in the treatment process. J.L. Monteagudo and O. Moreno identified five big categories of e-health patient empowerment applications (existing in EU countries), such as³⁴:

1. information production – tools and supports for information and educational materials in electronic formats (electronic publishing is more timely, dynamic and less expensive than traditional paper based publishing),

³¹ *eHealth Action Plan 2012–2020 – Innovative healthcare for the 21st century*, Communication from the Commission to The European Parliament, The Council, The European Economic And Social Committee And The Committee Of The Regions, Brussels, 6.12.2012, p. 3.

³² Y. Longtin, H. Sax, L.L. Leape, S.E. Sheridan, L. Donaldson, D. Pittet, *Zaangażowanie pacjenta...*, p. 124.

³³ A. Fronczak (red.), *Medycyna personalizowana. Mity, fakty, rekomendacje*, Łódź 2016, s. 119.

³⁴ J.L. Monteagudo, O. Moreno, *e-Health for Patient Empowerment in Europe...*, s. 43–44.

2. telephone communication services – applications and tools supported by generic telephonic services such as call centers, voice mail, audio conferencing, etc. using fixed and mobile telephonic networks,
3. data communication services (no healthcare specific) – applications constructed using e-mail, mobile SMS, web pages and internet interactive services (can be simple passive information of administrative nature, to complex health interactive services or virtual communities support),
4. ICT healthcare management – specific applications and services as for example, electronic personal records (EPR), electronic prescription and electronic appointment systems,
5. personal health platforms to support complex processes of care delivery, based on partnership of different actors and the active collaboration of the patient (constructed using or interacting with e-health applications of the above categories, i.e. of systems for self-care management and chronic care).

Table 1. Key activities in patient empowerment concept

Activities	Objectives
Consumer Communication with health agents and carers	Facilitating consumer communication with the healthcare agents, particularly with physicians.
Consumer Health Information access	Improving citizen's access to appropriate health information and their capacity to use it effectively.
Consumer Health Education process	Encouraging the use of healthcare resources, active participation in activities promoting health (promoting knowledge about the health care system, health insurance/provision options, etc.).
Consumer Decision making aids	Preparing patients for decision making about professional care options by providing information on the options and outcomes, relevant to the person's health status.
Consumer Self-care support	Supporting patients through virtual communities operating in the network, primarily in the field of self-education and self-responsibility, encourage patients' initiative, and provide members with an opportunity to help others, sharing experiences in the area of health.
Chronic Care integrated services support	Active partnership between healthcare professional and patient (education and support for self-care). Implementing a disease management approach, aimed to co-ordinate services across the health and social care sectors in order to deliver ongoing care.

Source: own work on basis: J.L. Monteagudo, O. Moreno, *e-Health for Patient Empowerment in Europe*, Madrid, July 2007, p. 33-39.

To increase the involvement of patients through the active use of e-health tools, it is necessary to encourage patients through the medical staff, making them aware of the benefits and threats. E-health should be treated comprehensively. According to G. Eysenbach the prefix “e” in the word e-health should be understood broadly as: efficiency, enhancing quality of care, evidence based (effectiveness and efficiency should be proven by rigorous scientific evaluation), empowerment of consumers and patients (patient-centered medicine), enabling evidence-based patient choice, encouragement of a new relationship between the patient and health professional, towards a true partnership, where decisions are

made in a shared manner, education of physicians through online sources (continuing medical education) and consumers (health education, tailored preventive information for consumers), enabling information exchange and communication in a standardized way between health care establishments, extending the scope of health care beyond its conventional boundaries, ethics, equity ensuring equitable access for all to infrastructure and networks, easy-to-use, entertaining and exciting (it should definitely exist)³⁵.

The development of information and communication technologies contributes to the formation of a new category of patients such as e-patients. In broad terms, it can be assumed that an e-patient is a person who - regardless of his or her health condition - uses information and communication technologies when using health services³⁶. According to Eurostat, 51% of individuals aged 16 to 74 use the internet to search for health-related information (injury, disease, nutrition, improving health, etc.)³⁷.

The idea of an e-patient can refer to four different concepts: having the ability to manage your own health, be enabled to make choices regarding self-care, including their choices respected, having the right to choose a team of health professionals who are involved in the treatment, engagement in their own healthcare³⁸. The term e-patient includes the patients themselves, the sick who seek information helpful in meeting their own health needs, as well as their friends and family members who use the internet on their behalf³⁹. The characteristic feature of an e-patient is the awareness of the importance of seeking information, the pursuit of gaining and deepening knowledge about health. The access to information makes patients become enabled, empowered, engaged and able to play more active role, participate fully in shared decision-making, regarding their medical care, and take personal responsibility for self managing their illness and care⁴⁰.

One of the important elements of the concept of strengthening the patient through access to information is the issue of sharing knowledge with doctors and other patients. Providing information about the current state of health supports medical personnel in deciding on the way of further medical care. However, sharing information can have a wider range and go beyond the patient-doctor relationship. Using social media, information on experience in the field of medical care, ways of solving health problems can be provided to other patients and specialists using the idea of a crowdsourcing. Crowdsourcing is believed to revolutionise health care by creating, gathering and passing on 'collective wisdom' to a wide range of interested people around the world, in particular in the area of information gathering,

³⁵ G. Eysenbach, *What is e-health?...*

³⁶ M. Czerwińska, *Specyfika zachowań e-pacjentów w Internecie*, „Roczniki Kolegium Analiz Ekonomicznych” 2015, nr 38, Warszawa, p. 346.

³⁷ <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tin00101> (accessed: 15.06.2018).

³⁸ *European e-patient. Report 2015. An annual report about the everyday life of e-patients*, People Who Global, Madrid, April 2016, p. 93.

³⁹ T. Ferguson, *E-patients: how they can help us heal healthcare*, The e-Patient Scholars Editorial Team, San Francisco, March, 2007, s. II, https://participatorymedicine.org/e-Patient_White_Paper_with_Afterword.pdf (accessed: 15.06.2018).

⁴⁰ M. Hegdekar, *The emergence of e-patients: Role of internet and social media in Participatory Medicine*, Research Paper based on lectures at the Medlink or Workshop Conferences at Nottingham University, December 2013, April 2014, p. 2, <https://medlink-uk.net/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/HegdekarM.pdf> (accessed: 1.07.2018).

making decisions and helping to solve even the most difficult medical issues quickly and accurately⁴¹.

E-health tools contribute to the shaping of the smart health care which is characterised by the following features: appropriate treatments are delivered at the appropriate time, in the appropriate place, for the appropriate patient, specialists use technology to more accurately diagnose and treat illness and deliver care, patient data is in one, easily accessible place, all care delivery stakeholders across the ecosystem effectively and efficiently communicate and use information, the correct individuals do the correct work, patients are informed and actively involved in their treatment plan, new, cost-effective delivery models bring health care to places and people that don't have it, efficiency improves; waste declines⁴². E-health tools create opportunities for creating relationships between all participants of the healthcare system. These benefits will only be felt if all participants are active, use the tools available, and stimulate contacts in the virtual space.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The development of digital technologies implies changes in all spheres of life, including the health care system. Technological solutions in the field of information and communication find a wide application in health services, satisfying healthy needs. This applies to contacts between patients with entities providing health services, medical staff, or between patients and other patients. The key challenge for the development of e-health services and tools is to focus them on the patients and their needs (patient-centered care), subordinating the processes of digitalisation in health services to the idea of strengthening the role of the patient.

Particularly important role of e-health tools is to create opportunities to involve patients in the treatment process, increase patient knowledge, personalise, individualise medical care, strengthen their role in the decision-making process, which leads to the empowerment of patients. Despite the many perceived benefits of e-health tools, there are still many barriers that limit their use, among which should be mentioned such as: lack of awareness of, and confidence in e-health solutions among patients, citizens and healthcare professionals, lack of interoperability between e-health solutions, limited large-scale evidence of the cost-effectiveness of e-health tools and services, lack of legal clarity for health and wellbeing mobile applications and the lack of transparency regarding the utilisation of data collected by such applications, inadequate or fragmented legal frameworks including the lack of reimbursement schemes for e-health services, high start-up costs involved in setting up e-health systems and regional differences in accessing ICT services, limited access in deprived areas⁴³.

In the face of such limitations, it should be recognised that a comprehensive approach to the development and implementation of e-health tools is indispensable. The challenges related to this concern both the state, the system level, entities that provide health services

⁴¹ M. Hegdekar, *The emergence of e-patient...*, p. 9.

⁴² *2018 Global health care outlook – The evolution of smart health care*, Deloitte, 2018, p. 4, <https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/global/Documents/Life-Sciences-Health-Care/gx-lshc-hc-outlook-2018.pdf> (accessed: 5.05.2018).

⁴³ *eHealth Action Plan 2012-2020 - Innovative healthcare for the 21st century...*, p. 5.

and medical personnel, as well as patients themselves, their associations, formal and informal social groups. The role of the state is to create rules for the functioning and use of e-health tools, taking into account patient safety and data on their health status, securing access to infrastructure, promoting the idea of patient involvement, educating the public in the field of health issues and the possibility of using modern technologies in health services. It seems, however, that the main responsibility for strengthening the role of the patient is on the side of health care providers and medical staff. Their task should be to strive to create personalised relationships based on trust, commitment, and care for the well-being of the patient. It is important to use modern technologies not only to support administrative services (registration, e-prescriptions) but also to communicate, to shape effective relationships between the patient and the doctor. Patients also need to see the benefits of using e-health tools, they must have a sense of security and opportunities to participate in decision-making, and above all, they should accept their new role (as e-patients, smart patients) in the health care delivery process.

The review of literature allows us to conclude that the issue of e-health in the context of strengthening the role of the patient, in world literature, is the subject of a broad, interdisciplinary discussion. Also in Poland an increasing discussion in the area of e-health services and tools takes place, however the aspect of strengthening the role of the patient in Polish literature is not sufficiently described. It seems that patient orientation of e-health services is particularly important in the context of the digitisation of the health care system in Poland.

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LEGAL ACTS

1. Ustawa o działalności leczniczej z dnia 15 kwietnia 2011 r. o działalności leczniczej (Dz.U. z 2011, nr 112 poz. 654 ze zm.).

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E-ZDROWIE JAKO NARZĘDZIE WZMACNIANIA ROLI PACJENTA W PROCESIE ŚWIADCZENIA USŁUG ZDROWOTNYCH

Rozwój technologii informacyjno-komunikacyjnych przyczynił się do powstania e-zdrowia, sfery aktywności cyfrowej, odnoszącej się do wspierania profilaktyki, diagnostyki, leczenia, monitorowania i zarządzania zdrowiem. Zaangażowanie pacjenta w proces świadczenia usług zdrowotnych staje się ważnym czynnikiem warunkującym skuteczność leczenia. Szczególnie istotną rolą narzędzi e-zdrowia jest tworzenie możliwości angażowania pacjentów w proces leczenia, zwiększania wiedzy o pacjencie, personalizacji, indywidualizacji opieki medycznej, wzmocnienia ich roli w procesie podejmowania decyzji, co prowadzi do wzmocnienia pozycji pacjentów. Zakres działań na rzecz poprawy zdrowia, które mogą być prowadzone przy użyciu narzędzi e-zdrowia, jest szeroki i obejmuje przekazywanie informacji, ich gromadzenie, analizę, przetwarzanie w celu wspierania procesów decyzyjnych, edukację zdrowotną, szkolenie personelu medycznego i zarządzanie aspektami administracyjnymi. Celem artykułu jest próba identyfikacji możliwości wspierania procesu świadczenia usług zdrowotnych przez wykorzystanie narzędzi e-zdrowia. Artykuł składa się z trzech głównych części. W pierwszej części opisano rolę pacjenta w procesie świadczenia usług, z uwzględnieniem takich koncepcji jak: upodmiotowienie pacjenta, medycyna skoncentrowana na pacjencie i medycyna spersonalizowana. Następnie charakteryzowano istotę i formy e-zdrowia. W ostatniej części dokonano próby zidentyfikowania uwarunkowań, możliwości i obszarów zastosowania technologii informacyjnych i komunikacyjnych w opiece zdrowotnej. Wnioski końcowe dotyczą wyzwań, przed jakimi stoją systemy opieki zdrowotnej i ich uczestnicy dla zapewnienia skutecznego wykorzystania narzędzi e-zdrowia w kształtowaniu relacji pomiędzy pacjentami i personelem medycznym.

Słowa kluczowe: e-zdrowie, usługi zdrowotne, mobilne zdrowie, telemedycyna, e-pacjent, medycyna skoncentrowana na pacjencie, wzmocnienie roli pacjenta.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.40

Tekst złożono do redakcji: sierpień 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ РОССИЙСКОЙ МОДЕЛИ ЭТИКИ БИЗНЕСА

В статье исследуются основные подходы к моделированию и формированию этики предпринимательства в контексте исторических трансформаций в России. Систематизированы и обобщены концептуальные основы становления и государственной поддержки ремесел, купечества и предпринимательства в этой стране под влиянием расширяющихся международных связей. Подана авторская позиция относительно специфики обособленного развития этой страны и ее изолированности от европейской цивилизации. Проанализированы наиболее важные этапы и факторы развития экономики в связи с географическим положением и наличием богатых природных ресурсов. Особое внимание в статье уделено психологии русских предпринимателей и парадигме их отношений с зарубежными партнерами. На основании анализа концепций выдающихся русских философов и историков 19-20 ст. подчеркнута идеология этического сознания российского народа, в особенности таких категорий как „соборность”, „святость” и неприятие европейского и американского понятий собственности и честности в бизнесе. Раскрыта причина конфликтов между русскими предпринимателями и их западными партнерами, вытекающих из отсталости экономики и уровня цивилизационного развития в Российской империи. Доказано, что внедрение реформ в государстве и изменение форм управления повлияло на становление морально-этических ценностей предпринимательства. Установлена и аргументирована необходимость изменения модели этики бизнеса в связи с такими явлениями как глобализация, профессиональная мобильность, мотивация к развитию коммуникационной составляющей международной деятельности российских бизнесменов. Подчеркнута роль государственного управления, структур бизнеса и изменения менталитета в развитии цивилизационной стратегической компетентности служащих фирм, менеджеров и владельцев предприятий.

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Ключевые слова: предпринимательство, реформа управления менеджментом, стратегическая компетентность бизнесменов, модель этики.

Россия, несмотря на неисчислимы природные богатства и высокоинтеллектуальный человеческий капитал, продолжает оставаться в числе развивающихся стран. Экономический и общественный порядок в современной России можно считать переходным. Так же можно охарактеризовать и этические нормы и принципы российского бизнеса, которые также находятся на этапе становления и могут рассматриваться как переходные, в них соединяются разные принципы поведения – от оставшихся со времен эпохи авторитарной экономики до заимствованных из современной деловой культуры западных стран. Эта ситуация не способствует стабильности и порождает различные нарушения морали, которые, в свою очередь, еще больше дестабилизируют ситуацию.

Важной целью изучения и внедрения этики бизнеса является совершенствование социального и организационного порядка, а также улучшение морального имиджа страны. В оценке международного сообщества. Воплощение в жизнь этих целей связано с целым комплексом задач: повышением доверия общества к бизнесу (легитимизация), созданием механизмов более рационального использования имеющихся ресурсов и средств; созданием условий для справедливой конкуренции, формированием социального и морального капитала, как условия увеличения степени сотрудничества и партнерства в различных сферах общественного бытия, борьбой с коррупцией; увеличением степени нравственной ответственности всех экономических и социальных субъектов и созданием более справедливого общества.

Что касается изучения этики предпринимательства в России, то можно сказать, что оно должно основываться на исследовании богатых исторических традиций, насчитывающих более половины тысячелетия. Задача, поставленная в данной работе, относится к моделированию российской этики предпринимательства, исходя из ее специфического исторического прошлого и перехода к современности.

Русский термин *модель* происходит от французского термина *modele – образец*. Научные модели определяют любые системы понятий, а также модели исследуемых процессов.

Значение моделей, используемых в социальной реальности, не может быть ограничено только областью науки. Живя в обществе, мы должны иметь хотя бы элементарные представления о его структуре, природе нравственных явлений, механизмах взаимосвязи участников социальных процессов, в том числе на уровне межличностного общения. Эти идеи можно назвать социально-этическими моделями, в них есть все особенности модели, а их дополнительное свойство – социальное распространение, существование в общественном нравственном сознании.

Понятие модели широко используется в научной интерпретации известных трендов, касающихся профессиональной нравственности. Так например, начиная с 20-х годов прошлого столетия в медицинской науке употребляются понятия модель Гиппократа, модель Парацельса как парадигма профессионального поведения врача. Российская модель этики бизнеса имеет глубокие исторические, геополитические и психологические корни. Её главной особенностью можно считать эклектическое наполнение поля нравственного действия: это связано с присутствием в стране множества специалистов-иностранцев.

Выбор модели этики, – пишут авторы книги „Этика делового общения”, – не предполагает „какой-либо бесчувственной стандартизации человеческих действий, то-есть отсутствия в них живого темперамента, своеобразия мышления, самобытности истории, привычек”³ Такой подход к рассмотрению этики и истории российского бизнеса мы считаем новым и заслуживающим внимания. Н. Черепанова в статье „Российская этика бизнеса в контексте национальных особенностей” также выразила мнение, что этические воззрения в бизнесе не могут носить универсальный характер, поскольку в основе лежат принципиальные культурные различия⁴.

Развитие этических норм бизнеса в России имеет свои особенности, что объясняется спецификой исторического пути, пройденного этим государством. Рассматривая историю европейской цивилизации, российский философ П.Я.Чаадаев отмечал, что „помимо общего всем обличья, каждый из народов этих имеет свои особые черты, но все это коренится в истории и в традициях и составляет наследственное состояние этих народов”⁵. Особенность России состояла в том, что тот общий путь развития, который для других стран облегчался интенсивным обменом традиций, она часто проходила в одиночку.

Основы российских норм экономического поведения складываются в период становления Московского царства (XV – начало XVI вв.), когда русские князья реально осознали значение предпринимательства для развития государства. Возвышению Москвы в определенной степени способствовала политика привлечения рабочего населения: всем желающим было разрешено селиться на берегах Москвы-реки, ремесленники надолго освобождались от уплаты всяких налогов.

Развитие ремесел явилось основой экономического усиления Московского царства, предпосылкой к расширению внутренней и внешней торговли, к возникновению нового слоя предпринимателей-купцов. При этом сильная централизация власти и усиление отчужденности от Запада способствовали формированию в поведении московитов, в том числе московских купцов, подозрительности к иностранцам; привычки действовать „всем миром”, склонности строить на обмане торговые отношения с чужими, слабого уважения к „букве закона”.

Молва о русской бесчестности появилась довольно давно. Еще в 1549 г. немецкий дипломат и путешественник Зигмунд фон Герберштейн написал в своих „Записках о московитских делах”, что в Московии „ведут торговлю с величайшим лукавством и обманом. Покупая иностранные товары, торговые люди всегда понижают цену их наполовину. Иностранцам они все продают дороже, так что иная вещь стоит им самим 1 дукат, а они продают ее за 5, 10, даже за 20 дукатов... Если при сделке неосторожно обещать что-нибудь, они в точности припомнят это и настойчиво будут требовать исполнения обещания, а сами очень редко исполняют, что обещают. Если они начнут клясться и божиться, знай, что здесь скрывается обман, ибо они клянутся с целью обмануть”⁶.

³ М. Рязанов, *Этика делового общения*. – Режим доступа: <https://libsib.ru/etika-delovogo-obshcheniya/modeli-povedeniya-book8008/457123>, с.53.

⁴ Н. Черепанова, *Российская этика бизнеса в контексте национальных особенностей* / Н. Черепанова // Вестник науки Сибири. – 2013. – №1. – С.36.

⁵ А. Соболевская, *Духовные истоки российского предпринимательства* / А.Соболевская // Сборник научных работ ИМЭМО РАН. – 2012. – № 2. – С.118.

⁶ М.Л. Лучко, *Этика бизнеса* / М.Л.Лучко // М.: Эксмо, 2006. – С.251

Русский историк Николай Костомаров в своем „Очерке торговли Московского государства в XVI - XVII столетиях” также утверждает, что „иностранцы описывают русских купцов большими плутами. Обычай запрашивать больше и торговаться был всегда характеристикой русского торговца. Если вещь стоила рубль, купец непременно запросит за нее десять рублей, смотря по лицу, которое у него покупает... Божиться в торговле было нипочем, хотя божбам русских купцов никто не верил, ни из их соотечественников, ни из иностранцев, и даже замечали, что чем более русский купец божится, тем скорее обманывает. Подделка и обмен вещей были в обычае... Подобные поступки не казались русскому предосудительными; он оправдывал себя пословицею: „На то и щука в море, чтобы карась не дремал”⁷

Многие иностранные авторы так же сурово оценивают торговые нравы России в XVI-XVII вв.: „Русские купцы торгуют с величайшими хитростями и обманом”, „они охотно жульничают и не держат ни данного слова, ни клятвы”, – подобные высказывания встречаются достаточно часто в разных исторических документах и книгах той поры. В XVIII в. общая оценка этики бизнеса россиян, данная зарубежными партнерами, не изменилась: „Русские купцы в своих сделках всегда прибегают к обманам клятвам и обещаниям”. Подобные оценки преобладают в записках иностранцев о российской этике бизнеса того времени. Пожалуй, самое неприятное высказывание о купеческих нравах можно найти в книге француза Фортэна де Пиля: „У русских купцов нет ни малейшей добросовестности; забавно испытать на самом себе, до какого предела может дойти их жульничество... добросовестность - эта единственная основа торговли - не существует в России”⁸.

В 70-х годах XIX века появилась книга „Россия” английского журналиста, сотрудника газеты „Times”, Уоллеса Макензи, который прожил в России долгое время и весьма нелицеприятно отзывался о местных купцах: „Двумя большими недостатками в характере русских купцов, как класса, согласно общему мнению, является их невежество и бесчестность. Относительно первого разных мнений быть не может. Что же касается бесчестности, которая, как говорят, столь обычна у русского торгового класса, то здесь составить мнение трудно. В том, что происходит огромное количество бесчестных сделок, нет сомнения, но нужно считать, что в этом деле иностранец является излишне строгим и забывает, что торговля в России только выходит из примитивного состояния...”⁹.

Однако, некоторые русские историки считают негативное мнение иностранцев о предпринимательстве и торговле в дореволюционной России предвзятым, или, по крайней мере, односторонним. Костомаров, например, считал, что нарушения правил честного ведения дел, несомненно были, но... с обеих сторон! „Русские купцы постоянно находились во мраке относительно большей части того, чем торговали, страшались обмана, не доверяли, были обманываемы и в свою очередь сами обманывали”¹⁰. Иностранцы же смотрели на Россию как на страну, выгодную для них

⁷ Н. Костомаров, *Очерк торговли Московского государства в XVI и XVII столетиях* / Н.Костомаров // С-Пб.: Издание Николая Тиблена, 1862. – С.237.

⁸ *Частное предпринимательство в дореволюционной России* / Сборник статей // М.: Российское издательство политической литературы, 2010. – С.225.

⁹ А. Guginin, *Duchowe i ideowe źródła powstania etyki gospodarczej w Rosji* [w:] *Etyka w organizacji*, Kraków 2016, p. 464.

¹⁰ Н. Костомаров, *Очерк торговли...*, с. 237..

по причине невежества купцов, зная, что русских легко обмануть. Естественно, что и русские платили той же монетой. Причем интересно, что это никак не останавливало иностранцев от их чрезвычайного стремления проникнуть в Россию, настолько сильного, что между ними шла ожесточенная борьба, чтобы помешать друг другу.

Весьма интересна точка зрения русского историка начала XX в. Иосифа Кулишера, который пишет, что в отношении бесчестности в бизнесе россияне „брали пример” и с голландцев, и с англичан. Кулишер справедливо полагал, что плутовство при совершении торговых сделок не было „специфической русской привилегией”. Вот что он писал в своей книге „История русской торговли”: „Обе стороны применяют те же приемы. Платят друг другу равной монетой. В этом отношении русские торговцы могли многому научиться у торговавших с ними иностранцев... В особенности англичане приписывали своим конкурентам-голландцам все пороки, которые у них заимствовали русские купцы”¹¹.

В любом случае, более низкий в среднем этический уровень российских торговцев, особенно до XIX в., безусловно, был связан с более низким уровнем развития экономики, общества и культуры в России по сравнению с европейскими странами. С середины XVIII в. начинается быстрое расширение торговых связей Москвы. По мере включения в мировую торговлю происходит постепенное усвоение общих традиций, касающихся частной собственности, договоров, обмена, торговли, конкуренции, прибыли. Первый толчок к правовому оформлению западных традиций дали реформы Петра I, а именно, попытки осуществления государственного контроля за качеством ввозимых и вывозимых товаров, предоставление льгот и покровительства торговым людям. Возросшее взаимное доверие между предпринимателями и государством способствовало проявлению и закреплению новых черт деловых отношений.

Петр I пытался привить в России правила честных деловых отношений и внутри страны, и в отношениях с иностранцами, сурово карая провинившихся силой своей власти. Сам же он был честен отнюдь не всегда. Например, подолгу не выплачивал жалованье государственным чиновникам, задерживал платежи иностранным и русским промышленникам и торговцам. Показательной является история одного английского купца в 1715 г, который построил по заказу Петра I три корабля, но, не получая за них долгое время денег, был вынужден арестовать царского торгового агента и не выдавать ему готовые корабли. Только узнав об этом, Петр I принял срочные меры по отправке англичанину разных грузов и даже сообщил торговому агенту, что „они с избытком покроют долг”¹².

Значительно изменилось правовое положение купцов при царице Екатерине II. Они вышли из разряда податных сословий с освобождением от внесения податей в подушный оклад, который был заменен обложением их капиталов 1% сбором, причем размеры капиталов объявлялись самими купцами „по совести”, чем они очень гордились. Очень оживило торговый обмен с другими странами снятие различных ограничений с торговли и промышленности, в связи с открытием Екатериной первых

¹¹ И.М. Кулишер, *История российской торговли* / И.М. Кулишер // С-Пб.: Антей, 1923. – С. 44.

¹² *Частное предпринимательство в дореволюционной России* / Сборник статей // М.: Российское издательство политической литературы, 2010. – С.263.

банков, кредитных учреждений, развитием торгового мореплавания, учреждением заграничных консульств и заключением торговых конвенций.

В конце XIX века характер российской этики предпринимательства резко изменился. Вот как описывает новую эпоху один из лучших знатоков русского купечества П. Бурьшкин: „Совершенно не было в обычае обмениваться справками о кредитоспособности покупателя или иными деловыми сведениями. Считалось неуместным заходить в чужой амбар, даже к знакомым. Очевидно из боязни, что таким путем можно выведать какие-либо коммерческие тайны и создать „недобросовестную конкуренцию“¹³. И еще: „Может создаться впечатление, что я рисую какую-то идиллическую картину, закрывая глаза на все имевшиеся злоупотребления, и хочу возвеличить то, что не было этого достойно. Я знаю и свидетельствую, что злоупотребления были, были недостойные деятели и дельцы, но в то же время утверждаю, что не они являлись правилом, а представляли собой исключение, и повторяю лишь то, что уже говорил: тот значительный успех в развитии производительных сил и всего народного хозяйства России не мог бы иметь успеха, если бы база была порочной, если бы те, кто этот успех создавал, были жулики и мошенники...“¹⁴.

Что же явилось причиной столь поразительного сдвига? То же, указывает П. Шихирев, что и везде: осознание проблемы, ее обсуждение и выход на новый уровень самоорганизации сообщества. За полстолетия в стране возникли ассоциации и клубы промышленников, развились и окрепли купеческие гильдии, которые большей частью сами наводили порядок в своей среде. Затем, как известно, наступил перерыв на 70 с лишним лет и, уже как бы заново, деловая Россия проходит свой путь: от хищничества к честному бизнесу, решает те же задачи, но уже в существенно отличной обстановке¹⁵.

В процессе создания модели этики бизнеса были приняты во внимание следующие факторы:

1. Российская этика хозяйствования имеет как минимум 500-летнюю историю.
2. История российской этики хозяйствования – это история моральных отношений в сфере торговли, ремесла, а также взаимодействия с иностранными купцами и производителями.
3. Нравственные отношения в российской торговой и промышленной сферах формировались под влиянием национального характера и менталитета россиян.
4. Уничтожив частную инициативу в бизнесе, советский строй, как следствие, разрушил и основы нравственных отношений между производителями.
5. Современная этика российского предпринимательства находится в стадии своего формирования и изобилует отрицательными характеристиками. Главные из них: невыполнение договорных обязательств партнеров, коррупция, использование насильственных методов в борьбе с конкурентами, уклонение от уплаты налогов и других обязательных сборов. Однако, уже появляются ростки новых, прогрессивных тенденций в моральном развитии

¹³ П. Бурьшкин, *Москва купеческая* / П. Бурьшкин. – М.: Высшая школа, 1991. – С.102.

¹⁴ *Ibidem*, с. 102.

¹⁵ П. Шихирев, *Введение в российскую деловую культуру* / П.Шихирев. – М.: Издательство Госуниверситета управления, 2011. – С.16.

российского бизнеса. Они связаны с восприятием зарубежного опыта, предреволюционных традиций и стремлением нового класса к цивилизованному ведению бизнеса.

В заключение нужно отметить, что нормативная этика в России – понятие, сформировавшееся совсем недавно. Поэтому некоторые авторы ее определяют, как применение моральных принципов и устоев к деловым ситуациям¹⁶. Изучение данной области знаний – сложный процесс, поскольку исторически сложившаяся модель бизнеса в России диктует не только нравственные постулаты, но и фактическое поведение предпринимателей. Однако, как мы писали в начале статьи, модель это только образец. К тому же этот образец, который столетиями создавали предприниматели, в XXI веке необходимо изменять, чтобы можно было следовать ему. В 1912 году российские предприниматели разработали «Семь принципов ведения дел в России»¹⁷. Этот свод моральных правил включал основные этические постулаты бизнеса: уважай власть; будь честен и правдив; уважай право частной собственности; люби и уважай человека; будь верен своему слову; живи по средствам; будь целеустремленным, но никакая цель не может затмить моральные ценности.

О возможности управления бизнесом в соответствии с моделью этики предпринимательства свидетельствует и „Этический кодекс организации”, появившийся в 2009 году. В кодексе четко представлены личные и профессиональные принципы предпринимательства, например: „прибыль важна, но честь дороже прибыли”, „уважай участников общего дела, это основа отношений с ними и самоуважения”, „воздерживайся от насилия и угрозы применения насилия как способов достижения деловых целей”, „стремись завоевать репутацию честного, компетентного и порядочного партнера”, „конкурируй достойно” и др.¹⁸

Но, к сожалению, принимая какое-либо деловое решение, российский предприниматель руководствуется не современным законодательством, личными моральными ценностями или корпоративным кодексом компании, а желанием и возможностью выжить в бизнес-среде, где он находится на стыке коррумпированного бюрократического аппарата и сложной системы не соблюдаемых никем сводов законов.

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¹⁶ Е. Беляева, *Есть ли этика бизнеса в России?* // Е.Беляева // Евразийский научный журнал. – 2016. – № 1. – С. 48.

¹⁷ <http://referat911.ru/Etika/eticheskij-kodeks-organizacii/52775-1460595-placel.html>

¹⁸ Н. Зарубина, *Этика предпринимательства в русской культуре* // Отечественные записки. – 2012. – № 6. – С.36.

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THE FORMATION OF THE RUSSIAN MODEL OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP ETHICS

The article examines the main approaches to modelling and the formation of the ethics of entrepreneurship in the context of historical transformations in Russia. The conceptual foundations of the formation and state support of crafts, merchants and entrepreneurship in this country under the influence of expanding international relations have been systematized and summarized. The author's position on the specifics of the separate development of this country and its isolation from the European civilization is presented. There are analysed the most important stages and factors of economic development in connection with the geographical location and the presence of rich natural resources. Special attention is paid to the psychology of Russian entrepreneurs and the paradigm of their relations with foreign partners based on the analysis of the concepts of outstanding Russian philosophers and historians of 19-20 centuries. The ideology of the ethical consciousness of the Russian people was emphasized, especially in such categories as "unity", "holiness" and the rejection of European and American notions of ownership and honesty in business. The necessity of changing the model of business ethics in connection with such phenomena as globalization, professional mobility, motivation to develop the communication component of the international activities of Russian businessmen has been established and argued. The role of public administration, business structures and changes in mentality in the development of civilizational strategic competence of employees of companies, managers and business owners was emphasized.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, management, management reform, strategic competence of businessmen, model of ethics.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.41

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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COUNTERACTING EFFECTS OF A LONG-LASTING ELECTRICAL POWER FAILURE IN THE AREA OF LARGE CITIES. A CASE STUDY FOR THE MUNICIPALITY OF THE CITY OF SZCZECIN

The author's intention is to show the impact of experience from a specific crisis situation and results brought about by it – in particular a long-lasting and extensive power outage – affecting the activity of entities obliged in terms of prevention of such threats as well as being prepared to respond in the event of their occurrence. Due to the specified research subject, the reflections focus on the activity of the bodies of the Municipality of the City of Szczecin and cooperation with other entities for the prevention of selected threats, with particular emphasis on after-effects of an extensive electrical power failure. The paper refers to applicable laws and official documents addressing competences and tasks assigned to these bodies as part of crisis management, including the protection of critical infrastructure. A lot of attention was given primarily to issues related to organizing, conducting and coordinating training and exercises in the field of crisis management with the participation of representatives of various entities and circles, including academic ones. It mainly presented the conclusions and recommendations formulated on the basis of the exercise carried out on 19 March 2018: "Operation of the City Crisis Management Team in the event of an electrical power failure", codenamed "Energy 2018". The preparation and conducting of the exercise resulted from the need to explain the problematic situation expressed in the following question: *does facing real effects of a blackout² affect qualitative changes in terms of preparation of obligated entities in the event of a similar crisis situation?*

Keywords: crisis management, critical infrastructure, electrical power failure, territorial self-government, Municipality of the City of Szczecin

1. INTRODUCTION

Currently, the functioning of every country, its stability and development, as well as the existence of its residents – regardless whether it concerns highly-developed countries or

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² This applies to the Szczecin blackout of 8 April 2008.

those at a lower level of development – are dependent on electricity³. Sustainable and continuous supply of electricity constitutes the state's economic strength and international position. Moreover they determine its security in all aspects and give the feeling of safety and security to all people residing in its territory. Energy independence guarantees the state and the society as well as all individuals uninterrupted advancement and strengthens their activity in various spheres of life.

In order to secure energy security contemporary states are carrying out – less or more effectively – activities which in Poland are called state energy policy. The aims of this policy include: ensuring energy security of the state, increasing economy's competitiveness and its energy efficiency as well as the protection of the environment⁴. The implementation of the aims should be an added value in creating conditions for the country's sustainable development, including harmonizing interests of energy companies and fuel and energy recipients; also, an economical and rational usage of fuel and energy, while taking into account requirements of environmental protection and fulfilling obligations resulting from international agreements⁵.

Continuous development of the system of energy supply which the legislator aggregated into critical infrastructure gains particular importance for the effective implementation of the country's energy policy goals⁶.

The author's intention is to show the impact of experience from a specific crisis situation and results brought about by it – in particular long-lasting and extensive power outage – affecting the activity of entities obliged in terms of prevention of such threats as well as being prepared to respond in the event of their occurrence.

2. ELECTRICITY – A SENSITIVE LINK IN CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE SYSTEMS. SELECTED ELECTRICAL POWER DISASTERS IN THE WORLD

Referring to the statement formulated in the introduction saying that the functioning and flourishing of contemporary countries and their economies, as well as the existence and development of almost all of the people in the world are dependent on electricity, one needs to stress that lack of electrical power effectively limits the capability of uninterrupted and

³ Electricity is the basic source of energy for industry and households. Due to the degree of the economy's, and in particular household consumers' dependency on electricity, a power cut may cause significant damage, especially in large urban centres. Electricity's characteristic features, such as the impossibility to store quantities that can meet even the short-term demand of customers and the extremely short time between generation and consumption result in the electrical power system not having inertia that allows any interruptions in supply without noticeable consequences for recipients. National Crisis Management Plan, part B, NCMP, p. 204. Source: <http://rcb.gov.pl/krajowy-plan-zarzadzania-kryzysowego/> (access: 01.08.2018).

⁴ See Article 13 of the Act of 10 April 1997 Energy law (consolidated text, Dz. U. of 2018 item 755 as amended) – hereinafter: EL.

⁵ Cf. Article 1 EL.

⁶ Critical infrastructure – systems and mutually bound functional objects contained therein, including constructions, facilities, installations and services of key importance to the security of the state and its citizens as well as serving to ensure the efficient functioning of public administration authorities, institutions and enterprises. See Article 3 subsection 2 of the Act of 26 April 2007 on crisis management (consolidated text, Dz. U. of 2017 item 209 as amended) – hereinafter: CMA.

effective operation of the remaining statutorily defined systems of critical infrastructure⁷. Therefore, one needs to realize that in the overall – let us call it – national critical infrastructure system electricity plays a decisive role. The effective running of this system and the subsystems integrated in it is not possible without ensuring functionality, continuity of operation and integrity of the electrical power potential. To prove the truth of the above-mentioned conclusion it is sufficient to quote several pieces of media messages on the consequences of a sudden lack of electrical power supply on the area of entire countries or large cities in various parts of the world. Negative consequences of these events left a mark not only on residents of numerous places but also caused irregularities in the functioning of certain countries' economies⁸. The effects of the abovementioned failures were different, depending on their causes and duration as well as territorial reach. Nevertheless, in each case a “domino effect” took place as along with the occurrence of a fundamental threat in the form of lack of electricity, secondary threats occurred as a snowball effect, which were the consequence of disturbances in the functionality of further critical infrastructure systems.

⁷ Critical infrastructure includes the following systems: energy, fuel and energy resources supply; communication; tele-information network; financial; food supply; water supply; health protection; transportation; rescue; systems ensuring the continuity of public administration activities; production, storing and use of chemical and radioactive substances, including pipelines for dangerous substances. *Ibidem*.

⁸ The North American blackout of 1965 was the first such a serious power failure in the world. The cause was human error that happened long before the event itself. The possibility of overloading of one of the key lines was not foreseen. When the overload occurred, the rest started falling like dominoes. To avoid damage, all power plants in the area were gradually disconnected. For 12 hours Ontario in Canada and the US states of Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, New York and New Jersey were without electricity. 30 million people were affected by the failure. In Toronto, there was total communication paralysis. Traffic lights did not work, there was chaos on the roads. People got stuck in the elevators or the subway. Another blackout of 2003 started in New York. It was from there that the surplus power came, which caused further shutdowns in the northeastern states. The transmission network in Ontario also failed. As established, one of the reasons was the increased demand for energy on this unlucky day. The air temperature was over 30 degrees Celsius, which meant that all cooling devices worked at full speed. Also in 2003, an Italian blackout occurred, resulting in as many as 56 million people drowned in the dark for 12 hours. The failure was related to damage done to the line between Italy and Switzerland during a storm. As a result of the cascading effect, a line leading from France was soon also switched off. Then the Italian network finally collapsed. Thousands of people got stuck in the subway. Thirty thousand people were stuck on trains. All flights were canceled. After about three hours, power was being restored in the north of Italy. Problems with electricity supply lasted a few more days. A 2009 blackout severely hit Paraguay and Brazil. The reason was the failure of three transformers located on one of the key power lines. The storm caused a short-circuit which rapidly cut off and shut down the Itaipu Dam – a hydroelectric power station with a power comparable to that of the Three Gorges Dam. 60 million people were cut off from electricity. There was no electricity in 18 of the 26 states of Brazil and all of Paraguay. After 6 hours the effects of the failure were tamed and the power supply restored. Nevertheless, thousands of accidents occurred on darkened roads, and many passengers were stuck on trains and in the subway. Source: http://buzz.gazeta.pl/buzz/56,163510,9829216,TOP_6_najwiekszych_blackoutow_w_historii_Miliony.html (access: 28.07.2018).

3. SZCZECIN BLACKOUT OF 8 APRIL 2008 – CAUSES, CONSEQUENCES, REFLECTIONS

Due to the research subject matter defined in the title, as well as objectively existing research capabilities (in particular limited access to reliable source materials), further reflections address the issues of a long-lasting power failure in the area of Szczecin agglomeration. It was key here to present the activity of the territorial self-government bodies of the Municipality of the City of Szczecin in terms of counteracting various threats, including negative effects of a long-lasting lack of electricity.

An electrical power disaster called “Blackout”, which covered the Szczecin municipality and part of territories of neighbouring poviats⁹, took place on 8 April 2008. The cause of the failure was the breaking of main and reserve lines (two of which were 220 thousand V) supplying the Szczecin agglomeration¹⁰. As a result, connectivity was interrupted and paralysis of public and railway transport occurred. The lack of power immobilized petrol stations as a result of which it was impossible to refuel. Difficulties in supplying water were observed, offices and shops were not working, cash machines were not functioning, and neither were traffic lights. Due to the lack of continuity of electricity supply hospitals worked in an A&E mode. Operating theatres were put into work only in life-threatening cases¹¹. To sum up, due to the large-scale electrical power failure the functionality of the following city critical infrastructure systems was seriously disrupted for at least a few hours: energy and fuel supply; communications and IT networks; finance; food and water supply; health care and rescue services; transport; those ensuring continuity of operation of public administration; production, warehousing, storage and use of chemical substances.

Still on 8 April, as a result of actions taken, Szczecin’s electricity services supported by teams from Gorzów Wielkopolski, Zielona Góra and Bydgoszcz made it possible for approx. 80% of residents to have electricity back on that same day in the evening. The

⁹ “Cities that were left without electricity supply: Szczecin, Police, Nowe Warpno, Trzebież, Goleniów, Maszewo, Nowogard, Stargard Szczeciński, Świnoujście, Międzyzdroje, Wolin, Kamień Pomorski, Trzebiatów, Resko, Ploty, Gryfice, Golczewo, Dobra Nowogardzka. It is estimated that on 8 April 2008 in the morning hours around 512 thousand of residents of the voivodeship had no electricity supply”. Information provided as part of the interview conducted on 24 July 2018 with dr Szczepan Stempiński, the President of the City of Szczecin’s Plenipotentiary for Security, based on the content contained in the report prepared by the team for the investigation of the causes and effects of the electrical power disaster, which operated under the leadership of the West Pomeranian Voivode.

¹⁰ “extremely unfavorable weather conditions are the most important cause of the disaster: the rime overloads of power line cables exceeded by at least a dozen or so percent the standard catastrophic values adopted in the calculations. Abundant rainfall in the period preceding the failure was an additional factor affecting the course of events and the extent of damage. This precipitation caused an increase in the level of groundwater which resulted in softening of the ground. This could have resulted in decreased stability of the sitting of both the power lines poles and the tree lines growing near them”. Information provided as part of the interview conducted on 24 July 2018 with dr Szczepan Stempiński...

¹¹ The formulated content is a summary of press releases of 9 April 2008, published in the following dailies: “Gazeta Wyborcza – Szczecin”, articles such as “Śnieg ciężki, jak ołów” [Snow as heavy as lead], “Szczecin bez prądu” [Szczecin without electricity]; “Expres Ilustrowany”, article “Szczecin bez prądu!” [Szczecin without electricity!]; “Expres Bydgoski”, article “Gigantyczna awaria rozłożyła cały Szczecin” [A gigantic failure paralyzed entire Szczecin].

electricity supply was also resumed at Zakłady Chemiczne Police (chemical plant), with full operation of the installation taking a dozen or so hours. The next day (9 April) in the morning the urban heating system was back on and tramway transportation was gradually resuming¹². Nevertheless, repair operations – restoring the power supply on the whole area affected by the failure – took another few weeks, whereas the modernization of the transmission networks took several years and it is not finished yet¹³.

Summing up the negative consequences of the Szczecin blackout, it needs to be highlighted that they were of a purely economic nature as the most severe – biological – losses were avoided. The table below presents a compilation of combined costs of the rescue operation, costs incurred by surveyed plants, companies as well as hospitals, poviats and communes.

Table 1. Costs of the Szczecin electrical power disaster in 2008

Costs of restoring/rescue operations	PLN 829,0731.34
Costs incurred by plants, companies, hospitals	PLN 45,172,424.12
Costs incurred by poviats and communes during the electrical power disaster	PLN 979,468.41
TOTAL COSTS¹⁴	PLN 46,981,623.87

Source: author's own compilation based on information provided as part of the interview conducted on 24 July 2018 with dr Szczepan Stempiński, the President of the City of Szczecin's Plenipotentiary for Security.

The disaster described above shows that despite the obvious progress in the development of science, the creation of modern devices and increasingly durable and resistant materials and the development of information technology, etc., we still have to face the limitations and difficulties in terms of protection against both natural and civilization hazards. It should also be borne in mind that the source of a number of civilization threats lies in the insufficiently protected and imperfect critical infrastructure, which is the result of humanity's quest to improve the quality of life, including a higher level of security. It is worth noting a paradox here – a kind of scornful chuckle of the present day. Well, despite the unquestionable fact that together with civilization development the catalogue of solutions and services positively influencing people's comfort of life and security is being enriched, the processes and

¹² *Ibidem*.

¹³ See information published on the *cire.pl* portal, Centrum Informacji o Rynku Energii [Energy Market Information Centre], *Inwestycje Enei Operator zminimalizowały ryzyko powtórki szczecińskiego blackoutu* [Enea Operator's investments minimized the risk of a repeat of the Szczecin blackout]. Source: <https://www.cire.pl/item,161581,1,0,0,0,0,inwestycje-enei-operator-zminimalizowaly-ryzyko-powtorki-szczecinskiego-blackoutu.html> (access: 02.08.2018)

¹⁴ “The specified amount should be increased by the two million zloty costs incurred by entities not included in this study and the five million zloty costs incurred by other companies. The total costs would amount to PLN 55.5 million. This amount does not include losses and costs incurred by residents and farmers. The estimated cost of electricity undelivered to Zachodniopomorskie residents during the April breakdown was calculated to range between PLN 63.485 million and PLN 95.407 million”. Information provided as part of the interview conducted on 24 July 2018 with dr Szczepan Stempiński, the President of the City of Szczecin's Plenipotentiary for Security (...).”

effects of the advancement often generate new threats to real safety and security. Moreover, they weaken people's (individual's, entire societies') ability to deal with difficult, and most of all extreme situations. There is no doubt that the efficiency of individual or collective activity on a daily basis, and in particular in situations of danger, is determined by the possibilities of stakeholders' using modern tools or life facilities, such as: running water, heating, electricity, satellite communications and others. We are dealing here with a classical oxymoron where **civilization development strengthens security and at the same time threatens humanity both in the individual dimension and one of entire societies. By creating modernity and giving comfort it weakens individual and collective primary ability to do well in the event of sudden difficulties. Mostly in circumstances largely diverting from the level of life acknowledged by given societies or from universally accepted standards of safety and security**¹⁵. Indeed, as any other thesis, in order for its truth to be recognized it should be backed by evidence. It seems, however, that the multitude of media reports on daily tragic events in the world together with quantitative and qualitative data concerning biological, economic and social losses are more than telling and sufficiently prove the validity of the above-mentioned conclusion.

4. ACTIVITIES OF THE BODIES OF THE MUNICIPALITY OF THE CITY OF SZCZECIN FOR THE SAFETY AND SECURITY OF RESIDENTS, IN PARTICULAR IN THE EVENT OF AN ELECTRICAL POWER DISASTER

It had been exactly 10 years on 8 April 2018 since the Szczecin blackout happened. This failure – although not the only one in Poland – due to its complex causes and extensive effects was the subject of many studies and analyses. Although it is already in the past, it continues to stimulate practitioners and scientists to work on developing solutions that aim to prevent similar threats and to react when they occur. This is evidenced by, among others, the content of the aforementioned National Crisis Management Plan 2017 (NCMP). It was developed on the basis of and in accordance with the provisions of the Act of 26 April 2007 on crisis management by the Government Security Centre (GSC)¹⁶. This plan includes, in particular, the characteristics of threats, their potential causes and a description presenting the likely adverse effects of a given threat on people, the environment, property and infrastructure, as well as an assessment of their risk of occurrence, including those concerning critical infrastructure. Referring to the system of production, transmission or distribution of electricity, the authors of NCMP indicate that disturbances in this system may be caused by spontaneous damage to network elements, the actions of third parties or the impact of extreme atmospheric conditions¹⁷.

¹⁵ Article 5 and Article 11 section 2 subsection 1b CMA.

¹⁶ National Crisis Management Plan (hereinafter: NCMP), part A. Source: <http://rcb.gov.pl/krajowy-plan-zarzadzania-kryzysowego/> (access: 01.08.2018)

¹⁷ The NCMP characterizes four types of causes and types of disturbances in the energy system: **system failure** – a traffic event as a result of which part of the National Power System (NPS) with a value of more than 5% of the current power demand in the NPC is taken out of synchronic traffic; **network failure** – a traffic event as a result of which part of the NPS with a value of not more than 5% of the current power demand in the NPS is taken out of synchronic traffic; **blackout, an extensive power failure** – voltage loss in the NPS power network in a large area as a result of the occurrence of a sequence of several random events (network failures, power plant shutdowns,

In the light of the above as well as the previously presented facts, the assurance of Krzysztof Tchórzewski, the Minister for Energy, sounds definitely surreal: “We already have a situation in which we are not at risk of the so-called blackout. A blackout occurs when networks are overloaded and power plants turn off automatically one by one”¹⁸. Nevertheless, it seems more reasonable that just like in the case of a modern state where its stability and development depends on many factors, and above all on **avoiding and reducing risk, using opportunities and effectively responding to challenges** – this principle also applies in the field of energy. By traversing the Latin motto *si vis pacem, para bellum*¹⁹, it was possible to formulate the following rule referring to crisis prevention, or more broadly to state activity in the field of crisis management²⁰: if you want to avoid the consequences of a crisis situation (here: caused by a lack of electricity), get ready for such an eventuality and prepare alternative solutions. Especially that such conduct is fully rational and also forms part of stages of the said crisis management prescribed by law²¹.

It is assumed so by the bodies of the territorial self-government of the City of Szczecin which aim to identify contemporary determinants of security and to cooperate in this area with, among others, the University of Szczecin. In practice – which needs to be emphasized – during planned exercises and training sessions subordinate units and cooperating services undertake the task of estimating security, including defining opportunities and threats as well as revealing strengths and weaknesses. The consequences include amendments to plans as well as the development of new procedures aiming to benefit from the opportunities to avoid and reduce risks. Cooperation, as already emphasized, is also based on the Szczecin academic potential. It is worth noting that just like the representatives of the territorial self-government and of Szczecin services actively support the process of student education and research activity of the University of Szczecin (US), the academic community also actively participates in activities for the safety and security of the self-governing community of the Szczecin municipality. It is worth noting that in years 2016-2018 the research and teaching staff were initiators and co-organizers of a number of projects, including practical command post exercises codenamed “Widzowie” [“Spectators”] under which the obliged services took specific actions in connection with a fire hazard and a hostage situation. The project was carried out on 23 May 2016 in the Azoty Arena sports hall. Apart from the Police, the

extreme weather conditions, terrorist attack), causing the exceeding of critical values of basic technical parameters of the NPS operation (frequency, voltage) and resulting in automatic disconnection from the NPS power network of system power plants connected in this area; **power deficit** – shortage of generation capacities in the National Power System (NPS). *Ibidem*, part A, NCMP p. 15. (access: 01.08.2018).

¹⁸ Source: <https://www.money.pl/gospodarka/wiadomosci/artykul/blackout-w-polsce-tchorzewski,37,0,2367781.html> (access: 28.07.2018).

¹⁹ Lat.: *if you want peace, prepare for war*, W. Kopaliński, *Słownik wyrazów obcych i zwrotów obcojęzycznych*, 9th extended edition, Warszawa 1975.

²⁰ Crisis management is the activity of public administration authorities that constitutes an element of managing the national security management system and consists of: preventing crisis situations, preparing to take control over them by way of planned activities, responding in case of emergencies, removing their effects and reconstructing resources and critical infrastructure. See Article 2 CMA.

²¹ Based on the cited legal definition of crisis management and on the basis of selected provisions of the Act of 26 April 2007 on crisis management, the following phases are distinguished: prevention, preparation, response, removal of effects and reconstruction.

State Fire Service, the Office of the City of Szczecin, etc., students of the US Faculty of Humanities (FH) and students of "uniformed classes" of Szczecin upper secondary schools took part in the exercise²². Whereas on 9 February 2017, as part of the cooperation with the Municipal Headquarters of the State Fire Service in Szczecin, a scientific and research experiment was carried out at the "Galeria Kaskada" Shopping Centre in Szczecin. The aim of the experiment was to obtain from the participants their opinions on the solutions applied in the said facility that determine the safety of people staying in its area, in those particular concerning:

- readability of escape signs; whether they allow smooth access to emergency exits;
- communication system; whether it is accessible or complicated, and thus does not positively affect the ease of a person's orientation as to the place in the facility he is at a given moment, as well as in terms of a choice of a route to the place he would like to reach.

The author was the originator and co-organizer of the experiment while the members and the supervisor of the *Si vic pacem, para bellum* Safety and Military Students Association operating at the US Faculty of Humanities were its participants²³.

The above and a number of other activities indicate that the activity of self-government bodies and services of the City of Szczecin in the sphere of preparing the potential for the possible occurrence of probable threats is of a continuous nature, and so is the cooperation in this area with the US staff.

It is precisely on the basis of the experiences resulting from the cooperation so far that at the end of 2017 the US Faculty of Humanities' research and teaching staff developed a concept of an exercise, the implementation of which would allow clarification of the following problematic situation: *does facing the real effects of a blackout²⁴ affect the qualitative changes in terms of preparation of obligated entities in the event of a similar crisis situation?* After obtaining the approval of the FH's authorities and the will to proceed with the implementation of the project expressed by the President of the City of Szczecin, the preliminary assumptions were subject to consultation with, among others, representatives of the Department of Crisis Management and Civil Protection of the Office of the City of Szczecin. The following title for the exercise codenamed "Energy 2018" was adopted in the end: "Operation of the City Crisis Management Team in the event of an electrical power failure" and it was agreed that the exercise would aim to improve selected elements of the city crisis management system in the scope of development of tasks for executive units in the crisis response stage. The premises of the Research Workshop on the Safety of Self-governing Communities, located in the US Faculty of Humanities' Interactive Centre of Communication and Social Research was assigned to be the place of the exercise²⁵.

²² More in *Działania obowiązkanych podmiotów w sytuacji kryzysowej podczas masowej imprezy sportowej. Wymiar prawny, teoretyczny i praktyczny na przykładzie ćwiczenia dowódczo-sztabowego pod kryptonimem „Widzowie”*, eds. C. Guźniczak and Sz. Stempiński, Szczecin 2017.

²³ More in C. Guźniczak, P. Tuzimek, *Zapobieganie sytuacjom kryzysowym w nowoczesnych obiektach handlowo-usługowych. Studium przypadku na przykładzie Centrum Handlowego „Galeria Kaskada” w Szczecinie* [in:] *Rola i zadania administracji publicznej w zarządzaniu bezpieczeństwem w Polsce*, eds. J. Kisielnicki, T. Płusa, S.J. Rysz, J. Rajchel, K. Rajchel, Rzeszów 2017.

²⁴ This applies to the Szczecin blackout of 8 April 2008.

²⁵ More in: Documentation of the urban exercise in the scope of crisis management codenamed "Energy 2018", approved on 7 March 2018 by Piotr Krzystek, President of the City of Szczecin. Available in the Department of Crisis Management and Civil Protection of the Office of the City of

At this stage of reflections, before the objectives and the scenario as well as conclusions and recommendations from the course of the exercise are presented, it should be noted that in accordance with the Crisis Management Act, the protection of critical infrastructure (CI)²⁶ is the responsibility of its owners and of owner-like possessors and dependent possessors of facilities, installations or devices²⁷. This does not mean that starostas, village heads, mayors and presidents of cities as well as subordinate services are exempt from the obligation to conduct activities in the scope of CI protection. These bodies, as well as their subordinate services, are obliged to protect the population exposed to potential consequences of disruption of CI functioning, as well as to provide direct and fastest support to operators in order to protect it. According to the National Critical Infrastructure Protection Program, the task of starostas, village heads, mayors and city presidents is to organize the implementation of tasks in scope of CI protection, in particular²⁸:

- inclusion of tasks related to the protection of critical infrastructure located in the competence area in crisis management plans;
- defining response procedures in the event of destruction or disruption of the functioning of critical infrastructure within the body's sphere of competence;
- protecting the population from the effects of disruption of the functioning of CI using their own resources and the resources of a CI operator;
- support CI operators with technical and human resources at their own disposal or at the disposal of subordinate or supervised services, inspections and guards;
- cooperation with and support of CI operators in the scope of its protection and cooperation in the event of a crisis situation within the body's sphere of competence;
- **counteracting threats to life and health of citizens resulting from the disruption of CI functioning** with the use of a special-purpose reserve created on the basis of the Act on Crisis Management²⁹.

The obligation to implement the above-mentioned tasks by the aforementioned self-government entities results, for example, from the fact that facilities, equipment and installations as well as services constituting CI are physically located in territories of communes, cities and poviats. Nevertheless, it is the operators of a given critical infrastructure that have the best knowledge and conditions to limit the threats to CI, reduce its vulnerability to these threats and choose the most appropriate strategies to minimize the effects of these threats.

Szczecin and in the Research Workshop on the Safety of Self-governing Communities of the US Faculty of Humanities.

²⁶ Protection of critical infrastructure shall be understood as all steps aimed at ensuring the functionality, continuity and integrity of critical infrastructures in order to prevent threats, risks or vulnerabilities as well as limiting and neutralizing their effects and quick reconstructing the infrastructure in case of failures, attacks and other events disrupting its appropriate functioning. See Article 3 section 3 CMA.

²⁷ More in Article 5b and Article 6 CMA.

²⁸ National Programme for Critical Infrastructure Protection – consolidated text (PL) (hereinafter: NPCIP). Source: <http://rcb.gov.pl/infrastruktura-krytyczna/>, pp. 24/48-25/48 (access: 01.08.2018).

²⁹ A special reserve is created in the budget of the local government unit for the carrying out of crisis management related own tasks in the amount not less than 0.5% of the current expenditure of the local government unit's budget decreased by investment outlays, expenditure for wages and salaries and similar benefits, as well as expenditure for servicing the debt. See Article 26 section 4 CMA.

Hence, as previously indicated, the legislator has entrusted them with the obligation to protect CI facilities, equipment, installations and services³⁰.

One should be aware that the foreground organizational, legal, technical and education-training activities for the power infrastructure discussed in the publication are not the responsibility of the bodies of Szczecin's self-government, but they remain the responsibility of the Minister for Energy, voivode and relevant operators, including the owners of electricity systems or electricity companies. Moreover, both the subject matter of functionality of individual facilities, installations, equipment and services making up this system, as well as plans for its protection constitute classified information³¹. In the light of the above, further reflections do not refer to specific tasks and undertakings in the field of protection of energy critical infrastructure. However, special attention was paid to the prevention of threats to citizens' life and health resulting from the disruption of the functioning of the energy CI system. Essentially, they focus on presenting the conclusions and recommendations in the field of actions to prevent potential secondary threats from the perspective of the bodies of Szczecin's territorial self-government.

Returning to the thread of the exercises codenamed "Energy 2018", based on a specific problem situation and the formulated general objective, the following specific objectives were set³²:

- 1) checking the alert system of the City Crisis Management Team (CCMT) and the City Crisis Management Centre (CCMC) and checking the availability of both the Team members and the Centre members;
- 2) checking the feasibility of prepared crisis response procedures regarding the lack of electricity supply and cyber attacks³³;
- 3) improving the skills of Centre members in taking actions aimed at providing effective assistance to the injured, stopping the development of a crisis situation and limiting the consequences of a lack of electricity supply;

³⁰ They are obliged to: prepare and implement, in accordance with the anticipated threats, plans for the protection of critical infrastructure and holding their own reserve systems to ensure security and to maintain the functioning of this infrastructure until it is fully restored; appoint a person responsible for maintaining contacts with entities competent for critical infrastructure protection; to inform immediately the Head of the Internal Security Agency about any terrorist threats to critical infrastructure; to cooperate in the creation and implementation of the National Critical Infrastructure Protection Program. More in: *Ibidem*, p. 16/48-17/48.

³¹ See Article 5b section 6, section 7 subsection 1, section 8, Article 6b section 7 and Article 6c section 2 CMA.

³² Cf. the above-mentioned Documentation of the urban exercise in the scope of crisis management codenamed "Energy 2018".

³³ The occurrence of consequences of the cyber-attack carried out this day on among others IT systems of the Office of the City of Szczecin were also assumed. The actions taken by the IT Department of the Office of the City of Szczecin as part of the cyber-attack simulation were presented in detail in the Report on the exercise codenamed "Energy 2018" addressing "Operation of the City Crisis Management Team in the event of an electrical power failure" conducted on 19 March 2018, approved on 25 April 2018 by Piotr Krzystek, President of the City of Szczecin. Available in the Department of Crisis Management and Civil Protection of the Office of the City of Szczecin and in the Research Workshop on the Safety of Self-governing Communities of the US Faculty of Humanities.

- 4) checking the possibilities of using the infrastructure of the Interactive Centre for Communication and Social Research of the US Faculty of Humanities at ul. Krakowska 71-76 in Szczecin as a backup work place for the Team and the Centre.

For safety reasons, it was concluded that the most appropriate solution would be to carry out the exercises in the application formula – assuming that the operational time will not be parallel to the astronomical time³⁴ – as part of the following stages³⁵:

- 1) Stage I (preliminary) – 22.02.2018: training the Team and the Centre members in the use of the infrastructure of the aforementioned work place, entitled “Tasks and organization of elements forming the city crisis management system. Characteristics of threats in the autumn-spring period”;
- 2) Stage II (proper exercises) – 19.03.2018: checking the functioning of the Team’s and the Centre’s alert system;
- 3) Stage III – 19.03.2018 between 07:00-15:00: implementation of the response phase as part of crisis management by the Team’s members;
- 4) Stage IV – 19.03.2018 between 15:00-15:30: discussing the exercise, including the presentation of the most important conclusions and the formulation of working tasks on their basis;

According to the adopted concept, the implementation of the exercise was based on the following event scenario: on 19 March 2018 at 5:05 due to a failure in the power system of northern Germany and Poland, the European energy system did not get balanced. As a result, there were a number of automatic cascade shutdowns of 400 and 220 kV transmission lines, generators shutdowns in German and Polish system power plants and the division of the entire European system into asynchronous areas occurred. The north-western part of Poland, including the Szczecin agglomeration, was completely deprived of power supply. In addition, as a result of falling sleet and the accumulation of rime on transmission grids, some of the transmission and distribution lines were damaged in the above-described area³⁶.

The following people took part in the exercise: members of the City Crisis Management Team, including – apart from directors of individual department of the Office of the City of Szczecin and powiat inspections – representatives of the Police, the State Fire Service and a representative of the Szczecin Branch of the Enea Operator Sp. Z o.o. Poznań. The Team’s work was headed by Piotr Krzystek, the President of the City of Szczecin. The course of the exercise was recorded, and also each participant had an additional task to fill in, on an on-going basis, the “Work Sheet (...)” prepared for the needs of this exercise – (see annex). Moreover, a group of students of both undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Internal Security and the author were invited to be observers, who also shared their observations with the organizers.

A detailed account of the course of each stage of the exercise and its evaluation was presented in the aforementioned Report on the exercise codenamed “Energy 2018”.

In the participants’ assessment, both the main and detailed objectives of the exercise were achieved. Analysis of the content provided in, among others, the abovementioned

³⁴ According to the adopted concept, the failure and removing its effects lasted from 05:00 on 19 March till 12:30, whereas the exercises were carried out within one day, that is 19 March, from 05:00 till 15:30. More in: the above-mentioned Documentation of the urban exercise in the scope of crisis management codenamed “Energy 2018”.

³⁵ *Ibidem*. See also the aforementioned Report on the exercise codenamed “Energy 2018”.

³⁶ *Ibidem*.

worksheets, as well as direct observations of participants and observers made it possible to formulate the following conclusions and recommendations³⁷:

- 1) The lack of energy independence of key companies, institutions and municipal facilities affecting the safe functioning of the city of Szczecin is the main factor limiting the effectiveness of measures taken as part of crisis response, in conditions of a long-lasting electrical power failure. This condition is the result of the following irregularities and deficiencies:
 - a significant part of the facilities important for the safety and security of the city and its residents is not equipped with power generators of adequate capacity nor do they have necessary energy connections;
 - petrol stations in the territory of the city do not have alternative sources of power, as a result of which it is not possible to distribute fuels in the event of an electrical power failure;
 - Enea Operator and other entities operating in the territory of the city have limited possibilities to make power generators available for crisis management purposes, which primarily results from the need to secure the implementation of their own tasks and the requirement to support other strategic recipients.
- 2) In the light of the weaknesses stated in point 1 it was concluded that the priority for the Municipality of the City of Szczecin is to obtain energy independence, at least to the extent ensuring the implementation of the main tasks for the safety and security of residents. In view of the above, the following were deemed necessary:
 - examining energy independence of individual companies, institutions and municipal facilities, in particular those that are part of critical infrastructure;
 - planning for and purchasing power generators of adequate capacity to equip schools designated to serve as support centres in crisis situations to residents and to key municipal companies and institutions;
 - construction of the required power connections, according to uniform technical assumptions.
- 3) The priority is to ensure the continuity of work in the conditions of an electrical power failure in strategic services and trade, primarily in the field of fuel and food distribution or the possibility of withdrawals from cash machines.
- 4) It is necessary to widen the range of possibilities in terms of informing people in crisis situations. In particular, efforts should be made to ensure the continuity of broadcasting by Radio Szczecin, which is a key source of information for residents.
- 5) It is necessary to extend the fiber-optic network to schools – in the first place to the places designated as residents' support centres in crisis situations.
- 6) It is required to update and complete the City Crisis Management Plan in the security matrix³⁸ and in the parts related to the following procedures:
 - a) "Activities in the face of an electrical power failure", as regards the designation of institutions, organizational units and companies, for which in the first place the following should be ensured:
 - power from alternative sources of electricity;

³⁷ Cf. *ibidem*.

³⁸ Security matrix – a set of potential risks with an identification of the lead entity for their removal as well as cooperating entities. See Article 3 subsection 8 CMA.

- power supply in the conditions of staged power restoration or in the event of limitations of available capacity;
- b) “Actions in the face of a power system failure”, in terms of:
 - providing fuel for power generators and vehicles necessary to carry out activities under crisis management;
 - solutions making it possible to inform residents about potential threats and support centres;
 - creation of residents' support centres.
- 7) And others.

5. CONCLUSION

Formulating constructive conclusions and recommendations would not be possible without conducting the exercise codenamed “Energy 2018”, which revealed numerous shortcomings both organizational and technical on the part of the energy system operator and the territorial self-government. The course of the discussed project, its assessment and the developed conclusions prove that one of the most desirable, practical and effective forms of testing crisis management plans – besides the necessity of verifying them under real threat conditions – are exercises. In addition, the implementation of this type of exercises is conducive to the education of officers of competent guards, services or inspections, as well as the society. Spreading knowledge and experience takes place not only thanks to direct relations of representatives of the academic community who take part in the exercises, but also through relevant publications.

And finally, it is appropriate to refer to the goal that the author of the publication had set and to the corresponding problematic situation implying the preparation of and conducting the exercise codenamed “Energy 2018”. The analysis of publicly available documents³⁹ and information from the President of the City of Szczecin’s Plenipotentiary for Security, as well as author’s personal direct observations allow the conclusion that experience resulting from actions under real threat conditions do certainly affect proactive measures of obliged entities in the event of an analogous situation. However, in the light of the above conclusions, it must be recognized that it is necessary to constantly improve the crisis management system in each of its elements and at each stage (prevention, preparation, response and reconstruction). Only in this way should the optimal level of its functioning be sought in the event of probable threats and their consequences.

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³⁹ I.a. Reports on the Status of the City of Szczecin for years: 2010, 2012, 2014 and 2016. Source: http://bip.um.szczecin.pl/chapter_11808.asp (access: 26.07. – 02.08.2018).

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Annex**NOTE**

Szczecin, 19 March 2018

Fill out using a text editor or by hand using a ballpoint or a pen

.....
 (represented institution)

(function in the event of practiced crisis situation/team member)

WORKSHEET**for participants of exercises codenamed “Energy 2018”**

No.	<u>Date and time:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • of receiving information about the incident, • of receiving or giving an instruction, • of actions, activities taken, • etc. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Characteristics of the incident (what, where, when, effects, etc.) 2) Formulated conclusions from the perspective of the represented institution as to the type of the incident, including the risk of occurrence of secondary threats and their consequences, as well as the necessary forces and resources. 3) Hierarchically ordered targets to be achieved and tasks to be carried out in the context of the overall situation as well as incidents. 4) Received instructions (their content and giver). 5) Given instructions (their content and addressee). 	Undertaken actions, the manner of carrying out activities and tasks, including those that were commissioned.	Notes on individual stages of activities and the implementation of tasks. Possible difficulties, including those relating to: cooperation with other entities, inadequacies of forces and resources, organization of communication, out-of-date functional annexes of the master plan (to what extent?) etc.
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.

PRZECIWDZIAŁANIE SKUTKOM DŁUGOTRWAŁEJ AWARII ENERGETYCZNEJ NA OBSZARZE DUŻYCH MIAST. STUDIUM PRZYPADKU NA PRZYKŁADZIE GMINY MIASTO SZCZECIN

Intencją autora jest ukazanie wpływu doświadczeń płynących z konkretnej sytuacji kryzysowej i wywołanych nią skutków – w szczególności długotrwałego i rozległego braku energii elektrycznej – na działania obowiążanych podmiotów w zakresie zapobiegania takim zagrożeniom, jak również przygotowania się do reagowania na wypadek ich zaistnienia. Ze względu na określony w tytule przedmiot badań, rozważania autora koncentrują się na aktywności organów Gminy Miasto Szczecin oraz kooperacji z innymi podmiotami na rzecz zapobiegania wybranym zagrożeniom, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem następstw rozległej awarii energetycznej. Artykuł zawiera odniesienia do obowiązujących przepisów prawa oraz oficjalnych dokumentów dotyczących kompetencji i zadań, które są przypisane tymże organom w ramach zarządzania kryzysowego, w tym ochrony infrastruktury krytycznej. Wiele uwagi poświęcono przede wszystkim zagadnieniom dotyczącym organizowania, prowadzenia i koordynowania szkoleń i ćwiczeń z zakresu zarządzania kryzysowego z udziałem przedstawicieli różnych podmiotów oraz środowisk, także akademickiego. Głównie, zaprezentowano wnioski i rekomendacje sformułowane na podstawie zrealizowanego 19 marca 2018 r. ćwiczenia: „Działanie Miejskiego Zespołu Zarządzania Kryzysowego w sytuacji awarii energetycznej, pod krypt. *Energia 2018*”. Przygotowanie i przeprowadzenie powyższego ćwiczenia wynikało z potrzeby wyjaśnienia sytuacji problemowej wyrażonej w formie następującego pytania: *czy zmierzenie się z rzeczywistymi skutkami blackout-u (dotyczy szczecińskiego blackout-u z 8 kwietnia 2008 r.) wpływa na zmiany jakościowe w zakresie przygotowania się obowiążanych podmiotów na wypadek wystąpienia podobnej sytuacji kryzysowej?*

Słowa kluczowe: zarządzanie kryzysowe, infrastruktura krytyczna, awaria energetyczna, samorząd terytorialny, Gmina Miasto Szczecin.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.42

Tekst złożono do redakcji: wrzesień 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY MANAGEMENT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF ENVIRONMENTAL DISPUTES RESOLUTION

One of the responsibilities of the state is to ensure the safety of its citizens. This applies to every category of safety, including environmental security. Thus, ensuring security – i.e. the protection of vital interests of individuals and the state against various types of threats, both internal and external - allows identifying the most important security components, which are human individuals and their rights and freedoms, as well as the state including its constitutional system, sovereignty and the entire territory. In turn, environmental security management, understood as a process to achieve the relevant objectives set out in this area, should also be perceived within the formula of conflict resolution. The resolution of environmental conflicts can be implemented using different methods: contractual, mediation-and-conciliation, or adjudication. The last case is the most common in practice because disputes tend to be settled via lawsuits, which terminate with a legally binding decision giving one of the parties a sense of “victory”. However, due to the dynamics of legislative changes, it is necessary to take note of a legal instrument that has been in force for a long time, as it enables conflicted parties to settle disputes with mutual success. Given that each of the mentioned forms of resolving environmental disputes is driven by different mechanisms, particular models will be analyzed, thus providing the subject of discussion in this article.

Keywords: environmental security, security management, threats, disputes

1. INTRODUCTION

Security management should be perceived as a complex process. It consists primarily of authorized state (nationwide and local governments) and private (non-governmental organizations) entities taking decisions aimed at achieving certain strategic goals in the area of safety. In Poland, where the basic items of security policy tend to include: protection of sovereignty and independence, maintaining the inviolability of borders and territorial integrity of the state, ensuring security of citizens, especially human rights and fundamental freedoms, creating undisturbed conditions for civilizational and economic development, as well as improving the well-being of citizens, protection of national heritage and national identity,

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or defense and promotion of the Polish state's interests, there is also a justified need to adopt more specific goals, in particular ensuring access to natural resources and preserving the natural environment, including at global level, which essentially falls within the scope of environmental security.

Accordingly, resolution of disputes that commonly arise in various spheres and areas of public life becomes one of the prerequisites for good management of environmental security. This aspect, therefore, has become the main research goal in this article.

2. ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY AND DISPUTES

Nowadays, the term *security* can be considered special in that it is correlated with the development of the state and the mutual interaction of its structures. In fact, the perception of security is influenced by many factors, such as civilizational and technical progress or ongoing implementation of innovative solutions, while its condition can be measured based on various types of threats, the dynamics of which depend on different determinants (the economy, social awareness etc.). Because of that, an increase in interest in security issues can be observed, mainly in the non-military area.

Security, which means, in a certain simplification, the protection of the vital interests of individuals and the state against both internal and external threats allows indicating the most important components of security, namely: the individual and their rights and freedoms, as well as the state with its constitutional system, sovereignty and territory. Not without significance is the fact that the state is to protect the independence and integrity of its territory, as well as to ensure safety of its citizens, which is reflected in the initial provisions of the Constitution, i.e. in Chapter 1 art. 5 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, which states that "the Republic of Poland shall safeguard the independence and integrity of its territory and ensure the freedoms and rights of persons and citizens, the security of the citizens, safeguard the national heritage and shall ensure the protection of the natural environment pursuant to the principles of sustainable development", and which assumes "the universal legal principle that the process of interpretation and application of law is the basis for the interpretation of legal texts"².

Security is divided differently by academics in the literature. These divisions include: international and national, internal and external, plus the concept of security, being also one of the most important values for various entities (states, nations), may also be either objective or subjective due to the close connection of this term with the state of social perception.

In turn, taking into account the relationship between the state of the actual threat and its perception, four cases can be distinguished. In the first case, there is a lack of security that occurs during a significant, real and external threat, and the perception of this threat is correct (adequate). The second case refers to an obsession when there is an insignificant threat which is mistakenly perceived as significant. Another case concerns false security and takes place when the external threat is serious and its perception is low. The last case is a sense

² K.A. Wojtaszczyk, A. Majerska-Sosnowska (ed.), *Bezpieczeństwo państwa. Wybrane problemy*, Warsaw 2009, p. 214. Cf. M. Jurgilewicz, *Administracja bezpieczeństwa i obronności – wybrane aspekty* [in:] *Wspólna polityka bezpieczeństwa i obronności. Implikacja dla Polski*, A. Letkiewicz, Z. Nowakowski, J. Rajchel (eds.), Warsaw 2011, p. 596.

of security, which takes place when the external threat is insignificant and its perception is correct³.

Generally speaking, security means "assurance of existence and survival, possession and operation and development of the entity, and the result of lack of threats and their proper perception; it also arises from the creative activity of a given entity and at the same time is a social process which varies in time"⁴. However, it should be added that the essence of security "comes down to a broadly understood safety conditioning the guarantee of integral survival and the freedom of development of individuals"⁵.

Security applies to almost every area of life, thus becoming a category of increasing importance to both citizens and state authorities, which also stems from the fact of Poland's accession to the EU. Due to the fact that the entirety of state security covers two aspects, internal and external (international), it is possible to identify within internal security those elements being the most important for society as well as individuals⁶. They include public, economic and energy security, as well as the increasingly popular environmental security, which is one of the priorities from the perspective of the state's activities. Environmental security, the essence of which is mainly to provide the people with a desired and effective protection through activities of competent entities, also concerns interpersonal skills in resolving disputes arising within the concerned territory⁷.

On the other hand, in the area of natural environment, environmental disputes may spring from various situations. Most often, however, their source can be traced back to human activities aimed at using limited natural resources to satisfy particular interests, often with harm to third parties, which implies a contradiction between interests and values of parties to the dispute. Thus, among the reasons of environmental conflicts, one can distinguish in particular those related to the clash of interests of various environments (e.g. local communities, public administration or non-governmental organizations) in the field of environment and the use of its resources, conflicts arising from historical conditions and the mentality of the people in terms of views on the essence of environmental protection and the manner of their demonstration, as well as those related to the normative definition of the parties' rights and obligations with respect to the use of natural benefits, such as the dispute over the ski lift to Gubałówka⁸.

Dispute resolution, meanwhile, intends to find a solution that satisfies individual interests of conflicted parties, trying to put an end to the dispute as such.

3. METHODS OF RESOLVING ENVIRONMENTAL DISPUTES

Given the ways in which disputes can be settled, on the basis of law one can point to model methods (styles), which are more or less successfully used in practice. These are:

³ K.A. Wojtaszczyk, A. Majerska-Sosnowska (ed.), *Bezpieczeństwo...*, p. 17.

⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 18.

⁵ M. Jurgilewicz, *Wymiar unijnego bezpieczeństwa po wejściu w życie Traktatu z Lizbony* [in:] *UE-NATO – Strategiczne problemy bezpieczeństwa*, red. nauk. T. Compa, J. Rajchel, K. Załęski, Dęblin 2012, p. 294–295.

⁶ *Ibidem*, p. 295.

⁷ See W. Niemiec, A. Pacana, O. Jurgilewicz, M. Jurgilewicz, *Aspekty zarządzania środowiskiem w praktyce inżynierskiej*, Rzeszów 2013, p. 49-61.

⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 392.

contractual (relatively rarely used), mediation-and-conciliation, arbitration, and adjudication⁹, whereas it is adjudication that is the most commonly applied because the resulting dispute is resolved via a lawsuit that ends with a legally binding decision, ensuring that one of the parties experiences a sense of victory. However, due to the dynamics of legislative changes, it is worth taking note of a legal instrument that has been in force for a long time, as it enables conflicted parties to settle the dispute with mutual success. Thanks to the mediation-and-conciliation method, the parties can submit for settlement any type of dispute (including environmental) with the participation of an independent person – a mediator, mainly acting through the mediation institution. The essence of mediation is, apart from concluding a settlement between the parties, also to avert the conflict as such which is once its source has been recognized.

Undoubtedly, mediation is successful when skillfully led by the mediator, who is able to either prepare the ground for mitigating the dispute or resolve it effectively. The mediator should, therefore, be a neutral person who derives no benefits from the final settlement of the dispute¹⁰.

In practice, environmental conflict resolution will concern both civil (including economic) and administrative matters. Accordingly, in broadly understood civil matters (mainly regarding property claims), the basic regulations regarding mediation have been set out in art. 183(1)–183(15) of the Act of 17 November 1964. The Code of Civil Procedure¹¹, while in the case of administrative matters, mediation was outlined in the Act of 14 June 1960. The Code of Administrative Procedure¹² (art. 96a–96n), as well as in the Act of 30 August 2002 on proceedings before administrative courts¹³ (art. 115–117). It should be added that mediation can also be applied in the field of criminal law, in conflicts arose from environmental reasons, while maintaining the conditions enabling its conduct¹⁴.

Another model method of dispute resolution is arbitration, under which the parties not only retain unlimited influence on the choice of a third party – an arbitrator, but also have the freedom to choose the procedure regarding negotiations and rules for resolving the dispute. Nevertheless, the decision of the arbitrator deciding the dispute is imperative and binding on the parties, and may also be subjected to a forced execution procedure¹⁵.

In essence, arbitration applies when the parties establishing a legal relationship indicate that in the event of a dispute, it will be submitted to the arbitration court, or in the absence of such an agreement, will be concluded with the consent of the parties to submit the dispute to the arbitrator. The parties may specify the number of arbitrators in the contract, and in the absence of such, an arbitration court composed of three arbitrators should be appointed. Submission of a dispute for amicable settlement requires a contract of parties, which should

⁹ L. Morawski, *Wstęp do prawoznawstwa*, Toruń 2001, p. 37.

¹⁰ See M. Jurgilewicz, A. Dana, *Mediacja jako sposób rozwiązywania sporów prawnych*, Warsaw 2015.

¹¹ Journal of Laws of 2018, item 1360, as amended.

¹² Journal of Laws of 2017, item 1257, as amended.

¹³ Journal of Laws of 2018 r., item 1302, as amended. Law on Proceedings before Administrative Courts.

¹⁴ See art. 23a of the Act of 6 June 1997. The Code of Criminal Procedure (Journal of Laws of 2017, item 1904, as amended).

¹⁵ L. Morawski, *Wstęp...*, p. 37.

be made in writing¹⁶. In turn, pursuant to art. 1157 of the Code of Civil Procedure, parties to disputes may submit for settlement property cases or disputes over non-proprietary rights, unless there is a special provision which provides otherwise, except for alimony cases. If, therefore, a dispute concerns civil matters, the background of which is an environmental conflict, it could then be resolved via arbitration (the so-called arbitration clause).

Environmental security management in the aspect of resolving environmental disputes seems to be often related to the effective conduct of administrative proceedings. In practice, disputes are relatively frequent, the source of which is the decision of the public administration body regarding investments such as building a waste incineration plant, building a motorway, or expropriating real estate for the purpose of a legally protected facility. Normally, administrative proceedings take place in two stages - proceedings before a public administration authority, or proceedings before an administrative court. Accordingly, in proceedings before a public administration body, pursuant to art. 96a § 1 and 3 of the Code of Administrative Procedure, mediation may be carried out in the course of such proceedings as long as the nature of the case allows it, and its purpose is to clarify and consider the factual and legal circumstances of the case, as well as make arrangements for its settlement within the applicable law, including issuing a decision or reaching a settlement. Mediation can, therefore, be an important element of the legal process, especially in matters of particular complexity, such as establishing conditions or issuing building permits, particularly in the case of socially controversial infrastructural investments where the participant in the proceedings is a social organization whose statutory goals provision, for example, protection of the environment¹⁷. It is worth noting that mediation can be important in the resolution of disputes in which there are many parties involved, as well as when there is a chance to reach a settlement in cases in which the authority intends to issue a decision to the addressee's expecting an appeal, as well as in cases in which an appeal was lodged against a decision issued in first instance¹⁸.

Due to the fact that mediation is voluntary and its participants may be both the body conducting the proceedings or the party, or parties, to this proceeding, in accordance with art. 96b § 1–4 of the Code of Administrative Procedure, it may be held *ex officio* or at the request of the parties in which a mediator may be appointed. However, in the notice of the possibility of conducting mediation, the public administration body asks the parties to consent to its conducting and select a mediator, which takes place within fourteen days from the date of delivery of the notification. The notification includes instructions on the principles of mediation and its costs, in particular information on the voluntary nature of mediation, including the right to stop mediation at any stage of the process without adverse consequences for a given party. On the other hand, in the situation when mediators agree to carry out mediation jointly, the public administration body issues a decision on referral to mediation in which the mediator selected by the mediation participants is indicated, and if not, the mediator chosen by the public administration authority is indicated, having the appropriate knowledge and skills in conducting mediation in cases of a given type¹⁹. In

¹⁶ See art. 1161 § 1–3 The Code of Civil Procedure, art. 1162 § 1–2 The Code of Civil Procedure, and art. 1169 § 1–2 The Code of Civil Procedure.

¹⁷ M. Jurgilewicz, *Mediacja w postępowaniu administracyjnym* [in:] *Bezpieczeństwo. Prawo. Polityka*, M. Jurgilewicz, T.Z. Leszczyński, N. Malec (red.), Kraków 2017, p. 75.

¹⁸ M. Jurgilewicz, *Mediacja w administracji publicznej*, Rzeszów 2018, p. 59.

¹⁹ *Ibidem*, p. 60.

addition, the public administration body, when referring the matter to mediation, postpones considering the case for up to two months, albeit on a compliant application of its participants or for other important reasons, this period may be extended, however no longer than a month. Regardless, in accordance with art. 35 § 5 of the Code of Administrative Procedure, the duration of mediation is not included in the duration of the proceedings²⁰.

Settlement of an administrative matter in accordance with the mediation arrangements takes place when, as a result, arrangements are made to settle the matter within the limits of the applicable law. Then, the public administration body handles the matter in accordance with these arrangements, contained in the protocol on the course of mediation. However, documents and other materials that are not included in the files of proceedings disclosed in the mediation by its participants, if they do not constitute the basis for settling the matter in accordance with the provisions contained in the minutes, are also not contained in the files of the proceedings altogether. Therefore, mediation in an administrative procedure is an important element of dispute resolution, and it mainly facilitates the determination of the facts of the case, which does not conflict with the authorities' obligations in the area of exhaustive meeting and consideration of all evidence and taking all necessary steps to clarify the facts²¹.

On the grounds of proceedings before administrative courts, pursuant to art. 115 § 1–2 Law on Proceedings before Administrative Courts, at the request of the complainant or the body which is submitted prior to the date of the hearing, a mediation procedure may be conducted, the purpose of which is to clarify and consider the factual and legal circumstances of the case and to make arrangements by the parties for how to settle it within the applicable law. It may also be carried out despite the parties' request to conduct such proceedings. Taking into account the scope of the judicial control of the administration, as defined in art. 3 § 2 Law on Proceedings before Administrative Courts, mediation may include a category of complaints about administrative decisions, acts or activities in the field of public administration regarding entitlements or obligations under the law, acts of bodies of local governments and their associations, other than acts of local law in matters of public administration, inactivity or lengthy proceedings, or other decisions on matters in which the provisions of special laws provide for judicial review, and apply the measures set out in these provisions. Mediation proceedings may be conducted in most categories of complaints, the decision of which is in the jurisdiction of the administrative court, although it does not include complaints about acts of supervision over the activities of local-government bodies.

In court and administrative proceedings, mediation commences, in principle, when a complaint is filed. According to art. 50 § 1 Law on Proceedings before Administrative Courts, a complaint can be filed by anyone with a legal interest, a prosecutor, Civil Rights Commissioner, Children's Rights Commissioner, and a social organization within its statutory activity, in matters concerning the legal interests of other people, if it participated in administrative proceedings, as well as any other entity who is granted the right to lodge a complaint by the law. Since there are no statutory restrictions on the form of initiating mediation, the request for it may be included as one of the elements in the complaint, by way of response to the complaint in the case of the body, as well as in a separate procedural letter, which must meet the formal requirements of a plead. In accordance with art. 46 and

²⁰ *Ibidem*, p. 60–61.

²¹ *Ibidem*, p. 61–62.

57 Law on Proceedings before Administrative Courts, the letter should contain the following items: the name of the court to which it is addressed, full name or registered name of the parties, their legal representatives and proxies; designation of the type of writing; the operative part of the application or statement; determination of a law violation or legal interest; designation of the authority whose inactivity or lengthy proceedings are the source of the complaint; indication of the contested decision, decision, other act or provision; signature of the party or its legal representative or proxy; listing attachments. It should be noted that the application for mediation should indicate the area of mediation, i.e. the issues that should be clarified and discussed in the course of this proceeding, although in itself, it is not legally binding for the court²².

The complainant (plaintiff) and the body are the parties to the mediation proceedings before the administrative court. A report is drawn up from the course of the mediation proceedings, which includes: time and place of mediation; full name (registered name) of the complainant, designation of the body, as well as their addresses; name and address of the mediator; arrangements made by the parties to determine how to settle the matter; signatures of the mediator, the complainant and the body. Under the arrangements made as part of mediation proceedings, the body repeals or changes the challenged act, or performs or undertakes another action according to the circumstances of the case in terms of its jurisdiction and competence. However, if the parties do not make arrangements as to how to settle the matter, it should then be examined by the court. The act issued on the basis of the arrangements made in mediation proceedings can be appealed to the regional administrative court (voivodship court in the case of Poland) within thirty days from the date of its delivery, or performance or undertaking legal action. The court recognizes the complaint, including one lodged in the case on the act or activity in which the mediation proceedings were conducted. However, if a complaint against an act or action issued or performed on the basis of findings made in mediation proceedings is not submitted or it is dismissed, then the court discontinues proceedings in the case in which the mediation proceedings were carried out²³.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Summarizing, an argument should be put forward that although environmental disputes are marked by a negative social charge and can be of diverse nature, there is nevertheless a number of methods and ways of their resolution, what was proved on the basis of the analysis. Resolving environmental conflicts forms part of a certain formula in the area of environmental security management, which is extremely important from the perspective of the functioning of the state and society as a whole. Regardless, education and public awareness of environmental protection are inseparable elements of environmental safety management.

At the same time, it might be worth adding that, in addition to the abovementioned methods of resolving environmental disputes, the solution limiting their creation comprises all forms of promoting environmental values and the need to preserve the natural state of the environment. To quote an example, as part of environmental security management, it is possible to organize numerous public events, lectures, etc., with a view to educating the public.

²² *Ibidem*, p. 69.

²³ *Ibidem*, p. 70–71.

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ZARZĄDZANIE BEZPIECZEŃSTWEM EKOLOGICZNYM Z PERSPEKTYWY ROZSTRZYGANIA KONFLIKTÓW EKOLOGICZNYCH

Jednym z obowiązków państwa jest zapewnienie jego obywatelom bezpieczeństwa. Powinność ta dotyczy każdej kategorii bezpieczeństwa, w tym także bezpieczeństwa ekologicznego. Zapewnienie zatem bezpieczeństwa, które oznacza stan zabezpieczenia żywotnych interesów jednostek i państwa przed różnego rodzaju zagrożeniami, nie tylko wewnętrznymi, ale także zewnętrznymi pozwala wskazać najważniejsze komponenty bezpieczeństwa, którymi są jednostki ludzkie i ich prawa oraz swobody, jak też państwo łącznie ze swoim konstytucyjnym ustrojem, suwerennością, jak również całością terytorium. Z kolei zarządzanie bezpieczeństwem ekologicznym rozumiane jako proces, którego efektem ma być osiągnięcie wyznaczonych celów w tej sferze należałoby postrzegać także w formule rozstrzygania konfliktów. Rozstrzyganie konfliktów ekologicznych może być realizowane w ramach różnych trybów. Może to nastąpić w trybie kontraktowym, mediacyjno-koncyliacyjnym, arbitrażowym, jak również adyudykacyjnym, co w tym ostatnim przypadku ma najczęściej miejsce w praktyce, ponieważ powstały spór jest rozstrzygany na gruncie procesu sądowego, który kończy się prawomocnym orzeczeniem dając jednej ze stron poczucie tzw. wygranej. Jednakże przez

wzgląd na dynamikę zmian legislacyjnych należy dostrzec obowiązujące od dłuższego czasu narzędzia prawne, które umożliwiają skonfliktowanym stronom rozstrzygnięcie sporu w formule ich obopólnego sukcesu. Z uwagi na fakt, iż każda ze przywołanych form rozstrzygnięcia konfliktów ekologicznych charakteryzuje się odmiennymi mechanizmami, toteż warto poddać analizie poszczególne modele, co stało się przedmiotem rozważań w niniejszym artykule.

Słowa kluczowe: bezpieczeństwo ekologiczne, zarządzanie bezpieczeństwem, zagrożenia, konflikty.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.43

Tekst złożono do redakcji: wrzesień 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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DYNAMIC STABILIZATION – A STRATEGY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF SMALL AND MEDIUM FAMILY ENTERPRISES

Modern times confronts enterprises with many challenges that are expressed through innovation, entrepreneurship, creating new business models, creating a value chain or using innovative strategic solutions. All these features significantly affect the maintenance of the so-called dynamic stabilization. This is particularly important in relation to small and medium-sized family businesses. Especially that the activities of this group of enterprises should be considered in the context of the succession of the enterprise by the younger generations. Factors (both financial and market) that make up the long-term stability play a significant role in the enterprise growth process and translate into an active strategy of family businesses. The aim of the article is to show whether the actions taken in the life cycle of a small and medium enterprise are an expression of dynamic stabilization in the context of survival and development of a family business. Literature research and the results of own research may indicate the importance of an active (dynamic) strategy for the operation of family businesses. Effectiveness and creativity, commitment are also important characteristics of the entrepreneur, which will affect the so-called dynamic stabilization of the company. As it results from the analysis, knowledge, human capital and what is associated with the implementation of innovative ideas and solutions in the organizational, technological and product sphere are also undeniably important. Small and medium-sized businesses are attributed flexibility, creativity and dynamism, and they become the main driving forces for the development of small family businesses in the spirit of dynamic stabilization.

Keywords: dynamic stabilization, family businesses, family business strategies.

1. INTRODUCTION

It seems, on the surface, that the term “dynamic stabilization” as a simple combination of two words: dynamics and stabilization – is illogical. However, considering this concept in a broader context, especially in relation to business management processes – we are inspired by a number of concepts, prerequisites for their application, connections with various areas of the organization's activities. It is worth quoting only some of them here: innovation,

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entrepreneurship, creating the value chain, creating new business models, strategic management. Each of these elements will undoubtedly have a major impact on maintaining the company in dynamic stabilization. This is particularly important in relation to small and medium-sized family enterprises, which are usually described as creative, flexible, innovative and characterized by high entrepreneurship. The process of development of such an enterprise in the context of succession for subsequent generations must have features of dynamic stability. A trend in the literature related to the activity of the SMEs sector dealing with the specificity of SMEs² may indicate the need to constantly conduct and expand research in the field of various activities undertaken by entities representing this group.

The aim of the paper is to show whether the undertaken activities in the life cycle of a small and medium-sized enterprise are a way to dynamically stabilize in the context of survival and development of a family business.

2. STRATEGIES AND WAYS OF OPERATION OF SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED FAMILY ENTERPRISES – SPECIFIC FEATURES

There are many definitions of family businesses in the literature, so it is worthwhile to distinguish the criteria common to their characteristics, among which they are first mentioned, the scope of ownership or legal control over its activity³. Also among Polish researchers there is a view that a family company is one in which at least two family members participate, while participation concerns both property and work⁴. Certainly, an important feature of family businesses is its orientation towards the future, which is a contribution to the way of operational management, which is widely assessed as much more efficient and economical. In addition, the high motivation and commitment of family members, perseverance, are also becoming important factors influencing the way of realizing the short and long-term goals of such an enterprise. An interesting review of the current research on the functioning of small and medium-sized family enterprises was made by A. Marjański⁵. This analysis shows that the research so far focused on the specificity of managing family businesses, in various areas (strategy, business mission, human resources, attitudes of the owner, etc.), they were usually conducted on small trials, however, confirm the complexity of the functioning of family businesses.

There are many different classification of business strategies, including those belonging to the group of family enterprises. The development of sciences in the field of strategic

² See among others: O. Torrès, P.A. Julien, *Specificity and Denaturing of Small Business*, "International Small Business Journal", Vol. 23, No. 4/2005.

³ R. Donckels, E. Fröhl, *Are family businesses really different? European Experiences from Stratos.*, Family Business Review, Vol. 42, No. 4/1991 and Q. Fleming, *Tajniki przetrwania firmy rodzinnej*. Publ. One Press Small Business, 2000, pp. 105-107.

⁴ J. Jeżak, W. Popczyk, A. Winnicka-Popczyk, *Przedsiębiorstwa rodzinne. Funkcjonowanie i rozwój*, Difin, Warszawa, 2004, pp. 9 and M. Stradomski, *Finansowanie obce firm rodzinnych na rynku niedoskonałym*, PWE, Warszawa, 2010, p. 41.

⁵ A. Marjański, *Badania małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw rodzinnych w Polsce* [w:] M. Matejun (ed.), *Wyzwania i perspektywy zarządzania w małych i średnich przedsiębiorstwach*, Wydawnictwo C.H. Beck, Warszawa, 2010, pp. 30-41.

management led to the emergence of many approaches – schools, and their interesting typology presented, among others K. Obłój⁶, distinguishing: planning, evolutionary and positional school, as well as the school of resources and skills.

In the context of strategies used by small and medium-sized enterprises, the evolutionary school as well as resources and skills deserve attention. Because their features seem to coincide with the characteristic mode of operation of entrepreneurs from the SME sector, who are focused on continuous (dynamic) search for opportunities and the use of potential, knowledge, skills – as the main driving forces for staying on the market and further development. In turn, J. Penc⁷ distinguishes three basic groups of strategy for SMEs: defensive, offensive and pioneer. In a defensive strategy, the company focuses on reducing failures and surviving in the market. Therefore, entrepreneurs who undertake such a strategy are reluctant to approach all kinds of changes. The opposite is the offensive approach in which entrepreneurs show activity, creativity and willingness to take risks in the spirit of continuous progress. It is this strategy that creates a climate for innovation and continuous improvement and growth. Knowledge and human capital are of great importance in this strategy. In turn, pioneer strategies are based on innovative ideas in the field of products, services, technologies, distribution methods, etc. It seems that these strategies are characteristic of many small and medium-sized family businesses. The specificity of small and medium-sized enterprises translates into a way of managing them, including strategic management, as described in, among others M. Bednarczyk⁸. The author has made the typology and characteristics of the basic features of strategic management in small and medium-sized enterprises.

Interesting research on the strategies used by Polish small and medium-sized enterprises was also carried out by M. Oliński⁹. The author has attempted to associate strategic goals with two elements of the business model: creating value for the client and capturing values. His research shows that among the market objectives a large part of the surveyed companies lists: maintaining market shares, or their growth, customer satisfaction and loyalty, but also goals that pertain to product or process innovation. Among the financial goals, Oliński's research shows that entrepreneurs mostly focus on, among others, maintaining sales profitability, increasing sales revenues or maximizing profit. This is also confirmed by K. Krukowski who has prioritized the strategic goals of small and medium-sized enterprises¹⁰.

The large diversity of family business models, also due to the emergence of new information and IT technologies in today's economy, leads to the belief that the previously known strategies of such companies will undoubtedly change. An interesting review of the definition of strategic management and strategy in the context of creating a business model

⁶ K. Obłój, *Strategia organizacji: budowanie trwałej przewagi konkurencyjnej*, PWE, Warszawa, 1996, pp. 15.

⁷ J. Penc, *Strategie zarządzania. Perspektywiczne myślenie, systemowe działanie*, Warszawa 1995, p. 196.

⁸ M. Bednarczyk, *Otoczenie i przedsiębiorczość w zarządzaniu strategicznym organizacją gospodarczą*, Zeszyty Naukowe. Monografie nr 128, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Krakowie, Kraków 1996, p. 83.

⁹ M. Oliński, *Model biznesu w kontekście celów strategicznych przedsiębiorstwa*, Studia Ekonomiczne. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach nr 267/2016.

¹⁰ K. Krukowski, *Cele strategiczne innowacyjnych małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw*, Studia Ekonomiczne. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach, nr 267/2016.

was made in his work by M. Wierzbicki¹¹. The method of gaining partners, clients, implementing innovative services/products, the possibility of remote implementation of research projects or other projects (through the use of modern messengers, for example) – these are factors that currently will have a major impact on the new way of operating micro, small and medium family enterprises.

3. DYNAMIC STABILIZATION AS A WAY OF FUNCTIONING OF MODERN ENTERPRISES

The necessity of constant implementation of changes that guarantee the existence of a company in a turbulent and highly competitive environment seems obvious today. However, it is not always a change – in a revolutionary sense – it must be the best solution for an enterprise. Frequently, constant care for dynamics of processes, activities that make up the functioning of an enterprise is more beneficial – as E. Abrahamson writes¹². In turn, A.L. Platonoff in the definition of dynamic management draws attention to the complexity of this process, while emphasizing the importance of knowledge in this process and focus on continuous improvement of the organization in adapting to the needs of stakeholders¹³. In his work, A. Kwiecień¹⁴ emphasizes that through “the process of changes based on reliable and interdisciplinary knowledge and the transformation of attitude in people, and then its synchronization with the transformation of the organization, focused on development – it is possible to achieve success and the right transformation of the enterprise”. The concept of dynamic stabilization is fundamentally contradictory, combining two approaches in opposition: the first of them is exploration, innovation, propensity to take risks, seeking opportunities and their use, while the second one is maintaining the existing position through the use (exploitation) of resources. This concept in its studies is characterized by A. Zakrzewska-Bielawska¹⁵.

The complexity and multidimensionality of economic processes generates a huge demand for information. External and internal factors determining the functioning of business entities necessitate the use of innovative tools supporting the acquisition and processing of this information, this also applies to small and medium-sized family enterprises. Considering the specifics of these enterprises, both the size of the entity and the role of the entrepreneur – the owner in shaping the future, building its strategy, model and management style will be important factors causing the information needs. The system of specific features and

¹¹ M. Wierzbicki, *Rachunkowość zarządcza w odnowie modelu biznesowego przedsiębiorstwa*, Wrocław 2017, pp. 46–47.

¹² E. Abrahamson, *Bezbolesne zarządzanie zmianą*, Harvard Business Review Polska, No. 5/2003.

¹³ A.L. Platonoff, *Zarządzanie dynamiczne. Nowe podejście do zarządzania przedsiębiorstwem*, Warszawa 2009, p. 40.

¹⁴ A. Kwiecień, *Zarządzanie dynamiczne procesami biznesowymi – wyzwanie dla przedsiębiorstw XXI wieku*, Studia Ekonomiczne. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach, No. 322/2017.

¹⁵ A. Zakrzewska-Bielawska, *Paradoks eksploracji i eksploatacji – Ambidexterity w zarządzaniu strategicznym*, Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, No. 420/ 2016 and A. Zakrzewska-Bielawska, *Ambidexterity jako zdolność dynamiczna w odpowiedzi na niepewność otoczenia*, Studia Oeconomica Posnaniensia, 2017, Vol. 5, No. 9, p. 174–190.

factors shaping the special character of family enterprises can be treated as a kind of organizational entrepreneurship described, among others by M. Bratnicki¹⁶. Trying to link this concept with the idea of constant improvement of processes, introducing changes for building values – one may create a special business model aimed at a long-term perspective characteristic of family businesses. In turn, Wierzbicki¹⁷ emphasizes that the business model can be treated as an indispensable element of the company strategy and the way to implement it. Schumpeter speaks of “creative destruction” as a process of innovative solutions, having the character of a breakthrough in the enterprise and leading to its growth¹⁸. It seems, therefore, that the role of innovation in the process of building a business model in the spirit of dynamic stabilization is extremely important.

Innovation is variously defined. The most frequently appearing context of its definition is, of course, the technological context. However, from the point of view of the subject matter, it is worth quoting the definition used by Maital and Seshadri, emphasizing its main feature – creativity in each of the areas of the enterprise value chain¹⁹. In this context, the innovation may also apply to the ways of managing the enterprise in general and in each of its processes. For this reason, we can look at innovation from the point of view of implementing and implementing innovative solutions in the field of controlling and economic calculus. At the same time, many researchers emphasize the difficulties of research into the innovativeness of enterprises – referring to the areas of organization and internal processes of the entity²⁰. Creativity, innovation, breakthroughs caused by “creative destruction” are undoubtedly manifestations of entrepreneurship – understood both as an attitude and as a kind of activity. Zbierowski emphasizes that the growth of the company is conditioned by entrepreneurship, and this in turn is linked to innovation²¹. The author also draws attention to the fact relating to the effectiveness of such an enterprise, namely that organizations that neglect development investments, although they can cope in the current operation, but in the long run their activities are at risk.

An interesting analysis and research on the choice between the strategy of expansion and stabilization in contemporary enterprises was carried out by A. Kaleta²². According to the author, in a turbulent and extremely demanding environment – in which companies operate today – only dynamic development and the use of expansive strategies can guarantee success.

Entrepreneurship referred to in the above considerations, the tendency to take risky decisions – which in themselves become a change and introduction of dynamism into action, are characteristics of small and medium-sized family enterprises. Therefore, it should be assumed that such a style of action, known as dynamic stabilization, is assigned to the character of family businesses.

¹⁶ M. Bratnicki, *Sprawdzanie teorii przedsiębiorczości*, in: „Przedsiębiorstwo Przyszłości” 2011, No. 3(8), Kwartalnik Wyższej Szkoły Zarządzania i Prawa im. H. Chodkowskiej.

¹⁷ M. Wierzbicki, *Rachunkowość zarządcza w odnowie modelu biznesowego przedsiębiorstwa*, Wrocław 2017, p. 51–52.

¹⁸ J.A. Schumpeter, *Kapitalizm, socjalizm, demokracja*, Warszawa 2009.

¹⁹ S. Maital, D.V.R. Seshadri, *Innovation Management: Strategies, Concepts and Tools for Growth and Profit*, London 2007, p. 29.

²⁰ D. Audretsch, *Entrepreneurship research.*, “Management Decision” 2012, No. 50(5).

²¹ P. Zbierowski, *Orientacja pozytywna organizacji wysokiej efektywności*, Warszawa 2012, p. 23.

²² A. Kaleta, *Strategia ekspansji czy stabilizacji?*, Zarządzanie strategiczne w teorii i praktyce, Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, No. 366/2014.

4. BUILDING STABILITY OF A FAMILY BUSINESS AND DYNAMIC CHANGES IN ITS HISTORY – RESEARCH RESULTS

The analysis presented below is a fragment of more extensive research currently being conducted. The research is carried out on a group of small and medium-sized family enterprises located in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship. In order to select the sample, the definitions of small²³ and medium-sized enterprises and a family enterprise²⁴ known in the literature were used. So far, 110 small and medium-sized enterprises have been surveyed, of which – 53 have been identified as family enterprises.

Interesting research on the course of development processes in Polish small and medium-sized enterprises in the context of their resourceful dynamic capabilities was carried out by M. Matejun and A. Motyka²⁵. The authors, based on the cited concepts of phase models of life and development of SMEs²⁶ also presented their own proposition of a phased dynamics of the life cycle of companies from the SMEs sector, consisting of eight stages and referring to the specificity of this sector²⁷. Appreciating the achievements of many scientists involved in researching the growth and life cycle of small and medium-sized enterprises, for the purpose of this study the popular concept of the Churchila and Levis growth process was used, considering it the most universal²⁸. Thus, the development process of a small and medium-sized enterprise was divided into 5 stages, i.e.: the creation of a company, survival, success – through growth (maintaining a favorable market position), development (increase in the size of the enterprise, the scope of its operations) and the maturity phase. Against this background, they were asked in a survey, among others, for the entrepreneurs to indicate the most important events affecting the growth or transformation in the subsequent stages of a company's life. Due to the fact that the conducted research has a wider scope, only the fragment related to the subject taken in the article was used in this study.

Due to the specificity of family businesses, especially the smallest ones, it is worth emphasizing that entrepreneurs are not always able to link and unambiguously assess the effects of undertaken activities with the transition to the next phase of development. This seems understandable because often these activities are interrelated and taken together so choosing one of them – as a spectacular, having an impact on the company's future – may seem difficult. However, many of the respondents indicated many events, actions and ventures that contributed to the dynamic development of their enterprises. Table 1 presents the

²³ The Act of 2 July 2004 on the freedom of economic activity and OJ on November 10, 2016. Pos. 1829. Manufacturing. Marshal Of The Sejm Of The Republic Of Poland dated 12 October 2016 regarding the publication of a uniform text of the Act on the freedom of economic activity.

²⁴ *Ibidem*.

²⁵ M. Matejun, A. Motyka, *Zasobowe zdolności dynamiczne w zarządzaniu rozwojem firm sektora MSP*, Monografie Politechniki Łódzkiej, Łódź 2016.

²⁶ See: M. Scott, R. Bruce, *Five Stages of Growth in Small Business*, "Long Range Planning", Vol. 20, No. 3/1987 and E. Masurel, K. Van Montfort, *Life Cycle Characteristics of Small Professional Service Firms*, "Journal of Small Business Management", Vol. 44, No. 3/2006.

²⁷ M. Matejun, A. Motyka, *Zasobowe zdolności dynamiczne w zarządzaniu rozwojem firm sektora MSP*, Monografie Politechniki Łódzkiej, Łódź 2016, p. 34–35.

²⁸ N.C. Churchil and V.L. Levis, *The five stages of small business growth*, "Harvard Business Review", May-June 1983.

events most frequently mentioned by representatives of small and medium-sized family enterprises, which significantly affected the life of their company in the long-term or to build their stabilization.

From data obtained during research, it is easy to notice that each of the entrepreneurs strives to maintain the stability of their company to a greater or lesser extent. The events identified in the study and identified as those that were of significant importance in the history of the surveyed entities – confirm the entrepreneur's activity in continually analyzing the threats and opportunities appearing in the environment and in striving to keep the company at least in the current position or in the future.

Table 1. Significant events affecting the dynamics of the company's development in the opinion of entrepreneurs

An event identified by the surveyed representatives of family businesses	Number of identical or similar answers
Investments in fixed assets	18,9%
Signing contracts with new partners/ contractors/clients	18,9%
Entering foreign markets	9,4%
Expanding the market/opening new branches	3,7%
Limiting/separating and liquidating unprofitable areas of activity	5,6%
Obtaining new permissions/certificates	3,7%
Launching new products/services into the market (including innovative ones)	15,1%
Implementation of specialist/cutting-edge technologies	1,8%
Achievement of financial stability	5,6%
Financial contribution through EU subsidies	7,5%
An increase of employment	1,8%
Introduction of a new pricing policy	1,8%
An application of new/innovative marketing methods and techniques	1,8%

* the received responses do not add up to 100%, as entrepreneurs could indicate more than one answer.

Source: own study based on the conducted research.

The largest number of entrepreneurs (18.9%) exchanged investments and contracts with new partners – as key events in their development. On the other hand, there are implementations of new products/services – this also applies to innovative and innovative ideas related to business operations (over 15% of respondents). Over 9% of surveyed entrepreneurs declared entering foreign markets as a significant event for the growth of their enterprises. All of the answers mentioned required a lot of commitment from the owner – which was emphasized in the statements of entrepreneurs. This activity proves that without precise definition and naming by entrepreneurs of the applied strategy – they undertake attempts of offensive actions, but in the context of maintaining the company's stability. It is the stabilization in family businesses that is crucial – a thriving enterprise provides financial security to successive generations – successors.

Table 2 presents the data on the specification of the moment in the life cycle of the company which experienced the key events for their history. Both representatives of micro

and small enterprises most often indicated Phase 3 – as the one in which significant events occurred that had an impact on the operations of the family business. In the case of medium-sized enterprises, the most, because more than 8% of respondents indicated phase 4. It is worth noting here that a different view as to the moment when the most important events occur in the company's life cycle may result from different age of enterprises. Most of the surveyed companies assessed their age as Phase 3 and 4, few (especially medium ones) described themselves as mature enterprises. Only a few among the surveyed enterprises indicated the survival phase (these were microenterprises).

Table 2. The moment of occurrence of events significant for the life of the enterprise in the opinion of entrepreneurs

	Phase 1 Establishment of the company - <i>presence in the market</i> - <i>market recog- nition</i>	Phase 2 Survival -customers acquisition	Phase 3 Maintaining a favorable market position/ working out a success	Phase 4 Increase in size, scope of the company's activity, - increase in employment - <i>product and technological implementation, etc.</i>	Phase 5 Maturity - care for the quality of pro- ducts and ser- vices
Mikroenter- prises	12,3%	10,5%	19,3%	5,3%	5,3%
Small enterprises	5,3%	1,8%	7%	5,3%	3,5%
Medium- sized enterprises	1,8%	7%	5,3%	8,7%	1,8%

* the received responses do not add up to 100%, as entrepreneurs could indicate more than one answer.

Source: own study based on research (The company's growth phases were based on literature studies, including: N.C. Churchill and V.L. Levis, The five stages of small business growth, Harvard Business Review, May-June 1983).

The presented research results can be a sign of the great care of entrepreneurs in the constant search for opportunities for development. Most of the respondents emphasize the huge role of the entrepreneur-owner in building the company's value and shaping its future. An additional factor affecting the creation of development and maintaining the company's stability in the future is the fact that the current owners strive for the financial security of the family now and in the future. Many of them associate the future of the enterprise with the next generation – successors. Thus, it seems that the dynamic strategy (in relation to the activities undertaken for development) of stabilization (for keeping the company in good condition in order to pass it on to future generations) seems to be an attractive and right approach in the management of long-term family businesses. Such an approach can also be treated as a specific model of running a family business, because in a management system aimed at constant care for high efficiency, profitability, and business development, ethical

and moral values are of great importance. These are, as E. Wrońska-Bukalska writes, developed systems of values, defined as rules and rules concerning the functioning of family entities are their characteristic features²⁹.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Literature studies carried out, as well as the results of research quoted above may indicate the importance of an active (dynamic) strategy for the functioning of family businesses, especially considering the perspective of transferring the enterprise to future generations. Of course, the adopted business model, but also the industry, the size and age of the enterprise, growth opportunities – are factors with a high degree of impact on the future of the business entity. This consists in the overall effectiveness of the company, both in the financial and market context. It is worth quoting the view of Zbierowski who notices in this respect the contradictions in managing the efficiency of enterprises, including small and medium-sized families³⁰. Referring to the operational-short-term perspective, the author points to routine actions, the domination of material factors for the development of profitability – satisfying only the needs of the owners. In the long-term perspective, business management is characterized by the dominance of intangible factors, the search for new solutions, oriented to the needs of various groups of “stakeholders”.

Indeed, in the case of microenterprises, an ad hoc focus on the financial result satisfying the owner-entrepreneur is generally perceived. Especially, if such an activity is carried out in the services sector and concerns only the local market. A slightly different approach will be characteristic of micro, small and medium enterprises in the production sector (even if they are specialized, niche products). The entrepreneurs of this group, already in the second phase of company life, i.e. survival, often start to undertake various activities aimed at developing the company in the long run. These activities increase with the age of the company, but also depend on the growth rate of the company. Undeniably in this respect knowledge, human capital and what is associated with the implementation of innovative ideas and solutions, both product, technological and organizational ones acquire significance.

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²⁹ E. Wrońska-Bukalska, *Specyfika przedsiębiorstw sektora małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw* [w:] E. Wrońska-Bukalska (ed.), *System finansowy małego i średniego przedsiębiorstwa*, Warszawa, 2015, p. 25–27.

³⁰ P. Zbierowski, *Organizacje wysokiej efektywności* [w:] T. Dudycz (ed.), *Uwarunkowania i prawidłowości gospodarcze wywierające wpływ na efektywność funkcjonowania przedsiębiorstw*, Wrocław 2008.

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DYNAMICZNA STABILIZACJA JAKO STRATEGIA ROZWOJU MAŁYCH I ŚREDNICH FIRM RODZINNYCH

Współczesność stawia przed przedsiębiorstwami wiele wyzwań, które wyrażane są poprzez innowacyjność, przedsiębiorczość, kreowanie nowych modeli biznesowych, tworzenie łańcucha wartości czy stosowanie nowatorskich rozwiązań strategicznych. Wszystkie te cechy znacząco wpływają na utrzymanie tzw. dynamicznej stabilizacji. Szczęólnego znaczenia nabiera to w odniesieniu do małych i średnich firm rodzinnych. Zwłaszcza iż działalność tej grupy przedsiębiorstw należy rozpatrywać w kontekście sukcesji przedsiębiorstwa przez młodsze pokolenia. Czynniki (zarówno te finansowe, jak i rynkowe) składające się na stabilność w długiej perspektywie, odgrywają znaczącą rolę w procesie wzrostu przedsiębiorstwa i przekładają się na aktywną strategię firm rodzinnych. Duże znaczenie w tym względzie mają wiedza i świadomość właściciela o potrzebie analizy uwarunkowań kształtujących przyszłość firmy oraz podejmowane przez niego aktywności. Celem artykułu jest wykazanie, czy podjęte działania w cyklu życia małego i średniego przedsiębiorstwa są wyrazem dynamicznej stabilizacji w kontekście przetrwania i rozwoju firmy rodzinnej. Przeprowadzone badania literaturowe oraz wyniki badań własnych, mogą świadczyć o znaczeniu aktywnej (dynamicznej) strategii funkcjonowania firm rodzinnych. Oczywiście przyjęty model biznesowy, ale także branża, wielkość i wiek przedsiębiorstwa, możliwości rozwoju – są czynnikami mającymi duży wpływ na przyszłość jednostki gospodarczej. Skuteczność działania i kreatywność, zaangażowanie to także istotne cechy przedsiębiorcy, które będą wpływały na dynamiczną stabilizację firmy. Jak wynika z przeprowadzonej analizy, niezaprzeczalnie ważna jest również wiedza, kapitał ludzki i to, co wiąże się z wdrażaniem innowacyjnych pomysłów i rozwiązań w sferze organizacyjnej, technologicznej jak i produktowej. Małym i średnim firmom przypisuje się elastyczność, kreatywność i dynamizm, i to one stają się głównymi siłami napędzającymi rozwój małych firm rodzinnych w duchu dynamicznej stabilizacji.

Słowa kluczowe: dynamiczna stabilizacja, firmy rodzinne, strategie firm rodzinnych.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.44

*Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.
Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.*

Monika KŁOS¹

NEURO(MANAGEMENT) THROUGH THE PRISM OF BRAIN RESEARCH

The main thesis of this article is contained in a statement that application of neuroscience in human resources management is a good direction towards more effective use of employee potential. Nowadays neuroscience has become interdisciplinary with professionals that represent different disciplines cooperating to study a complex human organ – the brain. They strive to explain the processes underlying thinking, feelings, emotions, and decision-making. Technological change has led to the emergence of several important neuroimaging methods that provide us with answers to classic questions asked in human resources management, in particular as regards people's motives in making decisions and choice, especially in terms of acquiring competence (i.e., motivation to learn). The sources of various types of information on motivation are various areas of the brain, while linking information and directing motivation to the right path (according to the brain) happens predominantly in the medial prefrontal cortex. This article presents the selected research findings obtained through neuroimaging and their influence on changes in organisation management, especially as regards human resources, as well as information on the potential of neurotransmitters stimulating motivation. In the second part of the article, the author presents an author's model of adult learning based on the assumptions of neuroscience, which emerged in consequence of a two-year process of Design Thinking – from idea to innovation (i.e., a ready product) through pre-incubation stages to incubation (during which prototypes were tested on a research group).

Keywords: neuroscience, neurotransmitters, human resources management, motivation to act.

1. INTRODUCTION

Development of brain imaging methods is an achievement of medicine, which is adopted in numerous other sciences, including management. Researchers, managers, and business trainers (including the author of the article herself) show increasing courage to use brain research results disseminated by neurobiologists in order to verify the possibility of adopting these findings to predict and account for organisational processes, especially to monitor human behaviours. Neuromanagement tools may be considered as very effective provided they are not used un-ethically. Long-term experience of the author as an educator has inclined her to look into this matter and enabled to put forward a hypothesis that orga-

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nizational management through relations and emotions, especially human resources management, will become a norm and will be determining the development of such an organizational culture.

In line with the above, it is the objective of the article to demonstrate that application of neuroscience in human resources management is a good direction towards more effective use of employee potential.

The gaps in the brain research lead us to focus on specific areas, and motivation is one of them, maybe the most important one. By referring to one of the selected areas of human resources management, that is, motivation, the author addresses (through Design Thinking) a question about a real possibility of generating, the so called, external adult motivation in life and through life – approach. Taking into consideration brain research, observations made on the contemporary labour market (nowadays called the employee market), and the author's Learning Model determining individual motivation levels, the author puts forward another hypothesis that Tayloristic approach to management, which claims that the character of a job is unimportant to an employee as long as he or she receives appropriate remuneration, does not conform to the reality. The theories of motivation, which have been developing since the mid-20th century, have demonstrated that organisations are not only sources of income for employees but also a place where they seek satisfaction of such needs as development or acceptance.

2. NEW DIMENSION OF (NEURO) MANAGEMENT

There is a mutual interrelationship between the way we think and the way we act. Appreciation of this interrelationship may help create new ways of organizing². Studying a live brain opens up new possibilities for uncovering the secrets of this body organ – it is a way of learning about human thoughts and behaviours. The first non-invasive methods were popularized in the second half of the 20th century. They include: electroencephalography (EEG); computed tomography (CAT and CT); positron emission tomography (PET and SPECT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The following are considered the newest methods: magnetoencephalography (MEG), transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS), and single neuron imaging (SNI)³.

In practice, this translates into neural-level accounting for findings produced by research that uses methods relevant for social sciences. Furthermore, brain imaging tools also allow to frame completely new research questions and receive answers to these questions within the area of management as well.

Professor R. Bagozzi, one of the most influential marketing researchers and a world-class expert in management science, says the following about this new trend: "I see neuroscience as complementary to social and management sciences. (...) neuroscience offers possibilities for verifying classic theories of social sciences, may overthrow false theories and, generally, helps us gain a better understanding of how the brain works so that we can better explain, predict, and control human actions. Obviously, this knowledge may be used to (...)

² G. Morgan G., *Images of Organization*, Warszawa 1997, p. 395.

³ Ch. Fritz, *From Brain to Mind. How is Our Inner World Formed*, Warszawa 2011, p. 18–27; P. Jaśkowski, *Cognitive Neuroscience: How Brain Creates Mind*, Warszawa 2009, p. 42–77; S.M. Kosslyn, R.S. Rosenberg, *Psychology: Brain. Human. The World*, Kraków 2006, p. 133–138.

support the government, companies or other institutions in decision making since it is concerned with social, organizational, and welfare-related matters”⁴.

2.1. Decision Making Process

In the context of management, this knowledge is mostly adopted in the decision making process during, e.g., purchase/sales; selection of a strategy of operation – cooperation/competition; employment of a candidate or not – in the recruitment process; or the use of punishment and prize for employee motivation. In order to study the functioning of individual parts of the brain during making decisions, various games are used, which examine neuron activity of individual players depending on decisions made by players themselves or by other players as well as on observations of behaviours displayed by other game players.

The decision making process is based on the evaluation of the value (benefits) arising from taking action and on the assessment of the likelihood of receiving the benefits. Both these evaluations are more or less subjective in character. This means that the rationale they are based on is not fully verifiable in objective terms before a decision is made or in the course of making a decision. This is because they are concerned with the future considered exclusively through the prism of assessment of likelihood⁵.

Neuroscience is a collective name for a relatively new, interdisciplinary discipline of science focused on studying the central nervous system and so, essentially, the brain. Neuroscience owes its specific character and the resultant dynamic development (since the 90s of the 20th century) to drawing and using conclusions from the relevant achievements of numerous exact sciences (mainly biology, biophysics, and biochemistry) and human sciences (including psychology, anthropology, linguistics, etc.). The effect of these interdisciplinary studies are new disciplines of brain sciences, that is, the particular areas of neuroscience⁶.

Contemporary development aids in exploring other disciplines of science. Currently, neuroeconomics and neuromarketing are gaining popularity and neuroscience is also discussed with regard to its influence on the understanding of the mechanisms behind managing employees or a company (i.e., neuromanagement)⁷. Neuroeconomics⁸ is an interdisciplinary discipline combining neuroscience, psychology, and economics for the purpose of developing a common decision making theory. According to the definition of Tomasz Zaleśkiewicz⁹, “it is a discipline of science that studies neuronal correlates of decisions and

⁴ B.J. Tkaczyk, *Richard Bagozzi: Neuroscience and Management. Interview with Professor Richard Bagozzi*, 2010, http://manager.inwestycje.pl/nauka_manager/Richard-Bagozzi-neuronauki-i-zarzadzanie;110949;0.html, (accessed on 20 July 2018).

⁵ J. Kozielski J., *Psychological Theory of Decision*, Warszawa 1977, p. 148, 203.

⁶ B. Jamka, *Neuroscience versus Stimulation of Entrepreneurship: the Potential Hidden in Hemispheric Specialization, Neurotransmitters, and Brain Plasticity* in: M. Kosała, M. Urbaniec, A. Żur (eds.), *Contemporary Dilemmas in Research on Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 2, No. 1, Kraków 2016, p. 16.

⁷ Q. Ma, X. Wang, *From Neuroeconomics and Neuromarketing to Neuromanagement*, „Journal of Industrial Engineering and Engineering Management” 2006, Vol. 20, No. 3, p. 129–132.

⁸ Its fundamental premise is based on human mind activity as a derivative of the activity of neurons located in the brain. Hence the discipline has been given another name – neuroscience of decision making.

⁹ T. Zaleśkiewicz, Z. Piskorz, *Brain, Mind. Decisions. Neurobiology of Not Only Subjective Probability* [in:] *Psychology of the Mind*, Z. Piskorz, T. Zaleśkiewicz (eds.), Gdańsk 2003, p. 446.

economic evaluations with the use of methods such as: functional magnetic resonance, electroencephalography, positron emission tomography, psychophysiological response measurement, and neurological patient studies.”

The discoveries of neuroscience have caused the business world to express interest in human emotionality and the advertising sector took the lead in this respect. Advertising agencies were the first ones to understand how much they can gain, if they make the consumer love the brand they are creating. And so the discipline of neuromarketing has emerged, which chiefly comprises three areas: development of classic marketing studies, support for communication of a message in line with the knowledge provided by neuroscience, and the use of techniques offered by cognitive neuroscience to analyse and support sales. (...) the main focus in neuromarketing¹⁰ is the policy of communication since reactions of the brain are measured in relation to specific external stimuli (e.g., a commercial)¹¹.

Another subdiscipline of neuromanagement is neuroleadership. The term itself was introduced by D. Rock and J. Schwartz¹². Knowledge on brain activity may offer explanation of human behaviour. It can help managers to more effectively match employees to duties and simultaneously manage different projects. As far as employees are concerned, it may allow to increase efficiency and avoid professional burnout.

3. NEUROMANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

In the context managing humans, knowledge on how the human brain works may aid in creating an organizational system (i.e., culture) that will positively affect increasing employee engagement (including motivation) with respect to performing duties as well as in building and developing interpersonal relationships in a company.

Nowadays the human factor in a company is most commonly seen as/called a resource and increasingly – a capital, while rarely – as if within a niche – a potential¹³, which is highly diversified on top of that¹⁴. Decision making is one of the most frequent and important human behaviours. But is it a favourite one? Decision making is a process involving numerous lower-level processes connected with the operation of many brain areas¹⁵. However, it is believed that the prefrontal cortex plays the main role in these processes and their coordination¹⁶. Decisions that exert direct influence on the human being in their

¹⁰ It is more and more common for market analysts to examine thinking processes, feelings, and customer preferences in the context of using various persuasion techniques and marketing tools encouraging to make a purchase.

¹¹ A. Wawrzyniak, B. Wąsikowska, *Neuroimaging Methods in Research on Decision-Making in Management*, “Organizacja i Kierowanie” 2016, No. 1, p. 57.

¹² D. Rock, J. Schwartz, *The Neuroscience od Leadership*, 2006, <https://www.strategy-business.com/article/06207?gko=6da0a> (accessed on 10 July 2018).

¹³ B. Jamka, *Neuroscience versus Stimulation...*, p. 55.

¹⁴ M. Kłos, *Neuroscience – Perspectives for the Development of Human Resources Management?*, “Marketing i Rynek” 3/2016, p. 362.

¹⁵ D. Lee, M.F. Rushworth, M.E. Walton, M. Watanabe, M. Sakagami, *Functional specialization of the primate frontal cortex during decision making*. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 2007, August 1, p. 27, 8170–8173.

¹⁶ D. Krawczyk, *Contributions of the Prefrontal Cortex to the Neural Basis of Human Decision Making*, “Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews” 2002, 26, p. 631–664.

personal space are concerned with employment planning, selection and pursuance of a path of development as well as assessment, and motivation. Research within the discipline of neuroscience makes it possible to gain an increasingly better understanding of the essence of thinking processes that give rise to certain human behaviours and ways of making decisions. Kahneman described these two thinking modes as¹⁷:

- system 1 (fast thinking): acting quickly and automatically; without effort or with little effort; without the sense of conscious control; encompassing intuitive thinking (professional and heuristic) and automatic forms of thinking activity (e.g., perception, memory); its core is associative memory.
- system 2 (slow thinking): requires focused attention; it is activated when system 1 does not know the answer to a question, which requires, e.g., complicated calculations, or if some task is contradictory to the model of reality built in the mind; it allocates necessary attention to tasks that require mental effort and is responsible for constant monitoring of behaviours (e.g., control of emotions); its activity is connected with a subjective sense of concentration, free choice, and conscious action.

The distinction between the modes of thinking is important in regard of competences (characteristic qualities) that employers desire to see in employees and candidates (which are required and verified in the course of recruitment and selection). Organizing, planning, and creative skills require conscious thinking, whereas culturally (or environmentally) ingrained values/skills determine quick thinking and automatic actions. Some research results reveal physiological processes underlying various degrees of arousal. Numerous such observations were made by A. Arnsten¹⁸, who has studied prefrontal cortex for many years by way of reaching to the level of neurons, synapses, and neurotransmitters. The researcher has established that the correct functioning of the synapses¹⁹ in the very cortex depends on the appropriate level of neurotransmitters present in the neurons: dopamine and noradrenaline.

Human brain chemistry changes throughout the day in response to stimuli from the environment. Noradrenaline is chemistry of alertness and dopamine is the chemistry of interest. In order to achieve an appropriate level of arousal, the right level of both these chemical compounds is necessary. Dopamine level increases when the orbitofrontal cortex detects something new or unexpected²⁰. The brain produces more dopamine, if a person is expecting a positive event to happen, that is, something perceived as a prize. This mechanism plays a key role in learning various things (i.e., acquiring competence); and a human being links positive experiences with positive social contacts since we have always been learning within a community and cooperation is most likely the biggest enhancer²¹. These conclusions may significantly contribute to accounting for how people motivate others thus questioning the legitimacy of defining “external motivation”.

¹⁷ D. Kahneman, *Thinking Traps. About Fast and Slow Thinking*, Poznań 2012, p. 31–32.

¹⁸ A. Arnsten, *The biology of being frazzled*, “Science” 280, 1998, p. 1711–1712.

¹⁹ A synapse, which is a gap between neurons, receives and sends impulses.

²⁰ D. Rock, *Your Brain in Action*, Poznań 2015, p. 89.

²¹ M. Spitzer, *How the Brain Learns*, Warszawa 2012, p. 137.

4. NEUROTRANSMITTER VERSUS MOTIVATION TO TAKE ACTION (INCLUDING TO LEARN)

The issue of human motivation still arouses interest. Many publications on this topic have been emerging for years, while researchers and business practitioners wonder what makes people willing or unwilling to work. What does the newest research have to say about this? Is it possible to motivate a person at all?

Studies carried out in recent years almost consistently indicate that non-financial motivating factors take the lead: 1. appreciation of employee's work and achievements; 2. development opportunities (for acquiring higher qualifications); 3. friendly working atmosphere²². If employers have such knowledge why do so many things still work poorly? The results of brain research offer answers regarding the essence of motivation to learn and perform tasks, which should attract employers' and employees' interest.

The brain is a network of connected nerve fibres and synapses that an electric signal travels through. Its speed and quality are controlled by neurotransmitters (i.e., chemical substances) – that are released internally²³. One of them, called the “interest chemistry”, is dopamine whose level increases when the orbitofrontal cortex detects something new or unexpected. The brain produces more dopamine, if a person is expecting a positive event to happen, that is, something perceived as a prize²⁴. This may explain why an employee concentrating on a thought that if they do well in their job they will receive a prize may obtain an optimum level of the neurotransmitter. Sequences of behaviours or events that have led to a result better than expected are processed further and there is a greater probability that they will be remembered. Thus the learning process occurs and it takes place each time we experience something positive²⁵. Contemporary knowledge on the brain and its activity in response to learning, prize, and punishment in a way takes the opposite stand with respect to questions on producing motivation (referred to as external motivation) by indicating the existence of rather demotivating campaigns (e.g. praising the best ones who do not really have a problem with motivation).

5. LEARNING BASED ON BRAIN-FRIENDLY METHODS – AN AUTHOR'S CASE STUDY

Interest in neuroscience as well as a desire to examine the area of adult motivation to take up new tasks have caused a 4-people team²⁶ to create a social innovation. Its objective was to create, test, and implement an effective and innovative method of learning for adult people. The team has worked for about 2 years with the iterative method – Design Thinking²⁷, from idea to innovation (i.e., a ready product), through pre-incubation stages to in-

²² *Ibidem*.

²³ D. Eagleman, *Incognito Brain. Civil War in Your Head*, Warszawa, 2012, p. 275.

²⁴ D. Rock, *Your Brain in Action...*, p. 89.

²⁵ M. Spitzer, *How the Brain...*, p. 145.

²⁶ A multidisciplinary team is characteristic for Design Thinking: 1 doctor of management sciences (and author of the article), 1 doctor of human sciences (and a special educational needs teacher), 1 doctor of pedagogics specialising in pedeutology, and 1 doctor of health care sciences.

²⁷ Design thinking is a method of creative problem-solving, which was defined for the first time in the United States in the 60s. Its purpose is to provide innovative solutions through the adoption of

cubation, and through short and dynamic stages preceded by research and drawing conclusions to working on another prototype. Each of the 3 prototypes was tested by a target group selected randomly. The innovation was a response to the problems defined as follows: adults' poor learning abilities (arising from the stigma of traditional education based on lecturing and brain-unfriendly methods); unwillingness to learn due to the existence of stereotypes (e.g. the brain stops learning with age) and experiences with ineffective learning²⁸. In a pilot study conducted on a sample of 80 people, it turned out that knowledge on effective learning techniques based on neurobiological bases is scarce. Sixty per cent of the respondents were not able to name and enumerate brain-friendly methods of learning²⁹ and myths about brain activity hindered them in achieving better effects in terms of self-development. Forty-five per cent of the respondents were convinced that there was no need for them to train due to the current professional situation and few were aware that training is necessary in all age groups³⁰. Nearly 50% of the adults showed no engagement in acquiring knowledge and skills or unwillingness to finish the activity they have already taken up owing to little progress or faith in their own abilities (including a language course or classes teaching how to play a musical instrument). Brain studies demonstrate that an adult human being may learn effectively, while lack of regular intellectual effort reduces possibilities. As far as memorizing tasks are concerned (e.g., memorizing words), in older adults the prefrontal areas were more active, which is a phenomenon referred to as poster-anterior shift in ageing (PASA)³¹. Studies such as these are carried out with the above-mentioned fMRI method and show that the efficiency and speed of processing information decreases with age thus the brain needs to make use of more areas in order to achieve comparable results.

Research carried out by the project team as well as its members' training experience show that adults want to know why they should be learning, they need to learn through experience, and approach learning like problem-solving (i.e., learning through practice). They learn the most when the subject constitutes an immediate value for them. The study confirmed 4 main "motivators" indicated by M. Knowles³². First of all, success – adults want to be successful in learning; secondly, willingness-people want to have a sense of having influence over learning; thirdly, value – adults want to feel that they are learning something worthwhile; and fourthly, pleasure – they expect learning to be a source of pleasure.

specific methods stimulating creativity. All actions are later transposed to a business scheme. Design thinking is based on project thinking intended to produce creative solutions.

²⁸ In relative terms, the most intense non-formal educational activity was displayed by people aged 25–44 as over a fourth of this group declared having entered this form of education. As far as the youngest respondents (aged 18–24) are concerned, 22.1% of this group were receiving this type of education. One may notice a downward trend in educational activity which is decreasing with the respondents' age (from 21.4% learners aged 45–49 to 7.4% learners aged 60–69) (Central Statistical Office, 2016).

²⁹ In this article, the term brain-friendly refers to methods based on methodology drawing upon the available scientific knowledge on the brain.

³⁰ cf.: A. Szczucka, K. Turek, B. Worek, *Polska Agencja Rozwoju Przedsiębiorczości*, Warszawa 2012, *Adult Learning, HR Investment in Companies, and Training Institutions*.

³¹ S.W. Davis et al., *Que PASA? The posterior-anterior shift in ageing*, *Cereb Cortex*, New York 2008, No. 18(5), p. 1201.

³² M.S. Knowles, E.F. Holton III., R.A. Swanson (eds.), *Adult Education*, Warszawa 2009, p. 107 and further.

As mentioned above, the respondents were hardly able to enumerate learning techniques based on brain research but they had no problem identifying the factors that determine their willingness to learn. These were: minimizing the message (i.e., limitation of content and time to an absolute minimum), aesthetics of the content/materials (e.g., appropriate colour scheme, font), attractiveness of the technique (e.g., interactive elements, animations), and comfort of use (e.g., clarity and simplicity).

All these pieces of information have served the team to work on a social innovation entitled “Neurorozwojownik” [in English: Neurodeveloper], which is an e-learning platform allowing to diagnose one’s own learning preferences as well as learn about effective and brain-friendly learning methods. It is an online course in which each interested and motivated participant goes through 8 modules divided into stages and paths. Stage 1 comprises 5 modules regarding: 1. the brain, the objective and plan – self-management over time, talent management, visualisation method; 2. visual thinking; 3. Mnemonic techniques; 4. Self-motivation – selected elements of coaching, self-coaching, career coaching, and mindfulness; 5. Neuromethods – brain-friendly learning/classes, which, e.g., allow the participant to learn about the neurobiological basis of learning and the fact that its application allows to fully use the potential of learners. Stage 2 is divided into the following modules: 1. personal life; 2. personal development; 3. professional development (the relevant materials have been prepared with the use of brain-friendly methods). Additionally, the participant has access to: tests (in the “Diagnostic Laboratory”) that verify the dominant channel of information acquisition and processing, which allows to get to know about one’s own learning preferences; as well as to a library (i.e., a collection of exercises that, e.g., reduce stress, which is a precondition for using brain-friendly methods, and increase motivation – elements of career and self-coaching) in a form of interactive exercises; printable materials; podcasts; and to consultations with a coach (for each participant) and a methodologist (i.e., a trainer, teacher). In stage 3 of implementation of the innovation, the operation of the whole course on the platform (i.e., prototype 3) was tested. Testing was performed by 30 people interested in testing (as enrolment was open), who were selected randomly. Some of those people met the bonus criteria (as in Chart 1). Due to the fact that there are two paths

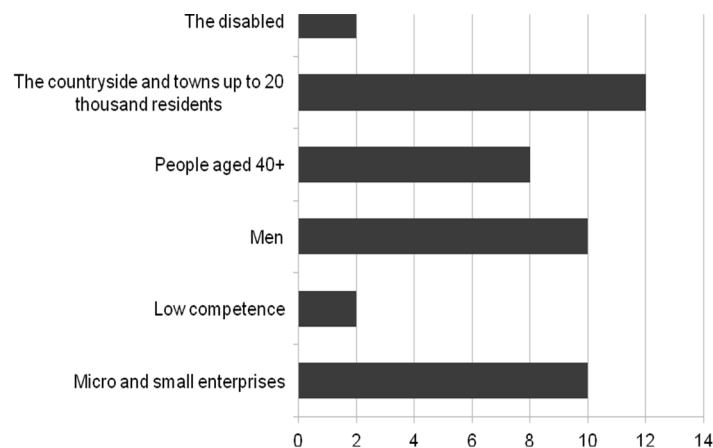


Chart 1. Participants meeting bonus criteria in the project

Source: own work.

available in the online course, the testers were divided into two groups. The first group was trainers who plan or have wanted to plan or already run their classes (regardless of the area of interest or subject) in line with the rules that neuromethods are based on and the second group was people undertaking education/self-education. In the course of selection, educational advancement and age were taken into consideration.

The objective was, first and foremost, to test the readability and level of understanding of the presented course by the testers. What is more, it was verified to what extent the trainers were able to adopt the knowledge acquired as a result of completion of the course in practice (as the final task for this group was to devise a class scenario with the use of brain-friendly teaching methods/techniques).

The authors of the Innovation believe that the testing ended in success, which means that the opinions of the testers who have completed all the tasks on the platform were positive. In the evaluation survey, the testers were asked to assess the course provided on the platform in terms of its usefulness (and 26 people rated it 5 whereas 4 people rated it 4), ease of use of the platform (and 27 people rated it 5 whereas 3 people rated it 4), and motivation to recommend it to others (and 28 people would recommend it to others (5) whereas 2 would probably recommend it to others (4))³³. Additional feedback was provided in an open question, that is: “the platform is visually attractive; it is a very good development tool, I wish there had been a tool like this when I was young; very useful exercises; interesting materials; it was a pleasure to use the platform; it should be popularized.” Both the answers provided to the survey question as well as individual statements recorded in the

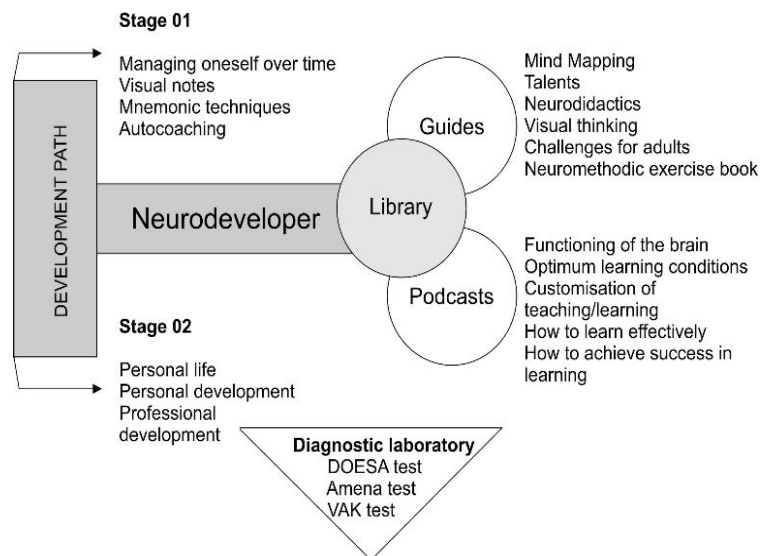


Figure 1. Model of Social Innovation

Source: own work.

³³ Scale from 1 to 5, where 5 means very good.

course of in-depth interviews with coaches³⁴ and assessment of the task by an expert allow to conclude that the Innovation was evaluated very positively since it meets the primary assumption – its elements were developed in compliance with the rules governing the functioning of the human brain.

There are currently not many propositions in the Polish economy for adults to use brain-friendly methods and techniques based on brain research and the described innovation seals this gap. It combines actual support in the form of a coach/mentor/expert with a remote tool. Owing to its versatility, the model that is being described is adjusted to the needs and possibilities of each person. Scalability of the model manifests itself in the structure of the idea – it can be adapted to various organizations and competence levels – the authors of the model share this knowledge with other educators.

The use of neuroscience is a developmental trend that is also present in shaping the policy of Life Long Learning that gives greater than ever advantage in building the knowledge economy with a diversified society. The presented model is unique in character and may be used to reflect the actual needs on the labour market or treated as a standalone course that can be adapted to each area of the economy (especially the one that requires greatest support – the SMEs).

6. CONCLUSION

The deliberations presented above confirm the hypotheses put forward in the article and allowed to achieve its objective. The key conclusions drawn from literature review and author's research are as follows:

1. A stronger than ever need to acquire knowledge on brain activity in various situations has emerged as people managing organisations should realize that an employee will reject a profitable offer, if he or she is experiencing an emotion.
2. Emotionality and intuition are effects of activity generated by perfectly specialized brain areas. Empathy and developing emotional intelligence are two of the most important competences of the managers and employees of the future. Even today it is already hard to exercise management, work in a team or carry out projects without them, yet no one teaches them professionally³⁵.
3. Learning about human thinking processes determines the way one sees various phenomena.
4. Knowledge about the brain may be used in order to develop employee educational and training programmes (including for managers).
5. People are intrinsically motivated because there is an effective prize system in their brain and there is no motivation without learning.
6. The first and the fifth of factors may limit the speed of using the neuroscience in management (acceptance of knowledge and motivation to use it). Despite this, the

³⁴ The testers pointed to the possibility of using particular techniques in conducting trainings in various areas as well as to the usefulness of knowledge on the brain in planning changes, motivating, conflict resolution, intergenerational communication, and building teams.

³⁵ R. Ohme, *Change in Management is Approaching*, 2015, <http://inemo.pl/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/THINKTANK-2015-Nadchodzi-zmiana-w-zarz%C4%85dzaniu.pdf> (accessed on 10 July 2018), p. 59.

second and the fourth of all are the basis for development this science in human resource management.

Neuromanagement is an example of an interdisciplinary field of study, which could emerge due to the development of technology enabling excellent progress in terms of brain activity imaging. Of course the research findings that are already known do not account for everything but the perspectives for development are promising. Although each research method has its limitations, these methods allow to get numerous answers to questions regarding brain correlates.

The development of neuroscience has cleared perception of the world of all outdated and inaccurate ideas of a rational homo economicus and provided a foundation for change of the paradigm towards an emotional-cognitive homo neuroeconomicus³⁶. Taking the above into consideration, the future of human resources management in an organisation is going to be based on recognizing individuality of employees, including their personal and developmental needs, as well as on acceptance of their co-deciding about themselves and the reality they operate in.

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³⁶ L. Wollenweber, *Neuromanagement. Schlüssel zum Erfolg von Manager, Mitarbeiter und Unternehmen*, 2012, http://www.coamax.de/tl_files/inhalt/bilder-blog/Neuromanagement.pdf (accessed on 15 July 2018).

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NEURO(ZARZĄDZANIE) PRZEZ PRYZMAT BADAŃ NAD MÓZGIEM

Główną tezę artykułu jest twierdzenie, iż wykorzystanie neuronauk w zarządzaniu zasobami ludzkimi stanowi dobry kierunek do skutecznego wykorzystywania potencjału pracownika. Współcześnie neuronauki stały się naukami interdyscyplinarnymi, w których fachowcy z różnych dziedzin wspólnie pracują nad badaniem skomplikowanego organu, jakim jest mózg. Podejmują próbę wyjaśnienia procesów myślowych, odczuć, emocji, procesu decyzyjnego. Rozwój technologii pozwolił na powstanie kilku istotnych metod neuroobrazowania, dzięki którym uzyskujemy odpowiedzi na klasyczne pytania zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi, szczególnie dotyczące motywów człowieka w podejmowaniu decyzji i dokonywaniu wyborów, przede wszystkim w nabywaniu kompetencji (motywacji do uczenia się). Źródłem odpowiednich rodzajów informacji o motywacji są różne obszary mózgu, a za połączenie informacji i nakierowanie motywacji na właściwy (w ocenie mózgu) cel odpowiadają przede wszystkim przyśrodkowe obszary kory przedczołowej. Artykuł zawiera prezentację wybranych wyników badań metod neuroobrazowania mózgu i ich wpływu na zmiany w zarządzaniu

organizacją, szczególnie w aspekcie zasobów ludzkich oraz informacje o potencjale neuroprzebieżników stymulujących motywację. W drugiej części artykułu autorka prezentuje autorski model uczenia się osób dorosłych oparty na założeniach neuronauki, który powstał jako wynik dwuletniej pracy Metodą Design Thinking, od fazy pomysłu do innowacji (produktu gotowego), poprzez etapy preinkubacji do inkubacji, w ramach których testowano prototypy na grupie badawczej.

Słowa kluczowe: neuronauka, neuroprzebieżniki, zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi, motywacja do działania.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.45

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROJECT BUDGETING IN FOUNDATIONS KEEPING SIMPLIFIED RECORDS OF REVENUES AND COSTS

The changes, which were implemented in recent years in the scope of keeping records of the business activity conducted by foundations and the related reporting, have resulted in partial harmonization of the widely understood obligatory reporting. However, the implementation of facilitations in this scope, above all in the form of simplified records of revenues and costs, results in ambivalent attitudes. On the one hand, they are an opportunity for the smallest foundations and those starting their business activity. On the other hand, however, they are largely based on tax law and their construction, compared to accounting books, significantly limits the possibility to generate useful information for management purposes. The presented in the article framework of project budgeting, which takes into account the aspects of keeping the said records, is a solution supporting management of foundations in a project (task) perspective. In particular, this issue is important for foundations starting their activity, for those with limited resources as well as those, which face difficulties in obtaining external financing. Therefore, the aim of the article is to present general concepts for budgeting projects for foundations keeping simplified records of revenues and costs. In the study, the author used the methods of induction, deduction and analysis. Importantly, simplified records may foster or hinder the foundations' development. The article provides a contribution to further work on the presented concept. Project budgeting is a tool of managerial accounting and its attributes are compatible with statutory and task-oriented character of activities of all foundations.

Keywords: project budgeting, NGO, foundation, simplified records of revenues and costs

1. INTRODUCTION

The changes, which were implemented in recent years in the scope of keeping records of the business activity conducted by foundations and the related reporting, have resulted in partial harmonization of the widely understood obligatory reporting. However, the implementation of facilitations in this scope, above all in the form of simplified records of revenues and costs, results in ambivalent attitudes. On the one hand, they are an opportunity for the smallest foundations and those starting their business activity. On the other hand, however, they are largely based on tax law and their construction, compared to accounting

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books, significantly limits the possibility to generate useful information for management purposes. In this context, the aim of the article is to present general assumptions of project budgeting for foundations keeping simplified records of revenues and costs. In the study, the author used the methods of induction, deduction and analysis.

2. THE RULES OF KEEPING SIMPLIFIED RECORDS OF REVENUES AND COSTS BY FOUNDATIONS

Foundations, as legal persons, have the obligation imposed by the rules of the Accounting Act² to maintain their books of account. What is more, in 2017 the said units were obliged to prepare financial statements for 2016 in accordance with Appendix 1 to the abovementioned Act (in the case of the units keeping accounting books without simplifications), Appendix 4 (in the case of micro-units) or with Appendix 5 (in the case of small units). However, in 2018, foundations keeping their accounting books in 2017 can follow Appendix 6, dedicated to non-governmental organizations. It should be underlined that these obligations can be a considerable burden for small foundations due to the lack of sufficient human and financial resources. This argument was partially taken into account by the legislator in 2015, which resulted in the introduction to the Accounting Act of article 2 item 5, providing the opportunity to keep simplified records of revenues and costs (hereinafter referred to as simplified records) by the units indicated in article 10a item 1 of the Act of 24 April 2003 on public benefit and volunteer work³. They are, in particular, non-governmental organizations, excluding share-holding companies, and associations of local government units meeting the following conditions:

- operate in the area of public tasks (specified in article 4 item 1 of this act),
- do not conduct business activity within the meaning of the Act on freedom of economic activity,
- do not have the status of a public benefit organization,
- generate revenues only from: non-profit-making public benefit activities from membership contributions, donations, bequests, inheritances, grants, subsidies, revenues from public donations; paid public benefit activity from sales of goods and services; sales; hiring or leasing assets; interest earned on bank accounts or accounts in credit unions maintained in relation to the conducted activity, including interest earned on term deposits and other forms of saving, safekeeping or investing on these accounts,
- in the year preceding the year of the choice of keeping simplified records of revenues and costs generated revenues only from the sources specified in point 4, in the amount not exceeding 100 000 PLN.

Importantly, the decision on keeping simplified records is made by the approving authority within the meaning of the Act on accounting – as a rule the Foundation Council. The manner and conditions of keeping simplified records are indicated in the Regulation of the Minister of Finance from 18 December 2015 on keeping simplified records of revenues and

² The Act of 29 September 1994 on Accounting (Journal of Laws 2018 item 395).

³ The Act of 24 April 2003 on public benefit and volunteer work (Journal of Laws 2016 no.0 item 1817 as amended).

costs by some non-governmental organizations and associations of local government units⁴. The regulation took the form of a synthetic document consisting of 10 pages, where first 6 pages include implementing rules, whereas 4 last pages – annexes with explanatory notes.

Pursuant to paragraph 2 of the discussed regulation, simplified records include sets of provisions and their sums within the framework of the four basic elements including:

- a summary of revenues and costs specified in annex 1, which shall list generated revenues including: non-profit-making and paid public benefit activity and other activities as well as tax deductible costs and non-deductible costs;
- a summary of cash flows specified in annex 2, which shall present tax-exempt income (revenue) broken down by spent and unspent,
- employees' payroll sheets – kept individually for each employee, who are paid by the taxpayer under employment relationships;
- a list of tangible and intangible assets related to the conducted activity.

Moreover, general provisions included in the regulation indicate that simplified records should be kept in Polish language and currency (also in the computerized system), fairly, accurately, legibly and indelibly on the basis of true and fair evidence. Paper version should be prepared in booklets and its cards should be numbered. In addition, it is obligatory to present: a tax year, characteristics of the data processing system and the system of protecting data and their sets, including accounting documents. However, foundations that maintain this form of records are exempted from the obligation to prepare accounting policy and annual financial statement. In conclusion, it can be indicated that there is a high degree of similarity between the provisions of the discussed regulation (under discussion) and the provisions of the Regulation of the Minister of Finance from 26 August 2003 concerning keeping a tax book of revenue and expenditure⁵. Both legal acts are anchored mainly in the tax law system and not in the balance sheet law.

Due to a short time that elapsed from the introduction of simplified records to practice, it is currently difficult to state reliably how many entities of the third sector made use of the possibility to use this form. It is also worth considering whether the discussed form of records is for the foundation a determinant that fosters or hinders realization of social objectives. Therefore, the author made the SWOT analysis of keeping simplified records by foundations:

1. Strengths – optionality of the choice, simplicity of records, reduction of costs of keeping the records, time saving, no obligation to keep books of account (including the preparation of accounting policy and annual financial statements), the possibility of using the available resources for other purposes.
2. Weaknesses – being anchored in the provisions of tax law (there are discrepancies from the balance sheet law), potential costs of changes, limited information usefulness of the records for managers, lack of adjustment of simplified records to the task-oriented activities of the foundation.

⁴ Regulation of the Minister of Finance from 18 December 2015 on keeping simplified records of revenues and costs by some non-governmental organizations and associations of local government units (Journal of Laws 2015, item 2178 as amended).

⁵ Regulation of the Minister of Finance from 26 August 2003 r. concerning keeping a tax book of revenue and (Journal of Laws 2017, item 728).

3. Opportunities – development of the NGO sector, elimination of the basic barriers preventing from opening or functioning of smaller foundations, savings, boosting competitiveness in the third sector.
4. Threats – reduced transparency of economic and financial standing of the foundation, reduction of information usefulness for external environment, weakening of trust and relationships, risk of fraud, limitation of access to external financing.

In conclusion, simplified records may be a determinant that fosters or hinders carrying out activities by the foundation. The decision to keep this type of records is of a strategic character and should be made on the basis of the useful information about the mission, vision and the assumed objectives. It is likely to bring benefits to small foundations and those starting up activities, whereas for bigger foundations, raising external funds and where the emphasis is placed on transparency as well as true and fair view, it may constitute a significant barrier.

3. ASPECTS OF PROJECT BUDGETING IN FOUNDATIONS KEEPING SIMPLIFIED RECORDS

Taking into account the aim of the article, further considerations will relate to the foundations keeping solely simplified records. Such formulated objective results from the supporting argument that the adopted form of records significantly determines the possibilities of using management accounting. Books of account, as the most multidimensional and informationally useful⁶ system, provide a better basis to implement its tools, whereas simplified records may be a significant barrier on account of a range of limitations and solutions adopted from the tax system. Therefore, there is a need to present a tool, which corresponds to the character of activities realized by foundations. Project budgeting allows for comprehensive management of the activities both *ex ante* (planning) and *ex post* (control and settlement). Theoretical considerations were omitted in the article due to its applicational character⁷.

Moreover, the discussed tool may significantly reduce the phenomenon of information asymmetry, which manifests itself in the form of different usefulness of the information for its various recipients in the foundation's environment. In the internal aspect, it refers mainly to the managers of foundations, who will benefit from the solutions enabling them to obtain useful information on individual projects as they will help them increase the level of their managerial consciousness and, as a result, manage more effectively. In the external aspect, however, it refers mainly to the entities providing financing both at the stage of application

⁶ Cf.: B. Sadowska, *Activity-based budget in self-governmental practice*, Accountancy, No. 9, p. 7–10, The Accountants Association in Poland, Warsaw 2015; B. Sadowska, *Tools of financial accounting of the State Forests in the scope of satisfying information needs of the users of public, private and non-governmental sector in the concept of sustainable development of forest management.*, Acta Scientiarum Polonorum. Silvarum Colendarum Ratio et Industria Lignaria, Vol. 14, No. 2, Publishing house of the Faculty of Forestry of the University of Life Sciences in Poznań 2015.

⁷ More about project management in: F. Harrison, D. Lock, *Advanced Project Management: A Structured Approach*, fourth edition, Gower 2004; H. Kerzner, *Project Management: A Systems Approach to Planning, Scheduling and Controlling*, twelfth edition, Wiley 2017. More about the role of project budgeting in the system of project management in: M. Łada, A. Kozarkiewicz, *Management accounting and project controlling*, Warsaw 2007; M. Klinowski, *Projects-oriented management accounting*, CeDeWu, Warsaw 2010.

for funds and at the stage of their settlement. Increasing the level of realizing external information function when using project budgeting with the limited information usefulness of simplified records should result in building long-lasting and mature relationship ensuring further forms of financing in the future. Moreover, it may reduce the risk of a number of mistakes in the submitted applications which, as a rule, should specify the completion date for the task, its costs, people engaged, set objectives etc. Discrepancies between the declared plan and its implementation may result in the necessity to reimburse the funds and, in addition, to pay the penalties for late payment. Such a situation undoubtedly weakens already developed relationships, reducing the chance to receive financing again in the future for further tasks.

In order to synthetically present the application aspects of projects budgeting in the foundations keeping simplified records, the author made the SWOT analysis (similarly as in the previous part of the article):

1. Strengths – increasing usefulness of generated information, the foundation of increasing managerial consciousness and more effective management, reduction of the phenomenon of information asymmetry, basis for more transparent reporting, reduction of a number of dysfunctions (e.g. misunderstanding of the project, negligence of the priority parameter of a given project, erroneous planning etc.).
2. Weaknesses – restricted information usefulness of simplified records, time- and money-consuming implementation and use, disregard for the need for change, personal goals, obsessions and excuses, level of aspiration, aversion to budgeting, the lack of delegated powers and responsibility, non-adapted motivation system, the lack of support and training.
3. Opportunities – increased usefulness of information for external environment, increased trust and developing relationships, reduction of fraud, ensuring fixed external forms of financing, increased social awareness and interest concerning the third sector.
4. Threats – rapidly changing rules of law, including balance sheet and tax law, activity and position of large foundations and other non-governmental organizations, unfavorable political decisions concerning NGOs.

In conclusion, the analyzed strengths and opportunities considerably outweigh weaknesses and threats resulting from the use of project budgeting in the discussed entity. A significant determinant in this area is the level of managerial consciousness of the foundations' managers resulting from the recognized need to possess adequate useful information for internal and external environment. On account of the fact that simplified records provide information only about two types of revenue (from non-profit-making and paid public benefit activities) and two types of costs (tax deductible costs and non-deductible costs), the synthetic presentation of general assumptions of the project budgeting concept, taking into account the identified determinants, seems to be a reasonable action described in the objectives of the article.

4. FRAMEWORK OF PROJECT BUDGETING FOR FOUNDATIONS KEEPING SIMPLIFIED RECORDS

One of the fundamental challenges of a financial nature for the foundations' managers is to make a clear distinction between revenues from non-profit-making public benefit activities, paid public benefit activities and business activity. The most significant threats include the lack of awareness of conducting business activity and failure to inform relevant bodies (in particular the National Court Register). The author will not discuss them on account of the fact that simplified records is dedicated to foundations, which do not conduct business activity. However, in accordance with the rules of law, revenues from paid public benefit activity for a particular task (project) should be balanced with the costs of their realization, e.g. finished goods should not be sold at the price exceeding the production cost. In the case of realized tasks (projects) it is a difficult undertaking due to the fact that the actual costs, documented usually with external evidence, may be higher or lower which, in the second case, results in generating profit from the given task (project).

Formulation of framework for the concept being the subject of the article should be preceded by the identification of conditions of exogenous and endogenous nature. On account of the limited size of the article, the indicated issue will be discussed in another elaboration. At the same time, it is desirable to indicate the basic assumptions of the concept:

- it is developed for the foundations keeping (and complying with the conditions of) simplified records,
- it is created for the project in the area of the paid public benefit activity,
- it should take into consideration cost structure included in simplified records, i.e. tax deductible and non-deductible costs,
- it is based on the relationship between costs and the object (project),
- it is based on the traditional approach do project management.

The first assumption results from the set objective, whereas the second and the third ones are related to the earlier identified need to settle revenues “to zero” with tax deductible costs within the framework of a given task (project). The fourth assumption postulates identification of direct costs of a project – those that can be directly attributed to the project, and indirect costs, which are settled for all projects realized by the foundation. They result from the resources involved not only in the given project of the paid public benefit activity, but also in the remaining activity of the foundation. There is also a possibility to optionally identify variable costs of the project – those, which would not be generated if the project was not realized as well as fixed costs incurred by irrespective of whether the project is or is not implemented. However, such a presentation of costs requires additional preparatory work and should be realized above all by foundations, which had already used the elements of management accounting. The structure of the created concept is presented in figure 1.

A synthetic description of the elements of the structure presented in figure 1:

1. Work breakdown structure or scheduling allow the planning of project scope consisting, above all, in specifying activities necessary for the realization of the set objective and the structure of activities.
2. Network diagram / Gantt chart / Milestones allow planning of the course of a project in a given time, in particular: in natural units of time (weeks, quarters), setting time limits expressed in calendar days, specification of the start-up date for the project and date of its completion – estimating the project duration.

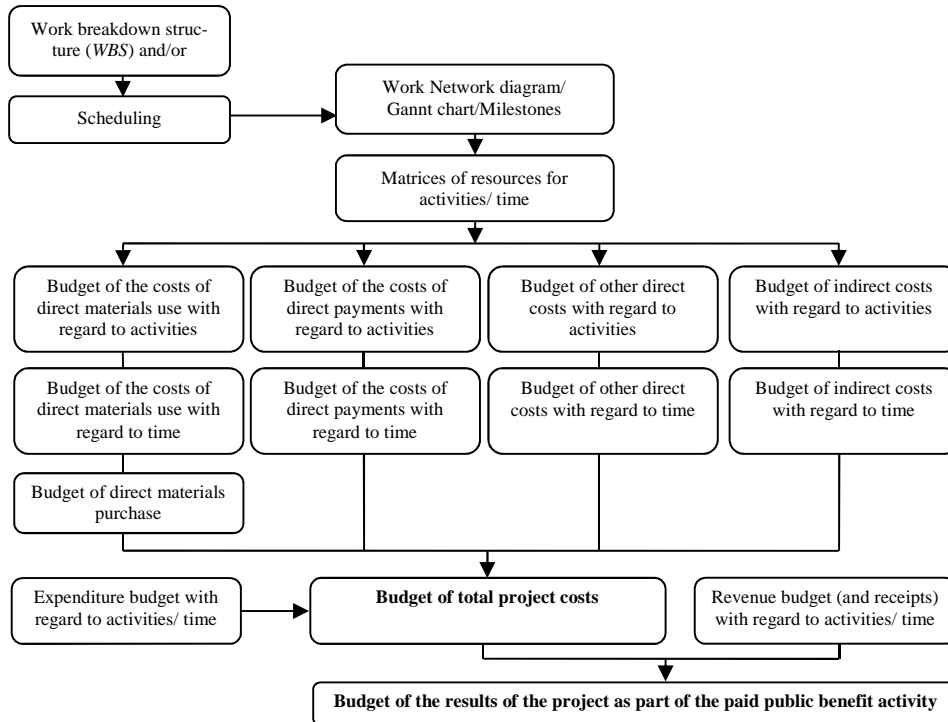


Figure 1. Structure of project budgeting concept in foundations

Source: author's own elaboration.

3. Matrices of resources for activities / time matrices constitute the effect of quantitative planning of resources required to implement specific activities and their minimum amount in terms of activities and time. They are two-dimensional tables including data concerning the planned amount of resources presented with regard to: defined activities and specified time. On account of the proposed structure of the cost budget, it is postulated to identify the following groups of resources: materials, work, fixed assets and external services.
4. Budget of the costs of direct materials use with regard to activities / time. It is used to present costs of the materials, which can be attributed only to a given project. It is postulated to identify basic groups of materials with the indication of their costs and prices.
5. Budget of direct materials purchase. It complements the budget of the costs of direct materials use and allows planning of the need for basic groups of materials. It is postulated to include the following: initial and final stocks, the planned consumption and volume of purchase.
6. Budget of the costs of direct payments with regard to activities / time. It presents planned costs of remunerations, which can be directly assigned to a given project. It

is postulated to identify principal people or groups of people taking into consideration their workload and rates.

7. Budget of other direct costs with regard to activities / time. It is used in the case of identifying resources generating direct costs being not part of the catalogue of the costs of direct materials use and the costs of direct payments. The system is the same.
8. Budget of indirect costs with regard to activities / time. It presents planned indirect costs of the project. It is used for resources distributed among different projects. The example can be a fixed asset / equipment, regular external services and salaries.
9. Budget of total project costs. It collects synthetic data from all budgets of direct costs and the budget of indirect costs. It helps to determine total direct and indirect costs affecting finally the total costs of the project.
10. Expenditure budget with regard to activities / time. It presents cash data and is used in the case of considerable time lag between the time of cost generation and incurred expenditure. It is postulated in the case of creating revenue budget and when there are considerable unspent costs and expenses not entailing costs.
11. Revenue budget. It presents information about planned revenue from paid public benefit activities within the framework of the realized project. There is also a possibility to optionally present them in cash data (revenue budget).
12. Budget of the results of the project as part of the paid public benefit activity. It collects information from the budgets discussed above, generating information about the possibility to balance indirect and direct costs with the revenue from the paid public benefit activity.

It is postulated that the discussed budgets should be built both in relation to the activities specified in the scope of the project, and to the planned time. Such an approach allows more effective management of all key parameters of the project. Moreover, on account of the format of the costs in simplified records, it seems reasonable at least to arrange the sums of the given costs according to tax deductible costs and non-deductible costs.

5. CONCLUSION

The outlined assumptions of the project budgeting concept, which takes into consideration the aspects of keeping simplified records, present a solution allowing more complex approach to effective management of foundations in a project (task) perspective. In particular, this issue is important for foundations starting their activity, for those with limited resources as well as those, which face difficulties in obtaining external financing. Importantly, simplified records may foster or hinder the foundations' development. The aim of the article was to present the framework of project budgeting for foundations keeping the said records. The set objective was realized with the use of methods indicated in the introduction. The article provides a contribution to further work on the presented concept. Project budgeting is a tool of managerial accounting and its attributes are compatible with statutory and task-oriented character of activities of all foundations.

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7. Sadowska B., *Tools of financial accounting of the State Forests in the scope of satisfying information needs of the users of public, private and non-governmental sector in the concept of sustainable development of forest management.*, Acta Scientiarum Polonorum. Silvarum Colendarum Ratio et Industria Lignaria, Vol. 14, No. 2, Publishing house of the Faculty of Forestry of the University of Life Sciences in Poznań 2015.
8. Sadowska B., *Activity-based budget in self-governmental practice*, Accountancy, No. 9, The Accountants Association in Poland, Warsaw 2015.
9. The Act of 24 April 2003 on public benefit and volunteer work (Journal of Laws 2016 no.0 item 1817 as amended).
10. The Act of 29 September 1994 on Accounting (Journal of Laws 2018 item 395).

**ZAŁOŻENIA KONCEPCYJNE BUDŻETOWANIA PROJEKTÓW
W FUNDACJACH PROWADZĄCYCH UPROSZCZONĄ
EWIDENCJĘ PRZYCHODÓW I KOSZTÓW**

Zmiany, które przez ostatnie lata zostały wprowadzone w zakresie obowiązków ewidencjonowania działalności realizowanej przez fundacje oraz związanej z tym sprawozdawczości skutkują częściową harmonizacją szeroko pojętego obligatoryjnego raportowania. Wdrożenie ułatwień w tym obszarze, przede wszystkim w postaci uproszczonej ewidencji przychodów i kosztów, powoduje natomiast ambiwalentne odczucia. Z jednej bowiem strony stanowią szansę dla najmniejszych fundacji oraz tych rozpoczynających działalność, z drugiej zaś strony oparte są w dużej części na prawie podatkowym, a ich konstrukcja, w porównaniu do ksiąg rachunkowych, istotnie ogranicza możliwość generowania użytecznej informacji na potrzeby zarządcze. Przedstawione w artykule ramy koncepcji budżetowania projektów uwzględniającej aspekty prowadzenia wskazanej ewidencji to rozwiązanie wspierające zarządzanie fundacjami w perspektywie projektowej (zadaniowej). W szczególności zagadnienie to jest istotne dla fundacji rozpoczynających działalność, o ograniczonych zasobach oraz tych, które borykają się z trudnościami w pozyskaniu zewnętrznego finansowania. Celem artykułu jest więc zaprezentowanie ogólnych założeń koncepcji budżetowania projektów dla fundacji w warunkach stosowania omawianej ewidencji z uwzględnieniem tezy, iż realizowana forma

ewidencji działalności w istotnym stopniu determinuje możliwości stosowania rachunkowości zarządczej. W pracy wykorzystano metody: indukcji, dedukcji oraz analizy. Artykuł stanowi przyczynek do dalszych prac na przedstawioną koncepcją. Budżetowanie projektów stanowi bowiem narzędzie rachunkowości zarządczej, którego atrybuty są zbieżne z ustawowym – zadaniowym charakterem działalności wszystkich fundacji.

Słowa kluczowe: budżetowanie projektów, NGO, fundacja, uproszczona ewidencja przychodów i kosztów.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.46

Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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GOVERNMENT RELATIONS КАК СОВРЕМЕННАЯ ФОРМА ПОЛИТИЧЕСКОГО МАРКЕТИНГА В УКРАИНЕ

Статья посвящена анализу теоретических и практических аспектов внедрения механизмов Government Relations (GR) в систему политического маркетинга в Украине. GR рассматривается в сравнении с лоббизмом, Public Relations и Public Affairs как элементами политического маркетинга. В статье отмечено, что GR создает новые возможности политического маркетинга и обеспечения согласования интересов власти, бизнеса и гражданского общества в Украине. В этом смысле GR является важным механизмом для демократического развития страны, поскольку дает возможность бизнесу и институтам гражданского общества влиять на формирование архитектуры власти.

В статье делается вывод, что GR в Украине является важным инструментом диалога государства и бизнеса, от которого зависят: качество государственного управления, условия конкуренции, развитие бизнеса в целом. Такой диалог требует законодательной защиты и механизмов принятия на его основе обязательных для всех сторон решений. Бизнес, ориентированный на перспективу, прежде всего ожидает от власти стабильных правил игры и соблюдения их всеми игроками.

В настоящее время в Украине наступило соответствующее время, чтобы объединить усилия бизнеса и государства для формирования цивилизованного рынка GR-услуг на поле политического маркетинга. Также актуальной стала необходимость институализации профессии «GR-специалист», создание современного информационного пространства для обмена мнениями между специалистами GR и продвижения цивилизованных GR-технологий в корпоративную политику. В совокупности с другими демократическими преобразованиями, это может способствовать уменьшению коррупционной составляющей во взаимодействии власти и бизнеса в Украине.

Ключевые слова: Government Relations, Public Relations, Public Affairs, политический маркетинг в Украине, взаимодействие власти и бизнеса в Украине.

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1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

«Government relations» (GR) является новейшей формой взаимодействия между группами интересов, представленными преимущественно структурами бизнеса, и властью. Вместе с хорошо известными Public Relations (PR), лоббизмом и Public Affairs (PA), GR являются корректными и открытым методом коммуникации, которая является важной для успешного демократического развития общества. Каждая группа интересов имеет право быть услышанной, влиять на решения власти, открыто говорить о своих предложениях и потребностях. При этом GR не прихоть только для крупного бизнеса и олигархов, его механизмы и способы используют и малые профильные ассоциации, и профсоюзы, и общественные организации, и национальные и религиозные сообщества. В настоящее время GR становится все более востребованной сферой деятельности и в Украине. Создана Украинская ассоциация профессионалов в сфере GR, которая проводит международные конференции и форумы по этим вопросам².

Современный этап изучения GR отличается большим вниманием к рассмотрению особенностей влияния бизнеса и институтов гражданского общества (в том числе и глобального гражданского общества) на политические институты национальных государств. Среди исследователей проблематики GR на Западе выделяются работы Г. Пила, К. Бейли, Б. Кейна³, Л. Лессига⁴, К. Малоуни⁵, С. Дели⁶, Д. Уаттс⁷.

Первые попытки исследования и преподавания GR на постсоветском пространстве были осуществлены в Санкт-Петербургском университете, где с 2012 года существует соответствующая кафедра и идет подготовка бакалавров и магистров по специальности GR. Здесь же в 2013 году была издана книга «GR: теория и практика»⁸ и, в более полной версии, в 2015 году под названием «GR и лоббизм: теория и технологии»⁹.

В Украине еще недостаточно литературы, теоретических разработок и рекомендаций, касающихся политического маркетинга и в частности GR как его части. Это приводит к тому, что любой исследователь данного феномена может столкнуться с различными точками зрения и подходами. Целью этой статьи является рассмотрение GR в плоскости политического маркетинга. Такой подход актуализируется

² Українська асоціація професіоналів у сфері GR і лобістів – Режим доступу: <http://grukraine.com.ua/gr/>

³ G. Peele, C.J. Bailey, B. Cain, *Developments in American Politics* / G. Peele, C.J. Bailey, B. Cain // 6th edition. – New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2010.

⁴ L. Lessig, *Free culture: how big media uses technology and the law to lock down culture and control creativity*. – New York: Penguin Press, 2004.

⁵ K. Maloney, *Re-Thinking Public Relations: PR Propaganda and Democracy*. – New York: Routledge, 2006.

⁶ S. Daly, *For the Common Good? The Changing Role of Civil Society in the UK and Ireland* / S. Daly. – London: Carnegie UK Trust, 2006.

⁷ D. Watts, *Pressure Groups* / D. Watts. – Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2007.

⁸ И.Е. Минтусов, *GR: теория и практика: учебник* / под ред. И.Е. Минтусов, О.Г. Филатова – СПб.: Изд-во СПб.ун-та, 2013. – 180 с.

⁹ Ачкасова В. А. GR и лоббизм: теория и технологии: учебник и практикум для бакалаврата и магистратуры / В.А. Ачкасова [и др.]; под ред. В.А. Ачкасовой, И.Е. Минтусова. – М.: Издательство Юрайт, 2015. – 315 с.

тем, что в ближайшее время Украина, в связи с выборами Президента Украины и после этого - Верховной Рады Украины, станет полем активного применением всего арсенала методов GR как составной части политического маркетинга.

Поэтому перед тем как перейти к рассмотрению непосредственно технологии GR, следует определиться с пониманием термина "политический маркетинг".

Одно из наиболее удачных, на наш взгляд, определений политического маркетинга дает В. Бебик. Он определяет его как совокупность форм, методов и технологий исследования, проектирование, регулирования и воплощение в социально-политическую практику тех или иных установок общественного сознания с целью завоевания и удержания контроля над рынком власти¹⁰. Другими словами, сущность маркетингового подхода в политике заключается прежде всего в отождествлении политического процесса с рынком. Цивилизованный политический рынок предполагает куплю-продажу власти и определенных имиджей субъектов политики (партий, кандидатов и т.д.).

Таким образом, автор выделяет сам процесс покупки-продажи власти и подчеркивает возможность осуществления этого акта в процессе политических выборов в цивилизованной форме. Однако, на наш взгляд, не учитывается тот аспект рыночных отношений, что главным покупателем и продавцом на политическом рынке является бизнес.

Мы полагаем, что определяющим фактором политического маркетинга как рыночного явления является процесс обмена. В этой связи представляется более обоснованной позиция А. Гугнина, который определяет политический маркетинг как общественный и управленческий процесс создания, предложения и обмена ценностей между участниками политического рынка. Данное определение не сводит политический маркетинг к комплексу технологий деятельности на политическом рынке, но понимает его как процесс, завершением которого является обмен между участниками этого рынка. При этом именно теория обмена может давать наиболее приглядные для объяснения и анализа политического маркетинга инструменты. Автор придерживается точки зрения, что политический маркетинг – это совокупность экономических, организационных и исследовательских действий, направленных на удовлетворение потребностей политического рынка. Это деятельность, целью которой являются создание политического продукта, определение его цены, каналов распределения и средств продвижения на рынок. Ее цель – успех обмена, приносящего удовлетворение обеим сторонам¹¹.

Таким образом, в условиях цивилизованного соревнования за право управлять политической сферой общества под политическим маркетингом мы будем понимать совокупность форм, методов и технологий регулирования и проектирования обмена и контроля на рынке политической власти.

Цель исследования заключается в том, чтобы, учитывая реальность возрастание роли GR и необходимости учета такой деятельности в политическом маркетинге, провести сравнительный анализ GR с лоббизмом, publicrelations (PR) и publicaffairs

¹⁰ В.М. Бебик, *Базові засади політології: історія, теорія, методологія, практика*. – К.: МАУП, 2000. – С. 147

¹¹ А.М. Гугнин, *Политический маркетинг (Сущность и генезис)* / А.М. Гугнин // *Философия и общество*. – Выпуск №2 – 2016 – С.84-89.

(РА), показать различия между ними и важность GR для демократического развития Украины.

2. ИЗЛОЖЕНИЕ ОСНОВНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

Появление и актуализация GR как сферы социального взаимодействия объясняется двумя взаимосвязанными процессами.

Во-первых, усложнение внутренней структуры современных обществ, сопровождается появлением множества партикулярных интересов и формированием на их основе различных групп интересов.

Во-вторых, усиление государственного вмешательства во все сферы жизни общества, расширение законодательной и административной активности органов власти, стала непосредственно затрагивать интересы бизнеса и других групп интересов¹². На этой основе сформировалась проблематика GR, то есть взаимодействия групп интересов с органами публичной власти, влияния групп интересов на формирование государственной политики и деятельности органов местного самоуправления.

Несмотря на то, что GR, как и лоббизм, все больше профессионализируются, в теоретико-методологическом плане в этих сферах нередко наблюдается подмена понятий: лоббизм отождествляется или противопоставляется GR и другим, объединенным с данной деятельностью явлениям, таким как PR и РА.

Анализ научной литературы и информации в медиа-пространстве свидетельствуют о том, что феномен GR существует в окружении смежных понятий и находится с ними в различных отношениях логического включения и подчинения, а следовательно, не может трактоваться однозначно¹³. Несмотря на то, что многие считают понятие «GR» и «лоббизм» идентичными, а остальные – что одно включает другое, есть четкие различия между ними. Ниже приведены несколько наиболее распространенных подходов к определению GR:

- 1) GR – это сфера общего менеджмента, а лоббизм – это лишь инструмент и технология¹⁴;
- 2) GR – это деятельность специально уполномоченных сотрудников больших коммерческих структур (GR-специалистов) по сопровождению деятельности компании в политической среде «государственная система управления» в целом, которая включает все ветви государственной и муниципальной власти¹⁵;
- 3) GR – это применение коммуникативных технологий индивидами или социальными институтами для влияния на правительственные решения

¹² У. Аги, Г. Кэмерон, Ф. Олт, Уилкокс Д. *Самое главное в PR* / У. Аги, Г. Кэмерон, Ф. Олт, Д. Уилкокс. – СПб.: Питер, 2004. – с. 52

¹³ И. Парух, *GR по-украински* // Економічна правда. – Режим доступа: lobbying.com.ua/publ/gr_po_ukrain-ski/20-1-0-38.

¹⁴ Д. Султанов, *Лоббизм: как это делается в России*. – Режим доступа: ladno.ru/technology/2068.html

¹⁵ П. Толстых, *Лоббизм, Government Relations (GR) и PublicAffairs (PA): к истокам понятий* – Режим доступа: lobbying.ru/index.php?article_id=1451.

местного, регионального, национального или интернационального уровней или их комбинаций¹⁶;

- 4) GR – сознательная организация коммуникации, установления эффективных коммуникаций с органами государственной власти¹⁷;
- 5) GR – это связи с государством, особая организация взаимодействия негосударственных структур (ассоциаций гражданского общества, бизнеса) с государством для воздействия на власть с целью согласования интересов и принятия эффективных решений¹⁸.

Приведенные выше определения свидетельствуют о том, что GR – многоаспектная (прежде всего коммуникативная) деятельность негосударственных структур, направленная на осуществление взаимодействия с органами публичной власти.

В российском дискурсе встречается и несколько иная точка зрения на GR. Он рассматривается как PR государственных структур, то есть субъектом GR-процесса выступают органы государственной власти, а указанный вид связей с общественностью можно обозначить как государственный PR¹⁹. На наш взгляд, такая точка связана с доминирующей в российской общественной науке парадигмой об укреплении позиций государства в обществе и преимуществом государственного управления над другими формами общественного взаимодействия формирующими гражданское общество²⁰.

Можно согласиться с авторами, которые определяют GR как деятельность по выстраиванию отношений между различными общественными группами (бизнес-структурами, профессиональными союзами, общественными организациями и др.) и публичной властью. Такая деятельность включает сбор и обработку информации о деятельности органов власти, подготовку и распространение информации о позиции соответствующих групп давления, их влияние на процессы принятия политических и административных решений²¹.

Как уже отмечалось, существуют проблемы с понятийным полем GR и отличием его от других, достаточно близких по смыслу понятий. Прежде всего это касается дистанцирования от лоббистской деятельности. Некоторые авторы рассматривают понятие «GR» и «лоббизм» как идентичные. Другие считают, что одно понятие

¹⁶ C.S. Mack *Business, Politics, and the Practice of Government Relations*. Westport: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1997. – P. 4.

¹⁷ А.Н. Чумиков, *Актуальные связи с общественностью*. / А.Н. Чумиков, М.П. Бочаров. – М.: Дело, 2009. – С. 45.

¹⁸ Л.В. Сморгун, *GR-связи с государством: теория, практика и механизмы взаимодействия бизнеса и гражданского общества* / Л.В. Сморгун, Л.Н. Тимофеевой. М.: РОССПЭН, 2012. – С.12

¹⁹ Ю. Михайлов, *М. Связи с общественностью по-русски* / Ю.М. Михайлов. – М.: Бератор, 2007. – С. 6

²⁰ Л.А. Гайнутдинова, *От «ослабления государства» к «государственному строительству»: теоретический разворот* / Л.А. Гайнутдинова // *Аспекти публичного управления*. – 2015. – № 10. – С. 20; Л.А. Гайнутдинова, *Гражданское общество и государство в эпоху модернизации* / Л.А. Гайнутдинова // *Вестник Российского университета дружбы народов*. Серия: Политология. – 2009. – № 4. – С. 85.

²¹ У. Аги, Г. Кэмерон, Ф. Олт, *Уилкоккс Д. Самое главное в PR* / У. Аги, Г. Кэмерон, Ф. Олт, Д. Уилкоккс. – СПб.: Питер, 2004. – С. 362-363

включает другое. Третьи рассматривают лоббистскую деятельность как технологическую часть GR²².

3. GR И ЛОББИЗМ

Между тем под GR необходимо понимать отношения общественных субъектов с органами публичной власти, а под лоббизмом – решение тех или иных вопросов в пользу заинтересованных групп в органах власти, как государственных так и местного самоуправления. Иными словами, специалисты в области GR строят мост между властью и бизнесом (или институтами гражданского общества), по которому движутся лоббисты для решения вопросов с властями. Лоббисты владеют механизмами принятия решений в различных властных структурах и должны знать конкретные процедуры принятия решений на том или ином уровне публичной власти. В отличие от этого, GR-специалисты обладают умением выстраивать доверительные отношения с властью с помощью технологий PR и PA, к которым можно отнести: медиа рилейшнз, участие в обсуждении органами государственной власти социальноважных вопросов, технологии реализации программ корпоративной социальной ответственности, форсайт-проекты, фандрайзинг, спонсорские программы, участие в совещательных и экспертных советах и тому подобное. Для специалиста по GR является обязательным владение коммуникативными навыками и умение внести необходимые вопросы в повестку дня власти.

Специалисту в области GR, в отличие от лоббиста, не обязательно знать детали принятия закона, постановления и т. п. Его главная задача –выстраивание позитивных отношений с властью. Он должен также уметь подобрать и организовать профессиональных лоббистов, которые обладают необходимыми для решения того или иного вопроса профессиональными компетенциями и личностными характеристиками.

Очевидным образом различаются и режимы работы в GR и лоббизме. GR-специалист, как правило, работает в структуре компании, занимаясь разработкой и реализацией ее стратегии в отношении органов власти. В то же время лоббист привлекается на проектной основе за гонорар и является внешним по отношению к организации профессионалом. Некоторые авторы отмечают, что лоббирование является чаще единичным проектом, хотя и может подразумевать целую систему мероприятий. В то же время GR это системная работа по изучению и мониторингу действий чиновников, а также донесения позиции групп интересов по тому или иному вопросу до органов публичной власти²³.

Следует также отметить, что, в отличие от традиционных форм лоббизма, тесно связанных с межличностным взаимодействием с политиками и государственными служащими, GR имеет целый ряд стратегических преимуществ.

²² Д.П. Гавр, *Основы теории коммуникации: учеб.пособ* / Д.П. Гавр. – СПб.: Питер, 2011 – с. 23; Кривоносов А.Д. *Основы теории связей с общественностью* / А.Д. Кривоносов, О.Г. Филатова, М.А. Шишкина. – СПб.: Питер, 2011. – С.84; Л.В. Сморгунов, *GR-связи с государством: теория, практика и механизмы взаимодействия бизнеса и гражданского общества* / Л.В. Сморгунова, Л.Н. Тимофеевой. М.: РОССПЭН, 2012. – С. 63-64.

²³ А.Б. Шатилов, *GR для эффективного бизнеса* / А.Б. Шатилов, А.С. Никитин. – М.: ФОРУМ, 2011. –С. 17.

Во-первых, в общественном сознании в Украине лоббизм практически стал синонимом коррупции, поскольку контакты заинтересованных лиц с представителями политического истеблишмента происходят кулуарно. Неявность этого процесса ведет к эффекту негативного восприятия в социальной сознания.

Во-вторых, лоббизм приводит к зависимости субъектов лоббирования от персоналий во властных структурах, от их субъективных предпочтений и пожеланий. Это негативным образом сказывается на долгосрочном планировании, а также ставит участников рынка в неравное положение, когда, например, государственные заказы распределяются в пользу одного из участников.

В-третьих, особенностью GR является постоянное использование инновационных коммуникативных технологий, пришедших с форсайта, маркетинга, PR и электоральных кампаний.

В-четвертых, важным обстоятельством, которое вызвало развитие современных форм GR, стала проблема долгосрочности выполнения принятых органами публичной власти решений. Общественная поддержка, публичное освещение и коалиционная политика делают необратимыми решения, полученные в результате GR, тогда как лоббистские усилия могут быть дезавуированы через некоторое время после принятия соответствующих решений.

Важно подчеркнуть, что понятие «лоббизм» гораздо старше, чем «GR». Если о лоббизме, как важном институте демократической политической системы, можно говорить уже с XIX в., то GR появляется значительно позже – в 70-гг. XX века в США и 80-х. в Европе. Толчком для его возникновения стал прежде всего рост внимания общественности и СМИ к деятельности бизнес-корпораций. В это время изменилось публичное пространство, в котором межсекторальная коммуникация заняла центральное место.

Тогда в северо-американской неокорпоративной среде зародилось еще одно близкое к лоббизму понятие – Issues Management (решение проблемных вопросов) как своеобразный отклик на проблемы в формировании публичной политики в пользу активистских групп. В 1968-1972 гг. Конгресс США принял ряд важных законов, касающихся защиты экологии, охраны труда, охраны здоровья и защиты прав потребителей. Наряду с изменением влияния ведущих корпораций на формирование государственной политики возросло недоверие к корпорациям и их политике среди населения. Старые лоббистские приемы начали давать сбой. Уже недостаточно было оплатить лоббиста, чтобы решить вопрос по «интересному» для бизнес-корпорации законопректу. Бизнесу потребовалась новая модель влияния на формирование публичной политики. Именно тогда корпорации начали брать на вооружение методы, которые ранее считались прерогативой активистских групп: создание коалиций, grassroots-кампании, работа с местными общинами.

Эта новая форма неокорпоративной активности стала "предупредительным" процессом в стратегическом управлении, который помогает корпорациям выявлять и отвечать на новые тенденции или изменения в социально-политической среде²⁴.

²⁴ R.L. Heath, *A rhetorical theory approach to issues management* / In C.H. Botan and V. Hazleton (Eds.) // *Public relations theory II*. – Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2006. – P. 69.

4. GR В ОБЩЕСТВЕННЫХ ОТНОШЕНИЯХ

Рассматривая концептуальные основы GR, также необходимо рассмотреть и роль общественных отношений, обозначаемых Public Affairs (PA). Действительно, термин «лоббизм» нагружен негативным содержанием и его редко заменяют термином PR, который в этом смысле используется как эвфемизм в ряде контекстов, где термины «лоббизм» или «PR» имеют негативную коннотацию и ассоциируются с «подковерными играми» и скандалами.

Опять же существуют различные определения PA. Одни считают, что PA помогает бизнесу развивать и поддерживать взаимовыгодные отношения с различными представителями общественности, от которых зависит не только состояние государственной политики, но и будущее бизнеса²⁵. Другие видят PA как более узкую область связей с общественностью, которая сводится к коммуникациям с представителями публичной власти и другими факторами, определяющими публичную политику²⁶. То есть они рассматривают PA как специализированную практическую отрасль внутри PR, которая касается отношений, включенных в развитие публичной политики, законодательства и управления, влияющих на организации, их интересы и действия. Иными словами, если в PR имеется в виду выстраивание отношений со всеми лидерами общественного мнения, то PA имеет целью налаживания отношений только с теми из них, кто так или иначе вовлечены в процессы публичной политики, общественного дискурса и т.п.²⁷

Также важно провести четкое разграничение GR и PR. Последний термин означает управленческую коммуникативную деятельность (совокупность социальных практик), направленную на оптимизацию взаимодействий социального субъекта со значимыми сегментами социальной среды²⁸. GR не может рассматриваться как вид PR-деятельности, поскольку непосредственно направлен на коммуникативное взаимодействие структур бизнеса и гражданского общества с органами публичной власти – государства и местного самоуправления, и результатом GR-деятельности являются хорошо налаженные отношения между ними. Иными словами, GR, в отличие от PR, заострен непосредственно на регулирование отношений социальных субъектов с органами власти в рамках политического маркетинга.

Еще раз подчеркнем, что главную роль в организации GR играет бизнес. Публичная власть в лице органов государства и местного самоуправления заинтересована в развитии бизнеса как основы экономического процветания страны и ее территорий, а сам бизнес ощутимо зависит от органов власти, отношение к нему общественности, сотрудничества на всех уровнях общества. Именно GR обеспечивает направление усилий бизнеса на развитие конкуренции как на внутренних

²⁵ J.L. Paluszek, Editorial note: Defining terms // Practical public affairs in an era of change: A communications guide for business, government, and college / ed. L.B. Dennis. Lanham, MD: University Press of America, 1995. – P. 41.

²⁶ J.E. Grunig & N.J. Hillsdale, *Communication, public relations, and effective organizations: An overview of the book* // Excellence in public relations and communication management / S. ed. J.E. Grunig.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1992. – P. 18.

²⁷ П. Толстых, *Лоббизм, Government Relations (GR) и Public Affairs (PA): к истокам понятий* – Режим доступа: lobbying.ru/index.php?article_id=1451.

²⁸ А.Д. Кривоносов, *Основы теории связей с общественностью* / А.Д. Кривоносов, О.Г. Филатова, М.А. Шишкина. – СПб.: Питер, 2011. – С. 13.

рынках, так и достижения высокой конкурентоспособности на мировых рынках. Также GR играет значительную роль в обеспечении баланса между малым и средним бизнесом с крупными корпорациями.

К проблематике GR по взаимодействию бизнеса с властью и гражданским обществом общественности относится и непосредственное участие бизнес-структур в политической жизни. Попытки бизнеса способствовать развитию политической сферы, а не только следовать своим экономическим интересам, отвечает потребностям всего общества, а сотрудничество с ним политических организаций позволяет расширить проблематику политического маркетинга, в которой интересы бизнеса пересекаются с развитием самого бизнеса. Как показывает опыт демократически развитых стран и практика государственного управления в Украине, успехи бизнеса зависят от социальной ситуации, процессов в политической сфере, а планирование и осуществление политической и избирательной стратегии невозможно без учета интересов бизнеса.

В то же время гражданское общество выступает за контроль как за властными, так и за бизнес-структурами. Для этого, в рамках GR, к обсуждению экологических и других общих проблем привлекается широкий круг институтов гражданского общества. При этом, как результат, определяются четкие и обоснованные критерии оценки качества учета органами власти интересов бизнеса и гражданского общества, что делает более прозрачным их взаимодействие в рамках политического маркетинга.

5. ВЫВОДЫ

Можно констатировать, что GR является важным инструментом диалога власти и бизнеса, от которого зависят как демократичность государственного управления, так и формирование рыночной среды и условий конкуренции и развития бизнеса в целом. Такой диалог требует законодательной защиты и механизмов принятия на его основе обязательных для всех сторон решений. Ведь бизнес, ориентированный на перспективу, прежде всего ожидает от власти стабильных правил игры, соблюдения их всеми игроками. Исходя из этого бизнес ответственно заинтересован в формировании ответственной системы публичного управления и нахождения у власти ответственных политических сил. Для этого бизнес осуществляет политический маркетинг в форме GR, как одной из форм осуществления воздействия на политическую власть.

В настоящее время многие уравнивают GR и лоббизм, считая, что эти понятия тождественны. Однако, разница в данных направлениях достаточно очевидна. Лоббизм является в определенной степени инструментом по нахождению путей для проведения неформального диалога между представителями бизнеса и власти, его отличительной особенностью является его отраслевая направленность или решение локально поставленных задач.

В отличие от этого, GR направлен, главным образом, на формирование механизма взаимодействия власти и бизнеса, то есть он решает не только частные задачи по получению контракта, субсидии и т. п., но и помогает бизнес-структуре выйти на новый уровень ее статуса, обеспечить участие в формировании прогрессивной законодательной и нормативной базы, открыть новые рынки, помочь в эффективной реструктуризации экономики и т. п. Естественно, что бизнес принимает непо-

средственное участие в избирательных кампаниях, имеет свои предпочтения и интересы, которые готов "обменять" на поддержку той или иной политической силы.

Также можно сказать, что GR – это «улица с двусторонним движением», которое позволяет находить компромисс между интересами государства и возможностями бизнеса, тем самым делая позитивный вклад в развитие социально-экономических отношений в обществе в целом.

Сейчас в Украине наступило удобное время, чтобы объединить усилия бизнеса и государства для формирования цивилизованного рынка GR-услуг. Как свидетельствуют дискуссии на III Всеукраинском Форуме GR, актуальна необходимость институализации профессии «GR-специалист», создание современного информационного пространства для обмена мнениями между специалистами GR и продвижение цивилизованных GR-технологий в корпоративную политику. Очевидно, это может способствовать уменьшению коррупционной составляющей во взаимодействии между властью и бизнесом.

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GOVERNMENT RELATIONS AS A MODERN FORM OF POLITICAL MARKETING IN UKRAINE

The article is devoted to the analysis of theoretical and practical aspects of the implementation of Government Relations (GR) mechanisms in the system of political marketing in Ukraine. GR is considered in comparison with lobbying, public relations and public affairs as elements of political marketing. The article notes that GR creates new opportunities for political marketing and ensures the coordination of the interests of power, business and civil society in Ukraine. In this sense, GR is an important mechanism for the democratic development of the country, as it enables businesses and civil society institutions to influence the formation of the architecture of power.

The article concludes that GR in Ukraine is an important tool for dialogue between the state and business, which: the quality of government, conditions of competition, business development in general depend on. Such a dialogue requires legislative protection and mechanisms for making decisions binding on all parties on its basis. A future-oriented business expects, first of all, stable rules of the game from the authorities and their observance by all players.

Currently, Ukraine has come a convenient time to unite the efforts of business and the state to form a civilized market of GR-services in the field of political marketing. The need to institutionalize the GR-specialist profession, the creation of a modern information space for the exchange of opinions between GR specialists and the promotion of civilized GR-technologies to corporate policy has also become topical. Obviously, this may contribute to the reduction of the corruption component in the interaction between government and business.

Keywords: Government Relations, Public Relations, Public Affairs, political marketing in Ukraine, interaction of power and business in Ukraine.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.47

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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EVIDENCE BASED TRAINING APPROACH IN ORGANIZATIONAL PRACTICE

This article centers on the urgent need to reconsider the way trainings are designed and delivered. Based on conducted studies and literature review an approach to training based on evidence as a new movement in HRM practices is presented. The definitions and features of evidence-based practice and existing knowledge on evidence-based human resource management (EBHRM) is discussed and integrated. The article also examines what can be learned from existing research on EBHRM into the effectiveness of evidence based training. The data were collected using surveys. Based on the literature review and data analysis the survey to measure effectiveness of the trainings was designed. The study was conducted among social workers, who participated in comprehensive training program. The research reveals that training is a logical continuing process consisted of four phases: design, delivery, evaluation, and transfer. The new approach to training places those activities in the context of using best available evidence to ensure employee and organizational performance. A rationale for why instructors should embrace evidence best practice during trainings is presented. It also urges trainers to adopt a reflective practitioner approach and the attitude of trainer as a researcher towards efficiency of their practices. The unique value contribution of this paper comes from the development of an evidence-based training approach based on conducted research and an in-depth review of the evidence-based HRM literature.

Keywords: human resource management, evidence-based practices, high-performance work practices, development.

1. INTRODUCTION

The study of evidence-based practices has become popular over the last few decades. In the management field there is a movement to base management practices on research evidence. Many organizations fail to take up effective approach to achieve competitive advantage through people, employees still are perceived as resources rather than humans therefore attention in the research-practice gap has been recently received mostly in HRM field².

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² B.E. Kaufman, *Strategic human resource management research in the United States: A failing grade after 30 years?*, "Academy of Management Perspectives" 2012, 5, p. 12–37; C. Gill, *Don't*

Recent studies confirm that HRM practitioners lack of knowledge of evidence based management, they also do not seek or value such knowledge³. The reason could be a gap between academics and practitioners⁴ which reduces the transfer of research knowledge as well as relationship with management. Therefore most attention regarding HRM's failure to implement evidence based management has focused on knowledge transfer from academics to HRM practitioners⁵.

Evidence-based practice is a radical and significant change in approach to conventional HRM practices. It entails an efforts to develop critical judgement in making decisions that impact organizations and employees performance. In today's global economy, to maintain competitive advantage it is necessary to focus on practices that lead to organizational performance. Thus, the need to rethink conventional use of HRM practice is urgent. As a part of a set of HRM practices empirical studies identify applying training to achieve higher performance⁶. Although many companies acknowledge training as a strategic investment for developing human capital, they maintain an ambiguous position regarding training, they report a failure to develop skills effectively and anticipate future needs thus involve only a minority of employees in development activities⁷.

Organizations make large investments in trainings nevertheless the bulk of training expenditures seemingly do not translate into the effects of training to the workplace. Therefore organizations needs to give more attention to the effectiveness of systematic acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies of employees. This can be achieved through applying new trend towards training based on evidence approach that is built on available research evidence.

This article will make three contributions. Primarily, it aims to describe a new approach to training based on evidence. To present this new movement in HRM practices the definitions and features of evidence-based practice and existing knowledge on evidence-based human resource management (EBHRM) will be discussed and integrated. The literature review examines what can be learned from existing research into the effectiveness of evidence-based training. A rationale for why instructors should embrace evidence best practice during trainings will be discussed. It also urges trainers to adopt a reflective practitioner approach and the attitude of trainer as a researcher towards efficiency of their practices.

know, don't care: An exploration of evidence based knowledge and practice in human resource management, "Human Resource Management Review" 2018, 28, p. 103–115..

³ S.L. Rynes, T.L. Giluk, K.G. Brown, *The very separate worlds of academic and practitioner periodicals in human resource management: Implications for evidence-based management*, "Academy of Management Journal" 2007, 50, 5, p. 987–1008.

⁴ *Ibidem*; S.L. Rynes, K.G. Brown, A.E. Colbert, *Seven common misconceptions about human resource practices: Research findings versus practitioner belief*, "The Academy of Management Executive" 2002, 16, 3, p. 92-102.

⁵ C. Gill, *Don't know...*, p. 103–115.

⁶ P. Neirotti & E. Paolucci, *Why do firms train? Empirical evidence on the relationship between training and technological and organizational change*, "International Journal of Training and Development" 2013, 17, 2.

⁷ *Ibidem*; R. Grossman & E. Salas, *The transfer of training: what really matters*, "International Journal of Training and Development" 2011, 15, 2, p. 103–120.

2. BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The notion of using scientific evidence for professional practice is not new. At the end of the XXth century the evidence-based approach became particularly influential in medical science and health care. Medicine was the first branch of science in which the principle of referring to evidence in clinical proceedings was adopted. Sackett et al.⁸ define the concept of “evidence-based medicine” as an application of the latest and most reliable scientific data in making decisions regarding health care for each patient, as a “way of thinking” that can be used to promote the implementation of research findings in clinical routines and practice⁹.

Over the past 20 years, the concept of evidence-based practice has also developed in the social sciences. In the late 1990s, the term ‘evidence based’ became present in other non-medical disciplines and practice areas, including education, social work, criminology, and government policy making¹⁰.

Evidence-based management (EBM) refers to translating principles based on best evidence into organizational practices and to the evaluation of managerial decisions¹¹ it incorporates scientific knowledge in the content and process of making decisions¹². Evidence-based management approach enhances the quality of decisions to solve organizational problems by deriving principles from systematic research to guide management practices¹³. Through evidence-based management, managers develop into experts whose organizational decisions are supported by social science and organizational research¹⁴. It moves their professional decisions away from personal preference and unsystematic experience toward those based on the best available scientific evidence¹⁵. Good management practice is assumed to be the product of a good knowledge and its application, not least in Human Resource Management (HRM).

Evidence based management research in HRM has focused on High Performance Work Practices (HPWP)¹⁶ which lead to superior employee and organizational performance. The notion of high-performance work practices is in interest over the last years¹⁷.

⁸ D.L. Sackett, W. Rosenberg, J.A. Gray, R.B. Haynes & W.S. Richardson, *Evidence based medicine: what it is and what it isn't*, “British Medical Journal”, 312, 7023,71–2, 1996; D.L. Sackett, *Evidence-based medicine*, “Seminars in Perinatology”, 21, 3–5, 1997.

⁹ *Ibidem*.

¹⁰ R.B. Briner & D.M. Rousseau, *Evidence-based I-O Psychology: Not there yet*, “Industrial and Organizational Psychology”, 4, 1, 3-22, 2011.

¹¹ S.L. Rynes, T.L. Giluk & K.G. Brown, *The very separate...*, p. 987–1008 B.E. Kaufman, *Strategic human resource management...*, p. 12–37; A. de Waal & M. Roobol, *Applying evidence-based HRM: the case of bonuses in the home furnishing industry*, “Evidence-based HRM: a Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship”, 2, 2, 192-208, 2014; D.M. Rousseau, *Is there such a thing as evidence-based management?*, “Academy of Management Review”, 31, 2, 256–269, 2006.

¹² *Ibidem*.

¹³ V.V. Baba & F. Hakem Zadeh, *Toward a theory of evidence based decision making*, “Management Decision”, 50, 5, 832–867, 2012; D.M. Rousseau, *Is there such a thing...*, p. 256–269; B.E. Kaufman, *Strategic human resource management...*, p. 12–37.

¹⁴ B.E. Kaufman, *Strategic human resource management...*, p. 12–37.

¹⁵ S.L. Rynes, T.L. Giluk, & K.G. Brown, *The very separate worlds...*, p. 987–1008.

¹⁶ B.E. Kaufman, *Strategic human resource management...*, p. 12–37.

¹⁷ P. Boxall, & K. Macky, *Research and theory on high-performance work systems: progressing the high involvement stream*, “Human Resource Management Journal”, 19, 1, 3–23, 2009.

Researchers have conceptualized HPWP through various means. Some scholars view HPWP as a collection of multiple individual HR practices with no explicit linkages which are more likely to lead to superior performance¹⁸. Following this approach a HPWP system is conceptualized as a set of individual HRM practices that contribute to the enhancement of employee performance.

HPWP aim to assure flexibility, motivation, increase participation of employees in decision making and problem solving. These practices result in enhanced productivity, reflect organizational capital and have an importance for learning and human capital development¹⁹. Appelbaum et al.²⁰ claim that productivity gains are greater when companies implement system of complementary practices. They provide a basis for a conceptualization of HPWP through defining following components: employee ability (A), employee motivation (M) and practices that give employees the opportunity to perform (O). These components together, referred as the AMO model of HPWPs²¹ build sustainable employee performance.

First component, ability, can predict individual job performance. Practices that contribute to employee ability include training and skill development. Ability-enhancing practices are intended to acquire new or enhance the existing skills of employees²². Motivation of employees, second component, deals with an employee's desire to perform. It could be increased through practices such as formal performance appraisal and compensation systems, career opportunities and sharing of information on the company's goals and results²³. Last component, the opportunity to perform, includes employee involvement and teamwork with theoretical foundation in job design and in the employee empowerment theories²⁴.

The AMO framework indicates strong links between HPWP and performance. HPWP impact on organizational outcomes through increasing employee ability, motivation, and opportunity to contribute. Therefore HPWPs implementation results in better employees and organization performing. Employees who have the autonomy to take work-related decisions, who have opportunity to work together and share feedback, and influence business results experience greater involvement in their work. The synergy effect of AMO components stimulate individual employee²⁵ as well as organizational performance.

Nevertheless implementation of HPWP system is complex. It requires the cooperation of leaders in the organization who influence HRM policy and organization's values. Study conducted by Shatha M. et al.²⁶ revealed significant and positive relationships between

¹⁸ S.M. Obeidat, R. Mitchell, M. Bray, *The link between high performance work practices and organizational performance: Empirically validating the conceptualization of HPWP according to the AMO model*, "Employee Relations" 2016, 38/4.

¹⁹ P. Neirotti & E. Paolucci, *Why do firms...*

²⁰ E. Appelbaum, T. Bailey, P. Berg & A.L. Kalleberg, *Manufacturing advantage: Why high-performance work systems pay off*, Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2000.

²¹ B. Kroon, K. Van De Voorde & J. Timmers, *High performance work practices in small firms: a resource-poverty and strategic decision-making perspective*, "Small Business Economics" 2013, 41, 1, p. 71–79; S.M. Obeidat, *The link between...*, p. 1281–1301.

²² S.M. Obeidat, *The link between...*, p. 1281–1301.

²³ E. Appelbaum, T. Bailey, P. Berg & A.L. Kalleberg, *Manufacturing advantage...*; S.M. Obeidat, *The link between...*, p. 1281–1301.

²⁴ B. Gerhart, *Horizontal and vertical fit in human resource systems*, In C. Ostroff & T. A. Judge (Eds.), *Perspectives on organizational fit* (p. 317–350). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 2007.

²⁵ E. Appelbaum, T. Bailey, P. Berg & A.L. Kalleberg, *Manufacturing advantage...*

²⁶ S.M. Obeidat, *The link between...*, p. 1281–1301.

HPWP systems and organizational performance. The results of the study suggest that adoption of formal staffing and training practices, formal performance appraisal and compensation based on group performance are positively linked to organizational performance.

3. METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The sample of the study was made up of 157 employees of the social work environment who took part in the development program where themes of 54 available trainings were categorized in four different groups: psychological trainings, legal trainings, language trainings, and computer trainings. Participants were allowed to choose trainings they wish to participate in. The survey to measure effectiveness of the trainings including scales with statements describing four phases of training process was designed, each phase of training was described by 10 items and the analyzed variable was the sum of all responses for each scale. For each group of trainings respondents were asked to assess on a 5-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree) whether the activities related to each training phase were delivered in the organizational context. The higher the sum of these items, the higher is the level of the variable. A sample items are as follows: 1) Training Needs Analysis: *Before the training, I was asked which skills could help me to increase my efficiency at work; Before the training, I was asked about the scope of duties which I devote the most time to;* 2) Training Delivery: *Activities during training reflected the real situations from my workplace; Examples and exercises used during the training clearly showed how to use new knowledge and skills at work;* 3) Training Evaluation: *At the end of the training, I completed an action plan in which I set individual goals for implementation after the training; The knowledge tests were used to verify the knowledge acquired before and after the training;* 4) Training Transfer: *My supervisor meets me regularly to talk about problems that I could have to try to use new skills; My supervisor encourages me to share new knowledge and skills with my colleagues.*

Effectiveness (Sk) was the sum of the answers. It was related to the fact that each scale had the same number of questions ($n=10$) thus counting the average or sum is interpretatively the same indicator. Definitions presented in Table 1. The higher the sum of these items, the higher is the level of the variable. The statements were set up based upon a review of the literature and authors' personal experience.

Table 1. Formulas for training effectiveness

Scales	Formulas
Training Needs Analysis	$Sk_1 = \text{effectiveness}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} sk_{1i}$
Training Delivery	$Sk_2 = \text{effectiveness}_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} sk_{2i}$
Training Evaluation	$Sk_3 = \text{effectiveness}_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} sk_{3i}$
Training Transfer	$Sk_4 = \text{effectiveness}_4 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} sk_{4i}$

Data were analyzed using standard descriptive statistics methods (comparison in individual groups): the qualitative variables were presented in the form of tables, reporting numbers and percentages and graphically as pie charts (percentage distributions). The quantitative variables were compared with t-test before and after the training as the distribution

of these variables was different from the normal distribution, it was confirmed with the Shapiro-Wolf test.

Based on the subject literature review and own practice the following research hypothesis was adopted: the training is a logical continuing process of designing, delivering, evaluating and transferring training effects to organizational practice using evidence approach during each training phase.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

Taking into account all the trainings available in the program it can be noticed that 16% of respondents took part in six trainings, 11% in nine, and 10% in five and seven trainings. This result shows that the majority of respondents participated from 3 to 11 trainings, which gives grounds for determining the effectiveness of these trainings. On average, the respondents participated in seven trainings.

Considering psychoeducational it can be seen that most often employees participated in 3 trainings (21.3%), and one person in 10 out of 12 trainings. The most popular was the training "Mobbing", which was attended by 80.7% of respondents. Training "Management by objectives" and "Team building" were the least popular.

In the legal training category most often the respondents took part in three trainings (25.3%). The most popular was the "Personal Data Protection" training, in which 69.3% of respondents participated and the "Code of Administrative Procedure" (67.3%).

Data summary in the area of language training shows that only 16.7% of people took part in one or two language trainings. The majority of respondents have chosen "English starter" training.

Data in the area of computer training indicate that more than half of the people did not participate in them (54.7%). Most often, employees participated in one training (24.0%) or 2 (15.3%). The most popular was the "MS Excel - basic level" training, in which 26.7% of the respondents and "MS Word" (22%) participated.

The obtained data confirms described in the literature tendency of giving more importance to raising the psychological competencies of social workers rather than computer ones. The reason could be the fact that the customer care is still based on paper documentation therefore there is no need for improvement in the field of computer programs. Interestingly, 82% of people who chose "MS Word Basic" training have over 9 years of experience as a social worker, 47% of whom are aged 46-55. In case of language training obtained data is similar, the older people, the more often they use training courses in the basic fields, such as the basics of language learning, basic MS Office programs for data editing. Therefore it might be considered that they are aware of the need to acquire qualifications in line with the position held. This attitude will certainly improve the quality of the activities undertaken at social work institutions. Moreover, it can be concluded that the respondents are aware of the development of information technologies and that these tendencies will also be applied in social work.

To estimate whether trainings were conducted properly, the effectiveness of the trainings was measured. Respondents assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree) which activities related to the particular training phase were sustain in the context of training design and delivery. Results indicated that the span of means was

between 26.8 for Training Evaluation in Language Trainings to 36.1 for Training Delivery in Psychological Trainings (Table 2).

Table 2. Effectiveness of the trainings phases for different groups of trainings

	Training Needs Analysis	Training Delivery	Training Evaluation	Training Transfer
Psychological Trainings	32,4±6,1	36,1±4,8	27,6±5,8	33±7,7
Legal Trainings	33,6±5,5	35,5±5,8	27,9±5,2	34±7,2
Language Trainings	31,5±5,9	33,1±5,8	26,8±4,1	28,1±7,7
Computer Trainings	34±6,2	36,7±5,2	29,7±6,4	34,9±7

As part of psychological training, 122 out of 146 respondents participating in this category of training evaluated their effectiveness. High compliance of the respondents may indicate that the training activities in this thematic category were carried out almost to the full extent. The average response range ranged from 27.6 for Training Evaluation to 36.1 for Training Delivery (Table 2), indicating that the evaluation phase is not always carried out.

The results obtained from the scope of legal training show that 96 people rated their effectiveness. The responses ranged from 27.9 for Training Evaluation to 35.5 for Training Delivery (Table 2). The Training Evaluation phase was rated the lowest.

The results from the language training show that 16 people assessed their effectiveness, which is 64% of people who participated in these trainings. The average response ranged from 26.8 for Training Evaluation to 33.1 for Training Delivery (Table 2). Again, Training Evaluation phase was rated the lowest.

Regarding computer training, 60 trainees rated effectiveness, which is less than half of those who chose trainings from this category. The average response ranged from 29.7 for Training Evaluation to 36.7 for Training Delivery (Table 2). High score for Training Delivery phase might result from the specificity of this type of training. Such result indicates that both the training and the examples used referred to real situations at the workplace, the training was practical and responded to real needs. Again the lowest average was noted for Training Evaluation phase.

In each group of trainings, the lowest score was observed for Training Evaluation. In the light of the research hypothesis it is important recommendation for HR managers and training suppliers to give more attention to evaluation of undertaken activities. It is particularly important for the transfer of knowledge and skills to the workplace. By passing this phase supervisors do not receive feedback on the actual impact of the training on the employee's efficiency, which may hinder planning further development.

The results of this study responds to the research question regarding the organization of the training process. The conclusions make it possible to formulate the statement that the training process in the examined social work institutions is carried out in accordance with a systematic model, but not in a manner as extensive as could be derived from the literature recommendations.

5. DISCUSSION – EVIDENCE BASED TRAINING APPROACH

The positive influence of HPWP on organizational performance indicates that investment in HR practices to acquire, maintain and develop highly qualified employees through training and skill development has potential to generate financial gains.

Since the late 1990s the science of training has benefited from an explosion of research activity²⁷. As stated by Singh²⁸, the use of comprehensive training programs, as one of the HPWP components named ability-enhancing practices, is one of the main factor influencing financial performance of the organization and employee productivity. Studies conducted by Neirotti & Paolucci²⁹ also confirm that the use of high-performance HRM practices positively affects developing new competencies in the organizational context. According to Shatha M. et al.³⁰ studies adoption of training and skill development practices is also positively linked to organizational performance. In this context evidence based approach to training practices will support and lead to high organizational performance.

From an evidence-based perspective, trainings will focus on developing evidence-based approaches to practice. This approach creates a need and involves training practitioners to identify and evaluate evidence relevant to a specific problem that can be used directly to help solve a problem³¹. Trainings based on the evidence-based practice will use data-based guidelines when making decisions regarding the requirements, design, development, and delivery of training and instructional environments designed to optimize individual or organizational goals³².

Conducted study revealed that training is a logical continuing process consisted of four phases: design, delivery, evaluation, and transfer. The new approach based on evidence aims to place those activities in the context of using best available evidence to ensure employee and organizational performance

Using relevant evidence starts with identifying whether the training is the best solution for the problem. Implementation of any of the HR practices starts with the decision-making process leading to the diagnosis by the firm's management of an organizational problem whether it is worth of an HR intervention. The diagnosis is necessary because not all solutions to organizations' problems necessarily point to the need for an HR intervention, it also depends on the expertise and attitude of the firm's management³³.

Personal judgement or experience can result in wrong decision according to the training process as this source of evidence is not a very reliable because it is highly susceptible to systematic errors. The decision about the training should to be based on real evidence of training need. A detailed analysis of the circumstances of the identified problem will allow to gather evidence whether the training will be the best solution. It needs to be decided what

²⁷ E.A. Locke, *Handbook Of Principles Of Organizational Behavior: Indispensable Knowledge For Evidence-Based Management*, Second Edition, John Wiley & Sons, 2009.

²⁸ K. Singh, *Impact of HR practices on perceived firm performance in India*, "Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources" 2004, 42, 3, p. 301–317.

²⁹ P. Neirotti & E. Paolucci, *Why do firms...*

³⁰ S.M. Obeidat, *The link between...*, p. 1281–1301.

³¹ R.B. Briner & D.M. Rousseau, *Evidence-based...*, p. 3–22.

³² R.C. Clark, *Evidence-Based Training Methods: A Guide for Training Professionals*, Association for Talent Development, 2010.

³³ B. Kroon, K. Van De Voorde, & J. Timmers, *High performance...*, p. 71–9.

combination of resources will optimize employees performance in ways that help organizations achieve operational objectives³⁴. Requirements involve gathering data that will guide the selection and specification of solutions, including training that could solve organizational goals.

The process of analyzing training needs is considered to be the most important phase of designing training process³⁵. The focus should be given on the purpose of the training. The training need analysis starts when employee's actual performance is less than the expected performance. Performance gap should be analyzed at three levels: organizational, operational and personal analysis³⁶. Organizational analysis provides information regarding mission and strategies, capital resources, human resources and organizational environment and how it affects the job performance. Operational analysis refers to extensive analysis of job, to determine various tasks and identify required knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSA). Finally, personal analysis determines whether the employees have necessary KSA's, if not, then training is to be provided. Data regarding personal analysis can be collected from performance appraisals, proficiency tests, assessment centres etc.³⁷.

After it is identified that performance gap exists, the organization must discover the reason for it and provide training only if the gap is due to lack of required KSA's. This is where the level of personal analysis of performance gap plays crucial role. If gap occur due to KSA deficiency then training is required. This is where new approach towards training needs to be applied. Once it is identified that training is the solution, evidence based practice must be applied to design, develop, and deliver most effective solutions. Training needs analysis is a first step to develop an evidence-based training program. The goal of using trainings based on evidence is to help move training practitioners toward a professional level of practice by incorporating research-based evidence to design, develop and facilitate training.

After training needs analysis is conducted next step in the training process is to design and implement training content. The content of evidence-based training needs to be based on psychological knowledge about the learning process and on scientific research. It entails the use of empirically validated pedagogical tools and techniques that promote learning. In this phase instructional design for the training program is prepared.

Training programs are costly in money and time³⁸ therefore their evaluation aims to determine effects. Evaluation of training aims at improving the training process in future and to ensure that the learners have acquired the necessary skills or knowledge and will be able to contribute to the organization's effectiveness. This phase determines execution of the evaluation plan as well as disseminating training results³⁹. The training evaluation most commonly consists of measuring trainees reaction after the training and their perception whether they have learned from it⁴⁰. Study conducted by Steensma & Groeneveld⁴¹ reveled

³⁴ R.C. Clark, *Evidence-Based...*

³⁵ E.A. Locke, *Handbook of...*

³⁶ T. Boydell & M. Leary *Identifying Training Needs*, London 1996.

³⁷ *Ibidem*.

³⁸ H. Steensma & K. Groeneveld, *Evaluating a training using the "four levels model"*, "Journal of Workplace Learning" 2010, 22, 5, p. 319–331.

³⁹ E.A. Locke, *Handbook of...*

⁴⁰ H. Steensma & K. Groeneveld, *Evaluating...*, p. 319–331.

⁴¹ *Ibidem*.

that many training program evaluations are restricted to Kirkpatrick's first level of training evaluation: reactions. For an evidence-based evaluation reactions are necessary, but not sufficient. Kirkpatrick's⁴² model aims to improve the quality of training evaluation. Nevertheless, in designing the evaluation, attention should be paid to possible threats to evaluation and variables that can affect the outcomes. These threats and variables should be excluded in designing evaluation⁴³.

Evidence based training approach will be complete when organizations will look also to design transfer of training results to the workplace. The model of training transfer process includes training inputs (trainee characteristics, training design, work environment), training outputs (learning and retention) and conditions of transfer (generalization and maintenance)⁴⁴. The element that significantly impact learning and training outcomes is the design and delivery of training. Appropriate applying training methods is also one of the main challenges in designing evidence based training⁴⁵ that enhance learning to increase employee efficiency and organizational performance. Evidence based training approach focus on proven and the most powerful methods to implement and maximize learning along with technology which best suites to what method. There are a number of ways to categorize evidence for training methods. Clark⁴⁶ indicates that the sources for training methods for research evidence can come from either academic or practitioners. Practitioner research refers to evidence gathered and disseminated by workforce professionals and their clients to support a specific organizational goal or problem. Practitioner evidence may include performance analysis (interviews, work observation, operational data), design and development (testing, experiments), evaluation (surveys, work observation), and return on investment (financial benefits, intervention costs). Academic research refers to evidence gathered and published by research professionals using scientific methodologies to ensure validity and reliability, such as experiments, factorial experiments, correlational studies, syntheses, psychological mediators⁴⁷.

Experimental methods have been used for many years to conduct research in education⁴⁸. It is the foundational evidence-based method that determines whether specific instructional techniques are effective. The critical features of experimental research focus on comparison of learning from an experimental lesson to learning from a control lesson that does not include the instructional method being evaluated⁴⁹.

Experimental design can be applied also as an evidence based approach to the training evaluation. In such experimental design trainee performance can be compared with performance of other people who were not trained. In such experimental designs two groups

⁴² D.L. Kirkpatrick, *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels*, Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco, CA, 1994.

⁴³ H. Steensma & K. Groeneveld, *Evaluating...*, p. 319–331.

⁴⁴ T.T. Baldwin & J.K. Ford, *Transfer of training: a review and directions for future research*, "Personnel Psychology" 1998, 41, p. 63–105.

⁴⁵ R.C. Rosen, J.I. Ruzek, B.E. Karlin, *Evidence-based training in the era of evidence-based practice: Challenges and opportunities for training of PTSD providers*, "Behaviour Research and Therapy" 2017, 88, p. 37–48.

⁴⁶ R.C. Clark, *Evidence-Based...*

⁴⁷ *Ibidem*.

⁴⁸ S.M. Ross, G.R. Morrison & D.L. Lowther, *Using Experimental Methods in Higher Education Research*, "Journal of Computing in Higher Education" 2005, 16, 2.

⁴⁹ R.C. Clark, *Evidence-Based...*

should be formed: the experimental group (trainees) and a control group consisting of persons who are more or less equal to the members of the experimental group, but who will not be trained⁵⁰. In order to get the quality label of being an evidence-based intervention, the result of the study using experimental design should indicate statistically significant differences found between the intervention group and the control/comparison group⁵¹. De Los Reyes & Kazdin⁵² also suggest that such findings supporting the intervention should be replicated, preferably by independent investigators, and lead to multiple outcome measures.

Besides described isolated scientific methodologies also more synthetic techniques can be used. When there are many experiments the conclusions could be drawn using research that synthesizes multiple data sets. One of such techniques, systematic review is a methodology for synthesizing research which aims to aggregate a number of research reports or experiments on a specific question and summarizes overall guidelines based on their analysis⁵³ ⁵⁴. Systematic reviews typically end with meta-analysis which is gaining popularity mostly across the social sciences⁵⁵. Meta-analysis is based on statistical theory and incorporates statistical techniques to combine the results from multiple studies that focus on a similar issue. An important element to consider in both practitioner and experimental research is how learning is measured. Evidence based training approach aims to define and measure trainees competencies and organizational outcomes. Competency evaluation is both a theoretical problem and a practical concern for program administrators and training directors⁵⁶. New approaches to evaluating outcomes of training have employed a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods, resulting in a broader and more comprehensive evaluation of training outcomes⁵⁷. These article provide broad support for evidence based training.

6. CONCLUSION

In the article the way trainings are designed and delivered was discussed. The study revealed that training is a logical continuing process consisted of four phases: design, delivery, evaluation, and transfer. This results responds to the research hypothesis regarding the organization of the training process. Training facilitates learning by imparting new skills and knowledge, with a view to change or alter the current behavior of employees as desired by the organization so that the employees can work more effectively to attain the goals and objectives of the organization.

Nevertheless the paper aimed primarily to present a new approach to training based on evidence. To present this new movement in HRM practices the definitions and features of

⁵⁰ H. Steensma & K. Groeneveld, *Evaluating...*, p. 319–331.

⁵¹ A. De Los Reyes & A.E. Kazdin, *Conceptualizing changes in behavior in intervention research: the range of possible changes model*, "Psychological Review" 2006, 113, 3, 554–83.

⁵² *Ibidem*.

⁵³ W. Rhodes, *Meta-Analysis: An Introduction Using Regression Models*, "Evaluation Review" 2012, 36, 1, 24–71.

⁵⁴ R.C. Clark, *Evidence-Based...*

⁵⁵ W. Rhodes, *Meta-Analysis...*, p. 24–71.

⁵⁶ R.C. Rosen, J.I. Ruzek, B.E. Karlin, *Evidence-based...*, p. 37–48.

⁵⁷ *Ibidem*.

evidence-based practice and existing knowledge on evidence-based human resource management (EBHRM) has been discussed and integrated.

Evidence-based practice involves using multiple sources to seek the best available evidence. It should be noted, though, that evidence may be highly relevant and trustworthy – or it may be irrelevant and completely untrustworthy. Research design do not necessarily lead to a deeper understanding of why interventions work better with evidence. To get this insight, hypotheses derived from theories should be tested, and this should lead to understanding causal connections between characteristics of persons, interventions, and contexts.

Research evidence practice is often based on numbers, quantitative data therefore understanding of basic statistical concepts is useful to evaluate critically some types of evidence. Nevertheless it is not required to become a statistician to undertake evidence-based practice. Evidence-based practice is about preparing yourself and organization to make decisions well by identifying the best available evidence. Although it is true that organizations do differ and are unique, they also tend to face similar issues. Peter Drucker asserted that most management issues are repetitions of familiar problems cloaked in the guise of uniqueness⁵⁸. Evidence-based practitioners need to be flexible enough in any decision making process. Nevertheless, to make sense of evidence, it is needed to understand the organizational context and a critical mindset.

Among HR practitioners there is a lack of evidence based knowledge, irregular beliefs and unfounded intuitions that may influence their attitudes towards evidence based management. This can also results that HR managers do not see value in evidence based management, they do not believe that evidence based knowledge is valuable and that evidence based management will work in practice. Evidence based management can be resolved through increasing HRM knowledge and competence. As Rynes et al.⁵⁹ found, those organizations are more successful if HR practitioners rely on the available scientific evidence and incorporate evidence based solutions to every day practice.

The literature review of EBHRM practices revealed that to design, develop, and deliver most effective solutions to address identified gap an evidence-based training approach needs to be applied. Once it is identified that training is the solution for organizational problem, the training should be considered as process planned and designed with systematic and logical approach based on best available evidence practices. This will allow to develop and implement effective instruction to meet current and future needs, ensure that employees possess the skills, knowledge, and attitudes required to perform their job.

In the literature we can find a lot of existing research into the effectiveness of evidence based practice nevertheless it is not referred to applying this approach to trainings. However, it supports the rationale for why instructors should embrace evidence best practice during trainings. It also urges trainers to adopt a practitioner approach and the attitude of trainer as a researcher to ensure efficiency of their practices. Evidence based approach to training fills the gap in the research in terms of efficiency of training practices in the organizations.

⁵⁸ E. Stark, P. Stepanovich, P. Poppler, P. Hopkins, *Surrounded by White Water: Conflicts in Management Sciences Regarding Truth and Reality*, "Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management" 2008, 9, 3, p. 258–274.

⁵⁹ S.L. Rynes, K.G. Brown, A.E. Colbert, *Seven common...*, p. 92–102.

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METODA KSZTAŁCENIA OPARTA NA DOWODACH W PRAKTYCE ORGANIZACYJNEJ

Artykuł koncentruje się na potrzebie rozważenia sposobu, w jaki szkolenia są projektowane i przeprowadzane. Na podstawie badań i przeglądu literatury przedstawiono nowy ruch w praktyce zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi, podejście do szkoleń opartych na dowodach. W pracy omawiane są definicje i cechy praktyki opartej na dowodach oraz istniejąca wiedza na temat zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi opartej na dowodach (EBHRM). W artykule przeanalizowano również, czego można się nauczyć z istniejących badań nad EBHRM na temat skuteczności szkoleń opartych na dowodach. Dane zebrano za pomocą ankiety służącej do pomiaru efektywności szkoleń. Badanie przeprowadzono wśród pracowników socjalnych, którzy uczestniczyli w kompleksowym programie szkoleniowym. Badanie ujawnia, że szkolenie jest logicznym ciągłym procesem składającym się z czterech etapów: projektowania, dostarczania, oceny i transferu. Nowe podejście do szkolenia umieszcza te działania w kontekście wykorzystania najlepszych dostępnych dowodów w celu zapewnienia wydajności pracowników i organizacji. Podano uzasadnienie, dlaczego instruktorzy powinni przyjmować najlepsze praktyki dowodowe podczas szkoleń. Zachęca także trenerów do przyjęcia podejścia opartego na refleksji i postawy trenera jako badacza w kierunku skuteczności ich

praktyk. Unikalny wkład wartości tego artykułu pochodzi z opracowania podejścia szkoleniowego opartego na dowodach na skutek przeprowadzonych badaniach i literatury dotyczącej ZZL.

Słowa kluczowe: zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi, praktyki oparte na dowodach, wysokowydajne praktyki pracy, rozwój.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.48

Tekst złożono do redakcji: sierpień 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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МЕХАНИЗМЫ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОГО УПРАВЛЕНИЯ БИЗНЕСОМ В РАЗВИТЫХ СТРАНАХ

Развитые страны имеют большой опыт по развитию и поддержке бизнеса, что является актуальным для Украины. В Украине доля малого и среднего бизнеса в экономике классически невысокая. Возникает актуальность исследований развития бизнеса в мировом масштабе для поиска передовых механизмов государственного регулирования для их применения в Украине. В странах, которые являются новыми в рыночной среде с невысокими результатами в экономике, в том числе, и в нашей стране, уязвимость рыночной позиции малого и среднего бизнеса обусловлена сравнительной слабостью его финансового обеспечения, поэтому в этих странах существует потребность государственного регулирования.

Согласно американскому опыту реальная помощь со стороны государства для бизнеса осуществляется на основе согласованной работы социального, экономического, правового и политического поля. Государственное регулирование в ЕС создает лучшие условия для бизнеса и повышения уровня конкурентоспособности. Особенность японской системы государственной поддержки предпринимательства заключается в направленности на кооперативные направления развития. Кроме этого, в Японии в государственной политике применяются механизмы развития субконтрактации для эффективного взаимодействия субъектов бизнеса.

Политическая и экономическая нестабильность в нашем государстве негативно влияет на международное финансирование в украинский бизнес. Учитывая этот фактор, сегодня необходимо проанализировать, какие внутренние возможности следует привлечь для развития бизнеса. Развитые страны запускают комплексные программы по развитию и поддержке предприятий.

На наш взгляд, необходимые преобразования должны происходить не только в сфере предпринимательства, а во всех секторах экономики одновременно, комплексно и системно, учитывая современный украинский опыт и наиболее успешные примеры мирового опыта.

Ключевые слова: бизнес, государственное управление, механизмы, развитие.

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1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Развитые страны имеют большой опыт по развитию сферы поддержки бизнеса, что является актуальным для Украины. В последнее время во многих развитых странах происходит прогрессивный рост малых и средних предприятий, их доли в экономике, что положительно влияет на общее социально-экономическое развитие. В Украине доля малого и среднего бизнеса в экономике классически невысока. Из этого возникает актуальность исследований развития бизнеса в мировом масштабе для нахождения передовых механизмов государственного регулирования для их применения в Украине.

В странах, которые являются новыми в рыночной среде с невысокими результатами в экономике, в том числе, и в нашей стране, уязвимость рыночной позиции малого и среднего бизнеса обусловлена сравнительной слабостью его финансового обеспечения, поэтому в этих странах существует потребность государственного регулирования в многовекторной и активной поддержке.

2. ОСНОВНАЯ ЧАСТЬ

Развитые страны уже давно используют современные механизмы системного развития бизнеса. Американская система государственного регулирования характеризуется влиянием государства на частные учреждения в принятии решений по взаимовыгодному помощи и уникальными формами сотрудничества в государственном, частном и общественном секторе в вопросах реализации поддержки государства.

Согласно американскому опыту реальная помощь со стороны государства для бизнеса осуществляется на основе согласованной работы социального, экономического, правового и политического поля. Государственная поддержка предприятий в США является стратегической составляющей при совершенствовании регулирующих и стимулирующих параметров их работы в условиях острого мирового конкурентной среды, повышение уровня риска и нестабильной мировой экономики, например, при мировых финансовых кризисах.

Важным моментом в развитии бизнеса является то, что в США почти каждая серьезная компания изначально была создана как предприятие малого бизнеса. Примером этого являются компании Майкрософт (Microsoft) и Эппл (Apple), в которых в первые годы после создания работало не более трех сотрудников. Кроме Майкрософт и Эппл малыми предприятиями, сумели быстро превратиться в главных игроков в национальном и международном бизнесе, является американская грузовая авиакомпания ФедЭкс Экспресс (FedEx Express), известный мировой производитель спортивной продукции Найк (Nike) и другие.

Несмотря на общепризнанную в США мнению, бизнес, нацеленный на развитие – это не только молодые компании, работающие в области высоких технологий в крупных городах. На самом деле, они распространены по всей стране и не привязаны к определенной отрасли. Некоторые инновационные технологические

предприятия связаны с улучшением медицинского оборудования, другие специализируются в области разработки источников альтернативной энергии².

Особое внимание следует сосредоточить на женском предпринимательстве в США. Поддержка государством бизнеса фокусируется на предоставлении конкретных программ помощи для предприятий, принадлежащих женщинам. Согласно этих программ предоставляется техническая помощь, консультирование, обучение и возможность для роста бизнеса.

В США даже существует Национальная ассоциация женщин-владельцев малого бизнеса (Inc NAWOSB), которая ориентирована на предоставление бизнес-образования для развития предпринимателей и координирует и обеспечивает программы их поддержки.

В США также существуют центры малого бизнеса (Small Business Development Centers), которые оказывают помощь малым предприятиям. Основными их функциями являются помощь в создании бизнеса и обеспечения конкурентоспособности уже существующих предприятий в постоянно меняющемся деловом мире США. Центры развития малого бизнеса сотрудничают с ведущими университетами и государственными органами и частично финансируются АМБ в США³.

Детального исследования нуждается опыт ЕС по государственному регулированию предпринимательства. Политика ЕС в отношении малого и среднего бизнеса имеет вертикальный и горизонтальный подходы по регулированию их деятельности. Согласно вертикального подхода, происходит сочетание прямых мер поддержки. Эти меры создаются и реализуются Европейской Комиссией при помощи Европейского Парламента, Экономического и Социального совета, представительных организаций в рамках ЕС. Согласно горизонтального подхода происходит защита интересов бизнеса в таких направлениях, как научно-исследовательская работа, региональная политика, интернациональные отношения.

Государственное регулирование в ЕС создает лучшие условия для бизнеса и повышения уровня конкурентоспособности. Государственная политика в таких условиях направлена на изменение с «тяжелой» помощи (в формате дотаций) на «мягкую» (в формате консалтинговой помощи). Государственное регулирование развития МСБ в ЕС основывается на использовании формата и методов, основанные на потребностях европейского общества (например, экологическое развитие)⁴.

Анализ деятельности МСБ в мире, в частности в европейских странах, позволяет выделить несколько стратегических подходов к его развитию на общегосударственном уровне. Развитые страны мира приоритетным направлением политики развития бизнеса считают интеграцию малой, средней и большой форм бизнеса. Это достигается путем введения субконтрактных соглашений, лизинговых схем, франчайзинга, совместного выполнения научно-технических программ и разработок. Индустриальные и постиндустриальные страны-лидеры «второго эшелона» (Бельгия,

² А. Иванченко, *Оцінювання дії механізмів державного регулювання зайнятості населення в Україні* / А. Иванченко // Держава та регіони. Серія: «Державне управління». – 2013. – №1 (41). – С. 77–82.

³ Small Business Development Centers [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <http://www.sba.gov>.

⁴ Г. Томсон, *Зарубіжні практики розробки стратегій розвитку малого підприємництва на регіональному рівні* / О. Бей, Г. Томсон. – К. : К.І.С., 2013. – 48 с.

Нидерланды, Швеция, Финляндия, Сингапур, Южная Корея) реализуют стратегию, которая предусматривает максимальное использование преимуществ бизнеса и содержание нормативных параметров развития в структуре экономики.

Современные европейские ученые подчеркивают актуальность государственного регулирования бизнеса. Развитие бизнеса должно быть одной из главных целей государственных программ и решаться на национальном уровне. Необходимо создать так называемые технократические, беспартийные национальные целевые группы с участием предпринимателей, государственного сектора, банков и провайдеров альтернативных источников финансирования с той целью, чтобы каждая такая целевая группа могла вырабатывать решения, адаптированные к определенной сфере бизнес-среды.

При исследовании мирового государственного регулирования следует рассмотреть отдельно передовой опыт в этой сфере такой страны, как Япония. Особенность японской системы государственной поддержки предпринимательства заключается в направленности на кооперативные направления развития. Кроме этого, в Японии в государственной политике применяются механизмы развития субконтрактации для эффективного взаимодействия субъектов бизнеса. Государственное регулирование в Японии основывается на всестороннем содействии государства инновационному направлению деятельности бизнеса, так как бизнес в инновационной сфере является активным в научных исследованиях и создании нового продукта и технологии. Бизнес в Японии поддержку через местные управления внешней торговлей и промышленностью, а также через торгово-промышленные палаты.

Государство занимается выделением субсидий для открытия центров повышения квалификации (например, квалификация технического уровня). В отдельных ситуациях государство компенсирует расходы по диагностике состояния предприятия. Кроме этого, в японской системе поддержки предпринимательства существует компенсация расходов по подготовке и повышению квалификации работников.

Следует отметить, что даже через широкую государственную поддержку бизнеса в Японии существует низкий уровень активности инновационного рискованного инвестирования. При этом основной проблемой является поиск финансирования. Молодые японские предприниматели, требующие финансирования, прибегают к помощи так называемого «народного финансирования» («crowd financing»). Данный способ финансирования бизнеса позволяет предпринимателям легко собрать средства под реализацию перспективного проекта.

«Народное финансирование» заключается в сборе средств у большого количества людей (в наибольшей степени через Интернет) для реализации перспективных проектов. Главным отличием данного вида финансирования от, например, банковских займов, венчурного финансирования является то, что инвесторы не получают процент от вложений. Вместо этого им предоставляется неофициальное вознаграждение, которое зависит от суммы инвестиций, является уникальным и может включать как товары, так и услуги.

Наибольшее развитие такой вид финансирования достиг в США, где существует много интернет-сайтов «народного финансирования», а самым популярным является «кикстартер» («Kickstarter»), который с момента своего создания в 2009 году помог профинансировать более 39 тыс. проектов на сумму более 567 млн. долл.

В Японии функционируют два подобных сайты «Кемпфайр» («Campfire») и «Рейдифо» («ReadyFog»). Сначала эти сайты были созданы для сбора средств

в помощь жителям Тохоку, пострадавшим от землетрясения и цунами. Однако впоследствии обе платформы стали популярны среди молодых предпринимателей и на сегодняшний день профинансировали 220 проектов на сумму 130 млн. японских иен, что составляет примерно 1,3 млн. долл.⁵

Кроме таких мировых гигантов в развитии сферы государственного регулирования бизнеса, как США, ЕС и Япония, актуальным остается передовой опыт отдельных развитых стран.

Например, в Германии большая часть средств направляется Министерством экономики и технологий в поддержку малых и средних предприятий, а в основе этого функционирует две программы – Центральная инновационная программа и Программа инвестиционных субсидий в регионах со слабой экономической структурой.

Во Франции действует специальный орган – Национальное агентство по созданию предприятий. В качестве государственной поддержки бизнеса во Франции и деятельности вышеупомянутой организации можно отметить то, что новые малые предприятия на два года освобождаются от местных налогов, а также для них снижается налог на прибыль. Особое внимание уделяется компаниям, которые открывают свой бизнес в экономически депрессивных зонах. На таких предпринимателей распространяются отмены выплат в фонды социального обеспечения (здравоохранения, пенсионного фонда и т.д.).

Государственное регулирование во Франции нацелено на безработных, желающих создать собственный бизнес. При этом они освобождаются от налогов на три года и на год – от обязательных социальных выплат. Безработным, которые стали предпринимателями, выдаются специальные книги с отрывными чеками, которыми они могут рассчитываться за консультации по менеджменту, юридической деятельности, бухгалтерскому учету.

Малый и средний бизнес в Польше составляет более 50% в ВВП страны, которым занимается около 60% населения. Государственное регулирование бизнеса осуществляется через реформы, направленные на процессы совершенствования правовых основ, инфраструктуру, доступ к источникам кредитования⁶.

В Венгрии действует инструмент поддержки малого и среднего бизнеса через бюджет государства. Венгерский бизнес получает как субсидии из бюджета, так и отдельные налоговые стимуляторы (льготы). Государством предусмотрено применение следующих видов налоговых льгот:

- по стимулированию инвестиций;
- по развитию научно-исследовательских работ;
- по развитию отдельных отраслей;
- по развитию отдельных регионов⁷.

Полезен опыт Великобритании в информационной поддержке малого и среднего бизнеса. Стратегия поддержки бизнеса в Великобритании предусматривает вне-

⁵ H. Nakata, *Startups find there's financing in numbers* [Электронный ресурс] / H. Nakata. – Режим доступа: <http://www.japantimes.co.jp>.

⁶ Н.М. Заярна, *Міжнародний досвід підтримки малого бізнесу та сучасні українські реалії* / Н.М. Заярна // Науковий вісник НЛТУ України. – 2011. – Вип. 21.1. – С. 198–202.

⁷ Т.В. Березянко, *Проблеми державного регулювання діяльності малих підприємств: Наук.-метод. посіб.* / Т.В. Березянко, О.В. Ваганова, Р.В. Руднік / За ред. Березянко Т.В. – К.: ПІДО НУХТ, 2012. – 120 с.

дрение инициативы, которая позволяет обмениваться информацией между более опытными компаниями и начинающими предприятиями. С этой целью был создан специализированный сайт (www.mentorsme.co.uk), который предоставляет доступ к базе данных, содержащей более 10 тыс. потенциальных «компаний-наставников». В основе сайта лежит удобный поиск, позволяющий подобрать ментора по регионам. Менторами в Великобритании выступают юридические лица – компании, которые делятся своим опытом⁸.

Заслуживает внимания опыт Бразилии. Малый и средний бизнес Бразилии – основа социальной пирамиды страны. Основным органом, осуществляющим государственную поддержку в Бразилии, является «SEBRAE» – Бразильское бюро малого и среднего предпринимательства. Организация помогает частным лицам начать новый бизнес и решить основные проблемы для предпринимателей.

Выделим основные механизмы поддержки в Бразилии, реализованные с помощью SEBRAE:

- консультации. Поддержка оказывается как для действующих субъектов предпринимательства, так и для граждан, желающих открыть свое дело. Консультирование осуществляется в том числе, по телефону и онлайн;
- гранты и финансирование.
- SEBRAE реализует следующие инструменты поддержки:
- поддержка инновационных предприятий («Pappe» – Program for Supporting Research in Enterprises). С помощью данной программы предоставляются гранты на проведение научных исследований предприятиями;
- поддержка ориентированных на экспорт малых предприятий – («PROGEX» – Export Technology Support Program). В рамках данной программы субсидируются затраты на технологический консалтинг, логистические услуги и т.д.⁹.

Государственное регулирование в Мексике осуществляется через Гарантийный фонд стимулирования средней и мелкой промышленности. Бизнес получает преференциальную налоговую политику. В Мексике государственные программы по развитию предприятий осуществляются через Министерство торговли и промышленного развития, финансовую корпорацию Nacional Financiera (NAFIN), Министерство финансов, Банк внешней торговли, Национальный совет по науке и технологиям, университеты и исследовательские центры.

Опыт ЮАР также может быть полезным для Украины, учитывая тенденции нашего государства для поддержки собственного товаропроизводителя. В ЮАР создана программа развития бизнеса поставщиков среди коренного населения (Black Business Supplier Development Programme, BBSDP), что предоставляет гранты для предприятий, в которых не менее 51% капитала принадлежит местному коренному населению.

Для осуществления государственной экономической политики в КНР создана и успешно работает программа развития малого и среднего бизнеса под руководством комиссии, которая призвана способствовать развитию и реформированию страны – National Development and Reform Commission (NDRC). Работа комиссии

⁸ Как в Европе поддерживают малый бизнес? [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <http://svoedelo.info>.

⁹ В.В. Кішак, *Розвиток малого та середнього підприємництва: досвід Польщі, Угорщини, Чехії* / В.В. Кішак // Актуальні проблеми економіки. – 2009. – № 5. – С. 26-33.

направлена на создание условий, при которых бизнес страны будет успешно развиваться. Для освещения работы по развитию предприятий и своевременного информирования населения и государственных органов создана негосударственная информационная служба (CSMEO).

3. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Политическая и экономическая нестабильность в нашем государстве негативно влияет на международное финансирование в украинский бизнес. Учитывая этот фактор, сегодня необходимо проанализировать, какие внутренние возможности следует привлечь для развития бизнеса. Развитые страны запускают комплексные программы по развитию и поддержке предприятий.

На наш взгляд, необходимые преобразования должны происходить не только в сфере предпринимательства, а во всех секторах экономики одновременно, комплексно и системно, учитывая современный украинский опыт и наиболее успешные примеры мирового опыта.

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STATE MANAGEMENT MECHANISMS OF BUSINESS IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Developed countries have extensive experience in the development and support of business, which is relevant for Ukraine. There is a share of small and medium-sized businesses in the

economy is classically low in Ukraine. The relevance of business development research on a global scale to search for advanced mechanisms of state regulation for their use in Ukraine is arises. In countries that are new in a market environment with low results in the economy, including in our country, the vulnerability of the market position of small and medium-sized businesses is due to the relative weakness of its financial support, so there is a need for state regulation in these countries.

Real assistance from the state for business is carried out on the basis of a coordinated work of the social, economic, legal and political field according to the American experience. State regulation in the EU creates better conditions for business and increased competitiveness. Peculiarity of the Japanese system of state support for entrepreneurship lies in its focus on cooperative development directions. In addition, in Japan, public policy applies mechanisms for the development of subcontracting for effective interaction between business entities.

Political and economic instability in our country has a negative effect on international funding for Ukrainian business. Today it is necessary to analyze what internal opportunities should be attracted for business development given this factor. Developed countries are launching comprehensive programs for the development and support of enterprises.

In our opinion, the necessary transformations should take place not only in the field of entrepreneurship, but in all sectors of the economy at the same time, comprehensively and systematically, taking into account modern Ukrainian experience and the most successful examples of world experience.

Keywords: business, state management, mechanisms, development.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.49

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF THE CHOSEN ASPECTS OF THE ANTI-DOPING IN SPORT AS A ROLE OF AUTHORITIES OF THE COUNTRY IN ORDER TO ASSURE SAFETY IN SPORT

The article analyzes and evaluates the legal and organizational regulations adopted on the basis of worldwide standards set by the institutions specialized in counteracting the phenomenon of doping in sport. The biggest attention was placed on the Polish Anti-Doping Agency (POLADA), established in 2017 under the Law against doping in sports whose complex rules of operation are defined in several separate legal acts. The reflections were supported by examples of the most infamous doping scandals of recent times, both in Poland and international.

The author finds that the current legal regulations, as well as their practical application, allow effective counteraction of individuals and entities using or spreading substances and methods prohibited by the law. Legal regulations and as a consequence the activities of institutions such as the Polish Anti-Doping Agency must be a subject to the continuous evaluation in order to be able to respond to the latest attempts to use banned doping in sport, because it has a direct impact on ensuring broadly understood safety and security in sports.

In addition, the author indicates that one of the best methods of combating doping is to highlight its possible negative effects. Therefore, further educational programs should be initiated and propagated in the society, followed by spreading information matter of doping, because the phenomenon of using prohibited substances and methods by professional athletes is in contrary to the fundamental principle that should lead sports competition fair play. Additional severe consequences that might be revealed in the future, may also be serious health problems for people using doping during their careers.

Keywords: doping in sports, Polish Anti-Doping Agency, prohibited substances, banned methods.

1. INTRODUCTION

Professional and uncompromising combat against the phenomenon of usage of the banned doping is one of the most important and at the same time the most challenging

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everyday life tasks that rest on public institutions, required to play as a guarantee of the safety in sports. Doping understood as a form of dishonest practice used by the sportsmen in order to gain results exceeding their natural abilities is commonly seen not only among professionals but also among amateurs. The beginning of the era of the modern doping falls to 20th century when players who practice sports involving long-term physical activities commenced to reach for a substances which allow them to get results overcoming their abilities. Among the most popular drugs at the time, one can find caffeine, nitroglycerine or opium². Doping was always linked with excessive desire of the victory and also arising pressure for breaking consecutive achievements or gaining another records³. The result of such a practice is constantly growing financial capital invested in sport at the highest level. Sportsmen become stars, celebrities, authorities for public opinion or even fashion icons setting the latest trends. It is the desire to stay on the top that results in reaching for the substances banned in their regular professions. By noticing the problem of the existence of doping in sports, organizations at both international and national level are equipped with a number of law regulations and obligations to fight against doping at multiple levels. In order to achieve that goal, polish legislator appointed, pursuant to Law of 21st April 2017 against doping control, new legal subject who is believed to counteract doping in sport in an effective and transparent manner, not only following international standards but even setting the new ones. Such a legal subject is Polish Anti-doping Agency located in Warsaw. The nature of its activities is not only an action in cases when prohibited practices have already took place but it has also preventive character, represented by organizing multiple programs and trainings dedicated to sportsman, coaches or sport activists. Another goal is to prevent from the negative consequences possible whenever sportsman is deemed using prohibited performance-enhancing drugs or methods. Besides such negative consequences of being found positive to use doping such as dishonesty in the sport competition, and in consequence presenting lack of the respect for the noble ideas of the physical education, not to forget about the effects on a human body such as risk of health problems followed by the various possible complications, to finish with the scandals, well attended by the media that are visibly interested in sports and any related topics and that presents the information about popular, widely known figures from sports⁴ world picturing doping as a scandal and sensation⁵. Such an approach has negative impact on the perception of sport among supporters and potential sponsors.

The concept of the prohibited substance and prohibited method has been briefly described in the International Convention against Doping in Sport⁶. According to the Article 2, paragraph 18 and paragraph 19, they are defined as any substance or method which is declared as prohibited on the List of Prohibited Substances and Methods presented in Annex

² M. Zawartka, *Zagrożenia dla bezpieczeństwa w sporcie* [in:] M. Bednarczyk, K. Nessel, *Przedsiębiorczość w sporcie zasady i praktyka*, Warsaw 2016, p. 218.

³ A. Leszczyńska, *Szprycujący się koksiarze przyłapani na doping. Obraz zjawiska dopingu w sporcie w polskiej prasie na przykładzie tekstów z „Gazety Wyborczej” i „Przeglądu Sportowego”* [in:] M. Jarosz, P. Drzewiecki, P. Płatek, *Sport w mediach*, Warsaw 2013, p. 324.

⁴ The Law of 21st April 2017 against Doping (Journal of Laws 2017, item 1051).

⁵ M. Pasik, D. Kwiatkowska, A. Pokrywka, *Doping w sporcie i doping oczami mediów – próba charakterystyki zjawiska* [in:] M. Jarosz, P. Drzewiecki, P. Płatek, *Sport w mediach...*, p. 406.

⁶ International Convention Against Doping in Sports dated 19th October 2005 (Journal of Laws of 2007, item 999, Journal of Laws of 2013, item 1243, Journal of Laws of 2014, item 343, Journal of Laws of 2016, item 79 and 332, Journal of Laws of 2017 item 263.).

1 to the Convention. It is worth mentioning that due to the fact that doping in sport is dynamically evolving, legislator used general terms in order to keep general character and ensure ability to update them as required by the subjects responsible for anti-doping measures. Current (as of 2018) Annex n°1 to the International Convention against Doping in Sport enlist six groups of substances described as prohibited and three methods identified as banned⁷. These specifications concern substances and methods prohibited to use not only during but also outside of the competitions. Furthermore, the catalogue has been extended to include four further groups of prohibited substances that will be tested during the competition only. At this point, it is worth mentioning that according to the Polish law, timeframe for the competition starts 12 hours before the competition meaning single race, game or sport event, until it is finished, unless the provision set by the respective sports organization or organizer of the competition requires otherwise, including the timeframe for the anti-doping regulations related to the event⁸.

2. CONTEMPORARY VIEW OF THE DOPING IN SPORTS

Definition of the doping in sport has evolved throughout the years by adjusting its content to the needs required by the current state. Number of times it could have been observed that sportsmen using various substances enhancing their motoric or mental abilities by benefiting from the knowledge of the specialists in the domain of chemistry, biology were able to hide this fact from the knowledge of institutions responsible for the doping prevention. Such cases became reason why legal regulations and all the forms of the practices against doping in sports should be analyzed and updated in a dynamic manner in order to ensure that the idea of rivalry is based on the timeless value which is fair play rule.

Currently basic definition of the doping in sport can be found in the Law of 21st April 2017 against doping in sports that replaced legal provisions of the chapter 9, Law of 25th June 2010 on sports⁹. The latest document (Law of 21st April) defines it as the fact of discovering prohibited substances in a sample provided by the sportsman, refusal of providing with such a sample or unjustified non-appearance for the examination set up to take samples. Such a view results in the fact that legislator consider as doping also a situation when sportsman intentionally avoids undergoing examination for usage of prohibited substances or methods. In addition, it is not only actual fact of using prohibited substances but also attempt to use or going further, possession of mentioned substances or tools enabling player to benefit from a legally forbidden method¹⁰. According to the Article 3 paragraph 1 of the Law of 21st April 2017 the legislator indicated that it is prohibited not to provide with the required data concerning place of residence of the player in order to perform doping check and to manipulate or attempt to manipulate any step of such an examination.

Another important aspect of the doping declared as prohibited is a situation commonly seen in the media. Sportsmen who is accused of doping and is trying to avoid the consequences claims not to be aware of any prohibited drugs found positive in dope test. Frequently such a statement is followed by the claim that the defendant has taken prohibited

⁷ Amended Annex n°1 to the International Convention Against Doping in Sports dated 19th October 2005, Paris effective 1st January 2018 (Journal of Laws of 2018, item 40).

⁸ Art. 2 of The Law of 21st April 2017 against Doping (Journal of Laws 2017, item 1051).

⁹ Law of 25th June 2010 on sports (Journal of Laws of 2018 r., item 1263).

¹⁰ Art. 3 of Law of 21st April 2017 against doping control, (Journal of Laws. of 2017., item. 1051).

substance unintentionally, following recommendation of one of the team's members ex., trainer, doctor or physiotherapist.

Much attention has been focused on the case from 2016 when prominent cross-country skier Therese Johaug was tested positive to use prohibited substance (clostebol). In this case, it was the team's doctor who took the responsibility and explained the situation as an oversight from his side¹¹. In spite of that fact, Johaug was severely punished – she was disqualified for 18 months and returned to the competitions in April 2018¹². Interpreting Article 3 paragraph 1 subparagraph 8 of the Law of 21st April 2017 defining doping in sport as delivering or attempt to deliver banned substance or method regardless it happens during the competition or outside of that time, it needs to be admitted that such a decision of the legislator limits the possibilities of repeating such circumstances and implicitly obliges athletes to keep special vigilance. Furthermore, it was declared that acts such as aiding and incitement and also all kind of conscious cooperation, that can be related to the act considered as doping in sport is strictly legally seen as doping in sport. The reasoning behind this approach is to discourage other individuals to persuade or provide with banned substances or use prohibited method on an athlete regardless it happens consciously or unconsciously. To sum up discussed topic, the role played by the athlete in process of enhancing performance by using prohibited methods is irrelevant whenever he is tested positive for the dope test¹³.

Polish law, according to the international standards, allows to possess and use by the athletes commonly banned substances and methods and to administer them during and outside of competition as long as it is dictated by the curative reasons. It is rare and very detailed in its procedure practice, caused by the sportsman's health related issues, that still does not definitively prevent from playing sports at the highest professional level. Whenever this kind of situation happens, each case is reviewed in a professional and individual manner. It is related to the fact that health problems can be generally divided into two groups. Those that concern our private life and the ingredients used in prescribed drugs are listed as substances prohibited in sports. The other group represents the substances that directly do not allow effective competition within a particular sports discipline. In such cases lawgiver decided that the derogation is named exclusion for therapeutic purposes¹⁴. In order to be granted an exclusion there need to be fulfilled four basic criteria. An athlete is obliged to demonstrate that the banned substance or method is necessary to treat chronic medical condition which could cause significant damage to health in case the treatment using prohibited drug is discontinued and at the same time following forbidden method or taking substance has no significant impact on improvement of the performance in comparison to the results achieved by a player after recovery resulted of termination of the treatment¹⁵. Another condition to be granted described exclusion requires that the originally banned substance or method does not allow any alternative therapeutic treatment, whereas the necessity of applying the treatment by using prohibited substance or method does not

¹¹ <https://sportowefakty.wp.pl/biegi-narciarskie/637224/therese-johaug-zlapana-na-dopingu> (accessed on 10.11.2018).

¹² <https://sportowefakty.wp.pl/biegi-narciarskie/769288/therese-johaug-wrocila-do-rywalizacji-juz-jest-najlepsza> (accessed on 10.11.2018).

¹³ Edit. M. Leciak, *Leksykon prawa sportowego*, publ. C.H.Beck, Warsaw 2017, p. 27.

¹⁴ Annex n° 2 to the International Convention Against Doping in Sports dated 1st January 2015, Paris.

¹⁵ Annex n° 2 to the International Convention ..., Art. 4.1, par. a and b.

come from the fact of using (without permission to exclude for therapeutic purposes) substance or method that was banned at the time of usage¹⁶. In this place author should mention that Annex 2 of the cited International Convention Against Doping in Sport in article 4.3 allows to apply for permission to use banned substance or method for therapeutic purposes with retroactive effect. The exception of such nature exist extremely rarely and mostly under very particular circumstances, when it is necessary to take immediate action in order to treat certain illness.

All the regulations that have been presented and analyzed in this chapter shall be recognized as highly rational and ensuring dual aspect of guarantees of security in sport by its flexibility. On the one hand, from legislative perspective they stand guard over the universal idea permanently linked with sport which is fair play. On the other hand, these regulations enable continuous competition for athletes who despite their medial issues can professionally plays sports de iure using medicaments including prohibited substances according to the exclusion for therapeutic purposes.

3. POLISH ANTI-DOPING AGENCY AS AN INSTITUTION APPOINTED TO FIGHT AGAINST DOPING IN SPORTS

Polish Anti-Doping Agency (POLADA) as a state legal person is in fact a new organization established under the Law of 21st April 2017 concerning doping control. Since 1st July 2017 POLADA plays role of polish national organization against doping. It has replaced and taken over responsibilities and competencies of the previous body, Commission Against Doping in Sports¹⁷. Its supervision and granting the statut falls within competence of minister with the responsibility for physical culture¹⁸, while it is financed mainly from the subsidies from the state budget¹⁹. Additional sources of financing may come also through the assets coming from European Union budget, revenues from commercial activities, inheritances and donations²⁰.

It should be noted that apart from the indicated Law of 21st April 2017 against doping, there is number of other basic enactments that are merits-related complementing provisions of the Law and their content regulates in details POLADA's rights and obligations. The first one is Polish Anti-Doping Agency organizational rules dated 1st July 2017²¹. The document states i.e. that the management body of POLADA is the Director. According to the Article 4 paragraph 1 of the organizational rules it has to be admitted that this position has been granted with broad powers to define POLADA human resources policies, to play a role of representant of the organization. In addition, Director is obliged i.e. to prepare:

- draft of annual financial plan,
- annual report on its execution,
- plan of annual and long-term action plan.

¹⁶ Annex n° 2 to the International Convention ..., Art 4.1, par. c and d.

¹⁷ D. Błachnio, M. Rynkowski, *Polski system antydopingowy* [in:] M. Rynkowski, *Antydoping w Polsce*, Warsaw 2014, p. 31–32.

¹⁸ Art. 4 Law of 21st April 2017.

¹⁹ Art. 30 par. 1 Law of 21st April 2017.

²⁰ Art. 30 par. 2 Law of 21st April 2017.

²¹ Annex to the Decision n° 1 of Director of Polish Anti-Doping Agency dated 1st July 2017.

To complete the picture, it should be noted that there has also been established Council of Polish Anti-Doping Agency whose procedures and principles are described in the Law of 21st April against doping, statute of POLADA and organizational rules for Council of Agency. It has advisory character against the works of Polish Anti-Doping Agency²². Moreover, according to the paragraph 8 of the organizational rules, POLADA consist of following departments: Secretary, Department of Information and Education, Department of Administration and Finance, Department for Doping Control and Performance Management to finish with Analytics and Investigation Group. Each department has their individual, highly specialized responsibilities, which are described in paragraphs 29 to 33 of the POLADA's organizational rules. Such a split enables full professionalism of the tasks assigned to the individual groups and in consequence, it allows to enhance efficiency of POLADA.

Another legislative act that complements the Law of 21st April against doping at the substantive level are Anti-Doping Control and Test Results Management Regulations²³. Already paragraph 1 of the normative document define its basic guidelines. A significant role in the Agency's role take anti-doping controls, that may be performed during and in between of the competitions – it often concerns such a time like training camps, consultations or simply regular trainings. The control itself bases on extracting samples and evidences provided that individuals who are subject to the control are not informed in advance that the examination will take place. What is interesting, an athlete who has set a new Poland, Europe or World record and has not been tested for doping is obliged to contact Polish Anti-Doping Agency in order to perform such a test. Additionally, the examination needs to be done during the competition and according to the applicable procedures and it should be completed within 24 hours from the time of setting the record. In the reminder of Anti-Doping Control and Test Results Management Regulations there are basic instructions concerning planning, execution, data and results analysis related to the doping control and the procedures concerning reporting violation of the anti-doping regulations. The paragraph 4 includes information concerning structure and the range of the rights and obligations so called controlling groups. The solutions accepted through the organizational rules make a procedure related to the doping control fully transparent and easy to understand, which are key matters in terms of law execution by the national and international organs.

Another normative act which is subject to the analysis regulates operation of the institution responsible for ruling in cases concerning violations of the anti-doping regulations. This is Anti-Doping Disciplinary Panel within the Polish Anti-Doping Agency. The fact that should be highlighted is that it has jurisdiction both in the first and second instances²⁴. This means that Disciplinary Panel is independent from POLADA's organs and it is led by a president. In this kind of legal proceedings the role of prosecutor devolve on Polish Anti-Doping Agency, whereas the other party is defendant who apart form personal attendance may in the course of the proceedings appoint no more than three representatives. Further regulations of the Polish Anti-Doping Agency organizational rules provide with the complex information concerning course of proceeding and also costs related to its execution.

²² M. Leciak (edit.), M. Biliński, K. Grabska-Luberadzka, R. Piechota, H. Radke, B. Rischka-Słowik, K. Tetlak, *Prawo sportowe*, Warsaw 2018, p. 374–375.

²³ Annex to the Decision n° 4 of Director of Polish Anti-Doping Agency dated 1st July 2017.

²⁴ Art. 1 par. 3 Regulations Anti-Doping Disciplinary Panel within the Polish Anti-Doping Agency dated 13th July 2017.

Finally, the last of the acts that constitute integral part of the previously described documents is the largest one in terms of content, these are Anti-doping regulations of the Polish Anti-Doping Agency dated 1st July, 2017. It was redacted based on World Anti-Doping Code (WADC) accepted by Foundation Board of World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) in 2015. It is worth mentioning that WADA was established on 10th November 1999 and it functions as a foundation. In order to fulfill its main task, which is acting against doping, WADA coordinates various activities on an international level, mainly by as efficient as possible unification of the variety of anti-doping regulations existing currently in sports²⁵. To underline even further how important role is played by WADA, it should be noted that unification and harmonization of international anti-doping regulations allows to ensure widely understood safety and security in that matter²⁶. What is interesting, World Anti-Doping Agency is a private entity what initially was arising controversies. Over the time and as a result of intense efforts to build the trust and position in the international arena, WADA became a fully respected unit who leads anti-doping actions at the international level. Such a crucial moment was taking into effect in 2004 WADC who replaced Olympic Movement Code on the Prevention of Doping at the start of The 2004 Summer Olympic Games held in Athens²⁷.

A closer insight into the international background, described in details in a previous paragraph plays a key role in an analysis of the norms of the Regulations of Polish Anti-Doping Agency. The ownership law regulates in a complex and detailed manner i.e. following matters. Definition of the idea of doping in sports, proceeding with doping tests, setting the penalties that individual athletes and whole teams that they represent are liable to, and information concerning the fact that POLADA is responsible for planning, implementation and monitoring of educational programs, whose role is to make society aware of the dangers brought by the existence of doping in sports²⁸.

Unfortunately, despite the number of educational programs prepared by International and Polish Anti-Doping Agency the athletes tested positive for doping often excuse themselves with unawareness of their actions. Unfortunately, such explanation is not taken into account. This approach comes from the one of the basic rules of the law, which is *ignorantia iuris nocet*, ignorance of the law is harmful. For the sake of convenience it should be noted that regulations of Polish Anti-Doping Agency are enactments that cover most of the major issues related to the doping because they are described in a consistent and system way what prevents from future excuses based on the fact that one's has not been aware of the nature of his actions at the time of using prohibited substance or method.

4. CONCLUSION

The actions against doping is a tough and at the same time one of the most important responsibilities that rest on the international and state authorities specializing in this matter. The idea of doping in sports is connected by the society with testing an athlete positive as

²⁵ E.J. Krześniak, *Kluby i organizacje sportowe w prawie polskim na tle rozwiązań zagranicznych*, Warsaw 2016, p. 99.

²⁶ S. Fundowicz, *Prawo sportowe*, Warsaw 2013, p. 227.

²⁷ R. Piechota, *Reguły antydopingowe w prawie międzynarodowym*, Studia Iuridica Toruniensia tom VI, publ. Uniwersytet Mikołaja Kopernika w Toruniu, Toruń 2010, p. 165.

²⁸ Regulations of Polish Anti-Doping Agency version 2.1, dated 1st July 2017.

a part of competition. It should be noted though that professional sportsman who is actively playing sports is legally obliged to obey the regulations against doping.

It is important to highlight the consequences of such practices, not only legal but also moral and health related that are borne by the player who uses prohibited substances or banned methods. It opposes the idea of ensuring broadly understood safety and security in sport because it is not only form of dishonest practice. Another negative aspect is breaking the essential principle leading this sphere of life, which is fair play. Furthermore, the athletes who use prohibited doping often are not aware of the possible side effects on health, which might be revealed in a future.

Polish Anti-Doping Agency established pursuant to the Law of 21st April against doping in sport bears responsibility for ensuring that sport is free from the dopes. POLADA hold all the legal and administrative tools that let assume that the challenging task will be completed in an efficient manner. As a matter of opinion, the most spectacular case of testing positive a sportsman for the usage of dopes, that falls within the jurisdiction of recently established Polish Anti-Doping Agency was case of Grigorij Łaguta, speedway rider of ROW Rybnik Team. Based on the doping control performed 11th June 2016 after the race of the top division of motorcycle speedway in Poland between the teams of ROW Rybnik Włókniarz Vitroszlif CrossFit Częstochowa Grigorij Łaguta was found to use the substance prohibited since 2016 - meldonium²⁹. Anti-doping Disciplinary Panel within the Polish Anti-Doping Agency proclaimed in the first instance penalty of 2 years suspension. However, the penalty has been reduced to 21 months as part of proceedings in the second instance. This ruling was based on the principle of proportionality and resulted directly from the fact that thanks to such decision rider will be able to start in the season of 2019, which would be impossible due to the closed transfer window in the case of maintaining the original penalty issued for 24 months³⁰. Such a ruling should be evaluated in a positive way, because the penalty for doping in sport still remains severe, but at the same time does not prevent from development of the career of such an prominent speedway rider as Grigory Łaguta.

In addition, it is to be hoped that in the future doping in sport will be less and less frequent, and in order to achieve this goal both the Polish Anti-Doping Agency and its international counterpart should put even more emphasis on preventive actions based on organizing and publishing informational and educative materials, which will ultimately maximize safety and security in sport.

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ANALIZA ORAZ OCENA WYBRANYCH ASPEKTÓW WALKI Z DOPINGIEM W SPORCIE JAKO ZADANIE ORGANÓW PAŃSTWOWYCH W CELU ZAPEWNIENIA BEZPIECZEŃSTWA W SPORCIE

W artykule przeprowadzona została analiza i ocena przyjętych, na podstawie ogólnościowych standardów, regulacji prawno-organizacyjnych podmiotów specjalizujących się w przeciwdziałaniu nielegalnego zjawisku doping w sporcie. Szczególna uwaga została poświęcona powołanej do życia w 2017 roku na mocy ustawy o zwalczaniu doping w sporcie Polskiej Agencji Antydopingowej (POLADA), której kompleksowe zasady funkcjonowania określone zostały w kilku odrębnych aktach prawnych. Rozważania zostały poparte przykładami najgłośniejszych afer dopingowych ostatnich lat zarówno na świecie, jak i w Polsce.

Autor ocenia, iż obecnie obowiązujące regulacje prawne, a także ich praktyczne zastosowanie, co do zasady pozwalają na efektywne przeciwdziałanie podmiotom stosującym lub rozpowszechniającym środki lub metody ustawowo zabronione. Przepisy prawne, a co za tym idzie – działalność takich instytucji jak Polska Agencja Antydopingowa muszą ulegać ciągłej ewaluacji, tak aby móc reagować na coraz to nowsze próby stosowania niedozwolonego doping w sporcie, ponieważ ma to bezpośredni wpływ na zagwarantowanie szeroko pojętego bezpieczeństwa w sporcie.

Ponadto autor wskazuje, iż jedną z najlepszych metod walki z dopingiem jest ukazywanie możliwych negatywnych skutków jakie wywołuje. Stąd też powinny być inicjowane i propagowane w społeczeństwie kolejne programy edukacyjne, a także informacyjne na ten temat, gdyż zjawisko stosowania przez profesjonalnych sportowców środków i metod zabronionych stoi w sprzeczności z fundamentalną regułą, na której powinna opierać się rywalizacja sportowa, a mianowicie zasadzie *fair play*. Dodatkowymi konsekwencjami w przyszłości mogą być również poważne problemy zdrowotne u osób stosujących doping w trakcie trwania ich karier sportowych.

Słowa kluczowe: doping w sporcie, Polska Agencja Antydopingowa, środki zabronione, metody zabronione.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.50

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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STANDARDIZATION OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY REPORTING

The aim of the article is to present standards, norms and guidelines being developed for standardization of social reporting aimed at communication on economic, social and environmental impact of market activities undertaken by companies. The article also focuses on the empirical research showing their practical implementation in the process of reporting concerning corporate social responsibility by companies included in the RESPECT Index. Considering the formulated purpose, the article assumes the following research hypothesis: *the companies included in the RESPECT Index perceive the need to ensure the reliability and comparability of disclosed non-financial data, through the use of most common standards, norms and guidelines concerning the area of corporate social responsibility reporting.* The realization of the article's purpose as well as the verification of the adopted research hypothesis is based on the review of the literature and documents containing recommendation concerning the reporting of corporate social responsibility as well as an analysis of the content of non-financial reports prepared by companies covered by the survey. Results of the research lead to the conclusion that regulations for corporate social responsibility reporting occupy a significant place in reports prepared by companies included in the RESPECT Index. Sustainability reporting guidelines and standards prepared by the Global Reporting Initiative are of particular importance in this field. However, it is necessary to take further steps to improve the quality of published reports and increase the level of their external verification, which give confidence that reporting data are reliable and can be basis for decision-making by stakeholders.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility reporting, standardization, RESPECT Index Companies.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The rising importance of corporate social responsibility in the practice of enterprises determines their need for directing activities not only at achieving high project profitability but also a necessity to include within their strategies the expectations of other market participants. These expectations are connected both with initiating particular activities within the closer as well as the more distant environment but also with communicating related information. Discretion as well as the varying scope of information presented by individual entities remains problematic³. That is the reason that initiation of activities meant to standardize delivered data in the area of corporate social responsibility is important.

The aim of the article is to present standards, norms and guidelines regulating matters of non-financial reporting as well as to present empirical research showing their practical implementation in the process of reporting concerning corporate social responsibility by companies included in the RESPECT Index.

Considering the formulated purpose, the article assumes the following research hypothesis: *the companies included in the RESPECT Index perceive the need to ensure the reliability and comparability of disclosed non-financial data, through the use of most common standards, norms and guidelines concerning the area of corporate social responsibility reporting.*

The realization of the article's purpose as well as the verification of the adopted research hypothesis is based on the review of literature and documents containing recommendations concerning the reporting of corporate social responsibility as well as an analysis of the content of non-financial reports prepared by companies belonging to the RESPECT Index.

The focus only on companies included in the RESPECT index means that conducted analysis does not fully exhaust the issues related to application of standards, norms and guidelines in the process of corporate social responsibility reporting by companies functioning on the Polish market. However, it provides a detailed information about the practices undertaken in this area by companies with the highest standards of social responsibility, whose activity very often becomes a model conduct for other economic actors.

2. SELECTED INITIATIVES FOR THE STANDARDIZATION OF REPORTS DEALING WITH CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Regardless of the form of reporting used by individual entities to publish information related to corporate social responsibility the range of the subject matter within the data presented as well as its transparency and comparability is becoming more and more significant. For that reason, there are initiatives which aim to establish standards for such

³ This is reflected in research described in the *Investment and Enterprise Responsibility Review: Analysis of investor and enterprise policies on corporate social responsibility*. It draws attention to the fact that CSR is a significant area of enterprises' self-regulation and most of the largest international corporations publish CSR reports. They differ from one another which creates problems with this information being used by stakeholders for decision-making (*Investment and Enterprise Responsibility Review: Analysis of investor and enterprise policies on corporate social responsibility*, United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, New York and Geneva, 2011, p. 3).

reporting. To attain this goal there is an attempt to develop standards, norms and guidelines (figure 1).

They are, on the one hand meant to facilitate the process of reporting non-financial information and, on the other hand, enable the users of such reports to gain useful and reliable information⁴.



Figure 1. Standards, guidelines and norms for corporate social responsibility reporting

Source: Author's own work based on: J. Samelak, *Zintegrowane sprawozdanie przedsiębiorstwa społecznie odpowiedzialnego*, Poznań 2013, p. 174; J. Kacprzak, L. Anam., *Raportowanie niefinansowe. Poradnik dla raportujących firm*, Warszawa 2017, p. 12–17.

One of the most prevalent sets of regulations concerning corporate social responsibility is the one developed by *Global Reporting Initiative (GRI)*⁵. These are continually being improved through establishing dialogue with various groups of stakeholders, representatives of the scientific environment as well as business specialists and practitioners from different countries. Being the result of a consensus between all parties involved they are a reflection of the most current and desired solutions within this area⁶. The GRI G4 guidelines published in May of 2013 are still in force today but in July of 2018 *GRI Sustainability Reporting Standards (GRI Standards)* will become effective. The main aim of introducing GRI Standards is to increase their availability to reporting organization through the use of less complicated language as well as the utilization of more flexible structures and clearer requirements⁷.

GRI is characterized by a high level of flexibility which means that it can be used by any organization regardless of its legal status, business profile, size or location. Although these regulations do not compel entities to use a predetermined form of reporting they do,

⁴ E. Różańska, *Integracja standardów raportowania społecznej odpowiedzialności przedsiębiorstw*, „Studia Oeconomica Posnaniensia” 2015, Vol. 3, No. 1, p. 168.

⁵ Is an independent non-profit organization oriented at supporting the development of sustainable world economy in which individual entities manage their own responsibility for the economic, social and environmental effects of their activity as well as communicate related data in a transparent manner (M. Mazurowska, *Analiza porównawcza wytycznych Global Reporting Initiative oraz International Integrated Reporting Comitee*, „Studia Oeconomica Posnaniensia” 2015, Vol. 3, No. 1, p. 138).

⁶ S. Pakowska, *Wytyczne G3 I G3.1 Global Reporting Initiative dotyczące raportowania kwestii zrównoważonego rozwoju – analiza porównawcza*, „Zarządzanie i Finanse” 2012, nr 1 (2), p. 548.

⁷ *G4 Guidelines Transition to Standards*, <https://www.globalreporting.org/information/g4/transition-to-standards/Pages/default.aspx> (access: 11.02.2018).

however, stipulate precisely what should be reported and the manner in which it should be done. They define rules of reporting which contain descriptions of results to be accomplished and toward which the enterprise should strive in the process of reporting the economic, social and environmental effects of their operation. The preparation of reports on the basis of these rules makes it easier for entities to show the impact of their completed projects on individual groups of stakeholders and, as a result, to select and disclose the most significant matters related to them⁸.

They also show the scope of required disclosures⁹:

- 1) General Standard Disclosures which relate to the description of the operating conditions of a given entity enabling the understanding of the functioning character of the company as well as its approach toward the issue of sustainable development and reporting related data;
- 2) Specific Standard Disclosures which concern the description of a given entity's approach to management – the manner in which it identifies economic, social and environmental effects of its operations, analyzes them and attempts to react to them.

An important characteristic of regulations prepared by the *Global Reporting Initiative* is the fact that they can be used in combination with other initiatives related to corporate social responsibility. One of such initiatives is the *UN Global Compact* (UN GC) establishing a global network of organizations declaring cooperation and development in the area of the ten principles referring to the four priority areas of corporate social responsibility: human rights, labor, environmental and anti-corruption standards¹⁰.

Entities belonging to the *Global Compact* are obliged to maintain informational transparency through the publication of an annual report (*Communication on Progress Report*), which, other than its reporting role, also functions as an important criterion for status assessment of a given entity and the level of its engagement in the realization of CSR principles¹¹. In accordance with the guidelines the scope of information within this type of a document should also encompass the general manager's statement regarding the continued support for the initiative as well as information concerning practical activities realized by the company in relation to the ten selected principles. Additionally, it should also, in a measurable way and through the use of standard reporting indicators including those specified by GRI guidelines, present data regarding the impact of in-progress undertakings on the close and broader environment of the entity¹².

It must be stressed that both initiatives are mutually compatible since they are a part of a uniform set of values for entities who want to implement the concept of social responsi-

⁸ L. Anam, *Zasady raportowania – podstawa prawidłowego sporządzania raportów* [in:] N. Ćwik (ed.), *Wspólna odpowiedzialność. Rola raportowania społecznego*, Warszawa, 2013, p. 74.

⁹ A. Paszkiewicz, A. Szadzińska, *Raportowanie rozwoju zrównoważonego przedsiębiorstw według wytycznych GRI*, *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego nr 668 „Finanse, Rynki Finansowe, Ubezpieczenia”*, 2011, nr 41, p. 634.

¹⁰ E. Lemus, *The importance of CSR in Financial Reporting Standards*, „Global Journal of Management and Business Research: D Accounting and Auditing”, 2016, Vol. 16, Issue 2, p. 25.

¹¹ R. Dyląg, E. Puchalska, *Raportowanie zagadnień środowiskowych i społecznych*, „Zeszyty Teoretyczne Rachunkowości”, t. 75 (131), Warszawa 2014, p. 28.

¹² United Nations Global Compact, *After the signature. A Guide to engagement in the United Nations Global Compact*, 2012, https://www.unglobalcompact.org/docs/news_events/8.1/after_the_signature.pdf, p. 20 (access: 10.02.2018).

bility and the practice of reporting related data. As a result many entities preparing reports dealing with social responsibility do not have to choose between them but can simultaneously use the Global Compact principles as well as the Global Reporting Initiative guidelines¹³.

The ISO 26000 norm containing a wide spectrum of issues concerning the concept of CSR is yet another set of regulations which is fully compatible with the GRI guidelines. It identifies areas which entities should consider during the realization of their undertakings and which concern such issues as: organizational governance, human rights, labor practices, the environment, fair operating practices, consumer issues as well as community involvement and development¹⁴. Unlike most other standards of this type the ISO 26000 norm is not subject to certification¹⁵. It is only a practical guidebook referring to the application of rules for corporate social responsibility in everyday business practice.

Standards from the AccountAbility1000 (AA1000) series which analyze the scope of disclosures within reports through the prism of their users keeping in mind issues concerning stakeholders' involvement and their cooperation with the company is another initiative upon which the process of reporting corporate social responsibility may also be based¹⁶. The AA1000 series of standards consists of three standards all of which support the entity at different levels of its relationship building with the stakeholders. These include¹⁷: the AA1000APS standard (AA1000 Account Ability Principles Standard), the AA1000SES standard (AA1000 Stakeholder Engagement Standard) as well as the AA1000AS standard (AA1000 Assurance Standard).

The most universal collection of guidelines relating to corporate social responsibility as well as to reporting data related to it has been developed by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). It contains a set of voluntarily used rules and behavior norms and relate to such issues as: human rights, free access to information, employment and industrial relations, environmental protection, corruption prevention or the protection of consumer rights¹⁸.

Within the social reporting standardization process activities undertaken by the International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC) are also significant. They aim to develop a reporting standard which would allow the presentation of a manner in which the organization's strategy, its organizational governance, results and perspectives in the context of

¹³ R. Sroka, *Raportowanie społeczne na świecie* [in:] N. Ćwik (ed.), *Wspólna odpowiedzialność...*, p. 14.

¹⁴ International Organization for Standardization, *ISO 26000:10, Guidance on Social Responsibility*, <https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:26000:ed-1:v1:en> (access: 10.02.2018).

¹⁵ R. Sully, *ISO 26000: the business guide to the new standard on social responsibility*, „Impact Assessment and project Appraisal”, 2012, Vol. 30, No. 3, p. 214.

¹⁶ T. Martyniuk, K. Szawczak, *Raportowanie społecznej odpowiedzialności przedsiębiorstw*, Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu „Przyszłość rachunkowości i sprawozdawczości – założenia, zasady, definicje. Ujawnienia informacji w sprawozdaniu finansowym”, 2013, nr 314, p. 111.

¹⁷ AccountAbility, *Standards*, <http://www.accountability.org/standards/> (access: 12.02.2018).

¹⁸ *OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises 2011 Edition, 2011*, <https://www.oecd.org/corporate/mne/48004323.pdf>, p. 31–63 (access: 11.02.2018).

the external environment impact values in the short, medium and long-term¹⁹. Undoubtedly this is the future of business reporting since it will be possible to include in one report both financial and social issues as well as the relationships between them.

The need for standardizing the reporting process of non-financial data has been noticed not only at the international level but also in Poland. In order to facilitate companies' adaptation to reporting requirements imposed by the Directive 2014/95/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council²⁰ a national Non-Financial Information Standard (Standard Informacji Niefinansowych, SIN) was published in October of 2017. It was created through the initiative of the Polish Association of Listed Companies and the Foundation for Reporting Standards and its development was the result of the engagement of experts representing both business as well as the non-governmental sector²¹.

The standard consists of two crucial parts. The first contains basic rules of non-financial reporting as well as the suggested scope of disclosures in three areas (management, environmental and employee) along with examples of indicators which can be utilized to achieve it. Within the second part several annexes updating and explaining individual parts of the Standard have been prepared. An important issue is the fact that the goal of SIN is not to compete with other norms or guidelines of this type but the creation of regulations most suited to the Polish reality. The standard is mainly addressed to those enterprises which have never before prepared these types of reports and are only beginning their experience with non-financial reporting and for whom the utilization of the best-known international regulations of this type could be an insurmountable organizational challenge²².

The presented standards, norms and guidelines comprise only a portion of initiatives which, on the one hand, aim to propagate social reporting and, on the other, are a move toward their standardization. Since a universal standard for these types of reports has not so far been developed it becomes necessary to integrate various standards, norms and guidelines and, on their basis, create an individual framework of reporting adequate to address the characteristics of a given entity as well as its corporate social responsibility strategy²³.

3. PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF STANDARDS, NORMS AND GUIDELINES IN THE PROCESS OF REPORTING ON CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY BY COMPANIES OF THE RESPECT INDEX

The RESPECT Index initiated in 2009 is the first index in East-Central Europe associating socially responsible companies. Its structures are created by entities which

¹⁹ IIRC, *International Integrated Reporting Framework*, <http://integratedreporting.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/13-12-08THEINTERNATIONAL-IR-FRAMEWORK-2-1.pdf>, p. 8 (access: 10.02.2018).

²⁰ Directive 2014/95/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 22 October 2014 amending Directive 2013/34/EU as regards disclosure of non-financial and diversity information by certain large undertakings and groups (OJ L 330, 15.11.2014). Starting in 2018 it imposes additional reporting responsibilities on large public interest entities in regard to the presentation of environmental matters, social and employee-related matters, respect for human rights, anti-corruption and bribery matters.

²¹ Fundacja Standardów Raportowania, *Standard Informacji Niefinansowych*, 2017, <https://standardy.org.pl/wppsndrd/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/SIN.pdf>, p. 9 (access: 07.02.2018).

²² *Ibidem*.

²³ E. Różańska, *Integracja standardów raportowania...*, p. 175–176.

operate in compliance with the best management standards related to corporate and informational governance as well as within the ecological, social and employee related spheres²⁴. This responsibility is expressed not only through the initiation of particular activities relating to CSR but also with meeting the informational needs of individual groups of stakeholders. This does not solely concern the disclosure of financial information but also those referring to economic, social and environmental aspects.

This can be seen in the fact that approximately 68% of the 28 companies making up the index prepare separate corporate social responsibility reports and results from their awareness that information provided in those reports is an important criterion for the assessment of the company's operations.

The content of presented information as well as its high quality and comparability becomes especially significant. For that reason, the utilization of particular standards, norms and guidelines supporting the process of non-financial reporting is crucial (table 1).

Table 1. References to standards, norms and guidelines of companies included in the RESPECT Index and preparing reports concerning corporate social responsibility

Company	Report name	Standards, norms, and guidelines on non-financial reporting							Independent external verification
		GRI	ISO 26000	UN GC	OECD	AA 1000 SES	IIRC	SIN	
Orange Polska	Orange Polska Integrated Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓
mBank	Annual Report 2016 (integrated report)	GRI G4 (core)	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	-
Agora	Agora Group 2016 Non-Financial Statement	GRI G4 (core)	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-
LW Bogdanka	Integrated Report GK LW Bogdanka for 2016	GRI G4 (core)	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	-
Trakcja PRKiI	Integrated Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓
Budimex	Integrated annual Report for 2016	GRI G4 (core)	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓
Grupa LOTOS	Integrated annual Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	-
Tauron PE	Integrated Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓
Elektro-budowa	Corporate social responsibility Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-
PGE	2016 Integrated Report	GRI G4 (core)	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-

²⁴ RESPECT Index, *Opis projektu*, http://www.odpowiedzialni.gpw.pl/opis_projektu (access: 11.02.2018).

Table 1 (cont.). References to standards, norms and guidelines of companies included in the RESPECT Index and preparing reports concerning corporate social responsibility

Company	Report name	Standards, norms, and guidelines on non-financial reporting							Independent external verification
		GRI	ISO 26000	UN GC	OECD	AA 1000 SES	IIRC	SIN	
BZ WBK	2016 Corporate Social Responsibility Report	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	✓	-	-	✓
ING Bank Śląski	Integrated Annual Report of ING Bank Śląski S.A. 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-
KGHM Polska Miedź	Integrated Report 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-
Bank Millennium	2016 Bank Millennium Financial and Social Report	Standards GRI (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓
Aparator	Report CSR 2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PGNiG	PGNiG Group CSR Report 2014	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓
Energa	Our Responsibility 2016 (CSR report)	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Grupa Azoty	Grupa Azoty Integrated Report 2015	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓
PZU	PZU SA'S Corporate Social Responsibility Report for 2015-2016	GRI G4 (core)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Author's own work based on social and integrated reports prepared by companies included in the RESPECT Index.

Of greatest importance in the area of social reporting are regulations developed by the *Global Reporting Initiative*. This is proven by the fact that the reports of as many as 18 companies belonging to the RESPECT index comply with GRI G4 Guidelines. Additionally, in its reporting process the Bank Millennium S.A. already utilizes the newest standards of this kind (*GRI Standards*) which will definitively replace the G4 Guidelines on July of 2018. Equally important is the fact that all companies using both GRI G4 guidelines as well as GRI Standards achieve a core level of reporting which does not impose on the reporting enterprises the responsibility to disclose all indicators prescribed by regulations of this type.

The growing significance of the concept of integrated reporting also finds confirmation in interest shown to standards prepared by IIRC. References to this type of regulations can be found in as many as eight reports combining information concerning financial as well as

non-financial aspects of enterprise's operation. Additionally, RESPECT Index companies willingly declare compliance of presented data with Global Compact principles and the ISO 26000 norm.

Another important issue is the fact that a large number of analyzed companies do not limit themselves to utilizing individual norms or guidelines but use an entire set of related tools. In the process of reporting, other than GRI G4 guidelines, RESPECT Index companies often reach for two (5 companies) or even three (2 companies) additional documents regulating non-financial reporting issues and the integrated report of Orange Polska S.A. simultaneously contains references to GRI G4 guidelines, the ISO 26000 norm, Global Compact principles, OECD guidelines as well as to standards prepared by the IIRC.

The conducted analysis additionally shows that some companies subject their reports to independent external verification conducted by auditing companies or GRI organizations. It is not, however, a standard procedure even among companies making up the RESPECT Index. This can cause certain doubts regarding the actual credibility of data presented in social reports and reduce the feeling of certainty that they can be a basis for correct decision-making of individual groups of stakeholders²⁵. This determines further actions oriented at creating regulations obligating reporting enterprises to even greater authentication of presented non-financial information.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The growing importance of the concept of corporate social responsibility determines the need for establishing dialogue with a wide spectrum of stakeholders through publishing reports containing data dealing with the economic, social and environmental context of companies' operation. In order to meet market demands connected with ensuring reliability as well as comparability of reports prepared by individual entities, the utilization of standards, norms and guidelines supporting the process of non-financial reporting becomes crucial since they facilitate not only the creation of such reports but also, from the perspective of stakeholders, increase their usefulness.

The conducted analysis allowed us to positively verify the research hypothesis posed within this article. Companies included in the RESPECT Index eagerly utilize standards, norms and guidelines in their process of non-financial reporting. Especially significant are principles developed by GRI which are used by nearly all reporting entities. Substantial interest in their employment results from the fact that they comprehensively define what a properly prepared report should contain. They include general rules and tips making the reporting process easier as well as indicators through which enterprises can measure and communicate their impact on the environment. Important is the fact that regulations developed by GRI are not by nature static but are continually improved to make non-financial reporting more transparent and complete. This is further confirmed by the fact that although the newest GRI Standards will not replace the still binding GRI G4 guidelines until July of 2018 they are already being utilized in the process of non-financial reporting.

Although the framework for non-financial reporting developed by GRI is dominant in this field it is not the only set of regulations currently being used. Growing significance is assigned to standards developed by IIRC. Some RESPECT Index companies, seeing the

²⁵ Global Reporting Initiative, *The external assurance of sustainability reporting*, 2013, <https://www.globalreporting.org/resource/library/GRI-Assurance.pdf>, p. 5 (access: 07.02.2018).

growing importance of non-financial reporting in building relationships with the stakeholders, forgo typical social reports and prepare integrated reports allowing them to combine financial information with information concerning corporate social responsibility.

Reports prepared by companies included in the RESPECT index concerning the issue of social responsibility are an important management tool compelling them to extensively analyze their responsibility and business processes. On the other hand, they are also an important tool for establishing dialogue between the enterprise and its environment. This is the reason that efforts to standardize provided data in order to ensure adequate quality of these reports, improve their reliability and assure their greater comparability, are important. Standardization of these reports will undoubtedly also contribute to enact changes in CSR related activity from being centered on maintaining companies' images into actions making up their strategy. This alteration of direction is significant when it is considered that non-financial reporting is, for some of these enterprises, becoming a legal obligation rather than a voluntary element of their disclosures. One example are the regulations of the Directive 2014/95/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council from 2014 whose interpretations have found their way into the Polish Non-Financial Information Standard (SIN).

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STANDARYZACJA RAPORTOWANIA SPOŁECZNEJ ODPOWIEDZIALNOŚCI BIZNESU

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie standardów, norm, a także wytycznych, opracowywanych na rzecz standaryzacji raportowania społecznego ukierunkowanego na komunikowanie ekonomicznych, społecznych oraz środowiskowych skutków podejmowanych przez przedsiębiorstwa działań rynkowych. Artykuł koncentruje się również na prezentacji badań empirycz-

nych ukazujących ich praktyczną implementację w obszarze raportowania społecznej odpowiedzialności biznesu przez spółki wchodzące w skład indeksu RESPECT. Biorąc pod uwagę tak sformułowany cel, w artykule przyjęto następującą hipotezę badawczą: *spółki indeksu RESPECT dostrzegają potrzebę zapewnienia wiarygodności oraz porównywalności ujawnianych danych niefinansowych, poprzez wykorzystanie najbardziej rozpowszechnionych standardów, norm i wytycznych w obszarze raportowania społecznej odpowiedzialności biznesu.* Realizacja celu artykułu oraz weryfikacja hipotezy badawczej została dokonana w oparciu o przegląd literatury i dokumentów zawierających rekomendacje dotyczące raportowania społecznej odpowiedzialności biznesu, a także analizę treści raportów niefinansowych sporządzanych przez badane przedsiębiorstwa. Wyniki przeprowadzonych badań pozwoliły na przyjęcie stwierdzenia, że regulacje w zakresie raportowania społecznej odpowiedzialności biznesu zajmują istotne miejsce w raportach przygotowywanych przez spółki wchodzące w skład indeksu RESPECT. Szczególne znaczenie w tym obszarze mają wytyczne i standardy opracowywane przez Global Reporting Initiative. Niezbędne jest jednak podejmowanie dalszych działań na rzecz zapewnienia odpowiedniej jakości publikowanych raportów oraz zwiększenia ich zewnętrznej weryfikacji, dającej poczucie pewności, że raportowane dane są wiarygodne i mogą być podstawą podejmowania decyzji przez interesariuszy.

Słowa kluczowe: raportowanie społecznej odpowiedzialności, standaryzacja, spółki indeksu RESPECT.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.51

*Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.
Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.*

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THE PROCEDURES OF AVIATION ACCIDENTS INVESTIGATION. THE HUMAN FACTOR AS A GREATEST AVIATION SAFETY THREAT

Statistics show that air transport is the safest mode of transport in the world. However, it should be remembered that it is also the most expensive form of transport. Complicated safety procedures, expressed inter alia in prevention related to the prevention and investigation of aviation events, place the greatest emphasis on the human factor in aviation. Maintaining the reliability ratio in air transport at a sufficiently high level, with the current increase in air transport, is a priority. This requires integrated activities of all entities involved in aviation activities.

Aviation security is a general concept. Firstly, it covers problems related to operational safety (*safety* area). Secondly, protection problems of means of air transport and airport infrastructure protection against acts of unlawful interference (*security* area). The basic goal of aviation safety is to prevent all events related to the use of aircraft.

One of the directions aimed at increasing aviation safety was the development and an implementation of the concept of a safety management system, which includes subsystems: processing and analysis of collected information enabling current examination of safety status, trends of changes and threat forecasts, assessment of the effectiveness of preventive and rescue projects, a bank of knowledge about events, exposures, safety status and the impact of individual factors on safety.

Today we can say that a high security level has been achieved in air transport, as well as in services and in aviation training. It became possible due to the intensive, systematic and continuous work of aviation authorities and organizations.

Keywords: aviation, catastrophe, commission, security, transport.

1. INTRODUCTION

Considering threats in the security environment or in the system, attention should be paid to their evolution. There are new threat types, mainly with non-military nature, such as, for example: communication disasters, technical failures, natural disasters, environmental contamination that may have unpredictable consequences.

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Taking into consideration contemporary security typology, it can be concluded that researchers attach too little importance to the transport safety threats, despite the fact that the number of traffic accidents victims is frightening². According to the World Health Organization (WHO) statistics, since 1896, when the first fatal accident was reported as a result of a traffic accident, 35 million people died worldwide. However, of all modes of transport, air transport is considered to be the safest. 3.4 billion passengers used air transport in 2015 and the number of air operations in the world exceeded 34 million. This year is considered to be one of the safest in civil aviation. According to the *Aviation Safety Network* report, in the 16 air disasters in commercial air transport in 2015, a total of 560 people were died. The most tragic events in 2015 were an A320 aircraft crash in the French Alps, resulting in the deaths of 150 people and a bomb explosion aboard the Russian A321 aircraft in Egypt. In this accident 224 people died. On the other hand, in the safest year in the history of modern aviation, 2013, 265 people died in air accidents. In the commercial aviation history, there were also accidents where no one died. For example, the memorable US Airways Airbus A320 water landing on the Hudson River in 2009. All 155 people on board survived. Another example is the famous flight of Capt. Wrona, November 1, 2011 who landed Boeing 767 without a chassis at the F. Chopin airport in Warsaw.

Statistics show that the death probability in an aviation accident is 1:29 million. It is definitely "easier" to die on the ground than in the air. From 1997, the average number of aviation accidents shows a permanent and lasting fall. It is happening due to international aviation organizations efforts, such as: IATA (*International Air Transport Association*), ICAO (*International Civil Aviation Organization*) and the other organizations that create aviation security policy.

So that, an aircraft (an airplane, a helicopter) is considered to be the safest mode of transport. Accidents and other aviation incidents are rare, but despite the increasingly sophisticated aviation techniques, they cannot be completely eliminated. They can only be minimized.

The terrorist attack, which scares many passengers, is a rare phenomenon. According to current statistics, in the last decade there is one terrorist attack attempt per over 16 million flights. Despite, aviation protection against unlawful interference, sabotage, terrorist attacks and other acts of violence, is a serious problem faced by airport managing bodies, aircraft operators, state authorities and all services responsible for aviation safety.

Aviation security is a general concept. Firstly, it covers problems related to operational safety (*safety* area). Secondly, protection problems of means of air transport and airport infrastructure protection against acts of unlawful interference (*security* area). The aviation safety division into two areas has its justification, due to other risk assessment principles. *Safety* is mainly related to the state of safety achieved and maintained in aviation in the areas of aircraft construction, personnel selection and training, flight operations, safety management in aviation organizations and several other areas. The main focus has been put onto ways to counteract threats and reduce risk (*hazard/risks*). The second meaning (*security*) refers to the aviation protection against acts of unlawful interference and includes problems of ensuring the air transport system safety against conscious and harmful external interference³.

² Due to WHO data, in road traffic accidents yearly die about 1,2 mln people, http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kategoria:Katastrofy_drogowe (access: 12.12.2013 r.).

³ J. Karpowicz, E. Klich, *Zarządzanie bezpieczeństwem w lotnictwie*, Dęblin 2011, s. 8.

The aviation incidents investigation is a process leading to the ascertainment of their actual causes, aimed at preventing aviation accidents and incidents in the future. This process consists of collecting, registering and analyzing materials containing relevant information to ascertain the circumstances, course and causes of the occurrence, and developing preventive recommendations. This activity is not aimed at ascertaining the extent of anyone's fault or liability. The Commission investigating an aviation incident performs only the research function, ascertaining the cause of the incident and propose preventive actions. It does not have a disciplinary function.

2. AVIATION INCIDENTS INVESTIGATION

The aviation incidents investigation is regulated by international, regional (European), national and departmental regulations. Aviation is not a monolith, however, and there are some differences in the aviation incidents investigation. It is widely accepted that aviation is divided into state and civilian. This division outcome from the purpose and aircraft use. State aircrafts are used to describe aircraft used in military, police and customs services. However, all other types of aviation are civil (formerly private). It includes commercial (communication) and general aviation (*General Aviation – GA*). The division of aviation into civil and state can be find in international aviation law (the *Convention on International Civil Aviation* also known as the *Chicago Convention*) of December 7, 1944⁴.

The Chicago Convention is a multilateral international agreement, regulating international functioning of the civil aviation by introducing uniform standards in this field. These are published in the form of recommended practices and recommended methods of conduct in annexes to the Convention⁵. This Convention, in addition to other areas, regulates the investigation of aviation accidents and other aviation incidents. It should be noted that the Chicago Convention applies to civil aircrafts, and only in a limited extent to state aircrafts. Article 26 indicates that the aviation accidents investigation in accordance with the provisions of the Convention applies only to civil aviation. In case of investigating accidents in state aviation, national law applies.

Individual states national law in the area of accidents and other aviation incidents investigation may not contradict the legal norms of international law, but should refer to international provisions or should clarify them, but cannot change them.

General rules of aviation accidents in civil aviation investigation, in accordance with art. 26 are included in Annex No. 13, entitled "Aircrafts accidents and incidents investigation". It was accepted for the first time on April 11, 1951 and it has been changed many

⁴ Dz.U. z 1959 r., nr 35, poz. 212 ze zm. Signed in Chicago, that is why it is co-called "Chicago Convention".

⁵ **Standard** – any provision regarding physical characteristics, configuration, material, action, personnel or procedure whose homogeneous application has been deemed necessary for the protection or regularity of international air navigation and to which contracting States comply in accordance with the Convention. If it is not possible to comply with the standard, there is an obligation to notify the ICAO Council in accordance with the provisions of Article 38 of the Convention.

Recommended practice – any provision regarding physical characteristics, configuration, material, action, personnel or procedure whose harmonized use has been deemed desirable in the interest of airworthiness or efficiency of international air navigation and compliance with which will be the purpose of Contracting States in accordance with the provisions of the Convention.

times – currently the 10th edition of 2010 is in force. International regulations established by ICAO also influenced to the formation of the air accident investigation system in the Member States of the European Union. The Chicago Convention's regime is the starting point for implementing the relevant regulations in national or regional legislation. Annex (No. 13) is a fairly general document and does not contain detailed procedures for investigating aviation accidents. Individual states can decide and should develop national documents (procedures) for safety investigation based on general guidelines. The Annex contains in particular: definitions, purpose of accident investigation, material evidence security. What is more, we can find there scope of responsibility of the state where accident took place, participation and responsibility of the State of Registry, State of Design, State of Manufacture, and State of the Operator⁶, preparation and publication of the preliminary and final report. Annex 13 states that *the only the purpose of investigating aviation accidents and incidents shall in no case be concerned with apportioning blame or liability*⁷.

The accidents and other aviation incidents investigation shall be carried out by the State in whose territory the accident took place (State of the Occurrence). This State must conduct it in accordance with the international standards specified in the cited annex. It shall take all necessary steps to protect evidence and adequate protection of the aircraft and its contents for the time of the investigation. This evidence protection includes the preservation, by photographing or other means, of any evidence that could be removed, obliterated, lost or destroyed. Safe custody also includes protection against further damage, unauthorized access, theft and destruction (chapter 2, item 3.3 of Annex 13). If there is a request sent by the State of Registry, the State of the Operator, the State of Manufacture for the aircraft and the content of the aircraft, all other evidence shall remain untouched until it has been examined by the authorized representative of the State which made such a request, the State of Occurrence shall comply with such request as far as possible and not interfere with the proper conduct of the investigation. For the purpose of saving persons, animals, reaching out mail and valuables or to protect against damage by fire or other factors, or to avoid threats to other aircraft, means of transport or people, it is allowed to move the aircraft. When the aircraft and its contents are no longer needed for testing, the State of Occurrence should relieve them from the custody and pass them on to the owner. It also has the obligation to facilitate access to the aircraft, its contents and all its parts. If that the aircraft, its contents or parts are in an area where access is considered as impossible, the State of the Occurrence itself shall move the aircraft, aircraft's parts and contents to a accessible place. The following organizations (entities): the State of Registration, the State of Operator, the State of Manufacture, the State of Design and ICAO shall be notify about occurred aviation incident by the State of Occurrence.

In an aviation accident investigation, accredited representatives of the State of Registration (operator, designer or manufacturer) may participate, along with accompanying advi-

⁶ **State of Design.** *The State having jurisdiction over the organization responsible for the type design.*
State of Manufacture. *The State having jurisdiction over the organization responsible for the final assembly of the aircraft.*

State of Occurrence. *The State in the territory of which an accident or incident occurs.*

State of the Operator. *The State in which the operator's principal place of business is located or, if there is no such place of business, the operator's permanent residence.*

State of Registry. *The State on whose register the aircraft is entered.*

⁷ Annex 13, definitions, chapter 1.

sers. They can participate every investigation step and can making statements regarding the investigation. It is the responsibility of the accredited representative and their advisers to provide any information they have in order to assist the investigative State Committee. After notification's receiving, concerned States shall, as soon as possible, notify the State of Occurrence of any relevant information about the crew and aircraft that has suffered an accident or serious incident, as well as hazardous materials, if they were on board. Each of the states involved informs the State of Occurrence whether it intends to appoint an authorized representative who can legally participate in the investigation. An authorized representative shall be appointed at the express request of the State conducting the aircraft accident investigation, when aircraft's weight exceeds 2250 kg.

If the investigation is carried out in whole or in part by another state or regional accident investigation organization, it is expected that this country will be responsible for conducting the investigation, including drafting the final report.

If an accident or serious aircraft incident has occurred on the territory of a State which is not a part of the Chicago Convention and it does not intend to carry out investigation in accordance with Annex 13, the State of Operator should seek to initiate and conduct the investigation in cooperation with the State of Occurrence or on its own, using the information having at its disposal. However, if an accident or serious incident has occurred in a territory that is not within the jurisdiction of any State or over international waters, the State of Registry (owner's state) initiates and conducts the investigation of this incident on its own or can delegate, in whole or in part, conducting the investigation to another state based on mutual agreement and consent. The nearest countries to site that accident has occurred in international waters, should provide assistance that is within their scope⁸.

The accident investigation authority is independent in conducting the investigation and has unlimited powers to conduct it. Each investigation carried out in accordance with the provisions of Annex 13 shall be separate from any judicial or administrative proceedings leading to adjudicate of guilt or liability. The accidents other aviation incidents investigation is carried out by experts from the state accident investigation authority (commission). Conducting any court or administrative proceedings is carried out by judicature experts. However, the need for coordination between the head of the investigation team and judicial authorities is necessary. Special care is devoted to evidence that is used by both parties and requires immediate registration and analysis to complete the investigation. This applies to victims examination and identification and the read out flight recorders' data. Activities coordination between the research team and the judicature may be necessary at the scene of the accident and during the factual information's gathering. The investigating State acknowledges necessity of coordination between the chair of the research team and the judicature.

The authority examining an aircraft accident or incident shall collect and process documents related to the occurrence such as: statements of persons obtained during the survey, correspondence between persons involved in the operation of the aircraft, medical data concerning persons involved in the accident or incident, cockpit voice recordings and their transcripts, records and transcripts of entries from air traffic control units, cockpit video records (if any), opinions made in the information analysis, including information from flight recorders. These documents are included in the final report or its additions only, if

⁸ Vide Annex 13 chapter. 5...

they relate to the analysis an accident or incident. Documents not relevant to such analysis are not disclosed.

During any aviation incident investigation conducted in accordance with the provisions of Annex 13, there must be unrestricted access to all evidence and the investigation shall not be obstructed by administrative or judicial investigations. This must be guaranteed by national legislation or agreements between accident investigation authorities and judicial authorities. If new and valid evidence emerges at the end of the study, the country that conducted the study may resume it.

In the accident or incident investigation, flight data recorders are effectively used. In case, when the State conducting the accident or incident investigation does not have the appropriate equipment to read out the flight data recorders, it should use the devices made available by other States, factoring in the following aspects: the capabilities of reading devices; timeliness of reading; and location of reading devices.

Reading out flight recorders one of the most important action in the examining aviation accidents process. It is important to find and read out flight recorder parameters, and one of the most urgent decisions is to choose the place of reading and analyzing data flight data recorders. It is important to read out the flight parameter recorders as soon as possible after the accident. Quick areas problem's identification can affect the examination, at the scene of an accident, where the evidence is sometimes impermanent. Quick identification of problem areas can also result in the efficient issuing of security recommendations that may be necessary to prevent similar incidents. Many countries do not have their own devices to read out and analyze information from on-board recorders (both sound and data) and, therefore, they solicit other countries for help. The manufacturer's standard equipment and software, usually used in airlines or maintenance facilities, is not considered appropriate for the examination. If the recorders have been damaged, special data recovery and analysis techniques are usually necessary.

The State of Manufacture (or the State of Design) is responsible for the airworthiness and has the appropriate facilities, normally required to read out and analyze information from the flight data recorder. Since the flight recorder information may reveal airworthiness problems, the manufacturer's (or constructor's) country should have its representative present when reading out and analyzing the data from the recorder.

Flight data recorder and cabin sound recorder's records should be read out in the same place as they contain mutually complementary data. This can help verifying each record, as well as in setting out the order of events and their synchronization over time. Flight data recorders cannot be opened or powered, and original records should not be copied before reading due to the risk of damage.

Institution where for another country recorders are reading out, should be able to comment on the final report in order to ensure that the analysis of entries has been taken into account. The institution may request specialized assistance from the manufacturer or aircraft operator to obtain data for calibration and verification of recorded information. Until the investigation is completed, the investigating State may retain original records or copies thereof in the reading out institution, for explanation purposes, provided that the institution has appropriate security procedures to ensure that these records are protected.

The State conducting a fatality accident investigation organizes a full body necropsy and, in special circumstances, corpses of passengers and deck crew by an anatomist who has experience in accident investigation. Necropsies should be carried out immediately and to the full extent.

A State of Occurrence conducting an accident or incident investigation may delegate this test to another State or regional organization appointed to investigate aviation accidents. At the request of the State conducting the investigation, each State may provide it with information, facilities or experts. Such a state has the right to appoint an authorized representative to participate in this examination, and to appoint one or several advisers to assist the authorized representative. This does not mean that the State conducting an accident investigation has no right to appoint its own technical experts from any organization and designate them as advisers to its representatives. Advisors are authorized to participate in the research to the necessary extent. Participation in the research entitles them to participate in all research processes under the chair of the research team's supervision. In particular they can: go to the scene of the accident, examine the remains, obtain information from witnesses and propose the interview's scope, having full and immediate access to relevant evidences, obtain copies of all relevant documents, participation in the reading out of registered materials, participation in research activities outside the accident site, such as part testing, technical presentations, tests and simulations, participation in meetings related to the progress of the study, including discussions related to analysis, findings, causes and recommendations for security, the submission of proposals for the various elements of the study⁹.

The State conducting an accident investigation shall draft a final report, which shall be sent to the interested parties (State of Registration, State of Operator, State of Manufacture, State of Design and each country that participated in the investigation) with a request to refer to it and submit comments as fast as it possible. The State conducting the accident or incident investigation as soon as possible and, if possible within 12 months, shall make the final report publicly available. The State which carried out the investigation of the aircraft accident or incident with a maximum mass more than 5700 kg and issued the final report shall send a copy to the International Civil Aviation Organization¹⁰.

At any stage of the accident or incident's investigation, the investigating authority may make recommendations which prompt execution is considered to be necessary in order to increase the aviation safety's level. Recommendations resulting from aviation accident and incident investigations are addressed by means of dated correspondence to accident investigation bodies of other countries and to ICAO. Main part of the final report includes the following chapters: factual information, analysis results, final conclusions from the study, safety recommendations.

Safety information must be protected against loss and improper use. The term "misuse of information" should be understood as the use of safety information for purposes other than those for which it was collected, i.e. the use of information in disciplinary, civil, administrative and criminal proceedings against operating personnel, and / or making them public (point 1.1 of Annex E). The only purpose of protecting safety information against misuse is to ensure its uninterrupted availability so that timely and appropriate preventive action can be taken and improved aviation safety. Reports on accident and other aviation incidents should be available to aeronautical organizations and other authorized persons for purposes related to future security. In accordance with the recommendations of Annex 13, countries are required to enforce laws protecting the information collected in the Safety Data Collection and Processing Systems (SDCPS). The information collected in this system should be used primarily to improve aviation safety.

⁹ Vide art. 5.25 Annex 13...

¹⁰ *Ibidem*, chapter. 6, art. 6.1-6.7.

National legal acts and ordinances connected to protecting safety information should ensure a compromise between the need to protect information and the needs of the justice system. The use of information in disciplinary, civil, administrative or criminal proceedings should only take place under appropriate safeguards guaranteed by national law. In justified cases, national law should allow the possibility of deviations from the rules for the protection of safety information, e.g. if there is evidence that an aviation incident was caused intentionally to cause damage or is grossly negligent or non-compliant with professional ethics.

3. SAFETY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Currently, one of the most important problems of air transport is to ensure the highest safety level, that is why aviation structures are improved, develops navigation systems and air traffic control, improves methods of air traffic management and aviation organizations, increases the requirements for professional qualifications of operational personnel (pilots, controllers, ground maintenance mechanics). Maintaining the reliability ratio in air transport at a sufficiently high level, with the current increase in air transport, is a priority. This requires integrated activities of all entities involved in aviation activities. The basic goal of aviation safety is to prevent all incidents related to the aircraft use. As the statistics of accidents and serious aviation incidents show, the weakest link in the aviation safety system is man and, above all, man's tendency to make mistakes. In aviation, it is recognized that almost all aviation events occur as a result of some human error, which often does not have a simple reference to the very use of the aircraft. Therefore, measures to prevent aviation accidents should cover all aspects of human participation in the use of aircraft, and not only those that seem to be the most obvious.

The high aviation safety level results achieved today are mostly explained by the work on the consequences or symptoms of human action. If, as a result of such work, it turned out that such or other activities may become the cause of security threats, then new methods, procedures and legal provisions are developed in order to avoid or minimize their consequences. In order to reduce the failure rate or maintain it at the current level, it is necessary to go beyond the framework of work on the human action's consequences. In other words, the desire to detect and understand the causes that caused adverse reactions or behavior of the person should be significantly activated. Only then will one expect a radical improvement in flight safety indicators. It is much more difficult to anticipate human actions and reactions and to influence their change than to consider their consequences.

One of the directions aimed at increasing aviation safety was the development and implementation of the concept of a safety management system, which includes subsystems: (1) processing and analysis of collected information enabling current examination of safety status, trends of changes and threat forecasts; (2) assessment of the effectiveness of preventive and rescue projects; (3) a bank of knowledge about events, exposures, safety status and the impact of individual factors on safety.

Nowadays we can say that a high level of security in air transport has been achieved, as well as in services and in aviation training. It became possible due to the intensive, systematic and continuous work of aviation authorities and organizations, as well as political and economic organizations such as the European Union, which became the creator of very significant changes in aviation through political and legal actions.

Safer flying has also been achieved due to the modern aircraft's high reliability, the development of air traffic control systems and airport equipment. Implementation areas of high safety standards have been extended to include aircraft design and construction processes, personnel selection and training, aviation procedures and regulations, air traffic control systems, and the operation of all aviation safety services. Aviation companies, namely their activities resulting from their destination and in the safety sector are the subject of supervision, control and continuous monitoring. The activities of committees investigating the reasons for their occurrence are of great importance in the prevention of aviation accidents. Based on the results of accident and incident investigation, recommendations and proposals are developed to prevent similar events in the future. The most attention in the prevention of flight safety is still devoted to man, in every position – in the aircraft cabin, behind the air traffic control radar indicator, in direct ground service, in production and renovation plants. Man remains the most unreliable link in the aviation system. That is why the system of training, granting qualifications, refreshing knowledge and competence is so important.

The investigation of aviation incidents is a process leading to the ascertainment of their actual causes, aimed at preventing future accidents and incidents. This process consists of collecting, registering and analyzing materials containing relevant information to determine their circumstances, course and causes of the event, and developing preventive recommendations. This activity is not aimed at ascertaining the extent of anyone's fault or liability.

Today we can say that a high security level has been achieved in air transport, as well as in services and in aviation training. It became possible due to the intensive, systematic and continuous work of aviation authorities and organizations, as well as political and economic organizations such as the European Union, which became the creator of very significant changes in aviation through political and legal actions.

4. RESUME

The aviation incidents investigation is regulated by international, regional (European), national and departmental regulations. Aviation is not a monolith, however, and there are some differences in the aviation incidents investigation. It is widely accepted that aviation is divided into state and civilian. This division outcome from the purpose and aircraft use. State aircrafts are used to describe aircraft used in military, police and customs services. However, all other types of aviation are civil (formerly private). It includes commercial (communication) and general aviation (*General Aviation – GA*). The division of aviation into civil and state can be found in international aviation law (the *Convention on International Civil Aviation* also known as the *Chicago Convention*) of December 7, 1944.

The Chicago Convention is a multilateral international agreement, regulating international functioning of the civil aviation by introducing uniform standards in this field. These are published in the form of recommended practices and recommended methods of conduct in annexes to the Convention. This Convention, in addition to other areas, regulates the investigation of aviation accidents and other aviation incidents. It should be noted that the Chicago Convention applies to civil aircrafts, and only in a limited extent to state aircrafts. Article 26 indicates that the aviation accidents investigation in accordance with the provisions of the Convention applies only to civil aviation. In case of investigating accidents in state aviation, national law applies.

Currently, one of the most important problems of air transport is to ensure the highest safety level, that is why aviation structures are improved, develops navigation systems and air traffic control, improves methods of air traffic management and aviation organizations, increases the requirements for professional qualifications of operational personnel (pilots, controllers, ground maintenance mechanics). Maintaining the reliability ratio in air transport at a sufficiently high level, with the current increase in air transport, is a priority. This requires integrated activities of all entities involved in aviation activities. The basic goal of aviation safety is to prevent all incidents related to the aircraft use. As the statistics of accidents and serious aviation incidents show, the weakest link in the aviation safety system is man and, above all, man's tendency to make mistakes. In aviation, it is recognized that almost all aviation events occur as a result of some human error, which often does not have a simple reference to the very use of the aircraft. Therefore, measures to prevent aviation accidents should cover all aspects of human participation in the use of aircraft, and not only those that seem to be the most obvious.

As statistics show air transport is the safest mode of transport in the world. However, it should be remembered that it is also the most expensive form of transportation. Complicated safety procedures, expressed inter alia in prevention related to the prevention and investigation of aviation events, place the greatest emphasis on the human factor in aviation. Maintaining the reliability ratio in air transport at a sufficiently high level, with the current increase in air transport, is a priority. This requires integrated activities of all entities involved in aviation activities. The aviation safety's main goal is to prevent all incidents related to the use of aircraft.

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PROCEDURY BADANIA WYPADKÓW LOTNICZYCH. CZYNNIK LUDZKI, JAKO NAJWIĘKSZE ZAGROŻENIE BEZPIECZEŃSTWA W LOTNICTWIE

Jak pokazują statystyki, transport lotniczy to najbezpieczniejszy środek transportu na świecie. Pamiętać jednak należy, że jest jednocześnie najdroższą formą transportu. Skomplikowane procedury bezpieczeństwa, wyrażone między innymi profilaktyką związaną z zapobieganiem i badaniem zdarzeń lotniczych największy nacisk kładą na czynnik ludzki w lotnictwie. Utrzymanie współczynnika bezawaryjności w transporcie powietrznym na odpowiednio wysokim poziomie, przy obecnym wroście przewozów lotniczych, jest sprawą priorytetową. Wymaga to zintegrowanych działań wszystkich podmiotów zaangażowanych w działalność lotniczą. Bezpieczeństwo lotnictwa jest pojęciem o charakterze ogólnym. Obejmuje ono problemy związane z bezpieczeństwem operacyjnym (*safety*) oraz problemy ochrony środków transportu lotniczego, infrastruktury lotniczej przed aktami bezprawnej ingerencji (*security*). Drugie znaczenie (*security*) odnosi się do ochrony lotnictwa przed aktami bezprawnej ingerencji i obejmuje problemy zapewnienia bezpieczeństwa systemu transportu lotniczego przed świadomą i szkodliwą ingerencją z zewnątrz.

Jednym z kierunków zmierzających do zwiększenia bezpieczeństwa było opracowanie i wdrożenie koncepcji systemu zarządzania bezpieczeństwem, który obejmuje podsystemy: przetwarzania i analizy zebranych informacji umożliwiających bieżące badanie stanu bezpieczeństwa, tendencji zmian oraz prognozy zagrożeń; oceny skuteczności przedsięwzięć profilaktycznych i ratowniczych; bank wiedzy o zdarzeniach, narażeniach, stanie bezpieczeństwa oraz o wpływie poszczególnych czynników na bezpieczeństwo.

Dziś możemy powiedzieć, że obecnie osiągnięto wysoki poziom bezpieczeństwa w transporcie lotniczym, a także w usługach i w szkoleniu lotniczym. Stało się to możliwe dzięki wyętej, systematycznej i ciągłej pracy władz i organizacji lotniczych, a także organizacji polityczno-gospodarczych takich jak Unia Europejska, która stała się kreatorem bardzo istotnych zmian w lotnictwie poprzez działania polityczno-prawne.

Słowa kluczowe: lotnictwo, katastrofa, komisja, bezpieczeństwo, transport.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.52

*Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.
Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.*

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FROM INFORMATION TO THE WAR OF INFORMATION

The term information is used universally, and its meaning does not raise any doubts. However, despite the common use of the term, the information of attempts to define causes a number of difficulties. In many scientific studies, a solution is sought through the analysis of information content, information features, sources of its creation or areas of practical use.

The article adopted a qualitative research strategy. Therefore, it is purely theoretical. The author presents his reflections on the ontological aspects of the information fight. The presented article is the first one that opens a series of articles devoted to the aforementioned issues. The purpose of the article was to define the number and quality of information and the usefulness and value of information, as well as to clarify the significance of information in an international conflict. The research problem focused on explaining how the quantity and quality of information and the usefulness and value of information are understood in the social sciences. In addition, the author wondered why information is an important factor in international conflicts.

As a result of scientific digressions, the author came to the conclusion that information is defined in relation to mental objects that reflect various forms of news, knowledge about current events. Based on the conclusions obtained from the analysis of the literature on the subject, it can be stated that in the aspect of organization and management theory, the information is a factor determining the effectiveness of action, therefore in the military aspect determines the efficiency of the decision-making process.

The above conditions constituted the main inspiration of the author, whose aim was to present information as an important factor of success on the modern battlefield.

Keywords: information, the value of the information, war of information, information hierarchy.

1. INTRODUCTION

The essence of the ongoing information revolution, covering all spheres of social life is primarily the progress in the field of information technology. However, we are inclined to take the year 1948 as the turning point, when the fundamental works of N. Wiener and C.E. Shannon were published, and the transistor was invented (W. Shockley, J. Bardeen,

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W. Brattain), we cannot forget about the earlier achievements of S. Morse`a (telegraph), A. Bella (telephone), G. Marconi (radio), or P. Farnsworth (television), that we will stop at the so-called milestones. However, the distinction of significant innovations from the second half of the 20th century exceeds the scope of the article.

However, it is worth devoting attention to the creation of the scientific basis of knowledge about information. In spite of previous works, such as Hartley, Nykvist, Kolmogorow, Erlang and many others, we usually combine the beginnings of information research with the above-mentioned works of Wiener and Shannon.

Wiener preached: "The mechanical brain does not emit thoughts of how the liver releases bile, according to the older materialists, nor does it seem to it in the form of energy, as the muscle does in its operation. Information is information, not matter or energy"². The creator of cybernetics probably wanted to draw attention to the fact that next to two basic and measurable categories, which are matter and energy, a third category of science appears, also measurable, namely information.

Probably there is no unambiguous (and *only correct*) definition of information, which, however, does not interfere with the creation of theoretical concepts and models, that we do not even mention the development of technology. On the other hand, the existing, though far from various expectations, words are fully sufficient, and the same can be applied to concepts such as matter and energy as well grounded in philosophy and science. Therefore, without expecting any terminological term, both theories (models) and technologies should be developed. And it just happens in modern science and technology.

You can talk about the information revolution by exposing technical and technological innovations and the amount of information *that floods* inhabitants from all over the world. Perhaps, however, more attention should be paid to the quality of data and the value of information, even if it would be easier to separate *the wheat from the chaff*.

2. QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF INFORMATION

In the *Dictionary of foreign words and foreign-language phrases* we read that *information is identified with thought objects reflecting all forms of news, news, news, communicative items, knowledge of events*³. In turn, J. Seidler states that *the information can be called everything that is used for a more efficient selection of actions leading to a certain goal*⁴. At the same time, he states that when talking about efficiency, it is necessary to mean that having and using the right information can be used to accomplish deliberate actions better without significant increase of material resources or energy consumed⁵. On the basis of the analysis, it was assumed that the designatum of the concept of *information*, in factual meaning, should be identified with the name of the content of the sensual perception of the stimulus, and in the functional (functional) sense – with the information process.

² Behind: M. Mazur, *Jakościowa teoria informacji*, Warszawa, <http://autonom.edu.pl>.

³ W. Kopaliński, *Słownik wyrazów obcych i zwrotów obcojęzycznych*, Warszawa 1980, s. 429.

⁴ J. Seidler, *Nauka o informacji*, Warszawa 1983, s. 69.

⁵ G. Nowacki, *Znaczenie informacji w obszarze bezpieczeństwa narodowego* [in:] „Nierówności Społeczne a Wzrost Gospodarczy” 2013, z. 36, post-conference study, Conference: „Zagrożenia w cyberprzestrzeni – Bezpieczeństwo ponad granicami”, WAT 2013.

Bearing in mind the issues raised, it is important to also mention other key statements. And yes:

1. Stanisław Lem (*Summa technologiae*, 1964): “The bodies interact materially, energetically and informally. The result of the action is a change of state. If they throw themselves on the ground, because someone called “fall down”, changing my position caused the arrival of information, if I fall because the encyclopedia collapsed on me, the change resulted in material action. In the first case, I did not have to, in the second case – I had to fall. Material-energy activities are determined, whereas informative ones only cause changes in certain probability distributions”⁶;
2. Claude E. Shannon (*A Mathematical Theory of Communication*, 1948): “The basic task of communication is to recreate in a certain place, in a precise or approximate way, a message that has been chosen for transfer at another place. Often messages have meaning, i.e. refer to a system having a specific physical or mental content, or remain in relation to some arrangement. These semantic aspects do not concern the technical side of the problem. The only thing that matters is that the transmitted message is a message selected from a set of possible messages”⁷;
3. Louis Couffignal (*La cybernetique*, 1963): “To distinguish terminologically physical action and psychic action as information components and to specify the use of the word “information” alone, we will use the following terms:
 - information is a set of media and semantics;
 - information semantics is a psychological effect of information;
 - information carrier is a physical phenomenon associated with semantics to create information”⁸.

It is difficult to obtain a definition of information from these, still valid statements, which was not the intention of their authors. However, two aspects of information and information are clearly emphasized, namely:

- **technical aspect** – related to the optimization of transmission systems, i.e. searching for such methods and technical means, to send *a lot, quickly and without error* using specific information channels;
- **semantic aspect** – draws attention to the content (meaning) of information intended for recording or to be forwarded to a specific recipient.

It can certainly be assumed for practical purposes that “Information is a set of facts, events, features of objects, etc. Contained in a specific message, so captured and given in a form that allows the recipient to respond to the situation and take appropriate mental or physical actions”⁹.

As we know, Shannon, proposing a measure of the amount of information – contained in the message and sent through a specific information channel – used the notion of entropy, previously known in statistical thermodynamics. The amount of information contained in the message is the difference between the initial entropy (i.e. before receiving the message)

⁶ Vide: S. Lem, *Summa technologiae*, Warszawa 1964.

⁷ Vide: C. E. Shannon, *A Mathematical Theory of Communication*, “Reprinted with corrections from The Bell System Technical Journal” 1948, Vol. 27, p. 379–423, 623–656, July, October, <http://math.harvard.edu/~ctm/home/text/others/shannon/entropy/entropy.pdf> (access: 9.05.2018).

⁸ Vide: L. Couffignal, *La cybernetique*, Presses Universitaires de France 1963.

⁹ P. Sienkiewicz, *Inżynieria informacji*, Warszawa 1983.

and the entropy obtained after receiving the message. This approach was used to determine the channel capacity and formulate the coding theorem. In addition to Shannon's proposal, there are a number of significant ideas that should not be forgotten, namely: non-robotic information by R. Ingarden and K. Urbanik, the inclusion of R. Carnap and Y. Bar-Hill's semantic information, pragmatic approach to R. Ackoff, the use of information K. Szaniawski and J. Marschak and R. Radner, as well as the qualitative information theory of M. Mazur, or the value of information in terms of Charkiewicz and Rogiński. Some of the above-mentioned shots have been presented in the author's works¹⁰.

An interesting attempt to generalize many different approaches is the proposal of J.L. Kulikowski, who understands information as reducing the indeterminacy of choice from a certain set of permissible values or potentially possible states. Information is available in the form of information variables known as ordered three:

$$X = \langle S, B_s, \mu \rangle$$

where: **S** means a set of permissible elementary values of the information variable, called realizations; **B_s** means the additive algebra of the **S** file subsets; **μ** means the principle of semi-ordering elements of the **B_s** family that meet the demands of an algebraic grid.

In turn, the quality parameters of information considered from the point of view of user's information needs include the following:

- **topicality** (q_a) – we consider the information contained in the data to be current, if its record available at some point describes within acceptable error limits the current state of a given object;
- **relevancy** (q_r) – we consider information to be relevant if it does not contain a component that is unnecessary from the point of view of the user's needs;
- **completeness** (q_k) – we consider the information complete if it contains all the components that are necessary from the point of view of the user's needs;
- **assimilation** (q_p) – we consider information to be available when the user can use it without the need to perform additional operations that transform the form of the given presentation;
- **credibility** (q_w) – information is considered reliable if there is a certain degree of certainty that this is true or exact information.

The quality of information contained in a given (information variable) is defined as follows:

$$Q(I) \equiv \langle q_a, q_r, q_k, q_p, q_w \rangle,$$

which should express the degree of meeting the requirements resulting from the user's needs of information.

¹⁰ P. Sienkiewicz, *Systemy kierowania*, Warszawa 1988.

3. UTILITY AND VALUE OF INFORMATION

From the point of view of the user, information is not an intrinsic goal, but a means to achieve the goal or group of goals by making specific decisions or acquiring specific knowledge.

An example of a simple determination of the usefulness of information is the following proposal of A. Charkiewicz: suppose that before receiving the information the probability of reaching the goal is P_o , and after receiving the information it assumes the value of P_1 . We will say then that the usefulness of the information is:

$$U(I) = \log_2 \frac{P_1}{P_o}$$

Thus, information is useful if its receipt increases the probability of achieving the intended goal. K. Szaniawski combines the usefulness (pragmatic value) of information with the classic decision-making model:

$$\langle A, S, \mu \rangle .$$

“The value of information due to a given decision-making criterion is the highest cost of information, in which a certain decision function is inferior (in the sense of this criterion) from any of the activities belonging to A. In other words, the value of information – it is the highest price that is worth (in the sense of a given criterion) to pay for this information”¹¹.

Let us assume that a specific object – an object of information – describes a certain set of features whose values change over time. So you can talk about aging information in the facility. Acquiring information about the object is made with a certain accuracy. Transmission of information about the object takes place in the conditions of interference, and therefore it is possible to distort the information. Information stored is also subject to aging. So we have to do with the accuracy of acquiring (measuring, observing) information, errors created when sending and storing information, as well as the aging of the object itself.

If in the information system n types of information about different functions of the values $V_j(t)$, probability distributions of information delivery time to users (t) and different costs of information supply K_j are sent, then the value of information *generated* by the system is determined by the function:

$$V = \sum_{j=1}^n \left[\int_0^{\infty} V_j(t) \omega_j(t) dt - K_j \right] .$$

4. INFORMATION AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN FIGHTING SUCCESS

The fight for information takes place from the moment the first group interests are formed. It is conducted in every field, especially in the economic, political and military areas. Her goal was, is and will be to get more information than her opponent (the enemy),

¹¹ Vide: K. Szaniawski, *O nauce, rozumowaniu i wartościach*, Warszawa 1994.

misleading him, get surprised, and thus succeed. From the invention of gunpowder through a machine gun, tank, nuclear weapon plane, it has always been successful, who: first used new, surprising weapons, resulting in success in combat.

Modern times are characterized by a huge increase in the importance of computers and information technology (digital). Computers controlling modern production technologies are a factor that connects almost all areas of human activity. So there was another threshold for the development of civilization of human society. The states that used the opportunities created by the IT (computer) technology more quickly dominated the future competition. Of particular importance has been the progress in the development and application of information technology in the military field. Means of communication and computer data centers based on digital technology allow to shorten the time needed to cut the decision and then the appropriate actions (action time – reaction). This is achieved by using information technology on the sensor path – the decision center. The sensor is all sources of information about the enemy, such as: reconnaissance patrol, agent, intelligence, radar, watch station or reconnaissance satellite, while the decision center is a command post where the decision is made at a given moment.

The use of information technology also allows to shorten the internal path of information, i.e. the road that includes the functionaries at a given command post, and make this information available at any time at any command level.

In the opinion of many theoreticians studying the development of civilization, information has already become a decisive factor stimulating the process of development and progress. Information also plays a decisive role in the way of armed conflict, which is conducted not only on the battlefield but in the area of information. He takes particularly sharp forms during the transition of a given country from a lower to a higher level of development.

Internet computer connections, which characterize the world at the beginning of the 21st century, caused that information is widely available. The ease of access to information generates new threats. One of the basic threats is the possibility of uncontrolled leakage of confidential and secret information. An example of the fact that this phenomenon cannot be underestimated are numerous attempts to break into government computers. The second much more dangerous threat is the emergence of the possibility of influencing individuals and organizations of states on others by sending false information, i.e. disinformation.

In the contemporary conflict, therefore, the decisive role is played not only by the number of armored and mechanized compounds, the maintenance of which is very expensive, but information. At the same time, the states – to maintain competitive ability and ensure development – are forced to look for the possibility of using more and more modern information technologies.

At the same time, in the military field, information systems connecting the sensor with the decision center are increasingly dependent on modern civilian technologies, which are available only to highly developed countries. Thus, the vulnerability of less technologically advanced states to the impact of the former will increase. This vulnerability may be so large that it may even disrupt the functioning of the state's basic organs.

The resulting conflicts can be resolved without the involvement of armed forces, which as a result of the blocking of information necessary for their functioning, will become unable to operate efficiently in a given area or environment. Activities aimed at paralyzing the state's information system is nothing more than a struggle in the area of information. Such a fight covers not only the military area, but the whole society, because it will not only run between political and military opponents, but in every field of competition.

However, the notion of fighting in the area of information should not be understood as the use of only intangible means of influence, but also the physical destruction of the devices of the opponent's information system. This fight is carried out between command and control systems, involving bodies for acquiring, processing, transmitting and using information, as well as those that participate in disinformation, interfering with the reconnaissance and command systems of the enemy. So in contemporary conflicts, not the armed combat systems of the potential enemy, but his *nervous system* should be destroyed first. Actions to achieve this goal can therefore be called a struggle to gain dominion in the area of information.

5. TYPES OF FIGHTING IN THE AREA OF INFORMATION

According to Western experts views, fighting in the area of information can be divided into the following types¹²:

- Command and Control Warfare, that is, disrupting the command system;
- Intelligence Warfare, that is, counteracting to disrupt and disorganize the recognition system;
- Psychological Warfare, that is all actions aimed at disrupting the psychological immunity of the enemy's army and society;
- Electronical Warfare, that is, undertakings aimed at interfering with all electronic systems;
- Economic Information Warfare, that is, the fight against and economic information;
- Hackerwarfare, that is, activities involving hacking computer systems;
- Cyberwarfare, that is, getting information from scientists and organizations, for example brainwashing.

Hackerwarfare and cyberwarfare differ in the purpose of aggression; the former is directed against data processing systems, the latter against people.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The acquisition, possession and use of information accompanies man in all cognitive processes from the moment of his birth. In psychological studies, the dominant thesis is that knowledge is the cognitive result. The transformation of information into knowledge occurs both in a conscious and subconscious way as a result of combining specific experiences and events that took place on the way of personality development.

The development of technology and electronics has initiated an information revolution. Computers, the Internet, mobile phones have become widespread. Multimedia mass media transmit information streams in various forms. Thus, information is not only about intellectual, but also economic power. New technologies, machinery and equipment determine better production effects and consequently lead to economic growth. In the military sphere, the information resources of military intelligence allow us to effectively plan and implement defence tasks, enable the exchange of information essential for the security of the state or the alliance. The struggle for information advantage and domination is inextricably linked

¹² Vide: JP 3-13.1 - *Joint Doctrine for Command and Control Warfare (C2W)*, JP 3-54 - *Joint Doctrine for Operations Security*.

to armed struggle, the essence of which amounts to acquiring information about a real or potential opponent (threat).

In contemporary concepts of information activities, the relationship between the *information hierarchy* (Data – Information – Knowledge – Wisdom) and the general model of action (Observe – Orient – Decide – Act) is emphasized. In the considerations regarding *information dominance* and *information superiority* and *the predominance of knowledge* one cannot omit the relation between the quantity and quality of information and the usefulness (value) of information. The hypotheses should therefore be accepted:

- in terms of information society, the value of information becomes the basic category;
- data quality is a condition for the value of information, which is a prerequisite for information system user knowledge.

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OD INFORMACJI DO WALKI INFORMACYJNEJ

Pojęcie informacja używane jest powszechnie, a jego znaczenie nie budzi żadnych wątpliwości. Jednak pomimo powszechnego używania tego terminu, informacje o próbach zdefiniowania powodują szereg trudności. W wielu badaniach naukowych poszukuje się rozwiązania poprzez analizę treści informacyjnej, informacji, źródeł jej powstania lub obszarów praktycznego wykorzystania.

W artykule przyjęto jakościową strategię badawczą. W związku z czym ma on charakter czysto teoretyczny. Autor prezentuje rozważania na temat ontologicznych aspektów walki informacyjnej. Prezentowany artykuł jest pierwszym, który otwiera cykl artykułów poświęconych wspomnianej problematyce.

Celem artykułu było zdefiniowanie pojęć ilość i jakość informacji oraz użyteczność i wartość informacji, a także wyjaśnienie istotności informacji w konflikcie międzynarodowym. Problem badawczy skupił się na wyjaśnieniu jak rozumiana jest w naukach społecznych ilość i jakość informacji oraz użyteczność i wartość informacji. Ponadto, autor zastanawiał się, dlaczego informacje są ważnym czynnikiem w konfliktach międzynarodowych.

W wyniku dywagacji naukowych autor doszedł do wniosku, że informacje definiuje się w związku z obiektami myślowymi, które odzwierciedlają różne formy wiadomości, wiedzę o bieżących wydarzeniach. Na podstawie wniosków uzyskanych z analizy literatury przedmiotu można stwierdzić, że w aspekcie teorii organizacji i zarządzania informacja jest czynnikiem determinującym efektywność działania, dlatego w aspekcie militarnym określa efektywność proces podejmowania decyzji.

Powyższe warunki stanowiły główną inspirację autora, którego celem było przedstawienie informacji jako ważnego czynnika sukcesu na współczesnym polu bitwy.

Słowa kluczowe: Informacja, wartość informacji, walka informacyjna hierarchii informacji.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.53

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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ASSESSING ENTREPRENEURIAL ATTITUDES AND SKILLS OF STUDENTS

Entrepreneurship is often defined as the opportunistic pursuit of economic wealth by limited resources. Governments all over the world undertake many programmes to boost entrepreneurial spirits amongst students – potential entrepreneurs. The benefits gained are significant such as: job creation, innovation and ultimately contribution to national economic wealth. The role and effect of education, including training, on entrepreneurial activities has been a major topic of discussion in the last decade. The term “entrepreneurship education” refers to a holistic approach advocated in place of traditional schooling on the basics of how to run a business. The purpose of this study is to assess how grades obtained by students influence their entrepreneurial attitudes and secondly to assess students’ entrepreneurial skills. Paper questionnaires were used to survey students studying at Warsaw School of Economics and Rzeszow University of Technology. The respondents were undergraduate students participating in the general module of Management at Warsaw School of Economics and Statistics Methods at Rzeszow University of Technology. The average grade students obtained during their studies strongly differentiates students plans considering what they are going to do after graduation. The more entrepreneurial students are those with average grade 3.5–3.99 as 19% of them would like to start their business. The best students (with higher grades) are the least entrepreneurial, just 6% of them would be willing to set up a business. This is a signal for educators that entrepreneurial attitudes can not be solely related to education but other factors must be taken into account such as individual predispositions e.g. willingness to take a risk.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial skills.

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1. INTRODUCTION

A growing academic interest in entrepreneurship has developed alongside different economic changes, such as globalisation³, acceleration of technological development⁴, innovation and business growth. This has led to rapid improvements in the competitive environment⁵ with organisations desperately needing to adapt to these changes and develop innovative products, services, processes, and business models. This situation requires being flexible and responsive toward changes. A dynamic economic development and several uncertainties had created numerous business opportunities for future entrepreneurs, including students at various levels of education, who noticed an opportunity to become committed entrepreneurs.

It is argued that individuals having a strong grip on specific entrepreneurial skills will probably feel more confident to start their own business, instead of working for any other organisation⁶. Other than this, it can also be argued that a strong grip on entrepreneurial skills would also be associated with a higher attitude towards entrepreneurship⁷. Yet, it is unfortunate that the literature on entrepreneurship is generally underdeveloped and there is little research on of entrepreneurial skills and other initiatives of social support⁸.

The need to include enterprise and entrepreneurship studies in the education system, at all levels, has gained much attention from academia and governments all over the world. This prolonged and heightened interest in entrepreneurship is prompted by several factors. First, for developed economies, entrepreneurial activity (new venture formation) is a way of revitalizing stagnated economies and of coping with unemployment problems by providing new job opportunities. Moreover, entrepreneurship is a great force for economic growth, recovery and society progress speaking of employment, social empowerment and innovation⁹. However, we claim it has a more critical role for economies of developing countries as entrepreneurship is perceived as an engine of economic progress, job creation and social adjustment. Thus, small business growth/new business formation is widely encouraged by national economic policies to stimulate economic growth and wealth creation.

Although many universities in the world offer courses on entrepreneurship, little evidence is available about students taking these courses and their intentions to become entre-

³ E. Gummesson, *Relationship marketing in the new economy*, „Journal of Relationship Marketing”, Vol. 1 No. 1, 2002, pp. 37-58.

⁴ M. Santoro, A.K. Chakrabarti, *Firm size and technology centrality in industry-university interactions*, „Research Policy”, Vol. 31, 2003, p. 1163–80.

⁵ J.A. Siguaw, T.L. Bakes, P.M. Simpson, *Preliminary evidence on the composition of relational exchange and its outcomes: the distributor perspective*, „Journal of Business Research”, Vol. 56, 2003, p. 311–22.

⁶ M.S. Farooq, M. Salam, S. UrRehman, A. Fayolle, N. Jaafar, K. Ayupp, *Impact of support from social network on entrepreneurial intention of fresh business graduates: a structural equation modeling approach*, „Education + Training”, Vol. 60 No. 4, 2018, p. 1–19.

⁷ M. Salam, D.N.F.A Iskandar, D.H.A. Ibrahim, *Service learning support for academic learning and skills development*, Journal of Telecommunication, Electronic and Computer Engineering, Vol. 9, No. 2–10, 2017, p. 111–117.

⁸ S. Adomako, A. Danso, A., M. Uddin and J. O. Damoah (2016), *Entrepreneurs' optimism, cognitive style and persistence*, „International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research”, Vol. 22, No.1, 2016, pp. 84-108.

⁹ B.A. Soomro, N. Shah, *Developing attitudes and intentions among potential entrepreneurs*, „Journal of Enterprise Information Management” 2015, Vol. 28 Issue: 2, p. 304–322.

preneurs¹⁰. Roxas et al. (2008)¹¹ claim that knowledge gained from formal entrepreneurship education programmes will boost individual entrepreneurial intentions. The idea of the entrepreneurial university has recently entered into the debate¹². It is argued that a country's development and economic growth can be achieved by promotion of enterprise education among students a trait that requires knowledge of entrepreneurship, financial resources and the business environment¹³. The review by Gorman et al.¹⁴ indicates that by aligning education with entrepreneurship, countries lacking resources and employment opportunities can foster entrepreneurial attributes, and the potential of students, which in turn could bring several economic benefits.

The aims of this research are twofold. Firstly to determine entrepreneurial attitudes of students considering the grades they obtain during their studies and secondly to assess students entrepreneurial skills.

To this end two institutions were studied: the Warsaw School of Economics (SGH) and Rzeszow University of Technology (PRZ). The remainder of this study is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on concept of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurship education followed by the development of research questions, research design and methodology in section 3. The empirical results and discussion of the findings are presented in section 4.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Defining entrepreneurship

As research on entrepreneurship shows, there is no universal definition or concept of entrepreneurship in existing organizations¹⁵. Instead, the concept is rich with different approaches and assumptions. Therefore there is no single construct of entrepreneurship, which results in different operationalizations of this concept¹⁶.

¹⁰ A. Basu, M. Virick, *Assessing entrepreneurial intentions amongst students: a comparative study*, 2008, www.researchgate.net/publication/255583956_Assessing_Entrepreneurial_Intentions_Amongst_Students_A_Comparative_Study (access: 21 January 2016).

¹¹ B.G. Roxas, R. Cayoca-Panizales, *Entrepreneurial knowledge and its effects on entrepreneurial intentions: development of a conceptual framework*. "Asia-Pacific Social Science Review", Vol. 8, No. 20, 2008, p. 61–77.

¹² P. McGowan, P. Sijde, D. Kirby, *The role of universities in the entrepreneurship industry: promoting the entrepreneurship agenda in HEIs*, "Industry and Higher Education", Vol. 22 No. 1, 2008, p. 49–59.

¹³ P. Milius, J. Sarkiene, *Entrepreneurship training for innovative start-ups: the KTC case*, in van der P. Sijde, Annemarie Ridder, A., Blaauw, G. and Diensberg, C. (Eds), *Teaching Entrepreneurship*, 2008, ISBN 978-3-7908-2038-6, Physica-Verlag HD, Heidelberg, pp. 23-33.

¹⁴ G. Gorman, D. Hanlon, W. King, *Some research perspectives on entrepreneurship education, enterprise education and education for small business management: a ten-year literature review*. "International Small Business Journal" 1997, Vol. 15 No. 3, p. 56–77.

¹⁵ P. Davidsson, *Research Entrepreneurship*. Springer, New York; Idem: *The Domain of Entrepreneurship Research: Some Suggestions*. In: „Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firm Emergence and Growth" 2005, Ed. J.A. Katz.

¹⁶ W. Dyduch, *Corporate entrepreneurship measurement for improving organizational performance*, „Journal of Economics and Management" 2008, Vol. 4, p. 15–40.

Research literature reveals entrepreneurship as a socioeconomic force, a state of mind in the business economy which can generate employment opportunities, particularly new businesses, via intuitive ability, instincts, unique values, attitudes and skills¹⁷. The impact of entrepreneurship is always seen as positive in the economy. Entrepreneurial activities are on the rise globally, with many governments taking deliberate action to encourage and increase the formation of start-ups and new ventures (GEM, 2009, 2014). For the purpose of this paper, we assume that entrepreneurship is related with setting up your own company and in such context we consider it.

2.2. Concept of entrepreneurial skills

The perception about entrepreneurial skills indicates the self-confidence of respondents about certain skills which are critical for being an entrepreneur¹⁸. It is expected that, a high level of entrepreneurial skills will positively influence the personal attitude towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control¹⁹. According to Liñán (2008)²⁰, the perception towards entrepreneurial skills indicates how much individuals are confident about their possession of entrepreneurial skills which are required for founding a new business (p. 261). Further on, in this regard, he argues that certain skills are required for any individual to become an entrepreneur, and these skills can be categorised as entrepreneurial skills. According to Denoble et al.²¹, the possession of entrepreneurial skills could increase individuals' confidence level and it makes them feel more able to start their own business. They argue that these entrepreneurial skills could be exercised in a better way as an entrepreneur, because the possession of entrepreneurial skills increases personal self-efficacy of potential entrepreneurs. Moreover, Salam et al.²² and Scherer et al.²³ assert that having possession of entrepreneurial skills gives internal motivation and desire to excel;

¹⁷ Z.J. Acs, M.I. Megyesi, *Creativity and industrial cities: a case study of Baltimore*, "Entrepreneurship and Regional Development: An International Journal" 2009, Vol. 21 No. 4, p. 421–439; A. Azhar, A. Javaid, M. Rehman, A. Hyder, *Entrepreneurial intentions among business students in Pakistan*, "Journal of Business Systems, Governance and Ethics" 2010, Vol. 5 No. 2, p. 13–21; V. Johansen, T. Schanke, T. H. Clausen, "Entrepreneurship education and pupils: attitudes towards entrepreneurs" 2010, available at: www.intechopen.com (access: 11 August 2013).

¹⁸ M.S. Farooq, *Social support and entrepreneurial skills as antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviour*, PhD thesis, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS), Sarawak, 2016 available at: <https://ir.unimas.my/19807/> (accessed 17 March 2018).

¹⁹ M.S. Farooq, M. Salam, S. UrRehman, A. Fayolle, N. Jaafar, N. and K. Ayupp, *Impact of support from social network on entrepreneurial intention of fresh business graduates: a structural equation modeling approach*, "Education + Training" 2018, Vol. 60, No. 4, p. 1–19.

²⁰ F. Liñán, *Skill and value perceptions: how do they affect entrepreneurial intentions?*, "International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal" 2008, Vol. 4, No. 3, p. 257–272.

²¹ A.F. Denoble, K. Jung, S.B. Ehrlich, *Entrepreneurial self-efficacy: the development of a measure and its relationship to entrepreneurial action*, in Reynolds, P., Bygrave, W., Manigart, S., Mason, C., Meyer, G.D., Sapienza, H.J. and Shaver, K.G. (Eds), "Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research", Babson College, Wellesley, MA, 1999, p. 2881–2888.

²² M. Salam, D.N.F.A. Iskandar, D.H.A Ibrahim, *Service learning support for academic learning and skills development*, "Journal of Telecommunication, Electronic and Computer Engineering" 2017, Vol. 9, No. 2-10, 2017, p. 111–117.

²³ R.F., Scherer, J.D., Brodzinski, F. Wiebe, *Examining the relationship between personality and entrepreneurial career preference*, *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 1991, Vol. 3, No. 2, p. 195–206.

as a result, perceived chances of success as an entrepreneur become higher for those who possess entrepreneurial skills. Moreover, Liñán (2008) argues that entrepreneurial skills have a positive relation with personal attraction towards entrepreneurship. Farooq et al.²⁴ claim that the possession of entrepreneurial skills has a psychological effect on individuals' attitude, which empowers and leads a person towards entrepreneurial behaviour in the future. On the basis of above discussion, this study assumes that there is a probability of high correlation between entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurial attitude.

Research has shown that entrepreneurial skills can be learned²⁵, which has led to an increase in the number of entrepreneurship programs at colleges and universities²⁶.

2.3. Entrepreneurship education

Entrepreneurship education has received significant attention from scholars, educators, practitioners and policy-makers²⁷. Entrepreneurial education is perceived as one of the most important challenges of modern educational systems and socio-economic development. Although entrepreneurial education is currently a hot topic in the literature on entrepreneurship worldwide, it is only an emerging subject in Poland, although it is increasingly undertaken by researchers in various fields²⁸.

Entrepreneurship education while transferring content knowledge and developing skills and competencies, should also stimulate intentions and mindsets that promote entrepreneurial behaviours and activities²⁹.

According to Reynolds et al.³⁰ appropriate education and training programs in entrepreneurship are expected to increase the number of people becoming entrepreneurs because the better educated the population the higher the level of entrepreneurial activity. There has been a notable expansion in the number of entrepreneurship programmes globally in recent

²⁴ M.S. Farooq, M. Salam, N. Jaafar, A. Fayolle, K. Ayupp, M. Radovic-Markovic and A. Sajid, *Acceptance and use of lecture capture system (LCS) in executive business studies: extending UTAUT2*, "Interactive Technology and Smart Education" 2017, Vol. 14, No. 4, p. 329–348.

²⁵ D. Kuratko, *The emergence of entrepreneurship education: developments, trends, and challenges*, "Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice" 2005, Vol. 29, No. 5, p. 577–97.

²⁶ H. Matlay, *Researching entrepreneurship and education: what is entrepreneurship and does it matter?*, *Education þ Training*, Vol. 47, No. 8/9, 2005, p. 665–77.

²⁷ S.M., Lee, D. Chang, and S.B. Lim, *Impact of entrepreneurship education: a comparative study of the US and Korea*, "The International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal" 2005, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 27–43; C. Winkler, *Toward a dynamic understanding of entrepreneurship education research across the campus—social cognition and action research*, "Entrepreneurship Research Journal" 2014, Vol. 4, No. 1, p. 69–93.

²⁸ K. Wach, *Edukacja przedsiębiorcza: analiza bibliometryczna polskiego piśmiennictwa (Entrepreneurship: bibliometric analysis of Polish literature)*, „Horyzonty Wychowania” 2016, Vol. 15, No. 34, p. 11–26.

²⁹ Y. Zhang, G. Duysters, M. Cloudt, *The role of entrepreneurship education as a predictor of university students' entrepreneurial intention*, "International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal" 2014, Vol. 10, No. 3, p. 623–641.

³⁰ P.D. Reynolds, M. Hay, S.M. Camp, *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: 1999 Executive Report*, Kauffman Centre for Entrepreneurial Leadership at the Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation, Kansas City, 1999, MO.

times³¹, although participation does not always lead to nascent entrepreneurship³². This has often been driven by the belief that education is best placed to equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills required to prosper in working environments³³. In terms of the entrepreneurial experience however, there is ongoing debate regarding the essential attitudes towards education components of an effective entrepreneurship education programme³⁴. Indeed, Anderson and Jack³⁵ argue that entrepreneurship education is a difficult area to lecture on due to its variability, complexity and contingency.

Despite this increased attention, the legitimacy of entrepreneurial education is far from well established³⁶.

We consider entrepreneurship education as an important part of managerial education which we perceived in a wider perspective. We believe that entrepreneurial competencies are not limited to those that aim to set up a new business venture. We think, that entrepreneurial competencies are important to managers, specialists or almost any employee working in a contemporary, fast changing organizations. For us being entrepreneurial means to be innovative, looking for new opportunities, undertaking new initiatives. Those people with such skills can work for any type of business.

Business and management school graduates are expected to possess appropriate knowledge, skills and social competencies. Some of them will become managers, company owners and should help to guide us through the turbulent world of modern organizations³⁷.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was undertaken at Warsaw School of Economics and Rzeszow University of Technology in the summer semester of May 2016. The students at both Universities were asked to complete a paper questionnaire which would assess their entrepreneurial attitudes. Students were assured of anonymity in the reported results and could withdraw their participation at any time. As a pilot study, we developed an online version of the questionnaire which was sent first to five students and five other academics to check if the questions are properly understood and to check validity.

³¹ J. Katz, *Chronology and intellectual trajectory of American entrepreneurship education 1876–1999*, "Journal of Business Venturing" 2003, Vol. 18 No. 2, 2003, p. 283–300.

³² D.F. Kuratko, *The emergence of entrepreneurship education: development, trends and challenges*. "Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice", Vol. 29 No. 5, 2005, pp. 577–97; H. Matlay, C. Carey, *Entrepreneurship education in the UK: a longitudinal perspective*. "Journal of Small Business Enterprise and Development" 2007, Vol. 14 No. 2, 2007, p. 252–63.

³³ A. Adcroft, S. Dhaliwa, R. Willis, *Insatiable demand or academic supply: the intellectual context of entrepreneurship education*. "European Business Review" 2005, Vol. 17 No. 6, 2005, p. 518–31.

³⁴ L. Pittaway, J. Cope, *Entrepreneurship education: a systematic review of the evidence*. Working Paper Series No. 2, National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship, Birmingham, 2006, p. 1–33.

³⁵ A. Anderson and S. Jack, *Role typologies for enterprising education: the professional artisan?*. "Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development" 2008, Vol. 15 No. 2, p. 259–73.

³⁶ E. Abaho, D.R. Olomi, G.C. Urassa, *Students' entrepreneurial self-efficacy: does the teaching method matter?*, "Education + Training" 2015, Vol. 57, No. 8/9, p. 908–923.

³⁷ M. Kostera, *Differing...*, p. 673–97.

The presented results cover the responses from two Universities. We aimed to present a short characteristics of two Universities to acquaint readers with a profile of two Universities.

3.1. Warsaw School of Economics

Warsaw School of Economics (SGH) is considered to be one of the best business-oriented universities in Poland. It is famous for its links with businesses, and accreditations. There is a very strong link with businesses that is visible through courses run by academic teachers and managers from companies. Moreover, student organisations are very active in organising events like the Marathon of consulting firms or exhibition days. Students drive to create a platform of communication between the best students and market leaders, and they highlight that international corporations are the best places to start their business career³⁸.

The presence at SGH of global companies like McKinsey, Procter and Gamble, L'Oréal Polska, Deloitte or Ernst and Young is a confirmation of the high level of teaching who are looking for high calibre of students. Companies have the opportunity to engage with potential employees and students can acquaint themselves with the business world. The relationship is beneficial to both parties.

3.2. Rzeszow University of Technology

Rzeszow University of Technology (PRz) is located in the south-eastern part of Poland. PRz is recognised amongst the best technical universities in Poland. The Management Faculty was set up in 1993 in response to increased demand for management education. The business links are well established with Aviation Valley, which supports automotive and aviation provision companies.

The Business Council was created in 2012 on the initiative of the Dean's office, with associate business leaders operating mainly in Podkarpackie Province. The main goal of the Council is the formation of a platform to advise on creating high quality scholarly achievements, modernization of teaching processes, initiation of business contacts and initiating promotional and marketing activity. It is the task of the Business Council to improve the exchange of experience between academic teachers and practitioners of management. The latest initiative was the world entrepreneurship week organized in November in 2017.

3.3. Sample

The study involved 566 students. The research was conducted at two universities: in Rzeszow (Ignacy Łukasiewicz University of Technology) where students constituted 46% of the respondents and in Warsaw (Warsaw School of Economics) where students constituted 54%. The research results include (The proportion of female students and male students was around 50%. The majority of respondents had an average of grade 4 and above (slightly over 66%). Most of them were first year students (75% of the study group). The "other" option includes third-year students and masters students]. The most-represented discipline is Finance (27%), International Relations (27%) and Logistics (17%). Other disciplines include economics, e-business, econometrics, computer science and data analysis.

³⁸ Exhibition leaflet, Exhibition of FMCG, prepared by the Students' Association at SGH.

Table 1. Characteristic of the sample

		Sample size	Percentage
Gender [3 persons did not answer this question]	Women	227	49.2%
	Men	286	50.8%
Average grade [24 persons did not answer this question]	from 3.0 up to 3.49	12	2.2%
	from 3.5 up to 3.99	170	31.4%
	from 4.0 up to 4.4	271	50%
	from 4.5 up to 5.0	89	16.4%
Discipline/ Specialization [15 persons did not answer this question]	Finance	148	26.9%
	Management	51	9.3%
	International relations	148	26.9%
	Logistics	93	16.9%
	Quantitative methods and information systems	58	10.5%
	Other	53	9.6%
Year of study [4 persons did not answer this question]	1st year	424	75.4%
	2nd year	99	17.6%
	3rd year	39	7%
Place	Rzeszow	260	54%
	Warsaw	306	46%

Source: Own development, based on: C. Sołek-Borowska, K. Chudy-Laskowska, *Exploring entrepreneurial attitudes of students in Poland: An interregional comparison*, Katowice 2017, p. 141–162.

The research questions are as follows:

- RQ (1) What are the entrepreneurial attitudes of students considering average grades? (Do students with best grades are more entrepreneurial?)
- RQ (2) What is the role of education sector in promoting entrepreneurial attitudes?
- RQ (3) How do students assess their entrepreneurial skills?

To answer the first and second research questions we used Chi square Independence test. To answer the third research question we used U Manna – Whitney‘a test to assess the level of entrepreneurial skills in two groups (one group of students who are willing to start their own business and the second one, students who want to work for someone)

The hypothesis sound as follows:

- H₁: Students average grade did not influence their entrepreneurial attitude
- H₂: There are not statistically significant differences as to the role of education between students who would be willing to set up their own business and those who would like to work for someone else
- H₃: There are not statistically significant differences between students as to their assessment of their entrepreneurial skills

It is recognized that, whilst there is a body of literature on entrepreneurial intentions and attitudes, there is a lack of research devoted to entrepreneurial attitudes and skills considering students grades. Many times assumption is made that students with best grades will be most entrepreneurial and we either want to confirm or reject our hypothesis. Therefore, this reaserch offers a new perspective to analyze the grades students obtain during their studies and their entrepreneurial propensity. The current paper adds to this body of literature and makes a significant contribution to the research on factors influencing entrepreneurial attitudes considering students‘ grades.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

According to Safin³⁹ there is a conviction in Polish society that a successful career of a young person is related to finding interesting work in a large company, rather than the establishment of his own company. Such a view is influenced not only by the recent past, in which the company was a rather marginal and often forced undertaking, but also a contemporary assessment of the professional prestige of the entrepreneur. According to the „Rzeczpospolita“ daily rankings, the entrepreneur is in a distant position. Although a relatively high-value entrepreneur enjoys a high reputation (but it is relatively rare to find a wealthy entrepreneur), small entrepreneurs, who account for 90% of all companies in Poland, enjoy the same status as a person without a profession.

4.1. Willingness to set up a business when considering student's grades

In order to answer the first research question RQ1 and confirm or reject H₁ hypothesis we asked students the following question: „What are you planning to do after graduation“. 12% students consider of setting up their business straight away after graduation⁴⁰. As we are interested if very good students or average students are entrepreneurially inclined, the Fig. 1 presents the answers with consideration of grades presented.

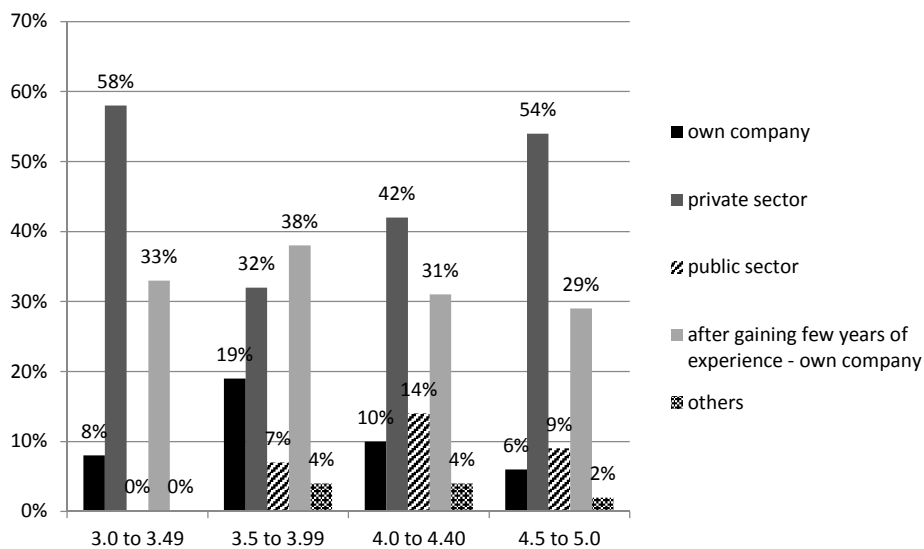


Figure 1. Employment plans after graduation with the consideration of grades obtained during the study

Source: Own development, n = 566.

³⁹ K. Safin, *Przedsiębiorcze zachowania studentów – stan i konsekwencje dla dydaktyki (Entrepreneurship of students – the current state and the consequences for didactics)*, „Horyzonty Wychowania” 2014, Vol. 13, No. 26, p. 327–340.

⁴⁰ The detailed results considering the entrepreneurial attitudes can be found in the paper: C. Sołek-Borowska, K. Chudy-Laskowska, *Exploring...*, p. 141–162.

In order to confirm or reject H_1 hypothesis the Chi square Independence test (χ^2) has been utilised. The average grade which students obtained during their studies strongly differentiates students plans considering what they are going to do after graduation $p < \alpha$ ($p = 0,00375$). The more entrepreneurial students are those with average grade starting from 3.5 up to 3.99 as 19% of them would like to start their business just after graduation. The trend is not changing considering setting up a business after gaining a few years of experience, where 38% of students with average grade 3.5 up to 3.99 are willing to set it up. The best students are the least entrepreneurial, only 6% of them are willing to set up their own business. This is a strong evidence that entrepreneurial students are not those with higher grades but average students. The good students (with average grade 4.0-4.4) would like to work in public sector which is not prevailing amongst the students with lowest average grade (3.00–3.49). The obtained results can refer to other aspects of setting up a business which is willingness to take a risk for yourself, your company and your employees. We can definitely confirm that the best students are not the most entrepreneurial. On the contrary, the average students seem to be more entrepreneurial which is proved when we compare the aspect of setting up a business straight away and after few years of gaining experience with other options (working in private sector and public sector) what is presented in Fig. 2.

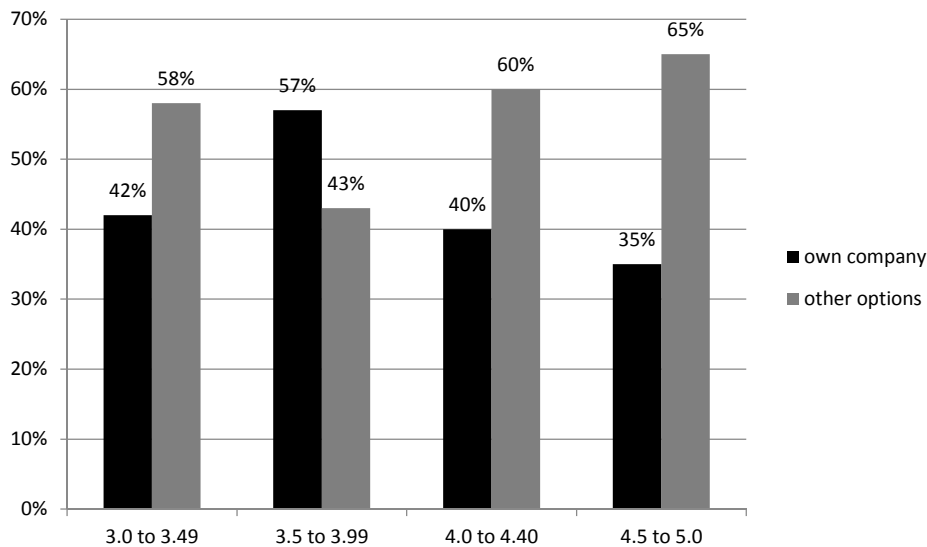


Figure 2. Own company versus other possibilities of employment

Source: Own development, $n = 566$.

We meant to analyse two group of students: one -who are willing to set up a business and the second one who are willing to work for someone else. We used also Chi square statistics (χ^2) to test if the willingness to set up the business is the same in two groups. The test proved significant dependence between the obtained grade and the willingness to set up a business $p < \alpha$ ($p = 0,001$). Therefore we can state that best grades are not a prerequisite for entrepreneurial attitudes. The more entrepreneurial are students with average grades 3.5 up

to 3.99. On the contrary, the best students are the least entrepreneurial. We reject H_1 hypothesis, the grades students obtained influenced their entrepreneurial attitudes. This is an important signal for educators which drives the research further to analyze the risk attitudes.

4.2. Education and students' entrepreneurial skills

Education is one of the factors that stimulate entrepreneurship, especially in terms of fostering entrepreneurial awareness⁴¹. The idea is that how entrepreneurship attitudes can be developed which is actually related with the mindset of individuals.

Programs that support entrepreneurship through financial grants, training and internships do not appear to deliver the expected results and end their lives at the end of the required period. One of the main reasons is the ineffective education process in this context as noted by Safin (2014)⁴².

We wanted to assess the role of education in promoting entrepreneurial attitudes by finding the answer for a second research question.

Students were asked whether one can *learn* to be an entrepreneur. More than half [56%] of students claim that entrepreneurship is partly learned. Therefore the next question followed: do you think that the education you are gaining at university by participating in different modules enhances your entrepreneurship skills? Students could select from 1 - I strongly disagree to 5 - I strongly agree using the Likert scale. The results are presented in Fig. 3.

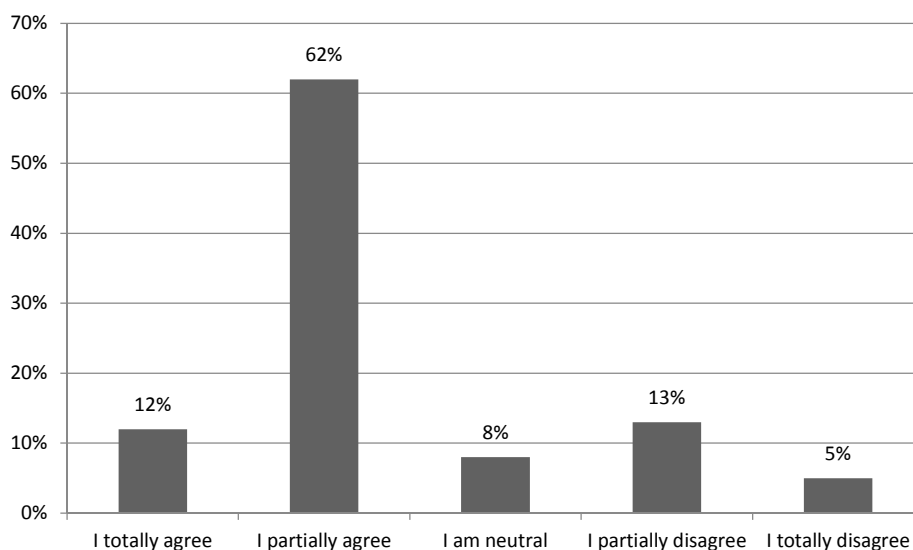


Figure 3. Education in entrepreneurship

Source: Own development, n = 566.

⁴¹ K. Wach, *Edukacja...*, p. 11–26.

⁴² K. Safin, *Przedsiębiorcze...*, p. 327–340.

To confirm or reject H_2 hypothesis we used Chi square Independence test. We aimed to investigate whether there are differences in the answers of students who would be willing to set up a business and those who would like to work for someone else. Using Chi Square Independence test, $p > \alpha$ ($p = 0,47365$) indicates there are not differences in answers. We can confirm H_2 hypothesis there are not statistically differences between between two group of students as to the role of education.

4.3. Student's assessment of entrepreneurial skills

According to Liñán (2008)⁴³, the perception towards entrepreneurial skills indicates how much individuals are confident about their possession of entrepreneurial skills which are required for founding a new business. In this regard, he further argues that certain skills are required for any individual to become an entrepreneur, and these skills can be categorised as entrepreneurial skills⁴⁴. For the purpose of this study, entrepreneurial skills are adapted from numerous previous studies.

Moreover, Denoble et al. (1999) argue that the possession of these entrepreneurial skills could increase individuals' confidence level and can make them feel more able to start their own business. Further, they argue that these entrepreneurial skills could be exercised in a better way as an entrepreneur because the possession of these skills increases personal self-efficacy of potential entrepreneurs. To answer the third research questions we asked students to assess their entrepreneurial skills.

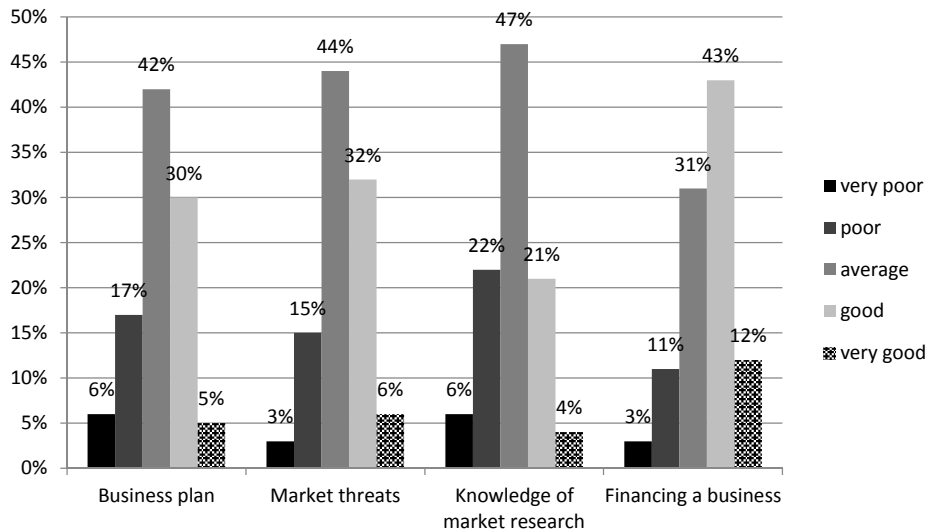


Figure 4. Students assessment of entrepreneurial skills

Source: Own development, n = 566.

⁴³ F. Liñán, *Skill and value perceptions: how do they affect entrepreneurial intentions?*, "International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal" 2008, Vol. 4, No. 3, p. 257–272.

⁴⁴ M.S. Farooq, M. Salam, S. UrRehman, A. Fayolle, N. Jaafar, K. Ayupp, *Impact of support from social network on entrepreneurial intention of fresh business graduates: a structural equation modeling approach*, "Education + Training" 2018, Vol. 60, No. 4, p. 1–19.

We took into account the following entrepreneurial skills: ability to prepare a business plan, knowledge of market threats, knowledge of market research techniques and knowledge how to finance a business. Students were asked how they assess their skills on the scale from 1 not at all to 5 outstanding. The results are presented in Fig. 4.

The highest grade students appointed to knowledge of how to finance a business. Students were rather sceptical, they were more willing to answer: I hold a good knowledge rather than to be overoptimistic and say: very good. We would claim that this is a positive sign, showing a modest attitudes of students but also not possessing a very good knowledge may be a reason why students are not so entrepreneurial. The highest assessment was appointed to knowledge how to legally get the money (43%). The lowest score was appointed to techniques of market research. The results are also presented on whisker plot (Fig. 5) which indicates the assessment in terms of grades appointed. Because this is self-assessment of students so the limitation of these answers may be related to underestimation own skills.

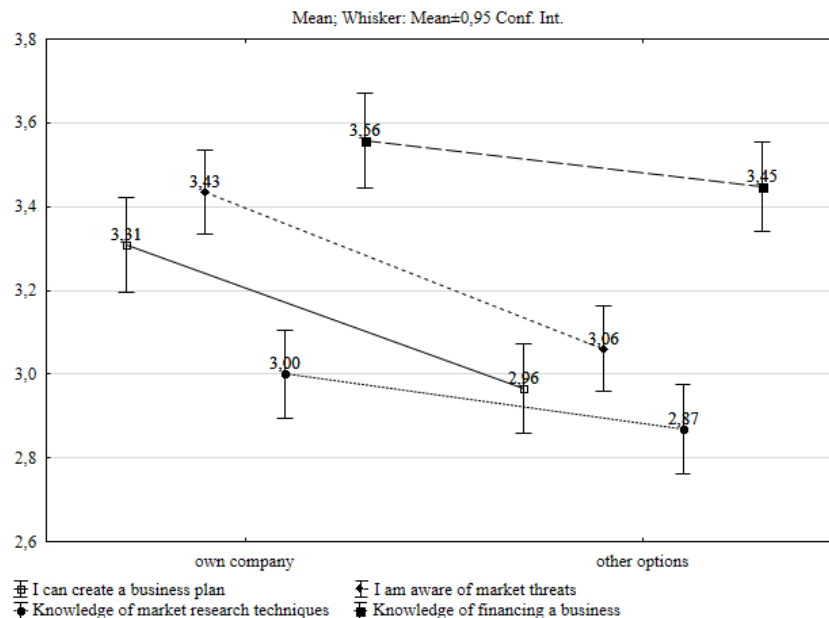


Figure 5. Interaction plot

Source: Own development, n = 566.

Generally students who are more entrepreneurial (they want to set up their business) better assess their entrepreneurial skills. The ranking is lead by skills related to financing a business 3.56 for students willing to set up their business and 3.45 for those who want to work for someone. Using U Mann-Whitney test we meant to confirm or reject H_3 hypothesis to find out if there are differences in answers in two group of students: the one who are willing to set up their own business and other options (working for someone). The test proved two significant differences in skills: I can create a business plan $p < \alpha$ ($p = 0,0000$) and I am aware of market threats $p < \alpha$ ($p = 0,0000$). The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Assessment of skills in two groups: Entrepreneurial students and other option

Assessment of entrepreneurial skills	p-value
I can create a business plan	0,0000***
I am aware of market threats	0,0000***
I know market research techniques	0,0862
I know how to finance a business	0,1692

Source: Own development, n = 566.

* p < 0.05 – statistically significant

** p < 0.01 – statistically medium significant

*** p < 0.001 – statistically highly significant

The H₃ is partially confirmed related to skills: knowledge of market research techniques and knowledge on financing a business.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In the last decade, there has been growing interest in undertaking and intensifying actions to promote and support the idea of entrepreneurship as an attractive alternative to wage employment among students not only in Poland but also around the globe. There are several reasons for this tendency. First, well-educated entrepreneurs are expected to create ventures that grow faster than the enterprises of their counterparts. Secondly, entrepreneurs are recognized as important drivers of economic and social progress, and entrepreneurial initiatives for young people are regarded as an important factor in the future growth of a nation. Consequently, universities are expected to play a major role in propagating an entrepreneurial attitude among students and graduates and nurturing future entrepreneurs. This explains why a growing number of universities start to offer specialized entrepreneurship courses and programs in their business curriculum. There is a general belief that good students will be more entrepreneurial and we abolished this belief in our research.

The aim of this study was to assess how grades influence students' entrepreneurial attitudes. We proved that apart from teaching students how to set up their business, an important aspect is attributed to willingness of taking a risk. Not the best students are willing to set up a business but an average students. Students are rather pessimistic in estimating their entrepreneurial skills which might be due to several reasons: the majority of students were second year students and they may believe that underestimating their skills offers them still a long way to study. Our results partially contradict Roxas et al.⁴⁵ who claim that knowledge gained from formal entrepreneurship education programmes will boost individual entrepreneurial intentions. It will boost student's entrepreneurial attitudes, but once we have taken into account individuals predispositions for setting up a business. An important aspect which differentiates an employee and entrepreneur is being responsible for the whole company and taking the risk that the business may not succeed ultimately.

⁴⁵ B.G. Roxas, R. Cayoca-Panizales, *Entrepreneurial knowledge and its effects on entrepreneurial intentions: development of a conceptual framework*, "Asia-Pacific Social Science Review" 2008, Vol. 8, No. 20, p. 61–77.

We value formal education but we strongly support to analyze individual predispositions in assessing someone's entrepreneurial attitudes. By providing the necessary knowledge in the teaching system and the distinction in the attitude of teaching entrepreneurship education in relation to young people entering the labor market. Willingness to set up a business may be related to fact, that the Polish culture does not accept failure. What we mean is that an entrepreneur is regarded as „stupid“ without necessary knowledge and skills when their fail, nobody takes into account that that failure could have been related to external environment, factors that could have been beyond an entrepreneur control.

The research results are part of a bigger research project that aims to investigate entrepreneurial attitudes of students in Thailand, UK, USA and Canada.

This study provides compelling evidence that students want to start their entrepreneurial activity after gaining a few years of work experience, grades strongly differentiate the entrepreneurial attitudes. Not the best students are the most entrepreneurial. This might be related to propensity for risk taking. Therefore next research should incorporate risk attitude along with the national culture aspect. It would be inappropriate to generalize these results to actual entrepreneurial behaviours until such a relationship is confirmed by other empirical research. Also the findings are not universally applicable to any country as the education system needs to be analysed beforehand.

Our results are based solely on the self-evaluation of students, regarding their capability and awareness about starting a new business venture. This could have a strong impact on their perceptions and intentions. Further research could investigate whether the students have over-estimated or under-estimated their proficiency, and the extent to which the self-evaluations reflect their actual skills and the consequent impact on entrepreneurial ability.

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OCENA UMIEJĘTNOŚCI PRZEDSIĘBIORCZYCH STUDENTÓW ORAZ ICH PODEJŚCIA DO PRZEDSIĘBIORCZOŚCI

Przedsiębiorczość jest często definiowana jako oportunistyczne poszukiwanie bogactwa ekonomicznego w obliczu ograniczonych zasobów. Rządy na całym świecie podejmują wiele programów mających na celu wzmocnienie postaw przedsiębiorczych wśród studentów – potencjalnych przedsiębiorców. Uzyskane korzyści są znaczące, takie jak: tworzenie miejsc pracy, innowacje i ostatecznie wkład w narodowe bogactwo gospodarcze. Rola i wpływ edukacji, w tym szkoleń, jest głównym tematem dyskusji w ostatniej dekadzie. Pojęcie „kształcenie w zakresie przedsiębiorczości” odnosi się do holistycznego podejścia zalecanego w miejsce tradycyjnej edukacji na temat zasad prowadzenia firmy. Celem niniejszego badania jest ocena postaw przedsiębiorczych studentów w stosunku do ocen, jakie uzyskują na studiach, oraz ocena przedsiębiorczych umiejętności studentów. Ankiety papierowe posłużyły do zbadania studentów studiujących w Szkole Głównej Handlowej w Warszawie i Politechnice Rzeszowskiej w Rzeszowie. Respondentami byli studenci studiów licencjackich uczestniczący w module Zarządzania Szkoły Głównej Handlowej i Metod Statystyki na Politechnice Rzeszowskiej. Średnia ocen uzyskanych podczas studiów mocno różnicuje plany studentów po zakończeniu studiów. Studenci ze średnią ocen 3,5–3,99, wykazują najbardziej przedsiębiorcze postawy ponieważ 19% z nich chciałoby rozpocząć swoją działalność. Najlepsi studenci (z najwyższymi ocenami) są najmniej przedsiębiorczy, tylko 6% z nich chciałoby założyć firmę. Jest to sygnał dla osób związanych z nauczaniem przedsiębiorczości, że postawy przedsiębiorcze nie są tylko wyłącznie związane z edukacją, ale należy wziąć pod uwagę inne czynniki, takie jak indywidualne predyspozycje, np. chęć podjęcia ryzyka.

Słowa kluczowe: przedsiębiorczość, edukacja przedsiębiorcza, umiejętności przedsiębiorcze.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.54

Tekst złożono do redakcji: październik 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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PROCESSES OF COMMUNICATION WITH CANDIDATES IN EMPLOYER BRANDING

The employer branding concept has evolved from a novelty and solution originally addressed to large businesses to one of the tools used nowadays to build competitive advantage and oriented towards attracting the most talented candidates, as well as a method of limiting key employee fluctuation. Nowadays, the issue of employer branding is becoming increasingly important. More and more organizations realize that their future success may depend on whether they are able to attract, recruit and retain employees with the desired qualifications. The article discusses the concept of employer branding as a tool supporting the recruitment process within the framework of human resources management. Particular attention is external EB tools such as the Career / Work Tab on the potential employer's site. The key to effective use of the "career" tab is to ensure that the candidate is provided with relevant information to better understand the organization, assess whether the expectations of the employer and candidate are convergent, find an interesting job offer, and prepare for an interview. The results of research carried out among selected companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange inclusion in WIG 30 on the content of the effectiveness of these websites were included. The companies representing three sectors (industry, finances, services) have been researched.

Keywords: employer branding, EB, communication, Career / Work Tab.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Today, more and more often the main source of knowledge about employers is the Internet. It will be more advantageous for the employer if the information about the candidate is found on the company website rather than on an internet forum that the company has no influence on. One of the most important factors that influence recruits decision of which company apply to is their perception of company brand⁴ CIPD research shows that for 75% of companies the employer branding helps with making recruitment process effective⁵. Hudson⁶ reports shows that almost 63% of the 324 largest world businesses defined employer branding in their strategies and undertake activities related to this area. Research conducted in 2011 by LinkedIn indicated point to that there are three reasons to develop good employer branding concept: spending less on hiring, boosting retention and influencing candidates decision⁷.

Studies show, 69% of Americans would not take a job with a company that had a bad reputation, even if they were unemployed and 84% would consider leaving their current jobs if offered another role with a company that had an excellent reputation (Employer Brand eBook). On the other hand Polish employers' greatest problem (38%) is the continuously intensifying shortage of candidates for employment meeting requirements related to skills and competence. The research was conducted in the period from March to May 2016 by HRM Institute based on the CAWI method⁸.

The companies cannot succeed if they don't attract relevant type of employees. The global talent pool companies is shrinking⁹. The objective of this paper is to present the preliminary results of the research employer branding – part: – used by companies listing on the Warsaw Stock Exchange. For stock exchange-listed companies, employer branding is the opportunity to reach potential candidates for employment. Companies cannot succeed if they don't attract relevant type of employees.

2. EMPLOYER BRANDING, CARREER / WORK TAB – CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

The employer branding concept has evolved from a novelty and solution originally addressed to large businesses to one of the tools used nowadays to build competitive advantage and oriented towards attracting the most talented candidates, as well as a method of limiting key employee fluctuation.

⁴ D.B. Turban, D.M. Cable, *Firm reputation and Applicant Pool Characteristics*, "Journal of Organizational Behaviour" 2003, Vol. 24, No. 6., p. 733–752.

⁵ K. Dyer, *Employer Branding: A Vital Tool for Success*, "Strategic Communication Management" 2007, Vol. 12, No. 1, p. 2.

⁶ Hudson 2014: *How to Launch a Successful Employer Brand: Building on the Practices of Top Employer Brands, 2014*, www.hudson.sg (accessed: 22.03.2017).

⁷ LinkedIn 2012: *Employer Brand Playbook*, <https://snap.linkedin.com> (accessed 28.10.2016).

⁸ K. Bilińska-Reformat, I. Stańczyk, *Employer branding as a source of competitive advantage of retail chains*, „Journal of Management and Business Administration. Central Europe” 2018, no. 1, p. 2–12.

⁹ A. Botha, M. Bussin, L.de Swartd, *An employer branding predictive model for talent attraction and retention*, "SA Journal of Human Resource Management" 2011, Vol 9, No 1, p. 1–12.

Employer branding was first defined in 1996 by Barrow, who claimed that an employer brand was a package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing company¹⁰. A more detailed definition is provided by the Conference Board, which defines the concept as: 'the employer brand establishes the identity of the firm as an employer. It encompasses the firm's value system, policies and behaviours toward the objectives of attracting, motivating, and retaining the firm's current and potential employees'¹¹. Sullivan¹² demonstrated a similar approach assuming that 'employer brand is a targeted, long-term strategy to manage the awareness and perceptions of employees, potential employees, and related stakeholders with regards to a particular firm'. On the other hand, Backhaus and Tikoo¹³ think that it is 'a process of building an identifiable and unique identity of the employer', and that it expresses itself in the organizational identity and organizational culture (which it exerts influence upon one more time), and that it determines associations associated with the brand of the prospective employer and the loyalty of the employed personnel to the brand. Aggerholm and co-authors have offered a re-conceptualization of the employer brand concept as a holistic and processual discipline including the theoretical fields of branding, HRM and CSR¹⁴. More contemporary definition presented by Sehgal and Malati (2013) translations employer branding like the image of an organisation that is perceived by stakeholders, shareholders and employees. It should show the uniqueness of the firm, allow to differentiate from competitors and encourage employees that the company is a good place to work at¹⁵.

In practice, employer branding is most frequently divided into external branding and internal branding. Internal employer branding is chiefly focused on creating a friendly work atmosphere and a possibility of development inside the organisation for employees. External employer branding may perform two functions: the image-creating function, aimed at increasing candidates' awareness of the brand, informing the labour market of the company and the advantages of working in it, presenting the competitive advantage or implementing the corporate social responsibility principles, and the recruitment-oriented function whose most important objective is finding the most appropriate candidates and persuading them to apply for the vacant positions¹⁶.

¹⁰ T. Ambler, S. Barrow, *The Employer Brand*, "Journal of Brand Management" 1996, Vol. 4, No. 3, p. 185–206.

¹¹ N. Ainspan, D. Dell, *Engaging Employees through Your Brand*, Conference Board 2001, p. 502.

¹² J. Sullivan, *Eight elements of a successful employment brand*, ER Daily, 2004, No. 23 February.

¹³ K. Backhaus, S. Tikoo, *Conceptualizing and researching employer branding*, "Career Development International" 2004, Vol. 9, Nos No. 4/5, p. 501–517.

¹⁴ H. Aggerholm, S. Andersen, C. Thomsen, *Conceptualising employer branding in sustainable organisations*, *Corporate Communications*, "An International Journal" 2011, Vol. 16, No. 2, p. 105–123.

¹⁵ K. Sehgal, N. Malati: *Employer Branding: A Potent Organizational Tool for Enhancing Competitive Advantage*, *The IUP Journal of Brand Management* 2013, Vol. X, No. 1, March 2013, pp. 51–65.

¹⁶ M. Kozłowski, *Employer budowanie wizerunku pracodawcy krok po kroku*, Warszawa 2012.

According to ManpowerGroup there are eight essential factors in developing effective employer branding strategy¹⁷:

- Be Candidate Centric – company need to use marketing tools in their recruiting processes. They should use customized approaches that will engage applicants in ways they are not being engaged before. Company need to understand candidates' unique motivators, needs and life stages etc.
- Be Authentic – emotional connection with candidates is vital as separates one employer from another. Trust brand ambassadors with social media, don't try to influence their voice as contrived or forced messages as it will seem inauthentic and could harm good employer brand.
- Be consistent – the employer brand should have consistent tone and core values throughout the whole process. The objective and message should be clear to all parties that supporting the process to avoid "bait and switch" perception.
- Be informed – companies need to be aware of what is being said about them – good and bad – true and untrue as this create recruits perceptions about company. The company should continuously monitor and assess all the tools that are available like Twitter, LinkedIn, Facebook, Glassdoor, Get Rated! etc as they have real influence in the marketplace.
- Be creative – employers need to make sure that their job descriptions are up to date and reflect current trends on the market. They should reflect why the company is the best choice, why it is good to be employed by them and stay there. Companies should use innovative approaches such as employee ambassadors' videos of daily workplace activity or their testimonials. Company should have clear and efficient strategy how efficiently use Employment/Career/Work section of the company's website.
- Be proactive – company should continuously nurture talent communities before i needs to fill vacancies as this will allow company to secure real competitive advantage for attracting best talents when new position arise.
- Be reactive – if employer spot any negative reviews/opinion about the firm the issues arising should be follow up and then rectified. The positive reviews give an opportunity to provide deeper insight into company values and how it reinforces the EVP (Employee Value Proposition).
- Be bold – employer reputation is increasingly being formed online often by factors the company have a little control over. So employers should be proactive and closely monitor marketplace dynamics.

In order to be successful, employer branding must contain each of essential elements. The most important is increasing candidate awareness of firm's best practices – the basic foundation of this step is to craft messages to organization's target audience of potential applicants, so that they apply for jobs specifically because of company's management and business practices¹⁸. So according to Menor, some rule must be followed in order to attract and retain talented employees: Communication and availability – active listening to

¹⁷ ManpowerGroup 2015: If You Build It, They Will Come: The New Role of Employer Brand, ManpowerGroup Solutions Recruitment Process Outsourcing, www.manpowergroup.com (accessed 28.11.2016).

¹⁸ J. Sullivan, *Eight elements of a successful employment brand*, ER Daily, 2004, No. 23 February.

employee's and clear communication of expectations, goals and rules to be followed, give them honest feedback and helps them to feel recognized and important¹⁹.

3. PROCESSES OF COMMUNICATION WITH CANDIDATES

The emotional connection with candidates is more important than ever. It is what separates one employer from another among today's job seekers. Resist the impulse to attempt to control what brand ambassadors say and do on social media as a company might for public relations efforts. Savvy users of social networking sites can spot contrived or forced contributions that seem inauthentic. Such activity can actually do more harm than good to employer brand. The most successful HR professionals look at talent through the lens of marketers and apply marketing tools to their sourcing and recruiting processes. This appears to be especially important in attracting candidates who have been in the workforce for a long time. Taking into account passive candidates' unique motivators, needs and life stages, then customizing approaches/materials for them, will engage them in ways they are not being engaged now²⁰.

Employer brand identity plays a vital role in attracting an individual towards employment. Hence, employer brand and its attractiveness greatly contributes towards the recruitment strategy of the organisation. Therefore, organisations should nurture, communicate and embed company reputation and employer brand²¹.

Impact of HR plans, processes and actions have significant impact on the employer branding process of any organization²². However HR practices like recruitment policies must align with the brand values to avoid conflicting messages²³. In this manner, the organisation can use the good communication in giving the understanding to the employees about the employer brand and their role in strengthening the brand promise, henceforth reducing the confusion regarding the brand because of any misleading messages, if any. Rousseau²⁴ asserts that if the subject of the brand message provides sufficient and clear information about the brand values, then it will help in improving the perception of the organisation.

¹⁹ J.H. Menor, *10 Strategic Tips for Employee Retention*. 2010. The Recruiters Lounge, available at: <http://www.therecruiterslounge.com/2010/08/17/10-strategic-tips-for-employee-retention/> (accessed 18.08.2017).

²⁰ ManpowerGroup 2015: *If You Build It, They Will Come: The New Role of Employer Brand*, ManpowerGroup Solutions Recruitment Process Outsourcing, www.manpowergroup.com (accessed 28.11.2016).

²¹ C. Xie, R.P. Bagozzi, K.V. Meland, *The impact of reputation and identity congruence on employer brand attractiveness*, "Marketing Intelligence & Planning" 2015, Vol. 33 Issue: 2, p. 124–146.

²² T. Aurand, L. Gorchels, T. Bishop, *Human resource management's role in internal branding: an opportunity for cross-functional brand message synergy*, "The Journal of product and Brand Management" 2005, Vol. 14 Nos No. 2/3, p. 163–169.

²³ M. Gosti, A. Wilson, *Corporate reputation management: living the brand*, "Management Decision" 2001, Vol. 39 no. 2, p. 99–104.

²⁴ D. Rousseau: *Schema, promise and mutuality: the building blocks of the psychological contract*, *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology* 2001, Vol. 74, pp. 511–541.

Communication with a broad group of potential employees is of importance, both in order to improve the odds of attracting the right candidates as well as building brand awareness in the minds of a large audience for a long-term perspective²⁵.

Research conducted by Bergman and Årnström²⁶ shows the communication has to be narrowed in order to come into closer contact with those more interested in and better suited at working at the company. Finally once the target group has found the employer to be preferable the communication has to be on a more intimate level, even to the point of individual meetings. This process is not static, while the communication from the company focuses more narrowly, so does the potential employee's. A person who might have been initially attracted by the broad communication but still unsure as to whether or not the employer is the right one, might change this perspective during the process and ultimately view the employer as ideal. Research also show the following pattern for how employers choose to communicate. The three channels used to the highest percentage are: Career fairs, company websites and articles available online and in printed media. These are also the channels which this study focuses on, the last one widened to incorporate online presence in general.

Create a communication process for people to refer to, so everyone understands the different elements and knows how to consistently implement the brand across all of the different channels. It should always be authentic and proud of the organisation aspired to be. There's a big difference between 'we are' and 'we are aiming to be'. The employer brand needs to be 'genuine' and part of organisation's culture. After all, the attitude of people and the way they act is a key element of the employer brand. Organisations make sure recruitment processes are user friendly and employment experience is human, even if it's heavily automated.

With increased competition it has become imperative to attract, hire, develop and retain the best talent across the firms. Employers need to style themselves well to attract the attention and commitment of the brightest employees. One of the latest and most effective avenues for communicating employer brand is the use of social media.

Studies carried out in Poland have not confirmed the use of social media to collect data on future employers. Respondents pointed to traditional sources of such information on the Internet as websites, search engines or specialized portals related to professional careers and recruitment²⁷.

Social media tools and social networking sites have revolutionized methods of communication both for professional and personal use. With an increase in number of people engaging in communication through social media, and also an increase in the number of HR professionals using social media to source candidates, it has become imperative to study the relevance of social media to the recruitment process. Employer branding via social media has also gained attention, and it has been recognized as the most promising medium²⁸.

²⁵ A. Parment, A. Dyhre, *Sustainable Employer Branding: Guidelines, Worktools and Best Practices* Paperback, Samfundslitteratur 2009.

²⁶ J. Bergman, E. Årnström, *Attracting the right employees A study of successful employer branding*, available at: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.468.2619&rep=rep1&type=pdf>, (accessed: 18.08.2017).

²⁷ M. Budzanowska-Drzewiecka, A. Lipińska, I. Stańczyk, *Ocena działań podejmowanych przez pracodawców w zakresie zewnętrznego Employer Branding w Internecie z perspektywy osób poszukujących pracy*, „Zarządzanie i Finanse” 2013, No. 3, p. 91–105.

²⁸ S. Mehta, S. Sharma, *Usage of Social Media in Employee Sourcing and its Impact in Creating an Employer Brand*, “Sumedha Journal of Management”; Hyderabad 2016, t. 5, Oct-Dec, p. 34–52.

4. CARREER / WORK TAB

According to the research of the Polish Salary Service, Poles motivate high wages, good atmosphere in the workplace, competent superiors, sense of work and opportunities for development and training²⁹. All of these aspects of the job can also encourage candidates to apply for a particular company - candidates must first know that it is for this particular employer to work. Career tab is a great, convenient and above all a low-cost way to inform your prospects about the benefits of working for your company. Employers have looked for information about:

- company values,
- opportunities for promotion,
- benefit, non-pay and social benefits
- remuneration.

By analyzing the placement of the career tab on the home page, it is clear that site designers do not always attach importance to this part – links to other pages are often placed outside the main menu area – such as at the bottom of the page, footer or other, less visible on the page. Very important from the point of view of profitability, the element of the sub-page about the career should be recruiting ads. The cost of getting people to work is high, and the presence of current job offers increases the chance of getting applications from candidates who are really interested in the company.

In order for a candidate to feel that his or her candidature can meet with a positive response, he or she should be sure that the advert placed on the site is up to date. To be fully aware of the latest announcements, you will need the date of application or the information until you can submit your CV.

The recruitment process is also important for candidates. What does it look like? What do you expect? Does the company perform tests, the Assessment Center, recruits by head hunting, promotes recruiting by command? How much is waiting for the answer and whether the company responds to every application or just selected candidates? Such information builds trust in the company and makes the candidate feel respected by the prospective employer. It is extremely important if the company is going to build a positive image on the labor market. Recruiting Form is a method that allows a company to easily collect candidate data, which can normally be further exported through ERP systems to staff, if the candidate is employed. For a company it's a convenient solution, but it's not without a few pitfalls - firstly, investing in a recruiting system requires a lot of time spent by the HR department to create a tailor-made application for your business. These systems are also not cheap option. Secondly, the recruitment forms require the candidates to be involved and the time devoted to completing them. On the other hand, if a candidate completes the form³⁰.

The detailed description of all the above levels makes applications only available to candidates who agree with the values of the company and for whom what the company offers is attractive enough – in the broader perspective, we reduce the cost of employment

²⁹ See more: www.wynagrodzenia.pl.

³⁰ Raport kondycji stron „kariery” na stronach www największych pracodawców opracowany przez agencję marketingu zintegrowanego (A report on the condition of 'career' websites on the websites of the largest employers developed by the integrated marketing agency) GRUPA ADWEB, http://www.hrnews.pl/reports/strony_kariery_raport.pdf, (accessed: 18.08.2017).

caused by the wrong recruitment decision (e.g. employing a candidate who is keen on such development opportunities that the company can not provide).

New technologies have given us tremendous opportunities for communication – social media is spreading the triumph of popularity around the world, Facebook has become more popular than Google, the biggest social media marketing potential. Western companies also discover the potential of this recruitment tool³¹.

The key to effective use of the “career” tab is to ensure that the candidate is provided with relevant information to better understand the organization, assess whether the expectations of the employer and candidate are convergent, find an interesting job offer, and prepare for an interview. The candidate, before making the decision to apply for the recruitment process, will certainly look first for information about the company and make sure he or she would like to obtain such an employer. Therefore, the information section of the bookmark should in particular be attractive. First of all, it is worthwhile to present here the organizational culture and values that guide the company. Secondly, in the career tab, the candidate should find out about the benefits and benefits available in the company, which will make it easier for him to make the decision. It is a good idea to allocate space for a description of the recruitment process in the company or its individual departments. Very often this part of the bookmark consists of three elements that in practice correspond to the different stages of the recruitment process: application selection, interviews and feedback. Familiarizing the candidate with this information will have a positive impact on his or her initial impressions and will facilitate preparation for contact with potential employers. The list of current job offers is an element that should be included in our booklet, and if you are running internship programs, it is also important to include information about them. It is also worth giving candidates the opportunity to submit so-called. spontaneous applications, ie those that do not respond to the published job advertisements published on the site. In addition to taking care of the relevant content of the bookmark career is worthwhile that the employer adapted this subpage for display on mobile devices. This solution makes it easy to contact candidates who are increasingly looking at mobile work opportunities. Effective targeting jobseekers requires appropriate, tailor-made tools that should take into account candidate experience and status, preferred ways of communicating with the environment, or living values³².

Transforming firm’s employer brand across all areas of the organization won’t be a walk in the park. But it will be very worthwhile. Firms should get the buy in of people at every level, across all areas of the organisation, so high level management and those on the frontline will get behind and know what they’re doing and why automated³³.

5. METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH RESULTS

The adopted research strategy makes it possible to formulate the diagnosis of case studies, and afterwards to develop good practices for companies. The research tool was a multiple case study, which included a detailed description, followed by the validation of

³¹ *Ibidem*.

³² A. Matuszewska, *Employer Branding – nowy trend w obszarze HR* [in:] E. Drop, M. Maćkiewicz, *Młoda Psychologia*, t. 1, Warszawa 2012, p. 438.

³³ How to Create a Powerful Employer Brand, Essential best practice and top tips for recruiters, available at: www.jobs.ac.uk/recruiters (accessed: 18.08.2017).

information accuracy, to increase the relevance of the test results. The case study method (the case study research was based upon the proposal of Yin³⁴, made it possible to obtain information from numerous sources. Multiple cases augment external validity and help guard against observer biases. Moreover, multi-case sampling adds confidence to findings. By looking at a range of similar and contrasting cases, we can understand a single-case finding, grounding it by specifying how and where and, if possible, why it behaves as it does³⁵.

The researched companies have been carefully selected, so that it would be possible to apply both a literal replication (where results corroborate one another), as well as theoretical replication (where results differ, but for predictable reasons). The assumptions made it possible to conduct the collection of thoughtful and complete data because they originate from numerous sources and make triangulation possible. The diagnosed amount of case study replications is discretionary and does not constitute any rule. The screening of cases was performed upon the basis of the subjective assessment of the selected instances of the companies in the aspect of the similarity and competitiveness of them.

The research objective has been an analysis of external employer branding tools used by selected companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange inclusion in WIG 30. WIG30 index has been published since 23rd of September 2013 and represents the capitalization-of-weighted stock market index based on the portfolio value of the 30 largest and most liquid companies listed on Warsaw Stock Exchange. The companies representing three sectors (industry, finances, services) have been researched. It has been assumed that, in each sector, up to three companies will be analysed (the article presents a fragment of the ongoing research³⁶). The selection is based on a sector-specific division of companies. Some enterprises conduct their business activities in many sectors, and thus they have been allocated to a particular category based on the dominant sector criterion. This approach will allow the determination of preliminary employer branding models for a researched area. The companies selected for the research have been listed on the main market of the Stock Exchange for at least 10 years and are not included in the Alert List. The list of alerts includes companies at risk of bankruptcy³⁷.

The research focuses exclusively on career/work tab used in developing the employer's brand. The research process is based on public data, such as annual financial statements, quarterly financial statements, corporate social responsibility reports, corporate websites, trade unions' opinions, general reports on the position, brand and functioning of selected companies, as well as targeted interviews with company representatives.

³⁴ R. Yin, *Studium przypadku w badaniach naukowych. Projektowanie i metody*, Kraków 2015, p. 49–51.

³⁵ M. Miles, A. Huberman, *Qualitative data analysis*, 2d ed. London 1994.

³⁶ Supplementary employer branding research is presented in other articles (see: M. Stuss, *Narzędzia employer branding w praktyce wybranych banków*, Zeszyty Naukowe WSZiB 2016 no. 40, <http://zeszytnaukowy.pl>; M. Stuss, *Employer Branding – Nowe wyzwanie dla przedsiębiorstw (wyniki badań)* [in:] *Zarządzanie przedsiębiorstwem. Analiza współczesnych uwarunkowań, koncepcji i determinant*, ed. R. Borowiecki and T. Rojek, Kraków 2016; A. Herdan, M. Stuss, *External Employer Branding Tools Used For Attracting Graduates By Enery Companies Listed At Warsaw Stock Exchange*, Zeszyty Naukowe WSZiB 2017) and so far the external EB tools have been analysed in general in future.

³⁷ Wskaźniki sektorowe, available at: https://www.gpw.pl/wskazniki_sektorow (accessed: 17.05.2016).

The following research questions have criterias for evaluation:

- the web page bookmark career – its visibility and recognition,
- content in the tab,
- presentation style – amount of information, splitting, scrolling,
- description of the recruiting process – process phase,
- possibility to apply online,
- how to provide feedback to candidates,
- use of social media.

Table 1 below presents the results of the research.

Table 1. Employer branding tools used Carreer / Work Tab

Company 1	Company 2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a direct link from the Work tab to the currently vacant positions - each offer comes with additional materials, i.e. information concerning the position, requirements, scope of responsibilities, benefits - an application form that can be sent on-line - internships and practical training are not distinguished in the entire list of vacant positions - the Work tab is on the home page but it is not visible (it is hidden, one has to click the so-called site map) - two apparently similar tabs: the Work tab and the Career tab are confusing - no multimedia or graphic materials or modern content has been included - the Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Youtube accounts are up to date; a lot of information but chiefly for company customers (product offers, promotions, etc.) very little information for potential candidates. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - job offers are divided into those in the headquarters and in branches - an offer search engine with respect to divisions and geographical regions - a complete description of positions: main tasks, expectations and benefits - internships and practical training offers in the tab for students - an application form that can be sent on-line - the Career tab is in the upper left part of the home page, it is well visible - a graphically rich and systematised description, no excessive scrolling - the Facebook account is up to date, with information concerning vacant positions and commencing recruitment processes (short notes in the form of job advertisements)
Company 3	Company 4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - a competition addressed to Polish graduates wishing to pursue an internship in the company - an application form that can be sent on-line - www.pracuj.pl; Facebook; Youtube; LinkedIn 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - 3 month paid summer internships in 11 business areas - tools for interview preparation (sample questions and answers, checklists, tests) - Facebook; Twitter; www.dnikariery.pl, but little information for potential candidates

Table 1 (cont.). Employer branding tools used Career / Work Tab

Company 5	Company 6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - summer internship - Facebook; Twitter; Youtube; LinkedIn 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - Training Program - Group Practice Program – run in cooperation with schools and universities, opportunity to participate in tasks using the latest technology under the guidance of experienced specialists - Dissertation support – assistance with conducting a bachelor or master research project(thesis) - an application form that can be sent on-line - Facebook, LinkedIn, which focus exclusively on job postings, lack of data for professionals or managers
Company 7	Company 8
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - Internship - useful information on how to apply - Talent Mine - the program address to final year students and recent graduates offers unique opportunity to work for one of the world's largest mining companies: rotation in various areas of the company (including international offices) - Youtube; LinkedIn, no Facebook what astonishing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - direct link from the Career/Job tab to the current vacancies - each vacancies comes with detailed information about criteria, benefits, development opportunities etc. - "Energy for the Future" training program for students of the final year and recent graduates - Academy of Capital Market Leaders - the best participants of the Academy have the opportunity to take paid internships at the - WE BUILD THE VALUE OF THE POLISH ECONOMY. WORK FOR US! - an internship program for graduates supported by Ministry of Treasury, addressed to the best master engineering students, offers internships to gain experience in the most interesting projects - an application form that can be sent on-line - Facebook; Instagram; LinkedIn

Source: own work.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the conducted research:

- All companies have “Career/Job” Page as a Tab on the company homepage.
- All surveyed companies participate in job fairs, as they believe that this is the fastest and most effective communication channel with prospective applicants. They also regard job fairs as a great opportunity to create a database of prospective job applicants. Some companies prefers general fairs as other concentrate on specialise ones.
- Companies present a separate offer for people applying for internships or practical training (the Student Tab).
- All companies included in the sample try to attract prospective candidates by detailed information about available vacancies and additional benefits offered. They also offer on-line application process.

- The technical aspect of the websites is diversified; in the case of company 1, the sites are modern, transparent and separated, but with insufficient multimedia and graphic materials; on the other hand, the technical aspect of the other company's website is perfect and consistent with labour markets' expectations.
- Companies have managed to avoid a major mistake of presenting obsolete information.
- Companies participate in job fairs, considering them to be the fastest and most effective communication channel and a possibility of expanding its job candidate database.
- In most companies there is no information on the further stages of recruitment.
- Inability to interview candidates in real time.

6. CONCLUSION

Summing up, the conducted research indicates that the basic external employer branding tools used by the examined companies are websites with a Career/ Work tab and participation in job fairs. The remaining areas are just being identified and tested with respect to their effectiveness in employer branding or they remain completely unknown as yet.

The professional side of the career has an attractive, attractive, trustworthy look, as well as updated, interestingly presented information. Organizations, in addition to posting current job offers, often include information on the value of the company, guidance on interview preparation, and the description of the recruitment process. It is worth noting that bookmarks for careers often also include sections for students and / or graduates, which describe opportunities for earning professional experience such as internships, placements or development programs. This fact may indicate that this target group is an important environment for employers, hence the formula for placing content specifically targeted to that particular group. Furthermore, the separation of messages intended for students and graduates may also be an attempt at matching the content and form of the message to the specific audience.

A career site as the primary source of knowledge about employers is appreciating more and more job seekers. When attractive, it effectively attracts candidates. When it is archaic and expressionless, it has as little information as effectively discouraging and discouraging it. The worst is when the candidate does not find anything on it except the message "At the moment we do not have any job offers".

Nowadays, the issue of employer branding is becoming increasingly important. More and more organizations realize that their future success may depend on whether they are able to attract, recruit and retain employees with the desired qualifications.

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PROCESY KOMUNIKACJI Z KANDYDATAMI W RAMACH EMPLOYER BRANDING

Koncepcja employer brandingu ewoluowała od narzędzia skierowanego pierwotnie do dużych przedsiębiorstw, aż do standardu wykorzystywanego obecnie do budowania przewagi konkurencyjnej i ukierunkowanego na przyciąganie najbardziej utalentowanych kandydatów, a także metody służącej ograniczeniu fluktuacji kluczowych pracowników. W dzisiejszych czasach coraz ważniejsze staje się zagadnienie employer brandingu. Coraz więcej organizacji zdaje sobie sprawę, że ich przyszły sukces może zależeć od tego, czy są w stanie przyciągać, rekrutować i zatrzymywać pracowników o pożądanych kwalifikacjach.

W artykule omówiono koncepcję employer brandingu jako narzędzia wspierającego proces rekrutacji w ramach zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi. Szczególną uwagę należy zwrócić na zewnętrzne narzędzia EB, takie jak zakładka Kariera / Praca na stronie potencjalnego pracodawcy. Kluczem do efektywnego wykorzystania zakładki „kariera” jest zapewnienie kandydatom odpowiednich informacji, które pozwolą lepiej zrozumieć organizację, ocenić czy oczekiwania pracodawcy i kandydata są zbieżne, znaleźć interesującą ofertę pracy i przygotować się do rozmowy kwalifikacyjnej. W artykule omówiono koncepcję employer brandingu jako narzędzia wspierającego proces rekrutacji w ramach zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi. Zaprezentowano wyniki badań przeprowadzonych wśród wybranych spółek notowanych na Giełdzie Papierów Wartościowych w Warszawie należących do indeksu WIG 30 w zakresie skuteczności powyższych narzędzi. Zbadano przedsiębiorstwa reprezentujące trzy sektory (przemysł, finanse, usługi).

Słowa kluczowe: employer branding, EB, komunikacja, zakładka Kariera / Praca.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.55

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF INDICATION OF *LEX MERCATORIA* IN A CHOICE-OF-LAW CLAUSE IN INTERNATIONAL COMMERCIAL CONTRACTS

The rule of unlimited choice of law for contractual obligations results from the rule of conflict of law autonomy of contracting parties' will, generally accepted in the international turnover. Concerns are raised by the matter of parties' indication of transnational rules of law or so-called „soft law” acts, which will be applicable to the contract concluded within international commercial transaction. Being included in the “lex mercatoria” notion, they constitute – besides international legislation (*uniform law*) – one of the elements of the international commercial law. The practice of international trade requires application of legal solutions corresponding to its specific features, which are often not provided by national laws. Neutral solutions deriving from the business practice and understood by the turnover participants in the same way, constitute an alternative to the choice of a national law. The effectiveness of indication of lex mercatoria in a choice-of-law clause depends on whether a potential dispute resulting from the contract will be resolved by a national court or an arbitral tribunal. Unlike national courts, arbitral tribunals respect the parties' choice of lex mercatoria for the proper law of the contract. Due to a general character of rules of law, it is recommended to indicate in the choice-of-law clause a specific set of transnational rules prepared for transactions of international trade (such as UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts). The effectiveness of such clauses is not in principle questioned by national courts in most countries in procedures of recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards.

Keywords: lex mercatoria in a choice-of-law clause, international commercial contracts, international trade usages, principles of law and “soft law” acts, arbitration jurisdiction.

1. INTRODUCTION

Parties' possibility of indicating a national law of a given country (or even law binding on a part of its territory)² in a contract concluded within international commercial transaction, as the law applicable to the contract, does not raise concerns today. It results from the rule of (conflict of law) autonomy of contracting parties' will, which is generally accepted

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² Where a State comprises several territorial units, each of which has its own rules of law in respect of contractual obligations – see art. 22 Rome I Regulation of 2008 (see footnote 3).

in the international turnover. It has also been confirmed by present conflict of law legislations³, including Rome I Regulation of 2008⁴, which – following the regulation stipulated in Rome Convention of 1980⁵ – sustained the rule of unlimited choice of law for contractual obligations enabling choice of law of any country, even not related in any manner with the legal relationship created by the contract. It is worth reminding that the rule of unlimited choice of law was proclaimed by the Resolution of International Law Institute (L'Institut de Droit International) adopted during the 65th session of this Institute on 12 September 1991 in Basel: „The autonomy of the will of parties in international contracts between private persons”. It was clearly stated in art. 2 sec. 1 of this resolution that „The parties are free to choose the law applicable to their contract. They can agree on the application of every state law”⁶. The unlimited choice of law rule is stipulated also in art. 7 of Inter-American Convention on the Law Applicable to International Contracts (Mexico 17 March 1994⁷, as well as in a number of regulations from the scope of international arbitration, including the Geneva Convention of 1961⁸, regulations of some courts of arbitration⁹ and UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules in their original version of 1976¹⁰.

On the other hand, the matter of parties' indication of transnational rules of law or so-called „soft law” acts, as the rules which will be applicable to the international contract

³ Ł. Żarnowiec, *Wybór prawa jako metoda wskazania prawa właściwego dla umów obligacyjnych* [in:] W. Popiołek (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9: *Międzynarodowe Prawo Handlowe*, Warszawa 2013, SIP Legalis.

⁴ Regulation (EC) No. 593/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 June 2008 on the law applicable to contractual obligations (Rome I) (Official Journal of the EU L 2008 No. 177, p. 6).

⁵ Convention on the law applicable to contractual obligations opened for signature in Rome on 19 June 1980 (Official Journal of the EU C 2005 No. 169, p. 10).

⁶ Author's translation from: *Rezolucja Instytutu Prawa Międzynarodowego (65 posiedzenie w Bazylei 1991): Autonomia woli stron w umowach międzynarodowych zawieranych między osobami prywatnymi*, *Problemy Prawne Handlu Zagranicznego* 1993, Vol. 17, p. 162. On Basel Resolution see also: M. Pazdan, *Rezolucja bazylejska z 1991 roku w sprawie autonomii woli w zakresie umów zawieranych w międzynarodowym obrocie handlowym*, *ibidem*, p. 124–130.

⁷ Text available on official website of OAS – Organisation of American States: <http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/treaties/b-56.html>.

⁸ European Convention on International Commercial Arbitration of 1961 Done at Geneva, April 21, 1961 (Journal of Laws, No. 40, item 270).

⁹ For instance of: The International Court of Arbitration at International Chamber of Commerce in Paris (ICC International Court of Arbitration), Court of Arbitration at the Polish Chamber of Commerce in Warsaw.

¹⁰ In the light of art. 33 sec. 1 UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules (UNCITRAL – United Nations Commission on International Trade) in 1976 version parties could indicate the law as applicable for the merits of the dispute. In 2010 a modification has been made by changing in the relevant article the notion of „the law” into „the rules of law” (at present art. 35 sec. 1 of the Rules), which will be mentioned further. On the relationship of the regulation concerning the applicable law in the revised Rules of 2010 and their original version of 1976 see P. Nowaczyk, A. Szumański, M. Szymańska, *Regulamin Arbitrażowy UNCITRAL. Komentarz*, Warszawa 2011, SIP Legalis. Texts of all versions of UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules are available on official website of UNCITRAL: http://www.uncitral.org/uncitral/en/uncitral_texts/arbitration/2010Arbitration_rules.html. More on the unlimited choice of law rule see: J. Poczobut, *Zagadnienia kolizyjnoprawne w międzynarodowym arbitrażu handlowym* [in:] A. Szumański (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 8: *Arbitraż Handlowy*, Warszawa 2015, SIP Legalis.

being concluded between them, still raises concerns¹¹. Therefore, it may be worth having a closer look at their sources and considering whether in light of binding legal regulations, the scientific achievements and the practice of international turnover, they are really justified.

2. LEX MERCATORIA

Usages have had the decisive meaning in the practice of international trade for centuries. Their common application by merchants has led in the mediaeval Europe to the development of autonomous merchant law – *lex mercatoria*. The rules of this law had therefore the character of customary law which was binding until the appearance (in the eighteenth century) and the bloom (in the nineteenth and twentieth century) of domestic codifications of commercial law, as the French Code de Commerce (of 1807), or the German Handelsgesetzbuch (of 1897). Yet, the national regulations of commercial turnover, not being adjusted to the specific features of the international trade, met neither the requirements of this trade nor expectations of its participants¹². As a result, on one hand, actions were undertaken aiming at unification of international trade relationships by means of international substantive-law conventions, which led to the occurrence of uniform law acts¹³. On the other hand, various private „codifications” of trade usages applied in practice as well as model contracts and contract clauses and guidebooks on conclusion of contracts started to come into existence (so called „soft law”). Furthermore, in the second half of the twentieth century, a theory of the new *lex mercatoria* – autonomous transnational commercial law – was developed. According to this theory, international contracts may be subject to a transnational system of rules commonly accepted in international commercial turnover, the rules which have been gradually developed from the practice of this turnover.

Without prejudice to the confusion as to the notion of the „*lex mercatoria*”¹⁴, it may be defined, in the most general way, as the whole of international trade usages constituting autonomous merchant law contrary to international legislation acts. „*Lex mercatoria*” viewed this way includes only rules of customary law and constitutes – next to international

¹¹ A presentation of standpoints in the doctrine in this scope describes B. Fuchs, *Lex mercatoria w międzynarodowym obrocie handlowym*, Kraków 2000 in chapter 4: *Lex mercatoria jako statut kontraktowy?*; see also J. Jakubowski, M. Tomaszewski, A. Tynel, A. Wiśniewski, *Zarys międzynarodowego prawa handlowego*, Warszawa 1983, p. 36–37.

¹² M. Pazdan, *Pojęcie międzynarodowego prawa handlowego* [in:] W. Popiołek (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9...

¹³ One of the most important legal acts included in uniform law is United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods done in Vienna on 11 April 1980 (so-called Vienna Convention CISC) (Journal of Laws of 1997, No. 45, item 286 as amended).

¹⁴ Various definitions of the „*lex mercatoria*” presented in the literature describes B. Fuchs [in:] *Lex mercatoria...*, p. 17–21; see also M. Pazdan, *Pojęcie...*; J. Jakubowski, M. Tomaszewski, A. Tynel, A. Wiśniewski, *Zarys międzynarodowego...*, p. 7 and subsequent; D. Mazur, *Prawo właściwe w międzynarodowym arbitrażu handlowym*, „Kwartalnik Prawa Prywatnego” 2003, issue 1, p. 140–145; K.P. Berger, *The Creeping Codification of the New Lex Mercatoriam*, 1999, parts published on *Trans-Lex* website: https://www.trans-lex.org/100600/_berger-klaus-peter-the-creeping-codification-of-the-lex-mercatoria-the-hague-london-boston-1999/.

legislation – one of the elements of the international commercial law¹⁵. Furthermore, without prejudice to various ways of classification of „soft law” in the taxonomy of the sources of international commercial law¹⁶, as well as discrepancies in views as to including general principles of law in the *lex mercatoria*¹⁷, for the sake of transparency of further analysis the notion of the *lex mercatoria*, for the needs of this work, shall include the two following categories of norms:

- 1) **Principles of law**, generally accepted and used in the international commercial turnover, such as for example: freedom of contract; obligation to respect the terms of contract (*pacta sunt servanta*), unless there is a substantial change of circumstances (*rebus sic stantibus*); performance of contracts in good faith; liability for not respecting good faith during negotiations (*culpa in contrahendo*); *the rule that one cannot transfer more rights than actually has (nemo plus iuris transferre potest quam ipse habet)*; priority of a detailed provision over the general one (*lex specialis derogat legi generali*); *the rule that one cannot take advantage of his own unlawful acts (nullus commodum capere potest de iniuria sua propria, ex iniuria non oritur ius)* and many more. As a source of reference within this scope one may treat a particular set of these principles (amounting to 134 at the moment), which has been elaborated in a form of systematic specification together with numerous references to the scientific and judicial achievements, under the direction of K.P. Berger at the University of Cologne. It is available at on-line platform „Trans-Lex” (www.trans-lex.org), being operated by Center for Transnational Law (CENTRAL) at the Faculty of Law of the University of Cologne. It should be underlined that the initiator of this unique private codification of principles of transnational commercial law, K.P. Berger, defines this set as the “New Lex Mercatoria”¹⁸.

¹⁵ B. Fuchs, *Lex mercatoria...*, p. 56.

¹⁶ See for example B. Fuchs, *Lex mercatoria...*, p. 57, where the author puts „soft law” beyond the division of sources of international commercial law into international legislation and *lex mercatoria*, yet underlying that due to its “beyond-conventions” character „soft law” is closer to *lex mercatoria*, and as a result includes soft law acts into sources of autonomous law. The same author in later publication acknowledges, within the context of soft law classification, relatively wide understanding of the notion of *lex mercatoria* as advisable (*Lex mercatoria – pojęcie* [in:] W. Popiołek (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9... As per classification of the sources of the international commercial law see also: *Źródła międzynarodowego prawa handlowego* [in:] W. Popiołek (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9...

¹⁷ See B. Fuchs, *Lex mercatoria...*, p. 105 and the literature mentioned there – according to the author, the opponent of including the general principles of law in autonomous merchant law is for example A. Szumański, who draws attention to the general character of principles of law requiring in every case to be specified, in contradiction to the *lex mercatoria* rules which provide detailed resolutions. See also D. Mazur, *Prawo właściwe...*, p. 140–145.

¹⁸ www.trans-lex.org/the-lex-mercatoria-and-the-translex-principles_ID8. More on Trans-Lex principles: E. Rott-Pietrzyk, *Zasady Międzynarodowego Prawa Handlowego TRANS LEX (TRANS-LEX Principles)* [in:] W. Popiołek (ed.) *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9... Some authors use the term „*lex mercatoria*” for identification principles of law only – so for example the authors of a study: International Chamber of Commerce Policy and Business Practices *Developing neutral legal standards for international contracts. A-national rules as the applicable law in international commercial contracts with particular reference to the ICC Model Contracts*, prepared by the Task Force chaired by F. Bortolotti and F.S. Toni di Cigoli, p. 10 text available on ICC website:

- 2) „**Soft law**” that is acts prepared by various international organisations or institutions, which – being the law beyond conventions – derive their binding force from the will of contracting parties. What should be included here are various „private” codifications of trade usages, model law acts (standard contracts, general conditions) and guidebooks on conclusion of contracts, which facilitate formulating the contents of a contract being concluded between the parties, specify the rights and obligations during performance of the contract and in settlement of disputes. Only as an example one may include in “soft law” acts INCOTERMS® rules elaborated by International Chamber of Commerce ICC) with its seat in Paris, constituting a set of codified trade usages in the scope of co-called delivery base which define mutual obligations of parties to a sale contract connected with the delivery of goods (division of costs, obligations and risk)¹⁹. ICC prepared also, among others, uniform rules for contract guarantees²⁰, uniform customs and practice for documentary credits²¹, uniform rules for collections²², uniform rules for forfaiting²³. Another example are UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts²⁴, elaborated by International Institute for the Unification of Private Law with its seat in Rome, as well as Principles of European Contract Law²⁵, prepared by a commission of Prof. O. Lando (so called the „Lando Commission”). As model law acts one may indicate a number of model contracts and model contract clauses prepared for instance by ICC²⁶, or typical contracts and general conditions prepared by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe²⁷.

http://store.iccwbo.org/content/uploaded/pdf/Developing_Neutral_Legal_Standards_Int_Contracts.pdf.

- ¹⁹ The first version of INCOTERMS® was published in 1936, subsequent versions date from 1953, 1967, 1974, 1980, 1990, 2000, and the last one from 2010. At present, the next version is under preparation and it is to be launched in 2020. See ICC website: <https://iccwbo.org/resources-for-business/incoterms-rules/incoterms-rules-history/>.
- ²⁰ ICC Uniform Rules for Contract Guarantees (ICC Publication No. 325E) edition of 1978.
- ²¹ ICC Uniform Customs and Practice for Documentary Credits UCP 600 (ICC Publication No. 600LE) – edition of 2007.
- ²² ICC Uniform Rules for Collections (ICC Publication No. 522E) – edition of 1995.
- ²³ ICC Uniform Rules for Forfaiting URF 800 (ICC Publication No. 800E – edition of 2012).
- ²⁴ UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts were announced for the first time in 1994, subsequent versions date from 2004, 2010, the last version of 2016 is available on official website of UNIDROIT: <https://www.unidroit.org/instruments/commercial-contracts/unidroit-principles-2016>
- ²⁵ Principles of European Contract Law (PECL), text available on Trans-Lex website: <https://www.trans-lex.org/400200>.
- ²⁶ For instance: ICC Model International Sale Contract – ICC Publication No. 738E, edition of 2013 (in Polish version edition of 2004 MIH Publication No. 556), ICC Model Contract on Distributorship – ICC Publication No. 776E, ICC Model Contract Commercial Agency – ICC Publication No. 766E, ICC Model International Franchising Contract – ICC Publication No. 712E, ICC Force Majeure Clause, ICC Hardship Clause – ICC Publication No. 650 (available also in Polish version). See more on ICC website: <http://store.iccwbo.org/model-contracts>.
- ²⁷ On UNECE works in this scope see J. Jakubowski, M. Tomaszewski, A. Tynel, A. Wiśniewski, *Zarys międzynarodowego...*, p. 27–28 and J. Hermanowski, *Handel zagraniczny. Poradnik*, Zielona Góra 2009, p. 10.

3. APPLICATION OF LEX MERCATORIA IN THE PRACTICE OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

The „soft law” acts play an important role in the practice of international trade, because as accepted standards responding to its needs, they are used all over the world by the participants of this trade. Referring by parties to the rules of law happens in practice perhaps not so frequently, but has also its supporters. The practice of international trade shows therefore that the choice of these principles and regulations is attractive for the turnover participants.

In case when parties negotiating an international contract cannot agree on the choice of the law of either of them as the law applicable to the contract, it often happens that, seeking for neutral solutions, the parties submit the contract to the law of a third country (for example Swiss, English or German law). Though at the stage of the contract conclusion such a solution may seem to be optimal (both parties are in the same position as they choose the law which is not familiar to each of them), at the stage of the contract performance or in case of dispute it may appear that some provisions of the contract are inconsistent with the chosen law or the contract contains gaps the fulfillment of which in accordance with the chosen law gives results totally different than those expected by the parties. This is because in practice it rarely happens that, due to substantial costs and needed time, the parties before the contract conclusion – assuming that they themselves do not know the chosen law of the third country – submitted the draft contract for legal opinion in light of this law. Eventually the potential controversy will generate additional costs of legal services and the solution of the problem may turn out to be time-consuming.

What is more, national laws regulate in principle internal legal relationships and as such they may prove to be not adjusted to the specific features of international trade (as regards for instance distributorship, franchising or joint ventures contracts). It may happen that such laws will offer, in a given situation, unclear solutions (based more on principles established by courts than on specific legal provisions), which will constitute the basis for potential discrepancies.²⁸ Therefore, a domestic law will not always be this one, which complies with expectations and interests of the parties to the fullest possible extent. Thus, application of a particular transnational set of rules generally accepted in international commercial turnover, which derive from the business practice and are understood by the turnover participants in the same way, may prove to be the optimal solution.

The parties may certainly indicate, which in practice happens quite often, a specific regulation of the uniform law (for example the Vienna Convention CISG) as the applicable law. However, the legal consequences of such indication will primarily depend on whether such a regulation is a part of a national law applicable according to the conflict-of-law rules (then the parties will remain within the framework of the given domestic law), or it is not (only then the choice of the given regulation as the law applicable to the contract may produce²⁹ effects involving a conflict of law, otherwise the contract being submitted to the law of the given country which did not ratify the given convention). Furthermore, it must be

²⁸ More on disadvantages of domestic law in the practice of international turnover [in:] B. Fuchs, *Lex mercatoria...*, p. 13–17, and in: ICC *Developing neutral...*, p. 17–18.

²⁹ Depending on settlement of the potential dispute by a national court or an arbitral tribunal – which will be discussed further.

remembered that there is a relatively small number of international conventions which introduced the uniform law³⁰, hence they concern quite small scope of contract types and, what is more, are not binding in all countries of the world but only in these ones which ratified them (for example Great Britain has not ratified the Vienna Convention CISC until today). Finally, because of the fact that the scope of a particular convention never covers all aspects of a given legal relationship, but usually only issues specific for the given type of a contract, more general issues must be decided in accordance with the applicable national law. Due to an autonomous character of the conventions introducing the uniform law, which they keep despite their incorporation to the national law, it is raised in the literature that these conventions should be interpreted and supplemented by autonomous transnational rules of law they derive from³¹.

The application of a transnational set of specific rules, such as the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts or the Principles of European Contract Law, in an international contract may take place in two ways. One of them is to include them in the contents of contract either by means of their literal repetition, even rewriting to the text of the contract (incorporation), or by means of referring to them (interpolation). In such a way they will have substantive law effects (so-called “incorporation of foreign law”) and they are binding as contract clauses within the parties’ freedom of contract. The limits of their binding force are determined by mandatory provisions of substantive law (*ius cogens*) which is applicable according to the conflict-of-law rules. The contract remains then in the framework of the specific national law. The second way is to indicate the aforementioned rules as the law applicable to a contract, which constitutes choice of law (in the sense of conflict-of-law rules) to be appraised in light of the applicable private international law³².

The model contracts are used in practice by means of their application as prepared standards. In case when they consist not only of the detailed part to be supplemented by parties, but of the general part containing complete substantial law provisions of the given legal relationship as well³³, the parties include the “soft law” regulation in their contract (by

³⁰ Apart from the Vienna convention cisc see unidroit convention on international financial leasing (Ottawa, 28 may 1988) text available on official website of unidroit: <https://www.unidroit.org/instruments/leasing/convention-leasing>; unidroit convention on international factoring (Ottawa, 28 may 1988) text available on official website of unidroit: <https://www.unidroit.org/instruments/factoring>; convention on agency in the international sale of goods (Geneva, 17 february 1983) text available on official website of unidroit: <https://www.unidroit.org/instruments/agency>.

³¹ See for example UNIDROIT *Model Clauses for the Use of the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts*, Rome 2013, text available on official website of UNIDROIT: <https://www.unidroit.org/english/principles/modelclauses2013/modelclauses-2013.pdf>, p. 16; and M. Jagielska, *Konwencja wiedeńska* [w:] W. Popiołek (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 9...

³² More on the distinction between choice of law (in the sense of conflict-of-law rules) and „incorporation of foreign law”, including the used terminology, see M. Pazdan, *Materialnoprawne wskazanie a kolizyjnoprawny wybór prawa*, *Problemy Prawne Handlu Zagranicznego* 1995, V. 18; J. Jakubowski, M. Tomaszewski, A. Tynel, A. Wiśniewski, *Zarys międzynarodowego...*, p. 31; M. Czepelak, *Autonomia woli w prawie prywatnym międzynarodowym Unii Europejskiej*, Warszawa 2015, p. 340–342; see also E. Rott-Pietrzyk, *Interpretacja umów w prawie modelowym i wspólnym europejskim prawie sprzedaży (CESL)*, Warszawa 2013, SIP Legalis and M. Łolik, *Współczesne prawo kontraktów – wybrane zagadnienia*, Warszawa 2014, SIP Legalis.

³³ For example this is the way in which ICC Model International Sale Contract is prepared: it consists of part A – detailed provisions and part B – general provisions (referring besides to Vienna Convention CISC).

means of incorporation or interpolation). Another thing is that model contracts, in order to produce effects involving a conflict of law, often contain choice-of-law clauses which – frequently as an option – enable the parties to choose rules of law or a specific regulation of “soft law”, as for instance the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts, the Principles of European Contract Law or other “a-national” rules indicated by the parties³⁴.

The effectiveness of indication of *lex mercatoria* in a choice-of-law clause must be analysed on a ground of its application (or non-application) by a court resolving a dispute which resulted from the concluded contract. This is because the choice of law to be applicable to the contract has effects not only between the parties themselves, but first of all – if it is to fulfill its role – it should be effective before the court that is competent for a dispute settlement. In this respect a distinction between a national (domestic) court and an arbitral tribunal appears to be essential.

4. LEX MERCATORIA IN ARBITRATION JURISDICTION

National (domestic) courts will apply the provisions of its own private international law (*lex fori*) for the assessment of a contractual choice-of-law clause. Because of the fact that, according to the present standards of conflict of law legislations, only a state law (not rules of law)³⁵, can be the subject of a choice of law, it is very unlikely that a domestic court will accept the effectiveness (in the sense of conflict-of-law rules) of a contractual choice-of-law clause indicating general principles of law or soft law regulations as the law applicable to the contract. It is only possible that the domestic court will view such a clause as being in the nature of an “incorporation of foreign law” and, by treating it as the parties' reference to the indicated transnational rules, will apply them within the framework of the legal system applicable on the basis of the private international law rules of the forum³⁶. In case when potential disputes are to be submitted to domestic courts, including such clauses in contracts is not therefore recommended.

The matter looks differently in arbitration jurisdiction, which unquestionable advantages (among others in the context of proceedings speed, the degree of procedural formalization, award enforcement) are particularly valuable for the participants of the commercial international turnover who eagerly take the possibility of excluding the competence of national courts in favor of arbitral tribunal. A particular way in which arbitration courts treat the parties autonomy is their additional card, which has its reflection in the sphere of assessment what norms should be applicable to the merits of the dispute.

As it was mentioned in the introduction, regulations of the arbitration jurisdiction (both international legislation acts and the rules of arbitration courts) recognize the rule of unlimited choice of law. Furthermore, differently from the private international law rules, many of these regulations provide for the possibility of indication by the parties the rules of law

³⁴ See for example ICC model contracts (footnote 25), which include optional choice-of-law clauses referring among others to rules of law together with the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts.

³⁵ Doubts in this scope are not left by art. 3 sec. 1 of the „Rome I” Regulation of 2008: „A contract shall be governed by the law chosen by the parties”.

³⁶ So for example J. Pazdan, *Czy można wyłączyć umowę spod prawa?*, „Państwo i Prawo” 2005, No. 10, p. 14–16

as applicable to the merits of the dispute. For instance, art. 28 sec. 1, 1st sentence of the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration of 1985 reads as follows: “The arbitral tribunal shall decide the dispute in accordance with such rules of law as are chosen by the parties as applicable to the substance of the dispute”³⁷. A provision of a similar wording is included in UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules (in the version revised in 2010)³⁸, as well as in the Arbitration Rules of the ICC International Court of Arbitration³⁹. Moreover, in the Basel Resolution of 1991, which excludes the possibility of choice of norms other than a domestic law, a different solution was stipulated in the preamble for arbitration proceedings⁴⁰.

Additionally, while private international laws exclude the possibility of choice of *lex mercatoria* as the “*lex contractus*” (i.e. the law applicable to the assessment of the rights and obligations arising from the contract), “national rules governing arbitration tend to recognize the freedom of the parties to have their disputes decided in accordance with general principles of law”⁴¹. As an example, art. 1194 § 1 of the Polish Code of civil procedure⁴² may be indicated: „The arbitral tribunal shall decide the dispute in accordance with the law applicable for the given relationship, and if the parties have expressly authorized it to do so - in accordance with the general rules of law or *ex aequo et bono*”⁴³. Another example is art. 1511. the first sentence of the French Code of civil procedure⁴⁴: „The arbitral tribunal shall decide the dispute in accordance with the rules of law chosen by the parties or, in case of no choice, in accordance with those which it determines to be appropriate”⁴⁵.

Finally, the fact that a clause indicating regulations of *lex mercatoria* as the law governing the contract would not be considered by a national court as a valid choice of law, does not mean that this court will not recognize and enforce an arbitral award which applied such regulations. The scope of control of foreign arbitral awards exercised by national courts as indicated in art. V of the New York Convention⁴⁶, which has been ratified by 159 countries so far⁴⁷, excludes the possibility of judging the merits of the case by a domestic court. In result, arbitral awards which applied norms of *lex mercatoria* (general principles of law,

³⁷ Text of UNCITRAL Model Law is available on official website of UNCITRAL: http://www.uncitral.org/pdf/english/texts/arbitration/ml-arb/07-86998_Ebook.pdf.

³⁸ Art. 35 sec. 1 the first sentence. See footnote 9.

³⁹ Art. 21 sec. 1 the first sentence. The 2017 Arbitration Rules version is available on ICC website: <https://cdn.iccwbo.org/content/uploads/sites/3/2017/01/ICC-2017-Arbitration-and-2014-Mediation-Rules-english-version.pdf.pdf>.

⁴⁰ See footnote 5.

⁴¹ ICC *Developing neutral...*, p. 23.

⁴² Code of civil procedure of 17 November 1974 (consolidated text Journal of Laws of 2018 r., item 1360 as amended).

⁴³ Translation of the author.

⁴⁴ Decree No. 2011-48 of 13 January 2011, text available on a public legal service website Legifrance: <https://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/eli/decret/2011/1/13/2011-48/jo/texte>.

⁴⁵ Translation of the author.

⁴⁶ Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards, done on 10 June 1958 (Journal of Laws of 1962, No. 9, item 41).

⁴⁷ The actual status of the Convention available on official website of UNCITRAL: http://www.uncitral.org/uncitral/en/uncitral_texts/arbitration/NYConvention_status.html.

transnational regulations of the customary merchant law) are in principle recognized and enforced by domestic courts⁴⁸.

Together with the development of the theory of new *lex mercatoria* in the second half of the twentieth century we encounter arbitral awards which applied general principles of law recognized in international trade, in subsequent decisions already defined as *lex mercatoria*. In practice of arbitration it has been recognized with time that parties may choose *lex mercatoria* instead of national law for the proper law of the contract and arbitral tribunal will accept such a choice.⁴⁹ It is worth underlining here that, due to a general character of rules of law, it is recommended to clearly indicate in the choice-of-law clause a specific set of transnational rules prepared for transactions of international trade (such as the above mentioned UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts). Thus, model choice-of-law clauses prepared by ICC usually join a few elements – for instance principles of law generally recognized in international trade, trade usages and the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts, at the same time defining their hierarchy⁵⁰. On the other hand, various ways of application of the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts in commercial contracts and dispute resolution practice are reflected in Model Clauses prepared by UNIDROIT⁵¹. What is interesting, in case of choice of a specific act of international legislation (for example Vienna Convention CISC) as the applicable law, when due to the lack of ratification there are no objective requirements for its application, the parties achieve twofold result. The first one will be the choice of law in the sense of conflict of law rules (the convention will govern their contract although it has not been incorporated to the domestic law as there was no ratification). Secondly, if the parties stipulate this in the clause, generally recognized principles of law (*lex mercatoria*) will apply for interpretation or supplementation with respect to the issues not covered by the chosen convention (which, in case the convention is applied as a part of domestic law, would be submitted to this law)⁵².

Summarizing, arbitral tribunals respect the parties' decision to submit their contract to the regulations of *lex mercatoria*, which may be taken not only at the stage of contract conclusion by means of choosing these regulations for the proper law of the contract (which in practice happens rather rarely), but also at the stage of a dispute by means of authorizing the arbitral tribunal to decide the dispute according to these regulations (which is a more frequent practice). And though clauses indicating regulations other than a domestic law as

⁴⁸ More on this subject see ICC *Developing neutral...*, p. 21–22 and judicial decisions referred there. See however D. Mazur, *Prawo właściwe...*, p. 140–145, who draws attention to the necessity of earlier ascertainment of the parties as to the potential refusal of recognition and enforcement of arbitral award in a legal system that does not recognize *lex mercatoria*.

⁴⁹ ICC *Developing neutral...*, p. 6, 8 and arbitral awards referred there; see also T. Wiśniewski, M. Hauser-Morel, *Wyrok, zasady wyrokowania i inne sposoby zakończenia postępowania arbitrażowego* [in:] A. Szumański (ed.), *System Prawa Handlowego*, t. 8...

⁵⁰ More on this subject see ICC *Developing neutral...*, p. 15–16.

⁵¹ UNIDROIT *Model Clauses...*, see footnote 30.

⁵² See UNIDROIT Principles Model Clause No. 3(a): „This contract shall be governed by the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (CISC) interpreted and supplemented by the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts (2016)”, *ibidem*, p. 16–19.

the applicable law are very rarely included in contracts, as the ICC statistics of 2017 show⁵³, the effectiveness of such clauses in arbitration proceedings is established these days.

5. SUMMARY

Sceptics with reference to indication of *lex mercatoria* in a choice-of-law clause raise a number of arguments to the detriment of such solution. Passing over, in this place, the fact that national courts will not accept such clauses as a valid choice of law, it is raised particularly that, due to their general character, the principles of law leave much latitude to the discretion of the arbitrators and by this do not warrant enough certainty and foreseeability of the possible outcome of the dispute, which is so significant for the international trade participants. In fact, in many cases the choice of a national law and submitting possible disputes to domestic courts may be a good solution (for instance in case of a standard single sale contract concluded between parties from countries which ratified the Vienna Convention CISC). However, the business practice gives rise to a number of complicated transactions, for which it is hard to find satisfactory solutions in national laws and what is more the choice of law is often the issue that blocks negotiations. In such situations it is worth considering as an alternative option whether or not to choose the neutral rules of *lex mercatoria*, which – as they derive from the practice of international trade – will better suit the parties' expectations. And, in order to guarantee greater accuracy and foreseeability of the chosen legal solutions, the parties may – notwithstanding indication of rules of law – choose a specific set of principles of “soft law” prepared especially for international transactions (for example the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts). When a contract including such a choice-of-law clause is submitted to arbitration jurisdiction, it is possible to achieve in many cases at least the same predictability of potential outcomes of the disputes as in case of a choice of a national law. One must also bear in mind that a judicial proceeding, even in case when a national court applies its own national law, always involves a certain degree of uncertainty as to the final outcome of the dispute.

As the practice of arbitration and noticeable trends in the literature show, the principles of an autonomous, transnational merchant law gain greater meaning as possible “*lex contractus*” in international commercial contracts. Clauses indicating *lex mercatoria* as an applicable law for such contracts are at present respected by arbitral tribunals, and furthermore their effectiveness is not in principle questioned by national courts in most countries in procedures of recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards. Due to undoubted advantages of applying the *lex mercatoria* rules in international trade, one should support the aim of recognition by national courts the contractual choice-of-law clauses indicating such rules as a valid choice of law.

⁵³ “In 87% of the disputes referred to ICC Arbitration in 2017, parties included a choice-of-law clause in their contracts”, out of which in 99% of cases the parties chose national laws, and only in 1% other regulations – including: Vienna Convention CISC (5 contracts), EU legislation (5 contracts), the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts (1 contract), *lex mercatoria* (1 contract), „customary international law” (1 contract), „UNCITRAL Law” (1 contract), ICC Incoterms (1 contract) [in:] *ICC Dispute Resolution Bulletin*, 2018, issue 2, p. 61.

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SKUTECZNOŚĆ WSKAZANIA *LEX MERCATORIA* W KLAUZULI WYBORU PRAWA W MIĘDZYNARODOWYCH UMOWACH HANDLOWYCH

Z kolizyjnoprawnej autonomii woli stron umowy, powszechnie akceptowanej w obrocie międzynarodowym, wynika zasada nieograniczonego wyboru prawa dla zobowiązań umownych. Wątpliwości budzi kwestia wskazywania przez strony na ponadnarodowe zasady prawa lub akty tzw. „soft law”, które będą właściwe dla umowy zawieranej w ramach transakcji handlu międzynarodowego. Zaliczane do pojęcia „lex mercatoria” stanowią - obok legislacji międzynarodowej (*uniform law*) – jeden z członów międzynarodowego prawa handlowego. Praktyka handlu międzynarodowego wymaga stosowania rozwiązań prawnych odpowiadających jego specyfice, których prawo krajowe często nie dostarcza. Rozwiązania neutralne, wywodzące się z praktyki biznesowej i rozumiane przez uczestników obrotu w jednakowy sposób, stanowią alternatywę w stosunku do wyboru prawa krajowego. Skuteczność wskazania *lex mercatoria* w klauzuli wyboru prawa zależy od tego, czy ewentualny spór wynikający z umowy będzie rozpatrywany przez sąd krajowy czy arbitrażowy. Inaczej niż sądy krajowe, trybunały arbitrażowe respektują dokonany przez strony wybór *lex mercatoria* na statut kontraktowy umowy. Z uwagi na ogólny charakter zasad prawa zalecane jest wskazanie w klauzuli wyboru prawa konkretnego zbioru ponadnarodowych zasad opracowanych z myślą o transakcjach handlu międzynarodowego (takich jak np. Zasady Międzynarodowych Kontraktów Handlowych UNIDROIT). Skuteczność takich klauzul z reguły nie jest podważana przez sądy krajowe w większości państw w ramach procedur uznawania i wykonywania zagranicznych orzeczeń arbitrażowych.

Słowa kluczowe: *lex mercatoria* w klauzuli wyboru prawa, międzynarodowe umowy handlowe, międzynarodowe zwyczaje handlowe, zasady prawa i akty „soft law”, sądownictwo arbitrażowe.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.56

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF FINANCIAL MOTIVATORS IN THE EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN ENTERPRISES OF THE REGION OF KONIN

Motivating issues concern every organization, primarily due to the variety of available motivators and the difficulties resulting from their use, in particular those related to the needs and employee's expectations. At the same time, every motivational system consisting of financial and non-financial motivators generates financial costs for the enterprise. Regardless of the types of motivators used, managers need to prepare the enterprise for bearing specific financial outlays. Therefore, it is necessary to look for motivators that will not only gain employee's acceptance, but, above all, will affect their commitment in achieving the goals that the organization seeks to achieve and at the same time will be an optimal financial burden for the company. An important role in the whole process is played by financial motivation, which is associated with financial expenditures borne by the company, but at the same time it is able to stimulate employees to work effectively. The use of motivators in enterprises may result from the application of various systems and may not always lead to undertaking effective actions on the market. The aim of the study is to present the use of financial motivators in enterprises in the Konin region in the opinion of employees. The paper hypothesizes that motivators in enterprises are an important element of the process of motivating employees, and employers most often apply the settlement of employees for the results and the allocation of bonuses associated with them.

Keywords: motivation, company, employee, finances.

1. INTRODUCTION

The ability to motivate employees to work is one of the most important components of broadly understood managerial qualifications². At the same time, each manager has great opportunities to stimulate and consolidate the motivation of employees working in his team. It can motivate by creating higher wealth, the employees' interest in the tasks they perform, by creating promotion prospects, better working conditions, greater opportunities to parti-

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² L. Koziół, A. Piechnik-Kurdziel, J. Kopeć, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi. Teoria i praktyka*, Warszawa 2006, s. 220-221.

participate in the management, or providing them with greater freedom in performing tasks³. Financial motivators are an important factor motivating employees, especially because of the authentic possibility of linking them with the implementation of specific goals necessary to achieve within a set time. It should be noted that today's enterprises are looking for a variety of elements that can affect subordinates' engagement and contribute to the increase of the company's efficiency.

In connection with the above, all actions taken by the manager should be aimed at increasing employee involvement in the implementation of tasks and striving to achieve specific goals. The managers should at the same time, consciously implement the policy of motivating and carefully choose the motivators that will help in meeting the needs of employees, which will result in a better functioning of the department or even the entire enterprise.

2. THE ESSENCE OF THE EMPLOYEE'S MOTIVATION

People in the organization can be a special resource that will make it stand out in the market environment⁴. One of the objectives of the human resources management process is to enable management to achieve specific goals precisely through the involvement of employees⁵. For this purpose, it is necessary to use the potential of employees: knowledge, skills and emotional potential properly. This, in turn, requires the design of an efficient management system⁶, which also includes a system for motivating employees.

The concept of motivation is related to the psychological state, which affects the level of human involvement in a particular activity. Thus, it includes factors that evoke, define and sustain people's behavior in a specific direction⁷. It is also possible to define this concept as an internal process that helps to set the course of action for a specific purpose⁸. The following interpretation can also be found in the literature: motivating is the process of conscious and deliberate influencing the behavior of people doing work by creating conditions that allow them to meet their needs, which results from their contribution to achieving specific organization goals⁹.

The concept of motivation is therefore identified with a specific kind of process that evokes, directs and sustains specific behaviors in order to achieve the goals set earlier. This process takes place if two conditions are met:

- the implementation of the goal must be perceived by people as useful,
- the probability of reaching the goal must be greater than zero¹⁰.

³ *Ibidem*, s. 222–223.

⁴ K. Gadomska-Lila, *Dopasowanie organizacyjne. Aspekt strategii, kultury organizacyjnej i zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi*, Warszawa 2013, s. 71.

⁵ M. Armstrong, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Warszawa 2011, s. 9.

⁶ K. Gadomska-Lila, *Dopasowanie organizacyjne. Aspekt strategii, kultury organizacyjnej i zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi*, Warszawa 2013, s. 71.

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⁸ M. Jasiakiewicz, J.M. Soroka, *Psycho-społeczne uwarunkowania kierowania ludźmi w organizacji*, Wrocław 2001, s. 58.

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¹⁰ B. Pawłowska, *Teorie motywacji*, Łódź 2009, www.soc-org.edu.pl.

Motivating is also a set of forces that cause specific behaviors in people. It should be a management process, leading to ensuring appropriate conditions and incentives that make the subordinate behave in accordance with the will of the manager, but what is very important, at the same time he has the sense of making independent decisions¹¹. It is worth emphasizing that employees' motivating is primarily about identifying employees' needs, and then conscious of their activation, in order to encourage subordinates to a specific action¹². The ineffectiveness of motivation to work alone may be caused by ignorance of employees' needs or by considering and satisfying those needs that are less important to employees¹³.

In addition, the positive attitude of employees to work in an organization can be expected, when the natural inclinations of the people involved can translate into their behavior, thanks to specific processes and structures that have developed there¹⁴.

Human motivation can be invoked using two methods:

- 1) creating conditions that threaten the previous achievements of the employee - they are so-called negative incentives,
- 2) by providing conditions that allow to achieve a better than previously level of satisfying specific needs (can be invoked using two methods)¹⁵.

The notion of the motivating system itself is important in the analyzed problem, which is a specific arrangement of wage and personnel policy principles accepted by employees, as well as rules and procedures for awarding employees benefits for their work¹⁶. The motivational system is a collection of elements connected with each other and allowing to create conditions, and at the same time encouraging employees to fulfill their obligations resulting from the functioning of the organization. This is possible by satisfying the various needs of employees that leads to engaging to work and duties in the most desirable way in the company and at the same time giving employees personal satisfaction. Therefore, the motivation system should be built in such a way as to stimulate and consolidate positive motivation, and motivate people to enter into entrepreneurial, creative and innovative activities¹⁷.

Motivation is a continuous, complicated process that requires consistency and, at the same time, establishing clear rules. In addition, it is also necessary to know about subordinates, because a lot depends on the supervisor in this respect¹⁸. Managers have various possibilities to stimulate and consolidate employees' motivation. They can not only motivate by creating higher wages, by interest in work, through prospects for promotion, gaining better non-pay benefits, better working conditions, greater opportunities to participate in management, greater freedom of action through broadening the choice¹⁹. Recognizing the

¹¹ A. Poczowski, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 426.

¹² C. Zajac (red.), *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Poznań 2011, s. 114.

¹³ L. Koziół, A. Piechnik-Kurdziel, J. Kopeć, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi. Teoria i praktyka*, Warszawa 2006, s. 222-223.

¹⁴ M. Armstrong, S. Taylor, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Warszawa 2016, s. 24.

¹⁵ M. Gableta (red.), *Potencjał pracy przedsiębiorstwa*, Wrocław 2006, s. 85.

¹⁶ L. Koziół, A. Piechnik-Kurdziel, J. Kopeć, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 220-221.

¹⁷ *Ibidem*, s. 236-237.

¹⁸ D. Mamro, *Motywować bez wyjątków*, „Marketing w Praktyce” 2008/01, s. 92-93.

¹⁹ R. Walkowiak, I.Z. Czaplicka-Kozłowska, A.J. Kozłowski, S. Stachowska, *Zarządzanie potencjałem społecznym organizacji*, Olsztyn 2013, s. 113.

individual needs of employees, they can better choose motivators that will affect their commitment to the work they do.

It should be noted that in the past employees' motivating was much easier. The employee, in fact, expected from the employer, above all, a fair remuneration adequate for the tasks performed. Currently, employees are looking for an attractive and interesting job that will also enable them to develop personally. In addition, the employee is satisfied and motivated to work for the company, when the employer enables taking up challenges and implementation at work²⁰.

Undoubtedly, an important challenge for human resources management is the need for HR departments to take into account the expectations and needs of employees, as remuneration will be the most important for some employees, for others the prestige and, for others, autonomy at work. In the future, HR departments will have to adapt all motivators to the expectations of employees. Thus, only the employment of talented employees will be insufficient, but care will be required to keep employees in the company²¹.

To sum up, it should be stated that motivating is an inseparable element of human resources management in every company's business. Each manager should first get to know his subordinates and then choose appropriate forms of motivation. This will allow effective management of people focused on achieving the set goals of the organization.

3. ELEMENTS OF FINANCIAL MOTIVATION IN AN ENTERPRISE

The use of actions related to external motivation by superiors causes employees to develop internal motivation. Therefore, the correct selection and appropriate use of motivators is very important. They should be addressed to a specific person, taking into account the degree of its vulnerability to external impact by means of material and non-material incentives²².

Every enterprise in the process of motivating employees uses many instruments, both financial and non-financial, as well as payroll and non-payroll. They are a collection of methods, rules, ways and forms of conduct as well as procedural, structural and organizational solutions that regulate motivation in the organization. Effective motivation is associated with the appropriate selection of these instruments, appropriate to the existing conditions and needs of the company. It is also very important that the set of motivating instruments used by managers should be comprehensive and flexible²³.

The most important elements of financial motivation that are the subject of consideration include:

- 1) pay rise,
- 2) discretionary bonus,
- 3) bonus depending on the results of work,
- 4) cash or in-kind reward,

²⁰ A. Dębowski, *Bardziej od ludzi liczy się ich zaangażowanie*, Dziennik 2008/09/29, s. 14.

²¹ What's Next: Future Global Trends Affecting Your Organization, Evolution of Work and the Worker, 2014.

²² A.I. Baruk, *Bodźce motywujące współczesnych pracowników*, „*Ekonomika i Organizacja Przedsiębiorstwa*” 2010/8 (727), s. 33.

²³ A. Piętroń-Pyszczek, *Motywowanie pracowników, wskazówki dla menedżerów*, Wrocław 2014, s. 27.

5) other motivators:

- training,
- co-financing for education,
- trips and integration meetings,
- business tools (company car, laptop, telephone),
- life insurance,
- medical care,
- tickets,
- gift vouchers,
- Christmas packages.

The first of these elements is a pay rise, which is associated with an increase in the amount of remuneration paid to the employee each month. Certainly, such an action of the employer will be accepted by the employee with great enthusiasm, but it will not affect the increase of his involvement in the long run. It should be noted that the increase is worth allocating to those employees who are faced with increased requirements in the form of, for example, increased responsibility or the number of new tasks to be implemented. In addition, the level of the increase should be directly related to the employee's work-related expenses.

The discretionary bonus is the monetary amount granted by the manager according to his own criteria. Unfortunately, it is characterized by a large subjectivity of the superior, and its allocation may negatively affect the involvement of other employees who think that their work also deserves to be honored. It should be emphasized that this type of bonus can become an effective motivator only when clear rules for granting it are established²⁴.

The next element is a bonus depending on the results of work, which is paid to individual employees based on the work results obtained by them. In this case, specific criteria are applied, about which employees are informed before starting work or a specific task. Often, various types of indicators are also used, such as: revenue, profit, etc. This type of bonus may also depend on the achievement or level of implementation of specific goals that are relevant at the moment in the company. It should be noted that in the case of a properly functioning motivating system, a bonus depending on the results of work is the most effective method of financial motivation in contemporary enterprises. It can generate high employee engagement in the long run. Unfortunately, however, in this case it should be remembered that the efforts of employees will be directed exclusively at the so-called premium elements, while omitting other, perhaps equally important for the functioning of the enterprise²⁵. It should be noted, however, that this form of remuneration strongly affects the growth of labor productivity²⁶.

The award is connected with the competition system, in which the rules for granting additional remuneration are established. This motivator can exist in conjunction with other motivators used in the enterprise or independently of them. Most often, the announcement of the competition takes place at the beginning of the year. Then, the assessment rules and

²⁴ Own work based on: L. Zbiegień-Maciąg (red.), *Nowe tendencje i wyzwania w zarządzaniu personelem*, Kraków 2006, s. 97–98 and: M. Armstrong, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Wolters Kluwer, Warszawa 2011, s. 296–298.

²⁵ Own work based on: L. Zbiegień-Maciąg (red.), *Nowe tendencje i wyzwania...*, s. 97–98 and: M. Armstrong, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 296–298.

²⁶ C. Zajac (red.), *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 146–147.

binding deadlines are passed to the general message. After the competition, the honored employees or even their entire teams receive an additional remuneration or valuable material reward for the results obtained in the specified time covered by the competition²⁷.

Despite the high effectiveness of bonus systems as a motivating instrument, non-pay accessories are becoming more and more important. Employers wanting to retain or attract key employees are looking for other methods of motivating employees²⁸. Some companies, as part of incentive systems instead of applying various types of bonuses or increases, offer additional benefits to their employees. These include business tools, such as a company car, laptop or telephone. In addition, employers increasingly choose to provide life insurance or medical care to employees as well as members of their families. Some employers also provide various types of tickets, gift vouchers or even holiday packages that are approved by employees.

Due to the needs resulting from working at specific positions, many enterprises organize training for employees or cover the costs of training in whole or in part. Through such activities, managers not only support the development of employees, but also affect the increase of their involvement and thus attachment to the company they work in²⁹.

At this stage, it is worth emphasizing that the application of financial motivators by the superiors requires knowledge, skills, experience and sensitivity. At the same time, it becomes necessary for employers and managers to choose the right form and instruments of motivation, tailored to the needs of employees, as well as to internal and external conditions³⁰.

In effective personnel policy, the ability to build such an incentive system is important, which responds to the needs of employees and their individual, internal level of motivation³¹. Particularly important in this system is the selection of appropriate motivators, the use of which may encourage employees to work more efficiently and, consequently, increase loyalty to the employer.

4. APPLICATION OF FINANCIAL MOTIVATORS IN AN ENTERPRISE ON THE BASIS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

In order to learn about the importance of financial motivation in the company and to verify the hypothesis, it became necessary to conduct primary research. The survey covered employees occupying non-managerial positions in various departments of commercial enterprises, and the selection of these organizations for the study was deliberate. The size of employment was assumed as the selection criterion and therefore the survey covered 10 selected companies operating in the region of Konin and employing over 500 people. The survey was conducted from October to December 2017. The survey was completed as a result of a personal interview.

²⁷ Own work based on: L. Zbiegień-Maciąg (red.), *Nowe tendencje i wyzwania w zarządzaniu personelem...*, s. 97–98 and: M. Armstrong, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 296–298.

²⁸ D. Mamro, *Motywować bez wyjątków*, „Marketing w Praktyce” 2008/01, s. 88–89.

²⁹ Own work based on: *Systemy motywacji finansowej pracowników*, www.findict.pl and: red. L. Zbiegień-Maciąg, *Nowe tendencje i wyzwania w zarządzaniu personelem...*, s. 97–98.

³⁰ C. Zajac (red.), *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi...*, s. 148–149.

³¹ *Ibidem*, s. 50–51.

Analyzing the results of the conducted research, it is first necessary to present financial motivators that motivate the respondents to the highest degree. The distribution of responses is shown in Figure 1.

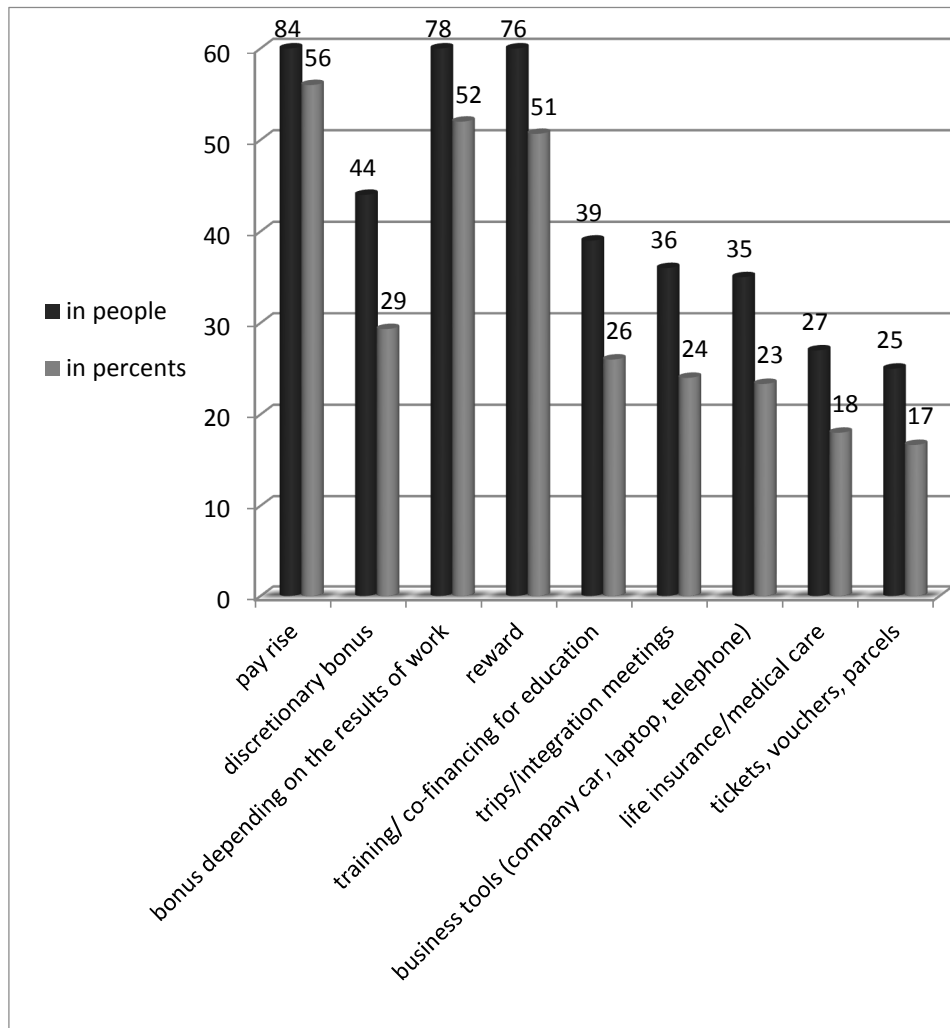


Figure 1. Impact of motivators on motivating employees

Source: own study.

As it can be seen from Figure 1, the surveyed employees first mentioned the increase as the element that motivates them most to work. This group was made up of 56% of respondents. Next, the following were indicated: reward and bonus depending on the results of

work, which was indicated by more than half of the respondents. In addition, the discretionary bonus is an important motivator for 30% of respondents. Subsequently, the respondents mentioned: trainings / co-financing for education (26%), trips / integration meetings (24%) and business tools such as: company car, laptop, telephone (23%). On the other hand, elements which were indicated by less than 20% of the surveyed employees are: life insurance / medical care and tickets, vouchers, parcels.

Therefore, when analyzing the answers of the surveyed employees regarding the use of financial motivators, it should be stated that employees are motivated by the highest rate of increase and reward, and in the lowest by life insurance / medical care, and tickets, vouchers and parcels.

Respondents during the study were also to indicate the way they prefer to be motivated. Respondents most often indicated an individual way of motivating, although there were also those for whom team-based motivation was important. The distribution of responses is shown in Figure 2.

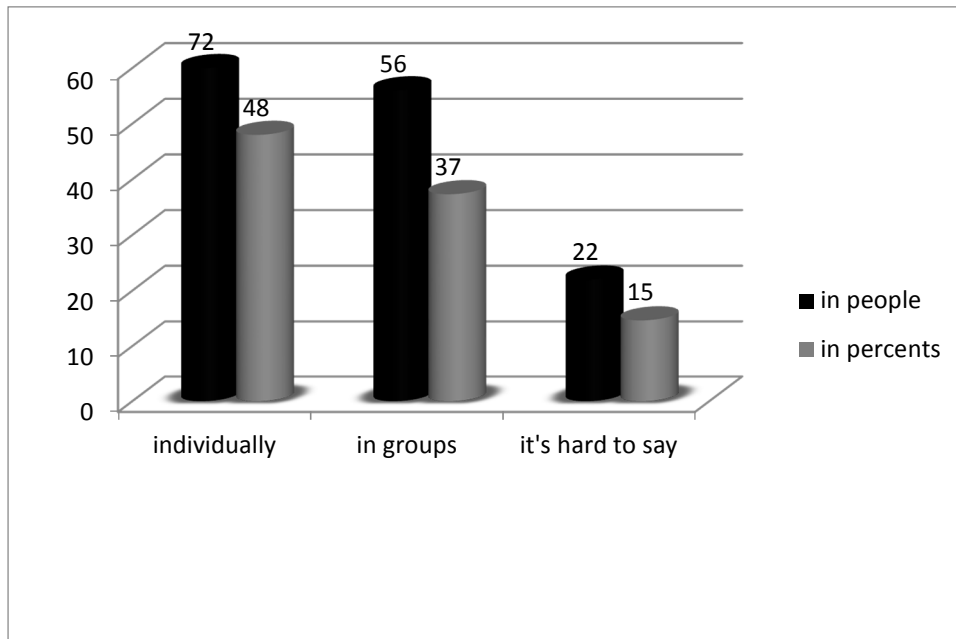


Figure 2. Individual or group motivation in the opinion of respondents

Source: own study.

Based on the above figure, it can be noticed that the respondents prefer an individual way of motivating, because almost half of the respondents gave such an answer. However, almost 40% of people considered the motivators assigned to the whole group as the best way to motivate. At the same time, 15% of the respondents could not give a definite answer.

In the study, it was also important to check which of the mentioned financial motivators are used in the surveyed companies as part of employees motivation. The distribution of answers is shown in Figure 3.

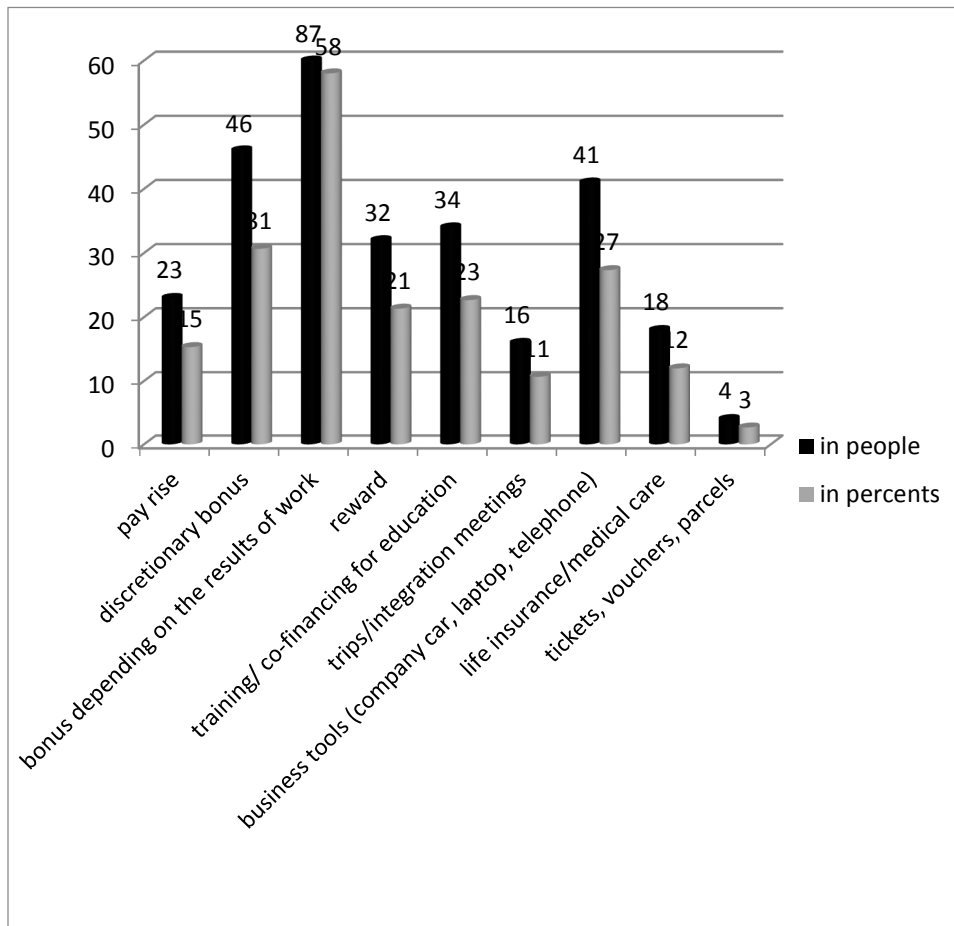


Figure 3. Financial motivators used in enterprise

Source: own study.

Analyzing Fig. 3, it can be stated that in the surveyed enterprises, employers motivate employees most often with a bonus depending on the results of work, which was indicated by almost 60% of employees. In the next step, employees are also offered a discretionary bonus, which was mentioned by 1/3 of the respondents. At the same time, business tools such as: a company car, laptop or phone are used by 27% of enterprises, and training / co-financing for education or various types of awards are offered to employees in 1/4 of the surveyed enterprises. It should be noted that research has confirmed that the pay rise is

a rarely used motivator. According to the obtained results, it is used by only 15% of employers. The respondents also confirmed that other elements such as life insurance / medical care or trips / integration meetings belong to those motivators from which employers are reluctant.

The survey shows that it is analogously 12% and 11% of companies. In addition to the motivating elements mentioned above, respondents were also able to assess the use of: subscriptions, vouchers or parcels handed over by the employer to employees. Unfortunately, it turns out that the analyzed enterprises are less interested in motivating employees by means of these elements.

By making their own observations and interpretations of the results of empirical studies obtained, conclusions were formulated that allowed for a positive verification of the hypothesis defined in the introduction of the article. The established hypothesis was confirmed by the analysis of the distribution of respondents' answers in the question about determining the impact of selected motivators on the level of employees' involvement in work and in the question regarding the indication of financial motivators that are used in the surveyed companies. Interpretation of the results showed quite clearly that financial motivators are an important element of the employee motivation process. At the same time, the surveyed employers often emphasized that they were very keen to apply employee accounting for the results and allocate the related bonus to them.

The surveyed enterprises from the region of Konin wanting to have more influence on the motivation of their employees should more often use financial motivators, such as a raise or reward, because according to the surveyed it is these elements that motivate them to the highest degree. However, the survey shows that employers prefer to reckon employees for the results and to assign them a bonus. This is certainly due to the need to achieve specific results by individual employees or even their entire teams.

5. SUMMARY

Properly motivated, with appropriate qualifications and experience, the employee is constantly sought after in the labor market, especially by companies striving to develop and achieve their goals. Contemporary managers have at their disposal various motivators that they can use as part of managing subordinates. These include primarily financial motivators, which in contrast to non-financial incentives, they are indicated as elements that encourage workers to work in the highest possible way.

Unfortunately, motivational systems used in enterprises, although they are supposed to influence employees' engagement and should be perceived positively, very often cause an increase in employees' claims. In addition, even the best financial motivators and attractive remuneration may not be properly assessed and contribute to employee dissatisfaction. It is important, therefore, that in particular financial incentive systems in the company are constructed correctly and allow long-term cooperation with the employee.

The motivation expectations of employees are constantly changing. The studies carried out show that incentives for the most desired motivators employed by enterprises in the region of Konin include a raise and a reward, followed by other types of motivators. Unfortunately, as research in enterprises shows, the most frequently applied bonus is a work-related bonus, which, according to the results of research, motivates half of the employees

surveyed. Therefore, the less frequently used motivators are those most desirable by employees. This result is quite puzzling, but it may be related to the fact that employees are looking for other motivators than those to which they have already got used to.

To sum up, employers in the Konin region, as part of personnel activities, should conduct systematic employee satisfaction surveys and make changes based on the results obtained in the personnel strategy, and in particular the strategy of motivating employees, so that the employees' needs are best satisfied and, as a result, their satisfaction increases and results in higher efficiency at work.

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ZNACZENIE MOTYWATORÓW FINANSOWYCH W PROCESIE MOTYWOWANIA PRACOWNIKÓW W PRZEDSIĘBIORSTWACH REGIONU KONIŃSKIEGO

Problematyka motywowania dotyczy każdej organizacji, przede wszystkim ze względu na zróżnicowanie dostępnych motywatorów oraz trudności wynikające z ich stosowania, w szczególności te związane z dopasowaniem do potrzeb i oczekiwań pracowników. Jednocześnie, każdy system motywacyjny składający się z motywatorów finansowych i pozafinansowych generuje koszty finansowe dla przedsiębiorstwa. Niezależnie bowiem, od rodzajów wykorzystywanych motywatorów (płacowych, pozapłacowych, finansowych, pozafinansowych) menedżerowie muszą przygotować przedsiębiorstwo na poniesienie konkretnych nakładów finansowych. Konieczne jest zatem poszukiwanie takich motywatorów, które nie tylko zyskają akceptację pracowników, ale przede wszystkim wpłyną na ich zaangażowanie w realizację celów, do osiągnięcia których dąży organizacja i jednocześnie będą stanowiły optymalne obciążenie finansowe dla przedsiębiorstwa. Ważną rolę w całym procesie odgrywa motywowanie finansowe, które wiąże się z nakładami finansowymi ponoszonymi przez przedsiębiorstwo, ale jednocześnie w najwyższym stopniu potrafi pobudzić pracowników do efektywnej pracy. Stosowanie motywatorów w przedsiębiorstwach może wynikać ze stosowania rozmaitych systemów i nie zawsze prowadzi do podejmowania przez przedsiębiorstwo skutecznych działań na rynku. Celem opracowania jest przedstawienie wykorzystania konkretnych motywatorów finansowych w przedsiębiorstwach regionu konińskiego w opinii zatrudnionych pracowników. W artykule postawiono hipotezę, że motywatory finansowe są w przedsiębiorstwach ważnym elementem procesu motywowania pracowników, a pracodawcy najczęściej stosują rozliczanie pracowników za wyniki i przydzielanie im związanej z tym premii. Opracowanie częściowo jest oparte na wynikach z przeprowadzonych badań empirycznych, co pozwala na ukazanie problematyki w ujęciu praktycznym.

Słowa kluczowe: motywacja, firma, pracownik, finanse.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.57

Tekst złożono do redakcji: lipiec 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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CREATING A BRAND OF THE INTELLIGENT ENTERPRISE THROUGH BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS WITH STAKEHOLDERS

The purpose of this article is to present the creation of the brand in the intelligent organization mostly based on the building relationships with stakeholders. In contemporary organizations, a lot of attention is paid to different levels of organizational intelligence which is supported by creativeness and innovations of varied groups of interests. Internal and external stakeholders increasingly indicate directly what has the greatest impact on their satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the cooperation with the enterprise. Many international studies prove that the strong brand increases numbers of advantages for the organization such as: raising trust among stakeholders towards the products and the organizational culture of the enterprise, giving the chance to build customer loyalty, psychologically evaluating the image of the organization, enabling the company positioning on the market perception map and in the cyberspace, stabilizing the market position of the enterprise and others. Stakeholders, in majority, expect more initiatives from the enterprise due to the engagement process and the organization can achieve many goals by fulfilling partners' needs and by the creation of the strong brand on the market. Therefore, it can be assumed that building permanent relationships with stakeholders and strengthening their involvement in the contemporary world of business is of permanent importance in creating the brand and image of each organization. The author tries to define the features of the intelligent organization brand and list various aspects of "intelligence" in the company, based on the subject literature and own research, on the example of a case study - presenting the activities of Apple Company.

Keywords: brand's creation, intelligent enterprise, relationships with stakeholders, Apple company.

“A strong brand should have a rich, clear brand identity – a set of associations the brands strategist seeks to create or maintain. A brand identity is aspirational and may imply that the image needs to be changed or augmented”

D.A. Aaker

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the conditions of a variable, competitive, technologically rapidly growing and marketing market, having a strong brand by a company allows achieving and maintaining a competitive advantage. A strong brand with high capital distinguishes the brand's loyalty, awareness and positive associations associated with the brand, as well as its high perceived quality. Nowadays, companies are building their value on reputation and building an organizational identity based on the aspect of intelligence, the business and rapid development².

The importance of the brand in the development of marketing activities is undisputable. Creating the brand enables market segmentation and allows adapting to the changing market needs. The benefit of the brand's existence is, inter alia, the protection of the product against imitators, its innovativeness and uniqueness. The more the brand is present in consumer awareness, it has the reputation of a high quality brand, creates loyalty of buyers, uses positive associations with its name and symbolism and protects against imitation, the more effectively it enables the company to achieve market success. In the new approach to brand marketing, we are moving away from selling products for the sake of selling dreams, because together with a recognizable brand, we acquire the feeling of: reliability, uniqueness and exclusivity. Branding is a communication strategy, a password, an identity of the image and a logo. An important role is also played by the capital of the brand, which strengthens the value of the brand, creates positive associations with customers. It is an intangible asset that indicates its importance, which results from the perception of quality and customer associations related with a given product. Investing in the capital of the brand allows us to assess the competitive possibilities of the brand³.

The main goal of the article is to show the importance of the brand as a resource of intangible, permanent value in the functioning of a modern, intelligent enterprise, especially through building effective relationships with the organization's closest stakeholders. The more specified aims of the paper are threefold. Firstly, to identify the creation of the brand of the intelligent enterprise; secondly to determine the role of closest stakeholders in developing the brand on the market, and thirdly to present the case study, an example of the company that is trying to reach such a situation in the global contemporary business, namely Apple company.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. State of art in creating a brand of the organization

In the era of ubiquitous Internet, progressive globalization and the information society, enterprises have faced the task of (and what's important, they are re-creating each day) modifications, flexible matching and current creation of their offer in line with the main market determinants. Marketing and its tools have become the means to cope with the ongoing changes.

² L. Bivainiene, *Brand Image Conceptualization: The Role of Marketing Communication*, "Economics and Management" 2007, Vol. 12, No. 2, p. 22.

³ E. Skrzypek, F. Pinzaru, *Marka jako ważny element marketingu*, *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Przyrodniczo-Humanistycznego w Siedlcach*, Seria: Administracja i Zarządzanie, No. 141/2017, p. 198–199.

It is the brand that is the leader among the tools of competing on the market, which proves the company's position. Brands draw companies; they rank them mechanically at various levels of the market. The condition of the company is directly proportional to the condition of the brands it wields, so by caring for the brand, it takes care of the success of business. Its status affects the product, price, shape of promotion or distribution channels. This means that as the brand's strength, level of recognition and the number of positive associations that it evokes increases; the position of the company in the eyes of intermediaries also increases. Taking care of perceived quality of products, it is possible to daringly apply the policy of high prices and makes the form of promotion dependent on this. In turn, properly selected distribution methods narrow down and specify the places of sale of these goods⁴.

The brand concept consists of aggregated categories, i.e. a "trade brand", or a product brand which, as its name says, is closely related to the product and the "brand of the company". Undoubtedly, both models of the brand's image overlap with each other. One can testify to the situation and performance of the other. However, it is not always possible to meet in the literature the difference between the term brand and more detailed descriptions. However, in the eyes of consumers brands have different categories and according to D. Aaker eight categories can be distinguished⁵:

1. Master brand – the main identifier of the company's offer is a reference point for consumers; the leading feature of the main brand is its eye presence in the foreground (product packaging);
2. Endorser brand – usually the brand of a corporation that ensures the credibility of a given offer, adding its positive associations, acts as a reducer of purchasing risk (i.e. Nestlé);
3. Subbrand – makes it more attractive or changes the associations created by the main brand in a specific product context; the purpose of the sub-brand is to differentiate the offer from the main brand by adding a new attribute or a separate personality element, which would mean directing the offer to a separate segment;
4. Descriptors – they portray an offer usually in product / industry categories and are not *sensu stricto*; appear as a specific note with a smaller font next to the main brand;
5. Product brand – precisely presents a specific offer purchased by the consumer and is the result of a combination of the main brand and sub-brands (e.g. Toyota Aygo) or the main brand and descriptor (i.e. Mokate Cappuccino);
6. Umbrella brand – shows a group of products under one shared brand (e.g. Microsoft Office);
7. Branded differentiator – a name presenting a feature, component, service or program which aim is to make the offer more attractive with unique benefits / functions sought by consumers, which increases the attractiveness of impressions; it authenticates the promise made by the brand by giving the name a distinctive traits (e.g. the Quattro brand by Audi's four-wheel drive), it also helps to remember the distinctive attributes, differentiate the brand with others on the market;
8. Co-branding by brands owned by different entities (e.g. credit cards) - this offer uses two or more collections of associations created in the brands that sponsor them, which increases the degree of dissimilarity and acquiring customers.

⁴ M. Dębski, *Kreowanie silnej marki*, Warsaw 2009, p. 11–12.

⁵ D. Aaker, *Innovation: Brand it or Lose it*, "California Review Management" 2017, Vol. 50, No 1.

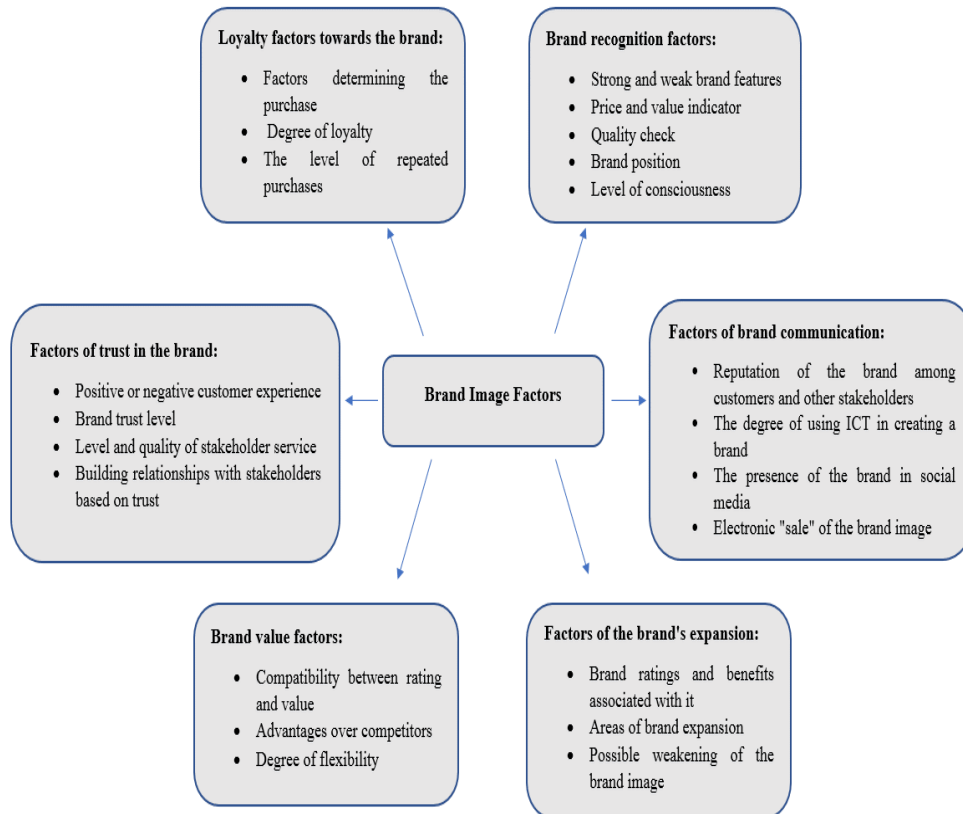


Figure 1. Factors determining the creation of the company's brand image

Source: own study based on: L. Bivainiene, *Brand Image Conceptualization: The Role of Marketing Communication*, "Economics and Management" 2007, Vol. 12, No 2, p. 12.

Continuing issues of Aaker it should be noted that "to be effective, a brand identity needs to resonate with customers, differentiate the brand from competitors, and represent what the organisation can and will do over time. When realised, the brand identity should help establish a relationship between the brand and the customer by generating a value proposition potentially involving functional, emotional or self-expressive benefits or providing credibility for endorser's brands"⁶.

What is more, while consumers interact with brands, they are exposed to different visual simulations such as a logo, colours, shapes, typefaces, characteristics, styles and other visual elements⁷. So these visual elements may come to be associated with the brand and serve

⁶ A. Aaker & E. Joachimsthaler, *Brand Leadership*, London 2000, p. 40–42.

⁷ E.F. McQuarrie & B.J. Phillips, *It's not your father's magazine ad: Magnitude and direction of recent changes in advertising style*, "Journal of Advertising", 37/2008, p. 95–106; J.E. Schroeder, *Visual consumption in the image economy*, In: "Elusive consumption". Ed. K. Ekstrom & H. Brembeck, Oxford, UK: Berg 2004, p. 229–235.

to identify it. Generally, it is vitally important to ensure one has a strong brand identity which is, not only consistent but also creates something which resonates in the mind of the consumer. In today's society, brands have become a vital part of most people's lives. Often, people recognise a particular product, design or logo. What the enterprise needs to do is to ensure the elements which people recognize are consistent and valuable. A brand identity is what makes a company unique and stand out⁸.

It should be emphasized that the significance of the brand usually increases as the wealth of the society increases. Customers basically do not pay for the goods; they pay rather for meeting the expectations related to the product. They expect prestige, well-being, recognition and social acceptance. It should be emphasized that in this context a brand is a combination of functional benefits of a given product with a specific added value. This value has an impact on the customer's perception of benefits. The owner of the brand does not create an image, but defines its identity, which he/she co-creates⁹. Real identity is the way in which managers see their brand, its features, its benefits, the values it represents. A desirable identity is a state that they would like to achieve, here are all their plans, goals, aspirations related to the brand. Image is an image in the minds of buyers. Identity is the beginning of the road, and the image of its purpose. All brands are created similarly, brand growth includes certain features: the brand must be distinct and different, which distinguishes it from its competitors, should be useful, it must enjoy respect, loyalty of consumers, and it should strive to achieve familiarity with its users¹⁰. What's more, the "creation" of a strong organizational brand minimizes the risk as well as the costs of maintaining clients. For example, a strong brand makes it possible to eliminate a number of risks, such as:

- financial, waste of money, if you buy a product that does not meet our expectations,
- product operation (functionality), uncertain results of use of an unknown brand,
- physical, potential possibility of causing physical harm to the buyer by an inappropriate product or service,
- social, levelling the risk of non-acceptance by the reference group for the choices made regarding the acquisition of goods and services,
- psychological, non-compliance of a given product with the image of its user,
- loss of time, risk related to the need to devote extra time to replace a good and/or service that did not work¹¹.

In the case of a strong brand, an enterprise may use higher prices than the competition, increase demand on the market or create fast-paced groups of loyal consumers. A detailed summary of the benefits of the brand's strength for the company is presented in Table 1.

An important element in building a brand of enterprises is its architecture. The essence of the brand architecture concept is derived from the company's branding strategy, which aims to define common and diverse elements of the brand. Developing own structured brand portfolio structure is essential because it defines the relationship between the brands themselves, the company and the products or services¹². The basis for building a brand portfolio is the decision to create one or many brands. A company can offer a wide range of products

⁸ S. Killian, *The importance of brand identity for environmental conservation brands*, 2015, document on-line, (20.07.2018), p. 12–13.

⁹ J. Kall, *Jak zbudować silną markę od podstaw*, Gliwice 2006, p. 28.

¹⁰ E. Skrzypek, F. Pinzaru, *Marka jako ważny...*, p. 198–201.

¹¹ J. Kall, *Silna marka. Istota i kreowanie*, Warsaw 2016, p. 19.

¹² P. Kotler, W. Pfoertsch, *Zarządzanie marką w segmencie B2B*, Warsaw 2008, p. 67–68.

that are often not directly related to each other, they can direct their proposals to a specific group of buyers representing different preferences, or can they operate in markets with different geographical coverage¹³.

Table 1. Benefits of a strong brand in relation to enterprises

Benefits	Actions and elements of the company to achieve the benefit
It distinguishes the enterprise from other offers of the organization	Technological innovation Product innovations Marketing innovations High quality Developed marketing activities
It gives the chance to build customer loyalty, stimulates the repeatability of sales of the company's products / services	High quality Decent price Good reputation Building trust in the company
It helps to prepare the company to enter its products on separate market segments	Marketing innovations Developed marketing activities Decent price
Psychologically evaluates the image of the company	Good reputation Confidence in the company High quality Decent price
It enables company positioning on the market perception map and in cyberspace	Marketing innovations Developed marketing activities Technological innovation Product innovations Marketing innovations
It stabilizes the market position of the company	Good reputation Confidence in the company Current relations with stakeholders Risk intelligence
Supports the promotion of the company's products/services	Good reputation Marketing innovations Developed marketing activities
It is an element of the legal protection of an enterprise	Legal regulations Copyright protection Risk intelligence
Allows to set a higher price level and avoid price wars (based on reputation)	Good reputation Confidence in the company Current relations with stakeholders Risk intelligence
Increases bargaining power on distribution channels	Developed marketing activities Expanded distribution channels Quality of logistics service

¹³ M. Dębski, *Kreowanie silnej marki*, Warsaw 2009, p. 63.

Table 1 (cont.). Benefits of a strong brand in relation to enterprises

Benefits	Actions and elements of the company to achieve the benefit
Facilitates the introduction of new products to the market, based on brand equity	Good reputation Confidence in the company Current relations with stakeholders Technological innovation Product innovations Marketing innovations
Gives an advantage over competitors (customers become brand lawyers themselves)	Good reputation Confidence in the company Current relations with stakeholders Technological innovation Product innovations Marketing innovations
High demand for products of the brand-name company allows using the effects of production scale	High quality Decent price Good reputation Building trust in the company

Source: own study based on M. Dębski, *Kreowanie silnej marki*, Warsaw 2009, p. 25.

The brand's architecture is shaped by marking, branding specific products and buying, selling or transferring brands. To a large extent, relationships between brands are the result of the values that brands deliver to buyers. The relationships between brands are often closely related to the brand name. It is the name that tangibly connects or removes the element of brands included in the portfolio. However, relationships throughout the brand constellation should go much deeper. The process of shaping the brand architecture is not limited to matching the proper name, but also emphasizes the role of the brand image, related values, or the functions that a given brand has to fulfil in the portfolio¹⁴. The layouts of possible relationships between brands are virtually unlimited. Their review is presented in Table 2, which is a reflection of the brand spectrum model by D. Aaker and E. Joachimsthaler, who considered the division criterion to take on the role of brands in the buyers' purchasing process and the impact they have on the competitiveness of the product. The range of possible architecture ranges from a collective brand (otherwise referred to as a branded house) to an individual brand (home of brands), between which one can distinguish many hybrid forms, usually referred to as sub-brands and supported brands¹⁵.

In the option of a brand house (collective brand), the same brand name covers various products with one or different identity. In the first case, products are subjected to a similar positioning process, in the second; the brands operate on different markets, so that each of them has an individual communication program and a specific promise for the buyer. The only "driver of the decision" of the consumer is the main brand, often identical with the name of the company¹⁶. In the brand home option (individual brand), individual products of the company are assigned exclusive brands. This option shapes independent brands of

¹⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 65–67.

¹⁵ A. Aaker & E. Joachimsthaler, *Brand Leadership...*, p. 40–50.

¹⁶ J. Kall, M. Hajdas, *Zarządzanie portfelem marek*, Warsaw 2010, p. 36.

Table 2. Relations between brands on the market

Brand relationship spectrum	House of brands	No relationships	• Saturn (GM)
		Supporting from the shadow	• Lexus (Toyota)
	Endorsed brands	Symbolic support	• Universal Pictures
		Core brand	• Nestea
		Strong support	• Obsession by Calvin Klein
	Subbrands	Comparable strength of brands	• Gillette Mach 3
		The dominant role of the collective brand	• Toyota Yaris
	Branded house	Different identity	• GE Capital, GE Appliance
		One identity	• BMW, Apple

Source: A. Aaker & E. Joachimsthaler, *Brand Leadership...*, p. 40–50.

individual importance, where each of them maximizes its influence and impact on the market, including specific territories. “Brand home” is the answer to the need to diversify the offer, so that the customer has a choice. The company can thus maximize market shares by dominating several segments. The failure of one of the brands does not entail others, nor does it spoil the image of the company itself. Sometimes, taking this strategy and launching more and more new brands on the market is to protect the image of the leading brand in the portfolio or defend against price war. „Brand home” also gives the chance of tactically blocking rivals in as many market segments as possible, and even blocking their access to distribution channels. There are many examples of intermediate variants between previously indicated extreme variants of brand architecture, which generally appear under the name of a supported brand. Its essence is that the brands present in the portfolio support the new offer, with the brand providing support being the brand representing the whole corporate entity. The company's brand is predestined to perform such a role when the enterprise itself is reliable in a given product category¹⁷.

2.2. Loyalty of customers towards the brand

“Closer to consumers” and “customer number one on sale” are terms known and commonly found in the environment offering “something” for sale. They reflect the prevailing conviction that the consumer is the determinant of decisions made regarding shaping the brands of goods / services and enterprises. In line with the principle of action - the reaction began to follow direct behaviour and customer voices, which were further indications for changes in the brand's life cycle, all in order to fulfil the role of the missing link in the market to bring benefits sought after by buyers. How buyers perceive a brand may decide to be or not to be in the sector. Hence the conviction that it is extremely important to look at the brand through the eyes of the customer, to be able to discover, create the essence of the brand and fully use it¹⁸.

¹⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 55–59.

¹⁸ H. Edwards, D. Day, *Kreowanie marek z pasją*, Kraków 2006, p. 20.

Appreciation of the importance and impact of consumer loyalty on the capital of the commercial brand was a milestone in the history of marketing. Currently, nobody challenges the thesis that loyalty is one of the most important and most fruitful elements shaping the brand's value. At every step, the consumer meets with loyalty programs introduced by enterprises that have understood that it is more profitable to cultivate relationships with existing customers than to acquire new ones or to introduce new products whose failure rate is very high. Profits from loyalty are much more. Proponents of particular brands exist on the market as their free-willers, who also very often spontaneously praise and recommend their favourite brand to others. What's more, brand loyalty often becomes socially contagious, or "inherited" within the family, and even constitutes a kind of determinant of social status¹⁹.

Brand loyalty is a multifaceted phenomenon that provides the basis for stable sales in the future. The cores of loyalty are mainly communication elements, i.e. brand awareness and image. As the number of factors ensuring loyalty to the brand increases, its level increases. Elements that make up loyalty can be:

- repeatability, ritual of purchase of a given brand;
- satisfaction with the brand, positive evaluation;
- perception of brand change as a risky move;
- belief in the brand, pride in using a particular brand²⁰.

A slightly different division of the motives of a strong link with a specific brand is presented by B. Kwarciak, pointing to elements such as the desire to avoid unnecessary cognitive effort, avoidance of risks, especially social, cohesiveness of behaviours, prestige and stimulation. The last aspect is a real paradox, because loyalty understood, among others, as reducing the emotional stimuli of the client, it also requires delivering newer and newer impressions through the brand that the client has chosen. At the same time, when along with excessive stimulation it loses the remaining benefits; it will lead to a change in the product's brand²¹. This is, therefore, a fairly dangerous balance that consumers are forcing businesses to do.

Loyalty is the result of the clients learning that a given brand meets its individual needs and provides them with unique benefits. Often, the favoured brand also reflects the buyer's image, fits the personality and thus becomes valuable to customers. Loyal consumers can acquire a brand, although it is more expensive than others or harder to find, because they perceive it as more valuable, better. The strength of brand loyalty is inversely proportional to the effectiveness of competition (the importance of actions decreases when consumers are more loyal to the brand chosen)²².

In addition to factors enhancing brand loyalty, which directly refer to the customer (endogenous factors), there are so-called exogenous factors that exist outside of consumers. These include, for example, brand features, the width of the company's assortment, the quality of products, services or the degree of market saturation. Loyalty factors, therefore, depend not only on the characteristics of the brand itself and the consumer, but also on factors

¹⁹ B. Kwarciak, *Wygodna klatka dla klienta*, „Modern marketing” 1999, No. 5/1999, www.modern-marketing.pl, (26.02.2018), p. 1.

²⁰ *Ibidem*, p. 2–3.

²¹ J. Kall, R. Kłeczek, A. Sagan, *Zarządzanie marką*, Kraków 2006, p. 13.

²² M. Dębski, *Kreowanie silnej marki...*, p. 40.

such as the social environment or market conditions²³. However, consumers can make a decision to buy a given brand under the influence of their current habits, low price, lack of other offers or their too high availability, while not being faithful to the product they use and not treating it as exceptional. It is necessary to distinguish loyalty from the habit of purchasing, because the phenomenon of re-purchasing a product of the same brand does not indicate consumer loyalty²⁴.

2.3. Intelligent enterprise and the creation of own brand

According to the literature the first descriptions of the intelligent organization took place in the 1990s in the publications of G. Pinchot and E. Pinchot, as well as J.B. Quinn. According to the first two authors, the requirement for an intelligent designation is to use the intelligence of their employees²⁵. By contrast, according to J.B. Quinn²⁶ intelligent organization transforms intellectual resources into a service chain that creates an offer for a certain group of customers with the most useful features. What is more, B. Dayyani²⁷ considers the intelligent organization to be the one that managed to create a knowledge base and competitive advantage in the area of customer value creation and information input. A number of interpretations of the concept of intelligent organization exist in the literature of the subject. It is also worth noting that the various aspects of its functioning are exposed, starting with the management of human capital, through learning, knowledge acquisition, and ending with gaining competitive advantage on the market²⁸.

Generally, in the in the global research practise many scholars stated that the structural architecture of an intelligent organization is flexible and responsive, shifting to meet new challenges and current situations. What makes it flexible is not the brilliance of organizational designers sitting at the top, but the free choices of people in the middle and bottom of the organization choosing the connections needed to make their particular enterprises thrive while developing synergistic integration with what is going on elsewhere. Therefore, intelligent organizations, in fact, operate as systems in which every employee sees his or her role in the context of a system of roles and defined outcomes that comprise in total the nature of their association's mission and purpose. Seeing their products, projects, and contributions in the context of an organization wide system allows all employees to channel their collective energies in the same direction. Besides, intelligent enterprises combine three aspects of being on the market: delivering of value for internal and external stakeholders, managing risk connected with the activity on the turbulent market, and managing relation-

²³ P. Kwiatek, *Programy lojalnościowe: budowa i funkcjonowanie*, Warsaw 2007, p. 38.

²⁴ J. Kall, R. Kłeczek, A. Sagan, *Zarządzanie marką...*, p. 25–26.

²⁵ G. Pinchot, E. Pinchot, *The Intelligent Organization*, "Executive Excellence" 1990, No. 7(12), p. 19.

²⁶ J.B. Quinn, *The Intelligent Enterprise a New Paradigm*, "The Academy Of Management Executive" 1992, No. 6(4), p. 48.

²⁷ B. Dayyani, *Structured Analytics: The Creation of the Intelligent Organization*, "World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology" 2009, No. 38, p. 97.

²⁸ H. Godlewska-Majkowska, *Inteligentna organizacja – dystrybucja wiedzy, kompetencje pracowników, miejsce na rynku*, Warsaw 2013, p. 11.

ship with different groups of stakeholders²⁹. Continuing the evolution of intelligent enterprise is about creating a future organization based on creation of the good image, excellent brand, creativity and improvement of human capital. In general, the specific characteristics of an intelligent enterprise can be defined by its features (Fig. 2).

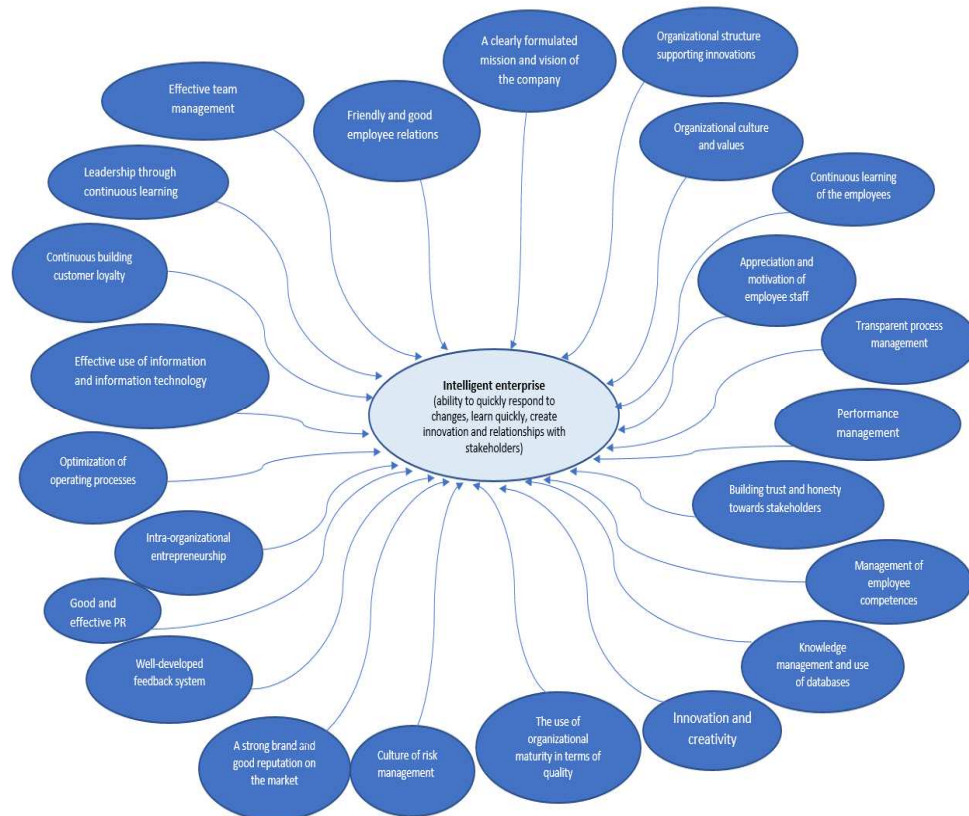


Figure 2. Features of the intelligent enterprise

Source: own study based on: P. Sydänmaanlakka, *An Intelligent Organization. Integrating Performance, Competence and Knowledge Management*, Capstone Publishing Limited, Oxford 2002, p. 168; W. Wereda, J. Woźniak, *Kryterium ryzyka w organizacji "zwinnej"*, „Nowoczesne Systemy Zarządzania” 2015, No. 10, p. 65; Report “Rewriting the rules for the digital age. 2017 Deloitte Global Human Capital Trends”, Deloitte University Press (03.01.2017), p. 25.

As it can be noted in the figure 2 the presented framework introduces the basic features for creating the intelligent enterprises. There are many aspects of internal and external process engaged in the activity. Knowledge management along with investing in human factor

²⁹ W. Wereda, J. Paliszkievicz, I.T. Lopes, J. Woźniak, K. Szwarz, *Intelligent Organization (IO) towards contemporary trends in the process of management – selected aspects*, Military University of Technology, Warsaw 2016, p. 35–37.

and initiating creative, innovative processes, good relation with employees and team work based on talents in the organization are the foundations of building human recourse friendly management model and effective structures (organizational culture, mission and vision). More can be found outside the enterprise as the model that stands out from the learning organization through increased operational flexibility, high adaptability to changes in the environment, development of an early warning system (culture of risk management), and blurring of organizational boundaries as well stakeholder relationship management processes (creation of the well-known brand, the good reputation etc.).

The formation of an intelligent enterprise requires many efforts and abilities from the organization, that is adapting to the environment based on continuous learning, creativity, taking into account new challenges resulting from qualitative and quantitative changes in the company's resources, acceptable risk, social and ecological acceptance, as well as creating trust and long-term relationships with stakeholders (Table 3).

Table 3. Elements shaping the intelligence of a modern enterprise

Type of intelligence	Definition
Technological intelligence	expressed in skilful creation, acquisition and use of appropriate technologies and their continuous improvement in order to obtain high quality products and develop new production areas
Innovative intelligence	perceived as a constant search for innovative solutions, as well as creating favourable financial, motivational and psychosocial conditions to promote innovation and creative behaviour of employees
Social intelligence	expressing concern for people, constant improvement of working conditions, pay, promotion, delegation of rights
Organizational intelligence	expressing itself in the ability to adapt the organization to changed tasks, creating simple, flexible structures, independently operating and ensuring excellent internal communication
Financial intelligence	running in skilful financial management, their rational division and spending on current goals and investments aimed at improving the conditions of the company's operation in the future
Marketing intelligence	expressed in a constant market research, quick perception of customers' needs and wishes, ability to search for market niches and enter new markets
Ecological intelligence	expressing special concern for environmental protection, reduction of harmful emissions and activities
Intelligence to acquire knowledge and data	expressing mainly with the ability to create and acquire knowledge quickly as well as to form appropriate databases to improve the enterprise's processes
Risk intelligence	the ability to more accurately distinguish between extreme probabilities of an opportunity or risk in terms of risk when making rational decisions - however, extremely hazardous from the point of view of the environment, but "intelligent" from the point of view of the person taking the risk.
Intelligence of trust	the ability to solidly create an aspect of trust "in the eyes" of all stakeholders through specific processes and characteristics of the enterprise, i.e. creating an image of a friendly employer, the reliability in sales, maintaining a certain level of quality of products/services, a quick response to consumer complaints, etc.

Table 3 (cont.). Elements shaping the intelligence of a modern enterprise

Type of intelligence	Definition
Intelligence of partnership and building relationships	the ability to establish partnership in the field of cooperation with both business and the public sector as well other entities, and the recognition as a strategic goal of maintaining long-term relationships with internal and external stakeholders.

Source: own study based on W.M. Grudzewski, L.K. Hejduk, *Przedsiębiorstwo przyszłości*, Warsaw 2011, p. 99–100; W. Wereda, *Koncepcja value innovation jako fundament organizacji opartej na innowacyjności i relacjach z interesariuszami* [In] *Mapa ryzyka w zarządzaniu organizacją. W kierunku organizacji opartej na innowacjach i kulturze ryzyka. Studia przypadków oraz dobre praktyki*, Ed. J. Woźniak, W. Wereda, Warsaw 2018, p. 92–93.

Summarizing, the process of creating the intelligent enterprise is long-lasting but is must be followed by all the members of the organization. That is why; the management of such organizations recognizes that the priority is to educate and improve people, and to prepare individual pathways for the development of employees in order to liberate their creative potential in individual and collective activities. What is more, the strength of intelligent enterprises is to increase the efficiency of processes, activities and communications. Organizational solutions such as limiting control and leaving employees with a high degree of freedom are what they do, which in turn creates engagement and fosters the development of the creative potential of employees. Furthermore, sources of success can be found in the continuous implementation of the rapid learning process, as well as the ability to transform information into knowledge, constant updating, renewal and creation of new knowledge resources, determine the competitive advantage of these organizations. In a broad context, knowledge management in intelligent enterprises enables to develop the skills to effectively adapt to changing of internal and external conditions. Through the use of intelligence, it is possible to understand the configuration of phenomena, trends in the changing environment, which is about the ability to use opportunities and avoid threats. Intelligent organizations are characterized not only by their ability to achieve distinctive results from the competition, but also by their ability to maintain market position over a long period of time³⁰. By such processes the intelligent enterprise creates own brand based on continuous learning, the high quality of products, quick reactions for the differentiated environment and the good reputation and image in the eyes of stakeholders.

2.4. Building relationships with stakeholders based on the strong brand

A contemporary enterprise is above all a complex system characterized by flexibility and agility in the understanding of its adaptation capabilities, adequately to changing conditions. Agility is de facto conditioned by the flexibility of the process structure and the extraction of these components from it, which foster a dynamic reorientation of tasks and their contractors according to the criterion of competence and the availability of time and space for various types of resources. The higher the level of integration of specific objectives (defined from the stakeholder's side) with global goals, the higher the synergistic effect of the entire multi-entity system. Integration is not only the care for consistency of operation

³⁰ W. Wereda, J. Paliszkiwicz, I.T. Lopes, J. Woźniak, K. Szwarz, *Intelligent Organization (IO)...*, p. 10–11.

in the conditions of changeability of the environment and the related flexibility of a given entity, but also the maximum use of own and foreign potential. That is why, to maintain intelligent processes and create the strong brand each enterprise needs to keep long-lasting relationships with stakeholders that can be defined as specified groups, institutions, persons that have influence on functioning and achieving goals by the entity, and they are interested in activities of the enterprise on different level and context³¹.

Maintaining a stakeholder in an organization is nothing more than building a continuous contact with one, which can turn into a long-term relationship. An important fact is defining the factors that cause stakeholder satisfaction and satisfaction with the product or after using a given service over a long period. According to the contemporary literature on the subject, for example keeping existing clients is easier than acquiring new ones. This is influenced by such aspects as:

- the stakeholder gained earns its loyalty during each transaction or contact;
- loyalty is built through the stakeholder satisfaction that has already benefited from the enterprise's services/goods or activities;
- the staff that serves the stakeholder is the guiding element in building trust;
- the value of the enterprise is created by satisfied and loyal stakeholders (employees, clients, providers, distributors etc.);
- high internal quality and solid motivation of employees allows better customer service³².

Stakeholders can be divided into two main groups from the point of view of the division into the surroundings: those belonging to the internal environment and those belonging to the external environment. In addition, according to the concept of stakeholders, there are two basic dimensions characterizing the relationship between the organization and individual groups of the environment, i.e. the potential for conflict and the potential for cooperation. Depending on the nature of mutual relations, organizations develop different strategies for managing contacts with specific stakeholder groups³³.

The human factor in contemporary organizations can be seen through the prism of a specific "leverage of the level of intelligence". These are employees at various levels (including designers and managers), owners and other stakeholder groups, including as a result of undertaking project-improvement activities of a passive or active character, make the organization an entity "living" in the environment, being able to adapt to this environment and shape the surrounding, for example through direct and effective communication with the customer to shape the brand image company. On the other hand, returning to the issue of the organization's relations with stakeholders, it is worth mentioning that these relations constitute the structure and current state (e.g. in the context of development capability, financial liquidity, credibility in the eyes of clients and partners, competitive potential, or the capacity of market communication channels) organization. Interactions combine dif-

³¹ R.E. Freeman, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*, Boston 1984, p. 21; W. Wereda, J. Paliszkiwicz, I.T. Lopes, J. Woźniak, K. Szwarz, *Intelligent Organization (IO)...*, p. 28.

³² P. Bartkowiak, *Sukces przedsiębiorstwa a zarządzanie wartością klienta*, „Zarządzanie i Finanse” R. 11, No. 4/ 2, 2013, p. 9–10.

³³ S. Kasiewicz, W. Rogowski, M. Kicińska, *Kapitał intelektualny. Spojrzenie z perspektywy interesariuszy*, Krakow 2006, p. 72–73; D. Mirońska, *Relacje z interesariuszami organizacji non profit z perspektywy marketingowej*, Warsaw 2016, p. 81–85.

ferent categories of resources (e.g. human resources are combined with information, material or financial resources creating relational resources). Thus, a look at changes in the conditions of the functioning of the organization and cooperation from the perspective of relations with stakeholders seems to be a legitimate activity (Table 4). What's more, changes in the conditions of the organization's functioning combine the perspectives of the internal and external environment. It is difficult to classify a specific trend or phenomenon only to one of the indicated planes of the environment. It results from the systemic and network character of relations in the context of social and economic life. For example, changes in legal

Table 4. Building relations with stakeholders in the process of contemporary changes in organizational and market conditions

Relations with internal stakeholders	Relations with external stakeholders
Moving towards modern business models, referring to crowdfunding, crowdsourcing, born global model, "empty" / "invisible" organizations, virtual structures, etc.).	The increase in the importance of regulation on a global scale and increasing the scope of their impact on the organization's activities.
Increased importance of innovation processes in the development of the organization and selection of the right strategy for creating innovation (innovations vs. imitations).	
Continuous increase in the role of the human factor – currently the human factor is one of the biggest barriers to increasing innovation.	The growing complexity and importance of globalization and “glocalisation” processes.
The increase in the importance of confidence-building processes (within the organization, on the level of relations between the organization and its environment, also in the dimension of relations on the macro- and mega economic levels).	
The increase in the role and importance of leadership, including strategic leadership, in shaping the economic security of the organization (internal and external).	
Occurrence of limited resources (technical and technological infrastructure, knowledge, social capital, finances etc.) during the development and development of the Big Data phenomenon, which continues to support the formation and improvement of knowledge-based economies as well as virtual structures in the global economy.	
The increase of complexity costs of created ICT technologies (ICTs).	
Shaping new key competences on the side of the organization and its external stakeholders.	
The increase of the role and importance of information asymmetry in basic and auxiliary processes and, at the same time, the existence of knowledge gap and information gap not only on a microeconomic scale, but also on the meso-, macro- and mega economic level.	
A focus primarily on building and strengthening relationships and building a value network.	
Reduction of operating costs (using, inter alia, contractual forms of cooperation in the area of R & D).	
Turning the organization into a universal and common Internet platform.	
Orientation of the organization to create value for stakeholders and to measure external effectiveness (projects implemented in the value chain / network).	
Openness of the organization for the transfer of information (knowledge), which favours the development of “agile”, “learning” and “intelligent” models.	

Source: J. Wozniak, W. Wereda, *Mapa ryzyka w zarządzaniu organizacją. W kierunku organizacji opartej na innowacjach i kulturze ryzyka. Studia przypadków oraz dobre praktyki*, Warsaw 2018, p. 15.

regulations determine the behaviour of employees and managerial staff, the activities of producers / designers can cause modifications in customer reactions, as well as the activities and experience of the organization's management staff (being the market leader) may determine changes in competitors 'or partners' strategies (e.g. providers of outsourcing services). The network of relations and the resources associated with them simultaneously determine the level of experience of all stakeholders and reflect the complexity of processes influencing the creation of the image of the organization's brand in the enterprise itself and in its environment³⁴.

In creating the strong brand in the enterprise it is vital to find loyal customers and then to maintain them by the organisation. According to practitioners and theoreticians, managing a one-off, a new client is much more expensive than focusing on those present one. Therefore, the relationship with a loyal customer should be multistage and it is extremely important to contact the customer after the transaction. Thanks to this, one can shape further offers for specific needs, find out what the customer considers an advantage and what a disadvantage. It is also worth, if complicated, prepare for packages that will reward inappropriate customer service. In this case, the client will definitely appreciate the company's efforts and will return in the future, letting go of the unpleasant event.³⁵ Therefore, effective building of customer relations requires compliance with several principles, which are described by A. Dejnaka³⁶:

1. **Concentration on customer maintenance**, i.e. taking care of already acquired customers and monitoring their needs; sometimes the company itself should also be able to anticipate future consumer needs. Henry Ford said that if at the turn of the 19th and 20th century he asked people what their transport needs were, they would probably reply that they need faster horses. Nobody, however, would say that he/she needs a car.
2. **Lifetime profit**. The client's value for the company is not determined by the size of the last transaction, therefore the company should focus on making the client make as many transactions as possible for the longest possible time.
3. **Applying post-transaction service**, that is, contacting the customer after the transaction, which increases the client's confidence in the company and builds its loyalty; post-trade contact is also an excellent opportunity to gather information about the needs and expectations of the client.
4. **Involving clients in the company's affairs**. Establishing long-lasting relationships with clients is not possible without building their commitment, which is why you need to engage clients in activities for the company (e.g. in recommending products or completing surveys), and then rewarding them for taking these actions. In this way, the company will match the goods / service to the customer's needs and consumers will become actual co-creators of the company's products (prosumers).

³⁴ J. Wozniak, W. Wereda, *Mapa ryzyka w zarządzaniu organizacją...*, p. 15–16.

³⁵ A.K. Mazurek-Kusiak, *Wpływ działań marketingowych małego przedsiębiorstwa na zadowolenie klientów z jakości usług na przykładzie biura podróży*, „Pismo Środowiska Badaczy Problemów Rynku: handel wewnętrzny, rynek, przedsiębiorstwo, konsumpcja, marketing” 2013, Vol. 2, No. 3, p. 226.

³⁶ A. Dejnaka, *Budowanie relacji z klientem* [In:] *Biblia e-biznesu*, Ed. M. Dutko, Publishing House Helion, Gliwice 2013, p. 393-400.

5. **Help in making decisions.** Not every customer knows exactly what product came to the store, so the help of customer service staff can be invaluable in this case. Today, you can also use automated help for this (e.g. chatbots).
6. **Maintaining constant two-way communication with the client.** The company cannot be deaf to messages from the client. The company must respond to changes in the client's needs and expectations, as well as inform him about new products and services on offer.
7. **Customization or matching the product to the customer's needs.** A good example of customization is Dell or Apple. Ordering computers over the Internet in this company consists in the fact that customers choose the parameters in which their equipment is to be equipped. In this way, customers can not only choose, but almost create products best suited to their needs.

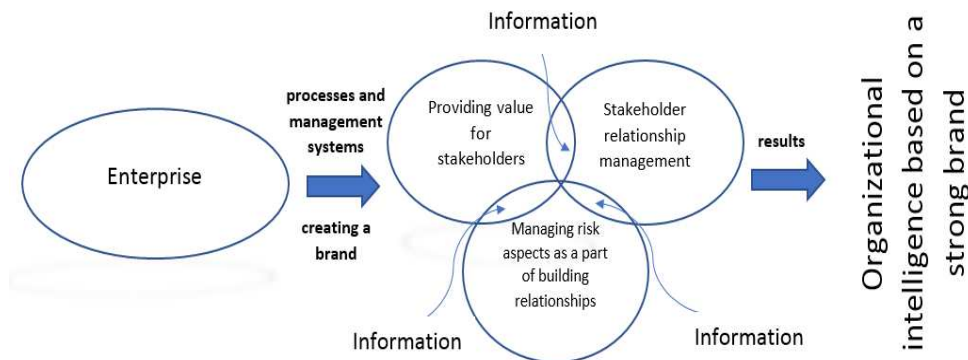


Figure 3. The combined elements of the success of the modern enterprise in the direction of “organizational intelligence” based on the process of creating a strong brand

Source: own elaboration based on: L. Bourne, *Stakeholder relationship management. A maturity model for organisational implementation*, Gower, Farnham 2009, p. 17.

Modern organizations are increasingly focused on the issues of so-called value networks, or networks of organizations that combine information flows and privileged relationships, enabling cooperation in the process of creating and providing value to stakeholders, and especially customers, to create their right image on the market. Of course, the risk is also an important element in this process by each party. Figure 3 presents the interrelationship between three elements, such as: providing value to stakeholders, managing risk aspects in relation to building relationships and managing relations with stakeholders. The key to effective management of a modern enterprise are: information, communication, effective processes and management systems, reporting on the supply of value, and the process of branding in the eyes of stakeholders, both internal as a good employer and external as a model trading partner on the market. Value delivery is measured and reported via reporting mechanisms. Successful implementation of processes in an enterprise depends on

the understanding of the operating system, which assumes that the development of successful results for the organization requires the simultaneous management of all three factors³⁷ – which ultimately leads to the creation of so-called. “Organizational intelligence” based on the creation of a strong brand on all levels.

3. APPLE AS THE BIGGEST BRAND OF THE INTELLIGENT ENTERPRISE – A CASE STUDY

3.1. Short history

According to many literature sources Apple is one of the leading and most valuable companies in the world, which consistently follows the path of permanent innovation, as well as built a leading position among global brands in the electronics industry. The company's activities are focused on both creating new markets and giving value to innovation and a new pace on existing ones. Apple was founded as a result of cooperation between Steve Jobs and Stephen Wozniak. What is surprising in 1976, both men started their activities in Jobs' bedroom, moving it to the garage. In the same year, a personal Apple I computer was created, which cost 666.66 dollars, and it was produced in 200 copies. A year later, Apple II was created, which was already mass-produced. The successor was easier to use and had more functions. The second model was the basis for education in the 80's and 90's³⁸. Over the next years, an Apple III computer was created for business, as well as an enhanced Apple IIe and an Apple Lisa computer. Over the last, Jobs did not work, so he took care of the project called Macintosh and the history started to be very vital for the company until 1985, when Steve Jobs left Apple for 10 years, after quarrel with another employee. Apple was in an increasingly bad financial condition. Subsequent products were not successful and were not popular among customers. In addition, Microsoft released the Windows 3.0 market, which became a direct rival of Apple. The advantage of Microsoft was the fact that the software was compatible with products from various, cheaper manufacturers³⁹. Apple regained good standing only when Jobs returned as the operations director. Already in 1998, the founder released a computer that was given the name iMac. On the computer market, it turned out to be a revolution, and moreover, as many as 800,000 iMac computers were sold over 139 days⁴⁰. Since the return of Steve Jobs, Apple's shares have increased sevenfold. The founder himself did not want to take over any packet of shares. But if he did, after a short time his stock would reach \$ 400 million⁴¹. The next big steps Apple made in 2007 launching the first iPhone, and in 2010 the iPad⁴². In 2011, Steve Jobs died, leaving Apple with a value of over 300 billion dollars. The power over the company was taken over by one of the trusted employee – Timothy D. Cook, who was responsible for minimizing costs and simplifying production processes⁴³.

³⁷ L. Bourne, *Stakeholder relationship management...*, p. 20-21.

³⁸ www.applecenter.pl (30.06.2018).

³⁹ D. Primack, *Fallen Apple: Steve Jobs resigns*. retrieved from CNN, August 24/2011.

⁴⁰ www.applecenter.pl (30.06.2018).

⁴¹ W. Isaacson, *Steve Jobs*. Simon&Schuster, New York 2011.

⁴² www.apple.com (30.06.2018).

⁴³ www.applecenter.pl (30.06.2018).

3.2. Apple and its brand

As it is presented in many technology journals, the company deals in the design and production of consumer electronics, software and personal computers. In recent years, thanks to new business models, created in the direction of building a specific culture on the market and innovative rules of competition in the IT industry, Apple has become the most recognized global brand. Due to the report the “BRANDZ TOP. 100 most valuable global brands in 2018” the Apple brand is gaining in value both from the investors' point of view, customer experience and other stakeholders. It is generally seen that the rise of technology is most apparent in the 12-year change of the Top 10 ranking. All but two brands are technology-related in 2018, compared with only four brands in 2006 (figure 4). The company has worked on its brand for years introducing different aspects of loyalty towards different stakeholders, for example with customers (good quality, easiness of use, prestige of having such products etc.), employees (good and well-paid jobs, possibilities of development, acceptance of working with minorities etc.), providers (good contracts based on satisfied prices and conditions, settlements on time etc.).

	2006	2018
1	 Microsoft	 Google
2		
3		
4	 中国移动 China Mobile	 Microsoft
5		 Tencent 腾讯
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		

Figure 4. List of top 10 global brands in 2006 and 2018

Source: Report “BRANDZ TOP. 100 most valuable global brands in 2018”, Kantar Mill Ward Brown. Retrieved from www.brandz.com (30.06.2018), p. 22.

During the market evolution the organization implemented new inventors, thanks to which it could enter new markets, e.g. TV or mobile payments, all the time activities and investments were carried out in the development of key products such as personal computer, iPod or iPad. The company itself presents its offer in the Annual Report, which shows that

“Apple Company designs, manufactures and markets mobile communication and media devices and personal computers, and sells a variety of related software, services, accessories, networking solutions and third-party digital content and applications. The Company’s products and services include iPhone®, iPad®, Mac®, Apple Watch®, Apple TV®, a portfolio of consumer and professional software applications, iOS, macOS®, watchOS® and tvOS™ operating systems, iCloud®, Apple Pay® and a variety of accessory, service and support offerings. The Company sells and delivers digital content and applications through the iTunes Store®, App Store®, Mac App Store, TV App Store, iBooks Store® and Apple Music® (collectively “Digital Content and Services”)”⁴⁴.

Due to the specificity of the industry, characterized by a high rate of technological change, the competitive advantage of the company depends primarily on its ability to maintain an appropriate innovative rhythm and customer experience. A key element of Apple's strategy is the continuous launch of new products and services on the market, as well as the development of technologies that support both the company's existing offer and create new business opportunities⁴⁵. According to the Annual Report the company describes its business strategy in few statements: “The Company is committed to bringing the best user experience to its customers through its innovative hardware, software and services. The Company’s business strategy leverages its unique ability to design and develop its own operating systems, hardware, application software and services to provide its customers products and solutions with innovative design, superior ease-of-use and seamless integration. As part of its strategy, the Company continues to expand its platform for the discovery and delivery of digital content and applications through its Digital Content and Services, which allows customers to discover and download digital content, iOS, Mac, Apple Watch and Apple TV applications, and books through either a Mac or Windows personal computer or through iPhone, iPad and iPod touch® devices (“iOS devices”), Apple TV and Apple Watch. The Company also supports a community for the development of third-party software and hardware products and digital content that complement the Company’s offerings. The Company believes a high-quality buying experience with knowledgeable salespersons who can convey the value of the Company’s products and services greatly enhances its ability to attract and retain customers. Therefore, the Company’s strategy also includes building and expanding its own retail and online stores and its third-party distribution network to effectively reach more customers and provide them with a high-quality sales and post-sales support experience. The Company believes ongoing investment in research and development (“R&D”), marketing and advertising are critical to the development and sale of innovative products, services and technologies”⁴⁶.

3.3. The company's technology market

In the literature on the subject, Apple is presented as an “exception confirming the rule”, because the company rejects the egalitarianism of society and their concept of “crowd wisdom”, adopting an elitist rule, which consists in low transparency of the company for the outside world. The organization is reluctant to disclose information about its activities, the development of new products and the participation of third parties in this process, which is

⁴⁴ *Annual Report of Apple Inc. 2017*, retrieved from www.apple.com, p. 4.

⁴⁵ M. Roszkowska-Menkes, *Otwarte innowacje: w poszukiwaniu równowagi*, Warsaw 2015, p. 199.

⁴⁶ *Annual Report of Apple Inc. 2017*, retrieved from www.apple.com, p. 4.

why this approach is often called “walled-garden”⁴⁷. It is based on the fact that Apple creates devices and software, fully controlling access to external API entities and the architecture of each of its products, and operating systems created by the company operate only on its devices, all applications can be operated only by these systems and only in these systems can be created⁴⁸. Fry claims that Steve Jobs's assumption was very much in the company's competitive advantage in terms of such a technology process, because a closed, confidential process allows creating such efficient “user-friendly” and stylish devices. In addition, “true innovation” means looking into the future, anticipating needs that no one has ever thought about, and then providing solutions that redefine the current new product categories⁴⁹.

Apple acknowledges that many of its products are partly based on the intellectual property of external entities from which the organization buys licenses or patents⁵⁰. Apple decides to buy technology or outsource some of the research and development activities primarily in relation to those elements of the value provided to consumers, which are the least important from the point of view of its competitive advantage. For example, Apple decided to cooperate strategically with Intel due to the fact that customers value computers not as microprocessors inside, but for a user-friendly interface and a functioning operating system⁵¹. The company uses the architecture of ARM processors in its mobile devices and Apple TV. The outsourcing also covered the process of designing Apple notebooks and creating, testing and maintaining software – in this respect the company cooperates with Indian companies Infosys and Wipro⁵². However, Jobs, a long-time company leader, was of the opinion that in order to succeed, employ outstanding people who want to do the best in the world⁵³, and support licensing and intellectual property from external entities. For this purpose, Apple annually maintains a high level of expenditure on research and development (about 2-3% of sales). Due to the global dissemination of products and the brand itself, the volume of sales increases from year to year on different continents (table 5).

3.4. Building relationships with clients as main stakeholders of Apple

Apple is one of the few companies that actually embody the values, quality and innovation proclaimed. Proof of this can be long queues of customers setting up in front of the stores on the day of the release of the latest products. Apple focuses on simple solutions in an original housing. The best example is the iPad and iPhone. Due to the values that the company has been following in the creation of its products, there are as many as 25 exhibits of this brand in the Museum of Modern Art in New York⁵⁴. Apple is a customer-oriented brand. A perfect example is the iPod with software and service. Digital music recording has

⁴⁷ S. Fry, *Steve Jobs, 2011*, retrieved from www.stephenfry.com (30.06.2018).

⁴⁸ M. Roszkowska-Menkes, *Otwarte innowacje...*, p. 200.

⁴⁹ S. Fry, *Steve Jobs, 2011...*

⁵⁰ *Annual Report of Apple Inc. 2017*, retrieved from www.apple.com, p. 9.

⁵¹ K.R. Lahkani, H. Lifshitz-Assaf, M.L. Tushman, *Open innovation and organizational boundaries. The impact of task decomposition and knowledge distribution on the Locus of Innovation*, Working paper 12-057/2012, Harvard Business School, May.

⁵² P. Mishra, *Apple CIO O'Connor visited Bangalore in January: Will it be iNDIA after iPhone, iPad?*. “The Economic Times”2012, retrieved from www.bit.ly (20.07.2018).

⁵³ K. Bhasin, *Hire people who want to make the best things in the world. Business Insider*. 25.08.2011, retrieved from www.bit.ly.

⁵⁴ S. Lachowski, *Droga ważniejsza niż cel. Wartości w życiu i biznesie*, Warsaw 2012, p. 335.

become easy and convenient. The strategy used allowed to sell music in iTunes with a low margin and high-end iPods⁵⁵. It is also worth mentioning the film promoting the Apple brand, in which Steve Jobs himself spoke. He stressed that the guiding value is the ability to think differently. This idea has been guiding employees since the founding of the company until today. The great value that Apple praises is care for the environment. In its report on environmental protection, the company provides the following data⁵⁶:

- at the headquarters in the USA, 80% is open space with 9,000 drought resistant trees;
- the main office uses 100% renewable energy;
- 99% of paper used for packaging production comes from recycling;
- a recycling program has been introduced that can be used for all Apple products used;
- carbon dioxide emissions from Apple's production lines have been steadily declining year by year.

Table 5. Net sales by operating segment and net sales and unit sales by product for 2017, 2016 and 2015 (dollars in millions and units in thousands)

	2017	Change	2016	Change	2015
Net Sales by Operating Segment:					
Americas	\$ 96,600	12 %	\$ 86,613	(8)%	\$ 93,864
Europe	54,938	10 %	49,952	(1)%	50,337
Greater China	44,764	(8)%	48,492	(17)%	58,715
Japan	17,733	5 %	16,928	8 %	15,706
Rest of Asia Pacific	15,199	11 %	13,654	(10)%	15,093
Total net sales	<u>\$ 229,234</u>	6 %	<u>\$ 215,639</u>	(8)%	<u>\$ 233,715</u>
Net Sales by Product:					
iPhone ⁽¹⁾	\$ 141,319	3 %	\$ 136,700	(12)%	\$ 155,041
iPad ⁽¹⁾	19,222	(7)%	20,628	(11)%	23,227
Mac ⁽¹⁾	25,850	13 %	22,831	(10)%	25,471
Services ⁽²⁾	29,980	23 %	24,348	22 %	19,909
Other Products ⁽¹⁾⁽³⁾	12,863	16 %	11,132	11 %	10,067
Total net sales	<u>\$ 229,234</u>	6 %	<u>\$ 215,639</u>	(8)%	<u>\$ 233,715</u>
Unit Sales by Product:					
iPhone	216,756	2 %	211,884	(8)%	231,218
iPad	43,753	(4)%	45,590	(17)%	54,856
Mac	19,251	4 %	18,484	(10)%	20,587

(1) Includes deferrals and amortization of related software upgrade rights and non-software services.

(2) Includes revenue from Digital Content and Services, AppleCare, Apple Pay, licensing and other services. Services net sales in the fourth quarter of 2017 included a favourable one-time adjustment of \$640 million due to a change in estimate based on the availability of additional supporting information.

(3) Includes sales of Apple TV, Apple Watch, Beats products, iPod touch and Apple-branded and third-party accessories.

Source: Annual Report of Apple Inc., 2017, p. 26.

⁵⁵ A. Stabryła, *Strategie rozwoju organizacji*, Krakow 2012, p. 200.

⁵⁶ *Environmental Responsibility Report. Apple Inc. 2017 Progress Report*, Covering Fiscal Year 2016., retrieved from www.apple.com (30.06.2018), p. 4–9.

Apple also cares about the diversity of employees. It is not important what sex they have, what is their religion or what their skin colour is. Given the tolerance, further development is possible. The company also creates inside organizations that help employees feel an important part of the company, belonging and understood. The following organizations were established: Association of African American Workers; Amigos @ Apple; Association of Jewish Workers; Association of Islamic Workers; Women @ Apple⁵⁷. There is a belief in marketing that satisfied employees are satisfied customers. In the case of Apple, the employees themselves are the attorneys of the organization and build the reputation of the products and brand outside.

Apple is a global brand also in the eyes of customers, recognized around the world, which is why it is characterized by multi-channel shopping and information sources. However, it should be noted that Apple has not been characterized by multi-channelling from the very beginning. According to market experts, in the past, the Management Board did not fully accept brokers in their sales. In addition to its stores, e.g. the iPhone was only available through cellular networks. None of the store chains offering electronic devices could meet all the requirements for Apple. This company sets requirements much stricter for its intermediaries than other large competitors⁵⁸. Apple's multi-channel policy changed only in 2014. Then Komputronik and Sferis were authorized to sell the company's products⁵⁹. Authorization gives the possibility of online stores with electronic devices a chance for big development.

As mentioned earlier, Apple prefers to strictly control its sales, so initially it was run only through its own distribution channels, which is why the iSpot chain of stores was established. Customers can find there a full range of Apple products. Each of the outlets must, however, comply with the strict rules of the Apple Premium Reseller program. Therefore, the employees have specialist certificates. In this way, they have a better chance to meet customer expectations, advice and present products. For example, in Poland, there are 25 iSpot stores⁶⁰. iSpot stores offer a wide range of pre-sale and after-sales services as well as others. Among them, customers can count on:

- trimming the SIM card;
- download photos to a portable storage medium;
- restore the Apple ID password;
- reset the device;
- copy the address book;
- diagnose the device;
- train with selected applications;
- configure the device;
- restore the system;
- start the device for the first time;
- clean the device⁶¹.

⁵⁷ *Supplier Responsibility, Progress Report 2018*, retrieved from www.apple.com (30.06.2018), p. 1–59.

⁵⁸ www.crn.pl, (30.06.2018).

⁵⁹ *Rozszerzenie współpracy z Apple KOMPUTRONIK*, retrieved from www.komputronik.com (30.06.2018).

⁶⁰ www.ispot.pl, (30.06.2018).

⁶¹ *Ibidem*.

Accordingly, employees must be well trained and certified to provide services at the highest level of the Apple salon. It is also worth paying attention to the fact that iSpot is not only a network of stationary stores, but also online sales. In this way, Apple adapts to the modern requirements of customers.

Apple is also characterized by multichannel sources of information. As it has already been mentioned, there are specialists in company showrooms who will provide reliable information about the brand and its products. However, you should also pay attention to the website, which is especially extensive in English, so that you can find out almost everything about the company.

Building relationships and customer loyalty is a phenomenon that shows how customers identify with the brand. A brand with many loyal consumers has a good chance of getting new ones. Loyalty is also connected with the fact that clients are able to pay for a given brand much more than they would have done in the case of an indifferent company. It is believed that Apple has the most loyal customers in the world. It comes to the situation that when a new product is to enter the market, customers can queue up a few days earlier in front of the store and create a shopping queue list to buy a new release released by Apple⁶².

The most important feature of Apple, through which the company builds relationships and gains customer loyalty, is the confirmation that it is not completely original, but the company repeatedly stressed, for example, that it is not the originator of the mp3 player, but only recreated the idea in a different way than others. In addition, representatives emphasize that the market does not release products that are not better than their predecessors, which is why every time customers can count on a full-fledged, aesthetic and high-quality product. It is also stressed that customer loyalty is associated with a good product. Otherwise, there is no way to gain such favour and trust among customers⁶³. As shown below, Apple has twice as many customer loyalties than most competitors. In 2013 the Wall Street Journal commissioned a survey of U.S., U.K. and Australian Smartphone owners to see which manufacturers had the most loyal customers and of course on the top was 76% of respondents with an Apple iPhone. Samsung was next in the survey with a 58% retention rate. Third place was LG. 37% of the respondents with an LG Smartphone, and then Nokia and HTC were close to LG with retention rates of 33% and 30% respectively. Sony (24%), Motorola (22%) and BlackBerry (21%) finished the list (Figure 5).

Summing up the considerations regarding building a relationship through Apple, we should mention the research developed by the CIO portal, which collected the six most important features of Apple, which are valued by loyal customers and thus create relationships with the organization. Among them, there are:

- iCloud;
- iOS software;
- X-AXIS;
- style;
- appearance;
- credibility⁶⁴.

⁶² S. Schneiders, *Apple's secret of success – traditional marketing vs. cult marketing*, Diplomica Verlag, Hamburg 2011, p. 20.

⁶³ www.betanews (30.06.2018).

⁶⁴ www.cio.com (30.06.2018).

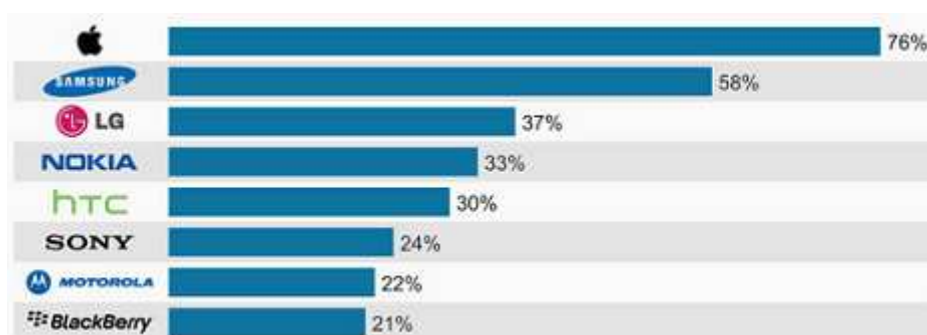


Figure 5. Customer loyalty towards Smartphone brands (2013)

Source: Survey of Smartphone owners shows the power of brand loyalty PHONEARENA, www.phonearena.com, retrieved 30.06.2018.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The brand occupies a significant place among the marketing instruments of a modern enterprise. Its position determines the level of enterprise's competitiveness can increase its value and support the processes of winning markets. Undoubtedly, the brand also plays an important role in consumer purchasing decisions, helps to avoid wrong choices, provides consumers with proven quality and increases stakeholders' trust in the company. It is the brand that is the leader among the tools of competing on the market, which proves the company's position and its recognition among various stakeholder groups. Brands draw companies, they rank them mechanically to particular levels of the market, and the condition of the company is directly proportional to the condition of the brands it wields. Taking care of the brand, care is taken for the success of the business as well as for the trust associated with its identification on the market. What's more, its status influences the product, price, shape of the promotion or distribution channels as well as the experiences of the closest stakeholders. This means that as the brand's strength, level of recognition and number of positive associations evokes the company's position in the eyes of its partner's increases as well. Caring about quality, building loyalty among employees (creating employer branding) and external (shaping branding) ensures the possibility of bold application of the policy of high prices and makes the form of promotion on the market dependent on this, as the Apple company is an excellent example.

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KREOWANIE MARKI PRZEDSIĘBIORSTWA INTELIGENTNEGO POPRAWIEZ BUDOWANIE RELACJI Z INTERESARIUSZAMI

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie procesu kreowania marki w inteligentnej organizacji, opartej głównie na budowaniu relacji z interesariuszami. We współczesnych organizacjach wiele uwagi poświęca się różnym poziomom inteligencji organizacyjnej, wspieranej przez kreatywność i innowacje różnych grup interesów. Interesariusze wewnętrzni i zewnętrzni coraz częściej bezpośrednio wskazują na to, co ma największy wpływ na ich satysfakcję lub niezadowolenie w ramach współpracy z przedsiębiorstwem. Wiele międzynarodowych badań dowodzi, że silna marka zwiększa liczbę korzyści dla organizacji, takich jak: wzbudzenie zaufania wśród zainteresowanych stron z punktu widzenia produktów/usług czy kultury organizacyjnej przedsiębiorstwa, szansa na budowanie lojalności klientów, psychologiczna ocena wizerunku organizacji, umożliwienie pozycjonowania firmy na rynku percepcji oraz w cyberprzestrzeni, stabilizowanie pozycji rynkowej przedsiębiorstwa i inne. Zainteresowane strony w większości przypadków oczekują więcej inicjatyw od przedsiębiorstwa w ramach procesu wspólnego zaangażowania, a organizacja może osiągnąć przez to wiele celów, zaspokajając potrzeby partnerów i tworząc silną markę na rynku. Zatem można założyć, iż budowanie stałych relacji z interesariuszami oraz wzmacnianie ich zaangażowania we współczesnym świecie biznesu ma permanentne znaczenie w kreowaniu marki oraz wizerunku każdej organizacji. Autorka stara się zdefiniować cechy marki inteligentnej organizacji i wymienić różne aspekty

„inteligencji” w przedsiębiorstwie, na podstawie literatury przedmiotu i własnych badań, czyli na przykładzie studium przypadku – prezentując działania firmy Apple.

Słowa kluczowe: kreowanie marki, przedsiębiorstwo inteligentne, relacje z interesariuszami, firma Apple

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.58

Tekst złożono do redakcji: wrzesień 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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SPIRITUALITY AND JOB SATISFACTION. MEDIATING ROLE OF STRESS, GRATITUDE TOWARDS ORGANIZATION AND TRUST IN SUPERVISOR. MODERATING ROLE OF RELIGIOUS PRACTICES

Spirituality is a relevant factor for employees job satisfaction. The aim of the study was to verify mechanisms of the positive impact of employees spirituality on job satisfaction through the reduction of stress, increased trust in the supervisor and gratitude towards organization. Additional aim was to check moderate role of religious practices measuring frequency of prayer and frequency of Mass attendance between employees spirituality and job satisfaction. The subjects of conducted research. Were 804 employees from the different organizations. The following measures were used: Employees Spirituality Scale, Gratitude Towards Organization Scale, Trust in Supervisor Scale, Perceived Stress at Work Questionnaire and one item measures regarding job satisfaction, frequency of Mass attendance and frequency of prayer. Gratitude towards organization mediated between spirituality and job satisfaction. Trust in supervisor was a mediator between attitude towards coworkers and job satisfaction. Additionally stress mediated between relationship with God or another "Higher Power" and job satisfaction. Moderating effect of frequency of prayer and frequency of Mass attendance between relationship to God or another "Higher Power" and job satisfaction as well as attitude towards coworkers was confirmed. The important role of employees spirituality for their job satisfaction was confirmed. Recognized mechanisms responsible for indirect positive impact of spirituality on job satisfaction through the gratitude towards organization, trust in supervisor support and stress.

Keywords: employees spirituality, gratitude towards organization, trust in supervisor, stress, job satisfaction.

1. INRODUCTION

In the last few years there has been an increase interest in employees spirituality research in the context of the function that this sphere of life plays for well-being². There is a lack of

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² F. Karakas, *Spirituality and performance in organizations: a literature review*, "Journal of Business Ethics" 2010, Vol. 94, No. 1, p. 89–106.

research in Poland in this area. In the literature we can recognize mechanisms responsible for influence religious and spiritual facets of life on health, quality of life and well-being³. There is a visible deficit of research that would be embedded explaining how in the area of occupational functioning spirituality affects employees well-being. The aim of the study was verification, depiction and explanation of the mechanisms how religious-spiritual activities impact on occupational wellbeing measuring job satisfaction.

Spirituality was verified from a functional point of view in relation to the function that it plays for everyday work⁴ taking into account its individual, not organizational level, concerning the individual experience of each employee in the workplace, regardless of whether the organization supports these experiences and creating conditions for the employees to manifest this sphere of life⁵. The attitude towards God or another “Higher Power” referred to cognitive representation of this phenomenon and the relationship with it based on trust, openness, or a sense of security regardless of whether such a being exist. The attitude towards God was used in the text interchangeably with the relationship with God. Job satisfaction was measured by the general cognitive evaluation of job as a whole.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Employees spirituality and religious involvement

According to Wnuk the employees spirituality consists of two dimensions: a relationship to God or another “Higher Power” and an attitude towards co-workers and organization⁶. The first of them has a religious character and a second one has a secular inclination. God gives the employees a sense of guidance, makes it possible to overcome their limitations, facilitates finding the meaning and purpose at work and is a source of consolation, support and coping. Attitude towards co-workers and organization is defined as a care and concern for the organization interest, counteracting injustices at work, sharing knowledge and experiences, facilitating fulfilling colleagues needs and the ability to appreciate others employees and perceive their dignity as well as a respect⁷.

Among religiously involved employees, this sphere of life is positively connected with the relationship with God. Religious practices are a good opportunity for employees to build and strengthen bonds with God. It means that the religious dimension of spirituality can be shaped by religious practices, while the secular dimension of spirituality is probably not related to religious involvement being affected by non-religious values. Based on this

³ M. Wnuk, J.T. Marcinkowski, *Do existential variables mediate between religious-spiritual facets of functionality and psychological wellbeing*. “Journal of Religion and Health” 2014, Vol. 53, No. 1, p. 56–67; C.L. Park, *Religiousness/Spirituality and health: A meaning systems perspective*, “Journal Behavioral Medicine” 2007, Vol. 30, p. 319–328; P. Van Cappellen, M. Toth-Gauthier, V. Saroglou, B.L. Fredrickson, *Religion and well-being: The mediating role of positive emotions*, “Journal of Happiness Studies” 2015, p. 1–21.

⁴ M. Wnuk, *The Employee Spirituality Scale as a New Measure of Employees' Spiritual Activity*, “Current Psychology” 2018 (in review process).

⁵ R.W. Kolodinsky, R.A. Giacalone, C.L. Jurkiewicz, *Workplace values and outcomes: Exploring personal, organizational and interactive workplace spirituality*, “Journal of Business Ethics” 2008, Vol. 81, p. 465–480.

⁶ M. Wnuk, *The Employee Spirituality Scale...*

⁷ *Ibidem*.

assumption prayer and Mass attendance should be positively correlated with the attitude towards God and not be related to the attitude towards co-workers and organization. According to Zarzycka religious engagement among Poles has no impact on life attitudes, political choices or attitudes towards important worldview values⁸.

Hypothesis 1: Among Polish employees religious practices are positively correlated with the relationship with God and there are not related to attitude towards co-workers and organization

The relative independence of both spirituality dimensions can be explained by the employees religious involvement. Religious people have a tendency to identify religiosity with spirituality, using these concepts interchangeably, while for non-religious people who define themselves as spiritual religiosity is something separate from spirituality. It means that one can develop their spirituality outside religious sphere of life⁹. For those who often use religious practices, relationship with God as a religious dimension of spirituality may be a matrix for shaping attitudes towards co-workers and organization, while for those who pray rarely or not at all and do not attend Mass, the religious dimension of spirituality may not be related with its secular factor. Religious practices can be a moderator of the relationship between the two dimensions of employees spirituality.

Also among religious people, involvement in this sphere of life has a positive impact on well-being, but only among nations with a high religiosity indicator. In the studies of Okulicz-Kozaryn and Sabatier et al. conducted among religious societies religiosity was positively related to life satisfaction¹⁰. Taking into account the fact that according to Zarzycka research Poles are a very religious nation, because only 5% of the population describes themselves as nonreligious¹¹, it should be assumed that the religious dimension of employees spirituality will be positively related to their job satisfaction only among employees with a high level of religious involvement and only in this group of participants will be correlated with an attitude towards co-workers and organization.

Hypothesis 2: Religious practices as a prayer and Mass attendance moderate relationship between relationship with God and attitude towards co-workers and organizations as well as job satisfaction.

2.2. Spirituality, gratitude and job satisfaction

Most of recent studies have confirmed that the spiritual and religious sphere of functioning influence on mental and occupational well-being¹². In the Walker study employees faith was negatively related to the intent to leave the an organization and positively corre-

⁸ B. Zarzycka, *Tradition or Charisma-Religiosity in Poland* [In:] *Religion Monitor 2008. Europe Overview of Religious Attitudes and Practices*, Gütersloh, Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2008, p. 26–29.

⁹ M. Wnuk, *The Employee Spirituality Scale...*

¹⁰ A. Okulicz-Kozaryn, *Religiosity and Life Satisfaction Across Nations*, "Mental Health, Religion and Culture" 2010, Vol. 13, No. 2, p. 155–169; C. Sabatier, B. Mayer, M. Friedlmeier, K. Lubiewska, G. Trommsdorff, *Religiosity, family orientation, and life satisfaction of adolescents in four countries*, "Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology" 2011, Vol. 42, p. 1375–1393.

¹¹ B. Zarzycka, *Tradition or Charisma...*, p. 26–29.

¹² F. Karakas, *Spirituality and performance...*, p. 89–106; M. Wnuk, J.T. Marcinkowski, *Do existential variables...*, p. 56–67; C.L. Park, *Religiosity/Spirituality and health...*, p. 319–328.

lated with all three types of organizational commitment¹³. Affeldt and MacDonald confirmed that various aspects of religiosity are positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work ethics and organizational citizenship behavior¹⁴. In other studies, the sanctification of work was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, intend to leave an organization and organizational commitment¹⁵.

In the literature there is a lack of research explaining how the involvement in the spiritual sphere of life affects occupational well-being. There is an evidence that the relations between the employees spirituality and their occupational well-being has an indirect character. Some researchers try to identify the mechanisms of the influence spiritual-religious facets on occupational well-being using mediating variables. For example, among the employees from one of the hospices located in the USA, mediators between the spirituality and job satisfaction were the integration of spirituality at work and self-actualization¹⁶.

It seems that one of the variables mediating between the spiritual activity of employees and job satisfaction is gratitude towards organization. Gratitude towards organization is a moral attitude consisting of two elements in the form of a generalized conviction that one should be grateful for everything he receives and experiences, the ability to see the good that he has been gifted and emotional reaction appearing in a specific situation of receiving a certain good, accompanied by a commitment and the need to reciprocate motivated by norm of reciprocity¹⁷.

In the Van Cappellen et al. study gratitude as an emotion mediated in the relationship between spirituality and well-being¹⁸. In other study gratitude as virtue was a mediator between religiosity and spirituality and well-being because of the ability to forgive and create an altruistic attitude¹⁹. According to Emmons five factors model of spiritual intelligence consists of ability to engage in virtuous attitudes such as showing forgiveness, expressing gratitude, being humble, showing compassion, and the ability to use spiritual resources to solve problems²⁰. In the Manning study one of the three elements of spiritual resilience

¹³ A.G. Walker, *The relationship between the integration of faith and work with life and job outcomes*, "Journal of Business Ethics" 2013, Vol. 112, p. 453–461.

¹⁴ D.L. Affeldt, D.A. MacDonald, *The relationship of spirituality to work and organizational attitudes and behaviors in a sample of employees from a health care system*, "Journal of Transpersonal Psychology" 2010, Vol. 42, No. 2, p. 192–208.

¹⁵ S.T. Carroll, J.A. Stewart-Sickingb, B. Thompson, *Sanctification of work: assessing the role of spirituality in employment attitudes* Stephen, "Mental Health, Religion and Culture" 2014, Vol. 17, No. 6, p. 545–556.

¹⁶ L. Clark, S. Leedy, L. McDonald, B. Muller, C. Lamb, T. Mendez et al., *Spirituality and job satisfaction among hospice interdisciplinary team member*, "Journal of Palliative Medicine" 2007, Vol. 10, No. 6, p. 1321–1328.

¹⁷ M. Wnuk, *Rola managerów dla satysfakcji z pracy pracowników w kontekście wymiany społecznej*, "Ekonomika i Organizacja Przedsiębiorstwa" 2018 (w trakcie recenzji).

¹⁸ P. Van Cappellen, M. Toth-Gauthier, V. Saroglou, B.L. Fredrickson, *Religion and well-being...*, p. 1–21.

¹⁹ S. Sharma, K. Singh, *Religion and well-being: the mediating role of positive virtues*, "Journal of Religion and Health" 2018, P. 1–13.

²⁰ R.A. Emmons, *Is spirituality an intelligence? Motivation, cognition, and the psychology of ultimate concern*. "The International Journal for the Psychology of Religion" 2000, Vol. 10, No. 1, p. 3–26.

beyond the support of God and the maintenance of the goal was the expression of gratitude²¹.

Spirituality can influence gratitude towards organization, both through its religious and secular dimension. The relationship with God, as well as the attitude towards co-workers and the organization facilitate employees perceive benefits they receiving both from organization and its representatives as a chance to meet valuable people and build a positive relationship with them, develop professional and personal experiences, or the acquisition of valuable work experiences. Grateful attitude contains a wide range of phenomena, beings, or things such as people, situations, life circumstances, experiences, spiritual resources, internal qualities, future positive experiences, well-being and blessing²².

According to Wnuk the source of gratitude towards the organization that leads to greater job satisfaction is interpersonal justice as well as perceived supervisor and organizational support²³. Employees being convinced that the organization cares about their well-being and their supervisor treats them with kindness and dignity feel gratitude towards the organization, which improve their job satisfaction. Another source of gratitude towards an organization that influence job satisfaction seems to be the employees spirituality. Park has described the mechanisms of the influence of religiosity/spirituality on various aspects of health through the meaning of life, optimism, hope stress and gratitude²⁴.

Hypothesis 3: Employees gratitude towards organization mediate between their spirituality, and job satisfaction as well as level of stress.

2.3. Spirituality, stress and job satisfaction

From the organization point of view, improving the employees well-being can occur as a result of ensuring a working environment conducive to the expression of spirituality, leading to increased job satisfaction through stress reduction as well as preventing burnout and workaholism. Any employee can use their religious and spiritual inclinations to struggle with everyday problems at work.

Religious people are more likely to use religious coping²⁵, and positive references to God improve well-being, while blaming God is connected with reduced quality of life²⁶. Relation with God can help employees reduce everyday stress at work by appealing to God in difficult moments, seeking support and consolation on his part or finding meaning and purpose at work.

²¹ L.K. Manning, *Enduring as lived experience: exploring the essence of spiritual resilience for women in late life*, "Journal of Religion and Health" 2014, Vol. 53, p. 352–362.

²² P.H. Friedman, *Creating well-being: The healing path to love, peace, self-esteem and happiness*. Saratoga, CA: R and E Publishers 1989.

²³ M. Wnuk, *Rola managerów dla satysfakcji...*; M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie otrzymywane od przełożonego jako istotny czynnik dla satysfakcją z pracy podległych im pracowników – weryfikacja modelu*. „Medycyna Pracy” 2018 (w przygotowaniu redakcyjnym).

²⁴ C.L. Park, *Religiosity/Spirituality and health...*, p. 319–328.

²⁵ K.I. Pargament, *The psychology of religion and coping*, Guilford, New York 1997.

²⁶ K.I. Pargament, H.G. Koenig, L.M. Perez, *The many methods of religious coping: development and initial validation of RCOPE*, "Journal of Clinical Psychology" 2000, Vol. 56, No. 4, p. 519–543; K.I. Pargament, N. Tarakeshwar, Ch.G. Ellison, K.M. Wulff, *Religious coping among the religious: The relationship between religious coping and well-being in the national sample of presbyterian clergy, elders and members*, "Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion" 2001, Vol. 40, No. 3, p. 497–513.

On the other hand lower level of employees stress contribute to their well-being at work. In the Wnuk study conducted among employees of one large IT organization stress reduction as a result of supervisor support lead to higher job satisfaction²⁷.

Stress can also be a mediator between the relationship with God as a source of support in dealing with everyday professional problems and job satisfaction. One of the mechanisms described by Park implies the mediating role of stress between religious and spiritual sphere of functioning and quality of life, indicating on the positive role of religious and spiritual aspects of life for reducing stress, which in turn lead to improve well-being²⁸.

Another source of stress reduction may be gratitude towards organization. According to Wnuk gratitude towards organization may reduce stress at work improving indirectly job satisfaction²⁹. Wood et al. in their longitudinal studies have shown that gratitude protects against stress and depression³⁰.

Hypothesis 4: Stress at work mediate between employees relationship with God and job satisfaction. Another predictor of stress reduction is gratitude towards organization

2.4. Spirituality, trust in supervisor and job satisfaction

In the literature we can see lack of research concerning relationship between employees spirituality and trust in supervisor. In the study of Sendjaya and Pekerti conducted on 555 employees from two educational institutions, the management through the service of the leader reflected through morally responsible behaviors had an positive impact on building subordinates trust³¹. In the Kurt et al. study spirituality at work was a predictor of trust³², while according to Hassan et al. trust at work is a total mediator between spirituality and job satisfaction³³. Trust, that is shaped in the relations between the supervisor and the subordinates, in addition to the contextual factors and attributes possessed by the leader, is based on the experiences and personality traits of supervisor³⁴.

The key factors necessary to create a trust-based relationship between the supervisor and subordinates is risk taken by the subordinate who may be harm by the supervisor and his potential readiness to hurt, as well as his expectation of appropriate treatment by the supervisor³⁵. In this context, subordinates who present a positive attitude towards co-workers and organization which is represented by supervisor³⁶ may have a greater propensity to

²⁷ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

²⁸ C.L. Park, *Religiousness/Spirituality and health...*, p. 319–328.

²⁹ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

³⁰ A.M. Wood, J.J. Froh, A.W. Geraghty, *Gratitude and well-being: A review and theoretical integration*, "Clinical Psychology Review" 2010, Vol. 30, p. 890–905.

³¹ S. Sendjaya, A. Pekerti, *Servant leadership as antecedent of trust in organizations*, "Leadership & Organization Development Journal" 2010, Vol. 31, No. 7, p. 643–663.

³² Y. Kurt, M. Yamin, N. Sinkovic, R.R. Sinkovics, *Spirituality as an antecedent of trust and network commitment: the case of anatolian tigers*, "European Management Journal" 2016, Vol. 34, No. 6, p. 686–700.

³³ M. Hassan, A.B. Nadeem, A. Akhter, *Impact of workplace spirituality on job satisfaction: mediating effect of trust*, "Cogent Business & Management" 2016, Vol. 13, No. 1, p. 1–15.

³⁴ M. Wnuk, *Skala zaufania do przełożonego jako narzędzie do mierzenia zaufania do menadżerów*, "Organizacja i Kierowanie" 2018 (w trakcie recenzji).

³⁵ *Ibidem*.

³⁶ H. Levinson, *Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization*. "Administrative Science Quarterly" 2001, Vol. 9, No. 4, p. 370–390.

expect a positive attitude of the supervisor towards each other and to display greater tolerance for the risk of potential harm inflicted on their part. It means that employees with a more positive attitude towards co-workers and organization can present a higher level of trust in supervisor.

On the other hand, a positive relationship with supervisor based on trust and perception of support on his part is an important factor for subordinates occupational well-being. Among Australians, the majority of the using measures of trust were positively related to life satisfaction³⁷. In the Ward study trust in the team was positively related to satisfaction³⁸. Among employees recruited from various organizations located in Poland perceived supervisor support was a positive predictor of subordinates job satisfaction³⁹.

Hypothesis 5: Trust in supervisor mediate between attitude towards co-workers and subordinates job satisfaction.

2.5. Gratitude as a mediating variable between trust in supervisor and subordinates job satisfaction

The supervisor does not treat all employees in the same way, favoring some at the expense of others⁴⁰. Those who are convinced that their supervisor cares about them and supports them in their activities in accordance with the rule of reciprocity⁴¹ experience an obligation to repay the organization represented by supervisor⁴², and the result of their gratitude attitude towards organization is their greater job satisfaction⁴³. In a sample of employees from one large organization from Poland, gratitude towards organization partially mediated between perceived supervisor support and job satisfaction⁴⁴.

Hypothesis 6: Gratitude towards organization mediate between trust in supervisor and subordinate job satisfaction.

2.6. Stress at work as a mediating variable between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction

Relationship with supervisor can be both a source of stress and a way to reduce tension at work. Based on mutual trust, mutual respect and support, it helps to reduce stress at work⁴⁵. Supervisor is the most important source for subordinate support at

³⁷ B. Tranter, Z. Skrbis, *Interpersonal trust, institutional trust and confidence in significant others among young Queenslanders*, "Australian Journal of Political Science" 2009, Vol. 44, No. 4, p. 659–678.

³⁸ E. Ward, *Autonomous work groups: A field study of correlates of satisfaction*, "Psychological Reports" 1997, Vol. 80, p. 60–62.

³⁹ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁴⁰ D.T. Hooper, R. Martin, *Beyond personal leader-member-exchange (LMX) quality: The effects of perceived LMX variability on employee reactions*, "The Leadership Quarterly" 2008, Vol.19, p. 20–30.

⁴¹ A.W. Gouldner, *The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement*. "American Sociological Review" 1960, Vol 25, No. 2, p. 161–178.

⁴² H. Levinson, *Reciprocation...*, p. 370–390.

⁴³ M. Wnuk, *Rola managerów dla satysfakcji...*; M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁴⁴ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁴⁵ *Ibidem*.

work⁴⁶, contributing to effective coping with subordinate stress by providing emotional and instrumental support, creative management of the professional and family spheres, or presenting attitudes in the role modeling⁴⁷.

Employees who experience low level of supervisor support in comparison to employees with high level of supervisor support more stressed at work. According to Wnuk perceived supervisor support reduce the level of stress indirectly leading to higher job satisfaction⁴⁸.

Also, trust in supervisor, being a separate, although similar construct from the perceived supervisor support⁴⁹ may reduce the employees level of stress leading indirectly to improve job satisfaction. Trust in supervisor because of his integrity, openness to the employee's needs, not abusing power, keeping promises or creating a sense of stability and predictability in the workplace may contribute to a lower level of stress, which in turn lead to higher level of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: Stress at work mediate between trust in supervisor and subordinates job satisfaction

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1. Participants research

The study was conducted on 804 employees from the different organizations located in Poland. The survey was anonymous. All participants agreed to take part in the study. In the study sample, 41,9% participants were men and 58,1% were women. The mean work seniority was 7,14 years (SD=9,36), whereas the mean work seniority in the current workplace was 3,97 years (SD=6,59). The mean age was 28,08 years (SD=10,24).

3.2. Research tools

Employees spirituality was verified by Employees Spirituality Scale⁵⁰. Participants respond on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The reliability of the scale using α -Cronbach coefficient was 0,94.

Trust in supervisor was measured by Trust in Supervisor Scale⁵¹. This tool consists of two factors: benevolence and integrity as well as abilities. Each question is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The reliability of the scale in measuring the α -Cronbach coefficient was 0,94.

⁴⁶ M. Frese, *Social support as a moderator of the relationship between work stressors and psychological dysfunctioning*. "Journal of Occupational Health Psychology" 1999, Vol 4, No. 3, p. 179–192.

⁴⁷ L. Hammer, E. Kossek, N. Yragui, T. Bodner, G. Hanson, *Development and validation of a multi-dimensional scale of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB)*, "Journal of Management" 2009, Vol. 35, p. 837–856.

⁴⁸ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁴⁹ M. Wnuk, *Skala zaufania do przełożonego...*

⁵⁰ M. Wnuk, *The Employee Spirituality Scale...*

⁵¹ M. Wnuk, *Skala zaufania do przełożonego...*

Gratitude towards organization was tested by Gratitude Towards Organization Scale⁵². In the study used four from eight sentences regarding gratitude as a commitment to reciprocity. Each question is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The reliability of the scale was α -Cronbach = 0,87.

Job satisfaction was measured using one statement „Generally I like work here”. Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

Stress at work was measured using Perceived Stress at Work⁵³. Participants respond on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = *never* to 1 = *almost always*. In the study used five from ten questions strongest loading this measure. The reliability of this tool was α -Cronbach = 0,89.

Religious involvement was measured by frequency of religious practices. Participants responded for questions regarding frequency of prayer and Mass attendance. In the literature those measures are very often using as a indicators of religious engagement.

4. RESULTS

Descriptives statistics were presented in table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics (N = 804)

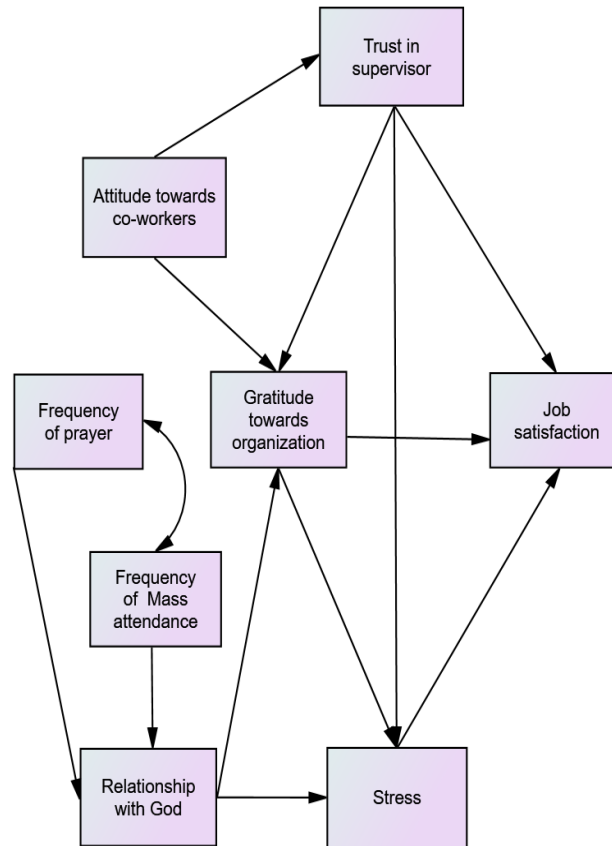
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Relationship with God	804	12,00	60,00	31,33	13,77	0,38	-1,10
Attitude towards co-workers	804	12,00	60,00	49,81	5,96	-1,11	-1,08
Frequency of Mass attendance	804	1,00	5,00	2,54	1,52	0,53	-1,25
Frequency of prayer	804	1,00	5,00	2,48	1,53	0,66	-1,12
Gratitude towards organization	804	4,00	20,00	13,77	3,37	-0,33	-0,04
Trust in supervisor	804	22,00	100,00	71,89	14,66	-0,59	0,58
Stress at work	804	5,00	25,00	13,11	4,38	0,35	-0,10
Job satisfaction	804	1,00	7,00	5,01	1,45	-0,64	-0,04

(source: own preparation)

The model fit was verified by structural equation modeling using maximum likelihood method. Tested model was presented at scheme 1.

⁵² M. Wnuk, *Wdzięczność wobec organizacji jako nowy konstrukt w psychologii pracy. Właściwości psychometryczne Skali Wdzięczności wobec Organizacji*, referat przygotowany na 36. Kongres Polskiego Towarzystwa Psychologicznego „Psychologia dla zdrowia osoby i społeczeństwa”, 21–24 września 2017 r., Gdańsk.

⁵³ T. Chirkowska-Smolak, J. Grobelny, *Konstrukcja i wstępna analiza psychometryczna Kwestionariusza Postrzeganego Stresu w Pracy (PSwP)*, „Czasopismo Psychologiczne” 2016, t. 22, nr 1, s. 131–139.



Scheme 1. Model reflecting research hypotheses (N = 804)

Source: own preparation.

The following fit model indicators were used: Normed Fit Index – NFI, Goodness of Fit Index – GFI, Comparative Fit Index – CFI, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation – RMSEA. The value of RMSEA indicator [0,020, 90% (0,000; 0,041)], was below 0,05 level, which was a proof of ideal model fit⁵⁴. Also values of NFI (0,99), GFI (0,99) and CFI (0,99) indicators were higher than references values amounting respectively 0,90, 0,90 and 0,93⁵⁵. The value of CMIN / DF statistics based on chi-square statistics – 1,324 (p = 0,177) was lower than standard – 2 or 3⁵⁶.

⁵⁴ J.H. Steiger, *Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach*, “Multivariate Behavioral Research” 1990, Vol. 25, No. 2, p. 173–180.

⁵⁵ B.M. Byrne, *Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows*, SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks 1994.

⁵⁶ R.B. Kline, *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*, Guilford Press, New York 1998.

The results of models reflecting moderating role of religious practices were presented in table 2. In model 1 presented results of frequency of prayer moderating effect between relationship with God and attitude towards co-workers and organizations. In model 2 presented results frequency of prayer moderating effect between relationship with job satisfaction. In model 3 presented results of frequency of Mass attendance moderating effect between relationship with God and attitude towards co-workers and organizations In model 4 presented results of frequency of Mass attendance moderating effect between relationship with God and job satisfaction.

Table 2. Results of verification frequency of prayer and Mass attendance as a moderating variable between relationship with God and attitude towards co-workers and organization as well as a job satisfaction (N = 804)

Number of model	F-Statistic for model with interactive variable	Change R square	Beta for interactive variable
Model 1	F = 10,85	0,013**	0,397**
Model 2	F = 6,21	0,008*	0,302*
Model 3	F = 6,30	0,008*	0,303*
Model 4	F = 7,98	0,010**	0,327**

* $p \leq 0,05$

** $p \leq 0,01$

Source: own preparation.

According to results both prayer and Mass attendance were moderators between relationship with God and attitude towards co-workers as well as job satisfaction.

Further analyzes have shown that, as expected relationship with God has a positive effect on attitude towards co-workers and organization only among very religious employees, those who attend Mass once a week or more (beta=0,244; $p \leq 0.01$). Also among this group of participants relationship with God positively predicted job satisfaction (beta=0,167; $p \leq 0,05$), while among employees never attend Mass this variable negatively predicted job satisfaction (beta=-0,141; $p \leq 0,05$).

In the sample of employees who attend Mass less frequently or not at all relationship with God was not related to attitude towards co-workers and organization. For employees praying every day relationship with God was positively correlated with attitude towards co-workers and organization (beta=0,278; $p \leq 0,01$) as well as job satisfaction (beta=0,172; $p \leq 0,05$).

In tables 3, 4, 5 were shown total effect, direct effect and indirect effect the mutual influence of the variables.

Table 3. Standardized total effect (N = 804)

	Prayer	Mass Attendance	Attitude towards co-workers	Trust in supervisor	Relationship with God	Gratitude towards organization	Stress
Trust in supervisor	0,00	0,00	0,37	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Relationship with God	0,40	0,41	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Gratitude toward organization	0,05	0,05	0,29	0,55	0,11	0,00	0,00
Stress	0,03	0,03	-0,19	-0,45	0,06	-0,21	0,00
Job satisfaction	0,02	0,02	0,22	0,48	0,04	0,48	0,19

Source: own preparation.

Table 4. Standardized direct effect (N = 804)

	Prayer	Mass Attendance	Attitude towards co-workers	Trust in supervisor	Relationship with God	Gratitude towards organization	Stress
Trust in supervisor	0,00	0,00	0,37	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Relationship with God	0,40	0,41	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Gratitude toward organization	0,00	0,00	0,09	0,55	0,12	0,00	0,00
Stress	0,00	0,00	0,00	-0,33	0,09	-0,21	0,00
Job satisfaction	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,15	0,00	0,44	-0,19

Source: own preparation.

Table 5. Standardized indirect effect (N = 804)

	Prayer	Mass Attendance	Attitude towards co-workers	Trust in supervisor	Relationship with God	Gratitude towards organization	Stress
Trust in supervisor	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Relationship with God	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Gratitude toward organization	0,05	0,05	0,20	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Stress	0,03	0,03	-0,19	-0,12	-0,03	0,00	0,00
Job satisfaction	0,02	0,02	0,22	0,33	0,04	0,04	0,00

Source: own preparation.

5. DISCUSSION

The obtained results have confirmed the first hypothesis stating that among religious involvement employees antecedent of positive relationship with God are religious practices, such as prayer and Mass attendance, which in turn are not related to the second, secular dimension of employees spirituality as an attitude towards co-workers and organization. As supposed among Polish employees due to their religious affiliation and the fact that very large percentage of people believe in God, "Higher Power" is identified with God.

The same as in Zarzycka research religious practices were not related to a positive attitude towards important life issues, as an attitude towards co-workers and organization⁵⁷.

The second hypothesis was confirmed. Prayer and Mass attendance were moderators between attitude towards God and the attitude towards co-workers and organization, as well as job satisfaction. Among religious involvement employees noticed beneficiary effect influence religious practices on attitude towards co-workers and organization as well as job satisfaction. No statistical effect has revealed in a group of employees non-religious involvement, with one exception regarding detrimental effect of Mass attendance on job satisfaction among employees never attend Mass.

It means that in group of non-religious involvement employees the source of the positive attitude towards co-workers and organization are other secular values internalized in socialization process, shaping their moral principles, as well as the perceived image of the world, themselves and other people. These values are the base for the acceptance of colleagues at work, understanding of them, noticing their efforts at work, caring for their needs or sharing with them knowledge and experiences. In group of religious involvement employees antecedent of positive attitude towards colleagues and organization being a matrix for treating other people properly is relationship with God. The obtained results are consistent with results of research conducted by Okulicz-Kozaryn⁵⁸ according to which religious involvement is positively related to well-being only among societies with a high religiousness rate, to which Poland can undoubtedly be included.

The third hypothesis regarding gratitude towards organization as a mediator between spirituality and job satisfaction has been fully confirmed. It turned out that both religious and secular dimension of employees spirituality is a source of gratitude towards organization, indirectly improving job satisfaction. These results are in the line with recent research indicating that apart from the perceived supervisor and organizational support, stress at work and work-life balance⁵⁹ another factor influence on gratitude towards organization, indirectly improving job satisfaction is spirituality. Above mechanism can be explained by the schematic hypothesis according to which employees presenting a higher level of gratitude because they perceive support and help from other people as more altruistic, more costly and more valuable⁶⁰. Spirituality aspects of life which they develop in their relationships with God, their co-workers and the organization strengthens their sense of gratitude, leading finally to greater job satisfaction.

Partially confirmed third hypothesis about employees stress at work as a mediator between relationship with God and job satisfaction. Relationship with God was a positive

⁵⁷ B. Zarzycka, *Tradition or Charisma-Religiosity...*, p. 26–29.

⁵⁸ A. Okulicz-Kozaryn, *Religiosity and Life Satisfaction...*, p. 155–169.

⁵⁹ M. Wnuk, *Rola managerów...*; M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁶⁰ A.M. Wood, J. Maltby, R. Gillett, P.A. Linley, S. Joseph, *The role of gratitude...*, p. 854–871.

predictor of employees stress at work, but it was rather a proof that employees being under the stress try to reduce it by referring to relationships with God and looking for his support than that the relationship with God is a source of stress at work. The confirmation of this assumption is fact that the attitude towards God also indirectly reduce stress at work through gratitude towards organization⁶¹. People who declare a high level of gratitude effectively use such methods of coping with stress, less frequent self-blame and more often using positive reinterpretations and growth, which together explain 51% variance between gratitude and stress⁶².

Achieving results are partially consistent with recent research proving that another antecedent of stress coping at work beside of perceived supervisor support⁶³ is relationship with God.

According to Pargament⁶⁴ and Pargament et al⁶⁵ positive references to God can be an effective method of coping with stress also on the professional ground. God can be a source of consolation at work, support of employees in everyday duties, coping with difficult times etc., leading to gratitude towards organization and indirectly reducing the level of stress at work.

Consistent with hypothesis fifth trust in supervisor mediated between the attitude towards co-workers as well as organization and job satisfaction. It means that caring for the needs of colleagues, respect and understanding for them, sharing knowledge and experiences, and caring for the organization interests have positive impact on trust in supervisor indirectly improving job satisfaction. The more positive attitude towards co-workers and organization are presented by employees, the more they trust in supervisors, which in turn improve their job satisfaction. It means that the relationship of mutual trust between subordinate and supervisor, as well as perceived supervisor support⁶⁶ can positively affect job satisfaction. Concluding, basis for building employees trust in supervisors is their own positive attitude towards co-workers and organization being a manifestation of their spiritual activity in the sphere of occupational functioning.

Hypothesis six about gratitude towards organization as a partial mediator between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction was fully confirmed. Trust in supervisor who can be seen by subordinate as a personification of organization⁶⁷, reflecting the quality of relationship between subordinate and supervisor, according to reciprocity norm⁶⁸ through gratitude motivate him to repay organization finally improving his job satisfaction. The obtained results are consistent with Wnuk research conducted on employees of one large organization from Poland, where perceived supervisor support indirectly influenced on job satisfaction through gratitude towards organization⁶⁹. The supervisor positive attitude towards subordinate may strengthen the subordinate conviction that supervisor activities towards him are

⁶¹ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁶² A.M. Wood, J. Maltby, R. Gillett, P.A. Linley, S. Joseph, *The role of gratitude...*, p. 854–871.

⁶³ M. Wnuk, *Skala zaufania do przełożonego...*

⁶⁴ K.I. Pargament, *The psychology of religion...*

⁶⁵ K.I. Pargament, H.G. Koenig, L.M. Perez, *The many methods...*, p. 519–543.

⁶⁶ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁶⁷ H. Levinson, *Reciprocation...*, p. 370–390.

⁶⁸ A.W. Gouldner, *The norm of reciprocity...*, p. 161–178.

⁶⁹ M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

more altruistic, more expensive and more valuable leading to improve his job satisfaction⁷⁰. One of the dimensions of trust in supervisor is benevolence and integrity manifested in supervisor behavior through openness and selflessness in relation with his subordinate⁷¹.

Also hypothesis seven regarding stress at work as a partial mediator between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction was fully confirmed. For employees, a relationship with a supervisor based on trusting him as a leader who treats them equally, is honest, keeps promises and does not abuse the power reduces subordinates symptoms of stress, which in turn has a positive impact on their job satisfaction. These results are consistent with previous research, according to which perceived supervisor support influenced on job satisfaction both directly and indirectly by reducing stress⁷².

6. CONCLUSIONS

Conducted research has some theoretical and practical implications. It was confirmed that employees religious practices are not related to secular dimension of spirituality as an attitude towards co-workers and organization and moderate attitude towards God and attitude towards co-workers and organization as well as job satisfaction. Among religious involvement employees relationship with God is positively related to attitude towards co-workers and organization as well as job satisfaction.

Three mechanisms of indirect impact of employees spirituality on their occupational well-being measured by job satisfaction were discovered and confirmed. Employees spirituality is antecedent of gratitude towards organization, which in turn lead to their higher job satisfaction.

Relationship with God has a positive direct impact on job satisfaction and negative indirect influence on this variable through the stress at work.

Employees attitude towards co-workers and organization positive increases their trust in supervisor, which results in their greater job satisfaction.

In heterogeneous group of employees from different organizations confirmed that the relationship with supervisor using trust in supervisor measure affects job satisfaction both directly and indirectly through gratitude towards organization and stress at work. The obtained results are consistent with previous study conducted among employees from one large organization where perceived supervisor support indirectly improved job satisfaction through gratitude towards organization and stress at work⁷³.

The practical implications of the conducted research concern building among human resources managers and specialist awareness of the important role of spirituality for the functioning of employees in the workplace and their well-being. They should not limit or prevent the expression of the spiritual sphere of employees, respecting and accepting manifestations of spirituality and religiosity at work. From the recruitment point of view organizations should employ candidates for whom the spiritual sphere plays an important role in everyday life, because at work in dealing with professional problems they will be able to use an additional source of support and coping with stress in the form of a relationship with

⁷⁰ A.M. Wood, J.J. Froh, A.W. Geraghty, *Gratitude and well-being: A review and theoretical integration*, "Clinical Psychology Review" 2010, Vol. 30, p. 890–905.

⁷¹ M. Wnuk, *Skala zaufania do przełożonego...*

⁷² M. Wnuk, *Spostrzegane wsparcie...*

⁷³ *Ibidem*.

God or another “Higher Power”. In addition, they will be more grateful to the organization, able to appreciate what they receive from it, and it will be easier for them to build relationships with their supervisors based on trust.

The conducted study has some limitations. First of all only one indicator of occupational well-being was used. The obtained results can be generalized only rather to young employees of organizations located in Poland, which means that they can be considered only in a specific cultural and social context. Achieving results should not be generalized for representatives of every denominations because of a lack of a question concerning religious affiliation.

Future research concerning relationship between employees spirituality and their occupational wellbeing should be conducted in a different cultural context to verify if obtained results have a universal character.

Additional recommendation is using other occupational wellbeing indicators in the form of organizational attachment or intention to quit organization as well as verifying other potential mediators between employees spirituality and occupational wellbeing such as meaning and purpose at work, hope, forgiveness or positive affect.

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DUCHOWOŚĆ A SATYSFAKCJA Z PRACY. MEDIACYJNA ROLA STRESU, WDWIĘCZNOŚCI WOBEC ORGANIZACJI ORAZ ZAUFANIA DO PRZEŁOŻONEGO. MODERACYJNA ROLA PRAKTYK RELIGIJNYCH

Duchowość pracowników jest istotnym czynnikiem kształtującym satysfakcję z pracy. Celem przeprowadzonych badań była weryfikacja mechanizmów wpływu duchowości pracowników na ich satysfakcję z pracy za pośrednictwem redukcji doświadczanego stresu, wzrostu zaufania do przełożonego oraz wdzięczności wobec organizacji. Dodatkowym celem było sprawdzenie moderacyjnej roli praktyk religijnych, takich jak częstotliwość modlitwy oraz częstotliwość uczestnictwa we Mszy świętej pomiędzy duchowością pracowników a ich satysfakcją z pracy. Zastosowano następujące miary: Skalę Duchowości Pracowników, Skalę Wdzięczności wobec Organizacji, Skalę Zaufania do Przełożonego, Kwestionariusz Postrzeganego Stresu w Pracy oraz trzy jednopytaniowe miary dotyczące satysfakcji z pracy, częstotliwości

pobytu na mszy świętej oraz częstotliwości modlitwy. Wdzięczność wobec organizacji pośredniczyła między duchowością pracowników a ich satysfakcją z pracy. Zaufanie do przełożonego było mediatorem między postawą wobec współpracowników a ich satysfakcją z pracy. Również stres pośredniczył między stosunkiem do Boga lub innej „Siły Wyższej” a satysfakcją z pracy. Potwierdzono moderacyjny efekt częstotliwości modlitwy oraz uczestnictwa we Mszy świętej pomiędzy stosunkiem do Boga lub innej „Siły Wyższej” i satysfakcją z pracy, jak również postawą wobec współpracowników i satysfakcją z pracy. Potwierdzono istotną rolę duchowości pracowników dla kształtowania ich satysfakcji z pracy. Zidentyfikowano mechanizmy pośredniego wpływu duchowości pracowników na ich satysfakcję z pracy poprzez wdzięczność wobec organizacji, zaufanie do przełożonego oraz stres.

Słowa kluczowe: duchowość pracowników, wdzięczność wobec organizacji, zaufanie do przełożonego, stres, satysfakcja z pracy.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.59

Tekst złożono do redakcji: listopad 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

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ANALYSIS OF THE ACTIVITY OF POLISH UNIVERSITIES ON FACEBOOK

Social media have changed communication for good. Not only private users but also companies and institutions are eager to use them. Today, presence in social media is indispensable, both for private users who communicate and receive information in such a way, and for companies for which it is often the most important communication channel with their clients. Facebook has been the most popular and engaging social networking site in the world for many years. The activity of Polish universities in social media has been studied for only a few years and is a relatively new research area. The main purpose of this article is to present the results of the research on the activities of Polish universities on Facebook. 326 universities (121 public and 205 non-public universities) were qualified for the study and a detailed analysis of the functioning of their fanpages was undertaken. Using the Sotrender tool, necessary data were collected and indicators were calculated in relation to the reach, engagement and content presented by universities on Facebook.

The research showed that universities in Poland see the potential that Facebook offers, but at the same time they do not always use its functions fully. The activity of Polish universities on fanpages is very diverse. There are universities that try to keep up with the emerging trends in communication with the environment, they move perfectly on the most popular social media, but there are also those for whom the activity on Facebook ends with the creation of a fanpage.

Keywords: social media, universities in social media, communication in social media, universities, Facebook.

1. INTRODUCTION

Data from the *Digital in 2018 Global Overview* report² show that in January 2018 there were 7.6 billion people in the world, of which over 4 billion, so more than half of the population, had access to the Internet. It is also worth noting the dynamics in this area – in

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² *Digital in 2018 Global Overview*, accessed on 25.05.2018 at: <https://wearesocial.com/blog/2018/01/global-digital-report-2018>

2018 the number of Internet users grew by 7% compared to the previous year, one quarter billion new users appeared online for the first time. In Poland, the Internet penetration in relation to the total number of inhabitants is 72%, thus giving us the 15th place in the world ranking³.

According to *GlobalWebIndex*⁴, not only the number of people using the Internet is growing, but also the amount of time they spend online - it is about 6 hours a day for an average user⁵. It is due to the fact that over two-thirds of the world's population has a mobile phone, the vast majority with Internet access⁶.

Thanks to widespread access to the Internet and mobile devices, social media are also becoming increasingly popular. According to the above mentioned *Digital in 2018 Global Overview* report, over 3 billion people worldwide now use them, which is 13% more than in 2017 (almost one million people started using social media for the first time in 2017). In the ranking of countries actively using social media, Poland holds the 26th position with 39% of the population⁷. It is expected that these numbers will continue to grow along with the observed increase in the popularity of all mobile devices.

According to *GlobalWebIndex* data, the average social media user spends 2 hours and 19 minutes a day using them⁸. The *We Are Social and Hootsuite* report shows that Poles, in terms of the amount of time spent on social media platforms, occupy the 22nd place in the world. Every day we spend 1 hour and 45 minutes on social media activities, which is slightly less than the calculated global average⁹.

Facebook dominates among the social media in the world, with over 2.1 billion active users (in 2018 an increase of 15% in relation to the previous year)¹⁰. In Poland, it is also by far the most popular social network with a coverage of 82%, nearly 21.5 million people¹¹ use it, and 7 out of 10 users log in to it every day¹².

³ *Ibidem*.

⁴ *The global social media landscape*, accessed on 18.07.2018 at: <https://www.globalwebindex.com/reports/global-social-media>

⁵ *Ibidem*.

⁶ *Digital in 2018 Global Overview...*

⁷ *Ibidem*.

⁸ *The global social media landscape...*

⁹ *Digital in 2018 Global Overview...*

¹⁰ *Ibidem. Most famous social network sites worldwide as of July 2018, ranked by number of active users (in millions)*, accessed on 31.08.2018 at: <https://www.statista.com/statistics/272014/global-social-networks-ranked-by-number-of-users>.

¹¹ M. Kuchta, *Najnowsze dane na temat użytkowników mediów społecznościowych na świecie*, accessed on 15.09.2018 at: <https://socialpress.pl/2018/07/najnowsze-dane-na-temat-uzytownikow-mediow-spolecznościowych-na-swiecie>.

¹² *Dekada Facebooka w Polsce*, accessed on 13.10.2018 at: <http://brief.pl/dekada-facebooku-w-polsce>.

Looking closer at the users of social media, it can be said that they are above all young people (under 34 years old)¹³, while in the case of Facebook, the largest group are people aged 18-24¹⁴.

Social media have changed communication for good. Not only private users but also companies and institutions are eager to use the increasing number of choices they offer. Today, presence in social media is indispensable, both for private users who communicate and receive information mainly in such a way, as well as for companies for which it is often the most important communication channel with their clients. In 2017, the number of companies using the Facebook advertising system in the world reached 5 million¹⁵. In Poland, according to the IAB report "Internet Report 2017/2018: Social Media", the value of the social media market last year was PLN 600 million¹⁶.

It seems that universities in Poland also see the potential of social media, making attempts to adapt to new communication reality and more often using social media as a key component of communication with their surroundings. They are aware of the fact that the main (though not the only) recipient of content published by them in social media is the so-called Internet generation (according to other sources - Generation Z (C))¹⁷, for whom the Internet is the basic tool for communicating and searching for information. The Internet generation understands social media the best and uses them efficiently. K. Peszko writes that this generation is a great communication challenge because it does not know the time before the era of digitization and treats this environment as something natural and universal¹⁸.

The activity of Polish universities in social media has been studied for several years only and is a relatively new research area. The research results published so far, which the author of this article found, were fragmentary and included either selected universities or selected social media¹⁹. The previous research conducted by the author, covering both the entire

¹³ See: *Raporty Sotrender Trends*, accessed on 02.10.2018 at: <https://www.sotrender.com/resources/pl/reports>; M. Kuchta, *Ilu użytkowników na świecie korzysta z mediów społecznościowych?*, accessed on 02.10.2018 at: <https://socialpress.pl/2017/02/ilu-uzytownikow-na-swiecie-korzysta-z-mediow-spolecznościowych>

Ł. Dębski, *Aktualny stan social media*, accessed on 02.10.2018 at: <https://www.slideshare.net/lukaszdebski/aktualny-stan-social-media>

¹⁴ M. Kuchta, *Social media w Polsce – kto korzysta z serwisów społecznościowych?*, accessed on 31.08.2018 at: <https://socialpress.pl/2018/06/social-media-w-polsce-kto-korzysta-z-serwisow-spolecznościowych>

M. Kuchta, *Ilu użytkowników na świecie korzysta z mediów społecznościowych?...*

¹⁵ *Dekada Facebooka w Polsce...*

¹⁶ *Raport Internet 2017/2018: Social Media*, accessed on 15.09.2018 at: <https://iab.org.pl/aktualnosci/raport-social-media>.

¹⁷ More information on the topic in: K. Bodzioch, *Pokolenie C. Nowa odłona pokolenia Y?*, accessed on 22.09.2018 at: <http://hrstandard.pl/2012/01/04/pokolenie-c-nowa-odslona-pokolenia-y>; M. Kosztembar-Wiklik, *Media społecznościowe w zarządzaniu komunikacją uczelni ze studentami*, „Kultura-Media-Teologia” 2015 No. 21, p. 11–13; D. Tapscott, *Cyfrowa dorosłość. Jak pokolenie sieci zmienia nasz świat*, Warszawa 2010, p. 53–61.

¹⁸ K. Peszko, *Popularność mediów społecznościowych wśród różnych generacji*, „Marketing i Zarządzanie” No. 4(45) 2016, p. 361.

¹⁹ The results of the research conducted so far in this field, which the author of the article searched out, can be found in the following publications: D. Buchnowska, *Polskie uczelnie wyższe w ser-*

population of higher education institutions and all *social media* channels, confirmed that the majority of Polish universities are present in social media²⁰, and the most popular amongst them is definitely Facebook²¹.

The research presented in the further part of the article attempts to look at the presence of Polish universities on Facebook through a detailed analysis of their university fanpages.

2. METHODOLOGY

The methodological assumptions made were that only official, university Facebook profiles will be taken into account, the activity of individual departments, institutes, chairs, self-governments, libraries, scientific circles, committees organizing conferences, etc. were not analysed. It has also been assumed that references to these profiles as official communication channels of the university with the environment should be on the university's main website. According to the collected data, 353 higher education institutions had a link to their fanpage on Facebook on their website during the period analysed (November 1–30, 2016) (123 public universities, 230 non-public universities). As a result of the preliminary analysis, 27 universities were eliminated at this stage for the following reasons:

wisach społecznościowych, Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego. Ekonomiczne Problemy Usług No. 88/2012, p. 147–155; D. Buchnowska, *Aktywność najlepszych polskich uczelni wyższych w serwisie społecznościowym Facebook*, Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego. Ekonomiczne problemy Usług No. 105/2013, p. 605–614; D. Buchnowska, *Wykorzystanie mediów społecznościowych przez uczelnie wyższe i studentów w świetle badań własnych*, „Nauki o Zarządzaniu. Management Sciences” No. 2(15)/2013, p. 36–49; D. Buchnowska, M. Woźniak, *The role and use of social media by universities – ranking of universities in social media*, in: M. Kaczmarczyk, D. Rott (ed.), *Problemy Konwergencji Mediów v.2*, Verbum, Sosnowiec-Praga 2013, p. 319–330; A. Chwiałkowska, *Uczelnie w mediach społecznościowych – oczekiwania adresatów a publikowane treści*, „Marketing Instytucji Naukowych i Badawczych” No. 13 (3)/2014, p. 66–82; A. Chwiałkowska, *Polskie publiczne uczelnie akademickie w mediach społecznościowych*, „Marketing Instytucji Naukowych i Badawczych”, No. 4 (10)/2013, p. 3–21; E. Kulczycki, *Raport: Uczelnie wyższe w mediach społecznościowych*, *Warsztat badacza komunikacji*, accessed on 30.10.2017 at: http://ekulczycki.pl/teoria_komunikacji/social_media; E. Kulczycki, *Wykorzystanie mediów społecznościowych przez akademickie uczelnie wyższe w Polsce. Badania w formule otwartego notatnika*, in: E. Kulczycki, M. Wendland (ed.), *Komunikologia. Teoria i praktyka komunikacji*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Instytutu Filozofii UAM, Poznań 2012, p. 89–109; E. Kulczycki, *Uczelnie wyższe na Twitterze. Raport 2014*, *Warsztat badacza komunikacji*, accessed on 30.10.2017 at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.899816>; *Uczelnie w social media – badanie 2014*, accessed on 24.09.2017 at: <https://socjomania.pl/uczelnie-w-social-media-badanie-2014>; M. Koszembar-Wiklik, *Media społecznościowe w zarządzaniu komunikacją uczelni ze studentami*, „Kultura-Media-Teologia” 2015 No. 21, p. 9–12; M. Koszembar-Wiklik, *Media społecznościowe w komunikacji i kreowaniu wizerunku uczelni publicznych*, Sosnowiec 2016; H. Hall, K. Peszko, *Social media as a relationship marketing tool of modern university*, „Marketing i Zarządzanie” No. 5 (46) 2016, p. 41–56.

²⁰ See: I. Wojciechowska, *Skala wykorzystania social mediów przez szkoły wyższe w Polsce*, „Modern Management Review”, No. 25 (1/2018), p. 169–182.

²¹ Popularity is defined here as the frequency of occurrence and was measured by the number of logos of social networks placed on the main university websites, so the most popular means the most common.

- on the website there was only a logo, but it was inactive or there was only a possibility of clicking *like* (according to the assumptions the lack of a working link eliminated the unit from further research) (5 universities),
- after clicking on the logo, the user was redirected to the profile of a different entity than the university (e.g. self-government, library, other university, etc.) (4 universities),
- after clicking on the logo, information that this page on Facebook is not available appeared (7 universities),
- the list of schools consisted of universities associated in a federation of 8 universities, of which 7 had a shared website and a Facebook profile. It was considered that these units should be eliminated from further research, because otherwise it could have a significant impact on credibility of the obtained results (7 universities); only one of them had its own profile and it was included in further analyses,
- in the list of schools there were 7 universities operating in partnership with each other, of which 3 had a common website and a link to the Facebook profile (additionally, clicking on the logo displayed information that this site is not available). In addition, 1 university had its own website, but there was no link to Facebook, and the next one was not included in the list of currently operating universities. Due to the above, these universities were eliminated from further research. Only 2 out of the 7 institutions had their own websites and working links to the Facebook profile, so they found their place in the research.

To sum up, 326 universities (121 public and 205 non-public universities) were finally qualified for the research, and a detailed analysis of the functioning of their university fanpages on Facebook in the period from 1 to 30 November 2016 was undertaken. Thanks to the use of the Sotrender²² tool, necessary data from each profile were collected and indicators were calculated in the most important areas related to the reach, engagement and content presented by universities on Facebook.

The following is a description of individual indicators, divided into the areas they concern:

I. Reach

- 1) **The number of fans** is the number of people who liked the profile on Facebook²³.
- 2) **Increase (dynamics) of the number of fans**, which shows the absolute and percentage change in the number of fans in the analysed period.

II. Engagement

- 1) **Engaged users** – an indicator that shows the intensity of the response to brand communication, it is given in two versions - as the number of the engaged or percentage (the percentage of engaged users in the total number of fans of the fanpage).

Engaged users are defined as those who interacted with the profile, doing activities visible to others: they reacted to the post, commented on something, shared a post or posted their own one.

²² Sotrender is a professional tool used to analyse and report on activities in social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube), details: <https://www.sotrender.com/pl>.

²³ Total number at the beginning and at the end of the research.

- 2) **Types of user engagement** – indicator showing the number of individual activities:
- number of reactions²⁴,
 - number of users' comments,
 - number of fanpage posts shared by users on their profiles or other fanpages.

It's worth noting here that Facebook users can engage on the brand's profile in a different way, and their activity is also visible to their friends, thanks to which the "viral" reach of the published content increases.

- 3) **Interactivity Index (InI)** – this is a total, weighted indicator of all activity on the profile (both fans' and administrator's), which shows the intensity of response to brand communication; it takes into account different types of activity and the fact that one user can perform many activities. The reaction, comment, post and sharing of the content have, in turn, higher and higher weights, in accordance with their increasing visibility for others and less frequent occurrence (reaction = 1, comment = 4, text status = 8, multimedia status (photo, link to YouTube, etc.) = 12, sharing = 16).

Interactivity Index of the Users (InI Fan) – this is an indicator calculated in a similar way to the previous one (InI), however, it only considers fan activity on the profile (no administrator activity).

- 4) **Relative Interactivity (RI)** – this is a total, weighted indicator of all activity on the profile; similarly to the previous InI indicator, it speaks of the intensity of reaction to brand communication. However, it additionally takes into account the size of the fanpage, which allows comparison of profiles with a diverse number of fans (otherwise it is InI in relation to the number of profile fans).

III. Content

- 1) **Types of posts** – an indicator determining the number of particular types of posts that appeared on the fanpage (links, photos, statuses (text only) and video).

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were asked:

- 1) What was the initial status and the change in the number of fans in the period analysed?
- 2) Which universities have undergone the biggest change in the number of fans on Facebook?
- 3) What was the change in the number of engaged users on Facebook?
- 4) Which universities had the largest number / largest percentage of engaged Facebook users?
- 5) What types of user engagement on Facebook were the most / least frequent?
 - reactions,
 - comments,
 - sharing posts.

²⁴ All types of reactions to the post on Facebook are taken into consideration here, that is *like*, *super*, *wow*, *ha,ha*, *I'm sorry*, *wrr*.

- 6) Which universities had the biggest number of particular types of engagement on Facebook?
- 7) Which universities had the highest activity rate on the InI profile (InI total and InI Fan)?
- 8) Which universities had the highest profile activity rate in relation to the number of fans (RI)?
- 9) What types of posts most often / rarely appeared on profiles?
 - posts with links,
 - posts with photos,
 - posts with text only,
 - posts with videos.
- 10) Which universities had the biggest number of particular types of posts on Facebook?

The analysis was performed in all universities jointly and the results were compared in public and non-public higher education institutions.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

In the period analysed Facebook in Poland had 12.4 million users, 6.46 million were women, 5.94 million were men. Most users were between 19 and 25 years old²⁵.

The number of fans

Table 1. Fans at all universities

	Fans	
	01.11.2016.	30.11.2016
Average number	5631	5759
The number of universities above average	86	87
The number of universities below average	240	239

Source: the author's own study.

Both at the beginning and at the end of the research period, the following universities had the biggest number of fans²⁶:

- SWPS – at the beginning 67 143, at the end 82 412 fans (an increase of 15 269 fans),

²⁵ *Fanpage Trends listopad 2016 r.* report, accessed on 18.04.2017 at: <https://www.sotrender.com/blog/pl/2016/12/fanpage-trends-listopad-2016>.

²⁶ In the article the abbreviated names of some universities will be used: SWPS for SWPS Uniwersytet Humanistycznospołeczny w Warszawie (SWPS University of Social Sciences and Humanities), UJ for Uniwersytet Jagielloński w Krakowie (Jagiellonian University in Kraków), AGH for Akademia Górniczo-Hutnicza w Krakowie (AGH University of Science and Technology in Kraków), UW for Uniwersytet Warszawski (University of Warsaw), KUL for Katolicki Uniwersytet Lubelski w Lublinie (The John Paul II Catholic University in Lublin), PWSFTviT for Państwowa Wyższa Szkoła Filmowa, Telewizyjna i Teatralna w Łodzi (Polish National Film School in Łódź), SGGW for Szkoła Główna Gospodarstwa Wiejskiego w Warszawie (Warsaw University of Life Sciences), PWSZ for Państwowa Wyższa Szkoła Zawodowa (State Higher Vocational School).

- UJ – at the beginning 60 873, at the end 61 111 fans (an increase of 238 fans),
- AGH – at the beginning 56 455, at the end 56 774 fans (an increase of 319 fans),
- UW – at the beginning 54 404, at the end 55 224 fans (an increase of 820 fans).

The average number of fans at the beginning of the research period was 5 631, 86 universities had the number of fans above average, 240 below average. At the end of the research period the average number of fans increased slightly to 5 759, the number of universities above and below average remained at a similar level.

273 universities in the analysed period recorded an increase in the number of fans, 42 universities recorded a decrease (the biggest in ViaModa Szkoła Wyższa in Warsaw (ViaModa University) – 72), and at 11 universities the number of fans remained unchanged.

The largest increase in the number of fans could be observed in the following universities:

- SWPS – 15 269 (an increase of 23%),
- KUL – 1398 (an increase of 4%),
- Wyższa Szkoła Społeczno-Ekonomiczna in Gdańsk – 961 (an increase of 19%)
- UW – 820 (an increase of 2%),

The largest percentage increase was recorded at Wyższa Szkoła Mazowiecka in Warsaw – 50% (Mazowiecka Uczelnia Medyczna).

Table 2. Fans at public and non-public universities

	Fans			
	01.11.2016		30.11.2016	
	Public universities	Non-public universities	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	9847	3142	10 013	3248
The percentage of universities above average	32%	23%	32%	23%
The percentage of universities below average	68%	77%	68%	77%

Source: the author's own study.

Public universities

Among the public universities, both at the beginning and at the end of the analysed period, the following universities had the biggest number of fans:

- UJ – at the beginning 60 873, at the end 61 111 (an increase of 238),
- AGH – at the beginning 56 455, at the end 56 774 (an increase of 319),
- UW – at the beginning 54 404, at the end 55 224 (an increase of 820),
- KUL – at the beginning 37 129, at the end 38 527 (an increase of 1398).

114 universities recorded an increase in the number of fans in the analysed period, while 7 universities recorded a decrease (the biggest in Akademia Techniczno-Humanistyczna in Bielsko-Biała (University of Bielsko-Biała) – 3).

The largest increase in the number of fans could be observed in the following universities:

- KUL – 1398 (an increase of 4%),
- UW – 820 (an increase of 2%),

- Politechnika Warszawska (Warsaw University of Technology) – 551 (an increase of 2%),
- PWSFTviT in Łódź – 544 (an increase of 4%).

The largest percentage increase – 5% was recorded at: Politechnika Białostocka (Białystok University of Technology) and PWSZ in Wałbrzych.

Non-public universities

Among the non-public universities, both at the beginning and at the end of the analysed period, the following universities had the biggest number of fans:

- SWPS – at the beginning 67 143, at the end 82 412 (an increase of 15 269),
- ViaModa Szkoła Wyższa in Warsaw – at the beginning 31 718, at the end 31 646 (a decrease of 72),
- Europejska Wyższa Szkoła Prawa i Administracji (European University of Law and Administration) in Warsaw – at the beginning 21 744, at the end 22 033 (an increase of 289),
- Akademia L. Koźmińskiego (Kozminski University) in Warsaw – at the beginning 19 499, at the end 19 714 (an increase of 215).

161 universities recorded an increase in the number of fans in the analysed period, while 33 universities recorded a decrease, (the biggest in ViaModa Szkoła Wyższa in Warsaw – 72), and at 11 universities the number of fans remained unchanged.

The largest increase in the number of fans could be observed in the following universities:

- SWPS – 15 269 (an increase of 23%),
- Wyższa Szkoła Społeczno-Ekonomiczna in Gdańsk – 961 (an increase of 19%),
- Uczelnia Łazarskiego (Lazarski University) in Warsaw – 688 (an increase of 6%),
- Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa (WSB University) in Poznań – 511 (an increase of 5%).

The largest percentage increase – 50% was recorded at: Wyższa Szkoła Mazowiecka in Warsaw.

The average number of fans, both in public and non-public universities, in the analysed period increased, however, in public universities the increase was larger. The percentage of public universities that reached the results above average at the beginning and at the end of the research in the analysed period was the same – 32%, similarly to non-public universities – 23%.

Engaged users

Table 3. Engaged users at all universities

	Engaged users
Average number	357
Maximum number	11 246 (SWPS)
The number of universities above average	69
The number of universities below average	257

Source: the author's own study.

The average number of engaged users in the period analysed was 357, the maximum number in SWPS (almost 11.000 users more than the average). 69 of the surveyed universities in this category were above the average.

The following universities had the largest percentage of engaged users in the analysed period:

- PWSZ in Ciechanów – 27%,
- Gdański Uniwersytet Medyczny (Medical University of Gdańsk) – 24%,
- Uniwersytet Medyczny im. Piastów Śląskich in Wrocław (Wrocław Medical University) – 23%,
- Akademia Marynarki Wojennej (Polish Naval Academy) in Gdynia – 22%.

Table 4. Engaged users at public and non-public universities

	Engaged users	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	758	121
Maximum number	8479 (AGH)	11 246 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	24%	16%
The percentage of universities below average	76%	84%

Source: the author's own study.

Public universities

The largest percentage of engaged users in the analysed period had the following universities:

- PWSZ in Ciechanów – 27%,
- Gdański Uniwersytet Medyczny – 24%,
- Uniwersytet Medyczny im. Piastów Śląskich in Wrocław – 23%,
- Akademia Marynarki Wojennej in Gdynia – 22%.

Non-public universities

The largest percentage of engaged users in the analysed period had the following universities:

- Powiślańska Szkoła Wyższa (Powiślański College) in Kwidzyn – 15%
- SWPS – 14%
- Wyższa Szkoła Inżynierii i Zdrowia (Higher School of Engineering and Health) in Warsaw – 12%
- Wyższa Szkoła Inżynieryjno-Ekonomiczna (Rzeszów School of Engineering and Economics) in Rzeszów – 11%
- Uni-Terra Wyższa Szkoła in Poznań – 11%

The average number of engaged users in public universities in the period analysed was 758, in non-public universities it was almost six times less (121). The maximum number of engaged users in public universities was reached by AGH (8479), in non-public ones by SWPS (11 246 – the difference in favour of non-public universities).

24% of public universities and only 16% of non-public universities were above the average in this category.

Types of engagement

Table 5. Types of engagement at all universities

	Types of engagement		
	Reactions	Comments	Shares
Average number	552	25	46
Maximum number	15 666 (SWPS)	1280 (SWPS)	3305 (SWPS)
The number of universities above average	68	62	70
The number of universities below average	258	264	256

Source: the author's own study.

Among the types of engagement reactions were dominant – 552 on average, then shares – 46 and comments – 25. In all three categories of engagement about 70 universities reached the results above average, SWPS had a maximum result.

Table 6. Reactions at public and non-public universities

	Reactions	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	1174	186
Maximum number	13 949 (AGH)	15 666 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	25%	17%
The percentage of universities below average	75%	83%

Source: the author's own study.

Table 7. Comments at public and non-public universities

	Comments	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	44	14
Maximum number	463 (UW)	1280 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	24%	13%
The percentage of universities below average	76%	87%

Source: the author's own study.

Table 8. Shares at public and non-public universities

	Shares	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	73	30
Maximum number	1060 (UW)	3305 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	25%	14%
The percentage of universities below average	75%	86%

Source: the author's own study.

Among the various types of engagement, reactions dominated, with a large disparity between public universities (on average 1174) and non-public universities (on average 186), followed by shares and comments - there were also disproportions in favour of public universities. However, in all three categories of engagement, the maximum value has been reached by non-public university – SWPS (advantage over public universities: AGH in the category of reaction and UW in comments and sharing).

If we excluded the absolute leader in the reactions category – SWPS (15 666), the average results of other non-public universities would be very low, because the next university in ranking – Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Zarządzania (University of Information Technology and Management) in Rzeszów had 1002 reactions, then Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa in Gdańsk – 988. Other non-public universities mostly achieved results below 100 (often single-digit ones).

In the category of comments non-public universities following SWPS (1 280 comments) were again Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Zarządzania in Rzeszów (171 comments) and Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa in Wrocław (153 comments), the remaining non-public universities mostly achieved results below 50.

In the category of shares non-public universities following the leader were Wyższa Szkoła Zarządzania i Przedsiębiorczości in Wałbrzych (311 shares; almost 3000 less than SWPS) i Dolnośląska Szkoła Wyższa (University of Lower Silesia) in Wrocław (143 shares), other non-public universities mostly achieved results below 100.

In the period analysed in 39 non-public universities there were no reactions, in 86 there was not a single comment, and in 64 shares did not appear either. This shows that among 205 non-public universities surveyed there were only a dozen or so which managed to engage their fans, the vast majority were not very effective here.

In case of public universities, the distribution of individual types of engagement was different. The difference between AGH – the leader in the reaction category and subsequent universities was not so big (UW – 11.338 reactions, UJ – 10.105 reactions, SGGW – 7370 reactions). A similar situation was observed in the case of comments - the leader was UW (463 comments), the following public universities were AGH - 403 comments, Politechnika Warszawska – 326 comments, Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny in Poznań (Poznan University of Economics) – 269 comments.

In the shares category UW had a maximum result of 1060, the next was PWSZ in Ciechanów – almost 50% less – 535 shares, UJ – 392 shares.

In the period analysed, out of 121 public universities only in two there was no single reaction, in 8 had no comments, and in 3 there were no shares.

Interactivity Index

Table 9. Interactivity Index (InI) at all universities

	Interactivity Index	
	Total InI	InI Fan
Average number	1604	1390
Maximum number	74 370 (SWPS)	72 781 (SWPS)
The number of universities above average	77	73
The number of universities below average	249	253

Source: the author's own study.

The average Interactivity Index value was: total InI 1 604, InI Fan 1390. The values above the average were respectively recorded at 77 and 73 universities, in both categories the maximum value was reached by SWPS.

Table 10. Interactivity Index (InI) at public and non-public universities

	Interactivity Index	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	2870	857
Maximum number	30 538 (UW)	74 370 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	28%	17%
The percentage of universities below average	72%	83%

Source: the author's own study.

In case of the average Interactivity Index value, there was again a significant difference between public and non-public universities (values of 2870 and 857 respectively). However, the maximum value of InI was almost two and a half times higher in the non-public university – SWPS (72 781) than in the public UW (29 909). This shows once again how strongly the results in SWPS stood out from other universities and how uneven was the distribution of results among non-public universities (the next in turn are Wyższa Szkoła Zarządzania i Przedsiębiorczości in Wałbrzych – 5331, Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Zarządzania in Rzeszów – 3502, Akademia L. Koźmińskiego – 3969).

Relatively few universities have achieved above average results in this category – slightly over ¼ of public universities and only 17% of non-public universities.

Table 11. Interactivity Index Fan (InI Fan) at public and non-public universities

	Interactivity Index Fan	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	2526	719
Maximum number	29 909 (UW)	72 781 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	27%	14%
The percentage of universities below average	73%	86%

Source: the author's own study.

The results for InI Fan were similar to those for total InI, both in terms of value (slightly smaller than total InI), the percentage of universities above and below the average as well as maximum values – here again UW and SWPS dominated.

Relative Interactivity

Table 12. Relative Interactivity (RI) at all universities

	Relative Interactivity (RI)
Average number	217
Maximum number	10 175 (PWSZ in Ciechanów)
The number of universities above average	86
The number of universities below average	240

Source: the author's own study.

The average Relative Interactivity (RI) value was 217. Values above the average were recorded at 86 universities, the maximum value was reached by PWSZ in Ciechanów (10 175).

Table 13. Relative Interactivity (RI) at public and non-public universities

	Relative Interactivity	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	338	146
Maximum number	10 175 (PWSZ in Ciechanów)	2183 (Wyższa Szkoła Zarządzania i Przedsiębiorczości in Wałbrzych)
The percentage of universities above average	25%	32%
The percentage of universities below average	75%	68%

Source: the author's own study.

The average Relative Interactivity (RI) value was 338 at public and 146 at non-public universities. The values above the average were recorded by 25% of public universities and 32% of non-public universities (one of the few categories where the percentage of universities above the average was higher in non-public universities than in public universities). The maximum RI value was achieved by PWSZ in Ciechanów (10 175) and Wyższa Szkoła Zarządzania i Przedsiębiorczości in Wałbrzych (2,183).

Types of posts

Table 14. Types of posts at all universities

	Posts			
	with links	with photos	with text only	with videos
Average number	6	12	1	2
Maximum number	46 (Collegium Civitas)	66 (PWSZ in Nysa)	53 (Wyższa Szkoła Rehabilitacji in Warsaw)	18 (PWSFTviT in Łódź)
The number of universities above average	105	112	92	109
The number of universities below average	221	214	234	217

Source: the author's own study.

Among the particular types of posts dominated the posts with photos (12 on average), then posts with links, the least frequent were posts with videos and posts with text only (statuses). In all post categories, about 1/3 of the universities achieved results above the average, while the maximum values many times exceeded the calculated averages. Interestingly, none of the universities that had the biggest number of posts in the analysed period were included in the group of the most engaging universities, which may suggest that a large number of posts does not necessarily mean more user engagement.

Table 15. Posts with links at public and non-public universities

	Posts with links	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	9	4
Maximum number	37 (Białystok University)	46 (Collegium Civitas)
The percentage of universities above average	32%	28%
The percentage of universities below average	68%	72%

Source: the author's own study.

Table 16. Posts with photos at public and non-public universities

	Posts with photos	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	18	8
Maximum number	66 (PWSZ in Nysa)	41 (Wyższa Szkoła Administracji Publicznej in Szczecin)
The percentage of universities above average	45%	27%
The percentage of universities below average	55%	73%

Source: the author's own study.

Table 17. Posts with text only (statuses) at public and non-public universities

	Posts with text only (statuses)	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	1	1
Maximum number	10 (Akademia im. J. Długosza in Częstochowa)	53 (Wyższa Szkoła Rehabilitacji in Warsaw)
The percentage of universities above average	28%	28%
The percentage of universities below average	72%	72%

Source: the author's own study.

Table 18. Posts with videos at public and non-public universities

	Posts with videos	
	Public universities	Non-public universities
Average number	3	1
Maximum number	18 (PWSFTviT in Łódź)	13 (SWPS)
The percentage of universities above average	36%	28%
The percentage of universities below average	64%	72%

Source: the author's own study.

Both among public and non-public universities, in the analysed period, the posts with photos were the most frequent at fanpages (respectively: 18 and 8 posts on average), half the less popular were posts with links (respectively: 9 posts and 4 posts on average), then posts with videos (respectively on average 3 posts and 1 post) and posts with text only (statuses) (on average 1 in public and 1 in non-public universities).

In case of posts with links, posts with photos and posts with videos, the percentage of universities that achieved above average results was greater for public universities, in case of posts with text only, both public and non-public universities recorded the same value here – 28%.

In non-public universities, superiority in terms of the maximum number of posts with links and posts with text only could be observed, in the remaining ones (posts with photos and posts with videos), public universities dominated.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Facebook has been invariably the most popular and the most engaging social network in the world for many years. Despite the competition from other platforms and unfavourable forecasts appearing from time to time, the number of its users is systematically growing. This is probably due to the fact that by taking over new functions from various tools and areas, Facebook offers its users the opportunity to do many things on one platform.

The conducted research has shown that universities in Poland mostly see the potential that Facebook offers (all universities present in social media have their fanpage on Facebook²⁷), but at the same time they do not always use its functions fully. The activity of Polish universities on fanpages is very diverse. There are universities that try to keep up with the emerging trends in communication with the environment, they move perfectly in the most popular social media, but there are also those for whom the activity on Facebook ends with the creation of a fanpage. The results showed that many universities analysed in the research period did not take any activities on their fanpage or they were occasional, often accidental.

It is worth noting that public universities are generally more active on Facebook, although at the same time in many categories the non-public university – SWPS – dominated. Among non-public universities, stratification is even more visible, because only SWPS is actually leading, the indicator values of other universities are many times lower, often incomparable at all. Among the leading public universities, there are several with equal engagement.

Observing communication of the most active universities on Facebook, which achieve high rates, one can assume that they have well-thought-out and well-developed communication strategies with the use of social media, and the activities on their fanpages are dealt with by professionally prepared people who are up to fast changing trends in this area. It probably involves taking into account higher expenses. On the other hand, universities that are not very active, perhaps to save money, outsource their activities on Facebook to incidental people as part of their additional duties, which probably affects the quality and effectiveness of their actions.

However, it is worth realizing that the analysis of social media and the ability to properly use analytical tools by fanpage administrators can provide universities with valuable information about the needs and behaviors of both current and potential students. In the era of the strong impact of social media on life, the not adjusting the message to the recipient may have serious negative consequences. Today, there is no way to ignore social media because they have not only changed the way we communicate, but also the way we obtain information that is important to us. The research shows that university candidates use social networking sites to review offers and ultimately choose universities²⁸. Therefore, active and

²⁷ See: I. Wojciechowska, *Skala wykorzystania social mediów...*

²⁸ In Great Britain 83% of prospective students use social media channels to gain information on universities, before they make any choice. See: J. Cooper, *How International Students Use Social*

engaging Facebook presence can largely affect the effectiveness of recruitment, and even be the most important tool in this area²⁹.

The author realizes that the research carried out covers an area that is subject to constant changes. Therefore, it would be advisable to look at the phenomenon again and analyse the activity of Polish universities on Facebook on a current basis to see what changes have occurred, and perhaps to observe some significant trends in this area.

In further research, it would also be worthwhile to analyse in detail the activities of universities that engage their users on fanpages the most (so-called leaders) to get more information on what really engages users, what content encourages them to interact and perhaps on this basis, an attempt to develop a model method of using Facebook for effective communication with the environment could be taken.

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ANALIZA AKTYWNOŚCI POLSKICH UCZELNI NA FACEBOOKU

Media społecznościowe na dobre zmieniły oblicze komunikacji. Z ich coraz większych możliwości chętnie korzystają nie tylko użytkownicy prywatni, ale także firmy i instytucje. Dzisiaj obecność w mediach społecznościowych jest czymś nieodzownym, zarówno dla użytkowników, którzy w taki sposób głównie się komunikują i czerpią informacje, jak i dla marek, dla których jest to często najważniejszy kanał komunikacji z klientami. Najpopularniejszym i najbardziej angażującym serwisem społecznościowym na świecie niezmiennie od wielu lat jest Facebook. Działalność polskich uczelni w mediach społecznościowych, w tym również na Facebooku, jest badana zaledwie od kilku lat i stanowi stosunkowo nowy obszar badawczy. Głównym celem niniejszego artykułu jest zaprezentowanie wyników badań własnych dotyczących aktywności podejmowanych przez polskie uczelnie właśnie w tym serwisie. Do badań zakwalifikowano 326 uczelni (121 uczelni publicznych i 205 niepublicznych) i podjęto się szczegółowej analizy funkcjonowania ich uczelnianych fanpage'ów. Dzięki wykorzystaniu narzędzia Sotrender zebrano niezbędne dane i obliczono wskaźniki w najważniejszych obszarach związanych z zasięgiem, zaangażowaniem oraz prezentowanymi przez uczelnie treściami na Facebooku.

Przeprowadzone badania pokazały, że uczelnie w Polsce w większości dostrzegają potencjał, jaki daje Facebook (wszystkie uczelnie obecne w social mediach mają założony swój fanpage na Facebooku), ale jednocześnie nie zawsze w pełni umiejętnie wykorzystują jego możliwości. Aktywność polskich szkół wyższych na fanpage'ach jest mocno zróżnicowana. Są uczelnie, które starają się nadążać za pojawiającymi się trendami w komunikacji z otoczeniem, doskonale poruszają się po najpopularniejszym z social mediów, ale są również i takie, dla których działalność na Facebooku kończy się na założeniu fanpage'a.

Słowa kluczowe: media społecznościowe, uczelnie w mediach społecznościowych, komunikacja w mediach społecznościowych, szkoły wyższe, Facebook.

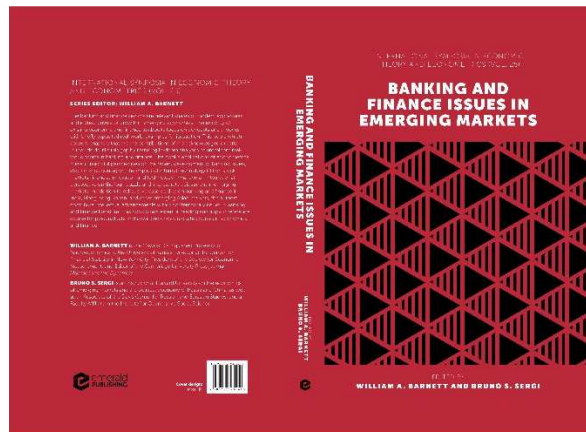
DOI: 10.7862/rz.2018.mmr.60

Tekst złożono do redakcji: październik 2018 r.

Tekst przyjęto do druku: grudzień 2018 r.

Bogdan MRÓZ¹

**OVERVIEW OF THE BOOK *BANKING AND FINANCE
ISSUES IN EMERGING MARKETS* EDITED
BY WILLIAM A. BARNETT AND BRUNO S. SERGI,
EMERALD PUBLISHING, 2018**



An important topic recently drawing increasing attention of economists, politicians and business analysts has been the changing business environment and regulative framework of the banking sector after the turmoil of recent financial crisis. This issue has come into the focus of attention of politicians, academics, transnational business leaders, media and regulators.

In this context, the choice of the subject matter for the reviewed monograph („Banking and finance issue in emerging markets”), should be commended as highly relevant and topical.

The book edited by William A. Barnett and Bruno S. Sergi is well embedded in international literature on banking and financial issues related to the realities of the emerging

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markets. The author uses multiple and diversified sources of information, including monographs, academic journals, publications and reports issued by central banks, other financial institutions, consultancies etc.

The book under review consists of 11 chapters dedicated to different aspects of contemporary banking and finance issues in emerging markets. Chapter 1 (“ASEAN-5 Economic and Exchange Rate Integration”) prepared by Tatre Jantarakolica and Korbkul Jantarakolica in the first part presents methodological assumptions and conceptual framework of the research. The subsequent sections of the chapter highlight very important problems related to the economic cooperation and exchange rate integration. The results of panel cointegration tests between level of economic integration and exchange rate integration are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2 entitled “The Macroeconomic Effects of RMB² Internationalization: The Perspective of Overseas Circulation” was written by Cong Wang and Xue Wang. In this chapter issues related to the macroeconomic impact of RMB on Chinese economy have been discussed. One of the major conclusions is that the internationalization of the RMB encourages the currency appreciation.

Chapter 3, co-authored by Pym Manopimoke, Suthawan Prukumpai and Yuthana Sethapramote is entitled “Dynamic Connectedness in Emerging Asian Equity Markets”. This chapter examines dynamic connectedness among emerging Asian equity markets and explores their linkages with other global equity markets. The authors come to the conclusion that international equity markets are tightly integrated and that the economic policy uncertainty from the US is an important source of financial shock spillover for the majority of international equity markets.

Chapter 4 (“Stock Market Contagion from a Spatial Perspective”) written by William W. Chow proposes augmenting a simple stock price model with spatial structures to evaluate the importance of real and financial linkages in instigating stock market contagion. One of the author’s major findings is that non-performing loans, market liquidity, and credit to deposit ratio turn out to be the most important factors transmitting contagion.

In chapter 5 entitled “Deposit Rate Asymmetry and Edgeworth Cycles after Hong Kong’s Interest Rate Deregulation” Michael K. Fung makes an attempt to empirically verify the presence of Edgeworth cycles in deposit rates after Hong Kong’s interests rate deregulation. The author comes to the conclusion that deposit rate decreases are more likely to be initiated when the deposit rate is near the upper bound of the cycle. Another important conclusion is that deposit rate decreases are more sensitive than increases to market rate changes.

Chapter 6 (“India’s Bad Loan Conundrum: Recurrent Concern for Banking System Stability and the Way Forward”) co-authored by Soumia Bhadury and Bhanu Pratap delves into the conditions determining the stability of India’s banking sector. The authors come to the conclusion that India’s banks, both public and private, financed too many weakly monitored projects. The authors opt for establishing a public asset-management company (AMC), well-defined governance structure for the AMC ensuring it works on market principles, and finally realistic asset valuation that ensures limited downside risks for the public AMC.

In chapter 7 (“An International Perspective on the Loan Puzzle in Emerging Markets”) Asli Leblebicioglu and Victor J. Varcarcel provide evidence that “loan puzzle” is not

² RMB = Ren Min Bi (currency of People’s Republic of China).

exclusive to developed economies but is also pervasive in emerging markets. The major takeaway from this chapter is that business loans generally decline following expansionary monetary policy shocks.

The author of chapter 8 entitled “Is Japanese Regional Banks’ Overseas Business in Emerging Markets Hopeful? An Observation through X-means Clustering” is Masaki Yamaguchi. This chapter examines overseas investments using data from regional banks’ financial reports. The X-means clustering method indicated five business patterns among regional banks. The author characterizes respective clusters and comes to the conclusion that medium-sized banks actively develop security investments while small banks cannot expand overseas investments and must seek other business models to compensate for their decreasing profits.

Chapter 9 (“A Paradigm Shift in Banking: Unfolding Asias’ FinTech Adventures”) co-authored by Agrata Gupta and Chun Xia is dedicated to the rising power of fintechs and digital banking on Asian financial markets. The fintechs disrupt traditional banking system and offer innovative services to their customers. The authors point out that 49% of global fintech investment is realized in Asia where new technology-driven business models and retail innovations (mobile wallets, P2P payments etc.) play an important role in business-to-customer relations.

Chapter 10 (“Acceptance of Financial Technology in Thailand: Case Study of Algorithm Trading”) was written by Korbkul Jantarakolica and Tatre Jantarakolica. In this chapter the authors make an attempt to design and empirically estimate a model in explaining Thai investors’ acceptance of algorithm trading. The authors’ conclusion is that Thai investors are willing to accept algorithm trading as a new financial technology, but still have concerns about the reliability and profitability of this new stock trading strategy.

The author of the last chapter of the book entitled “Financial Innovation and Technology Firms: A Smart New World with Machines” is Kevin Chen. This chapter addresses very important issues related to the rapid development of new financial technologies. The intention of the author is to demonstrate that the technological changes are just the beginning of the new world of financial services and unprecedented changes are still yet to come. Kevin Chen focuses his analysis based on case studies taken from the US and China as the biggest markets for financial innovations.

Summing up, let me reiterate that the monograph under review is an interesting and valuable theoretical-empirical study, well rooted in the topical literature. I would highly recommend the book edited by William A. Barnett and Bruno S. Sergi to all scholars as well as managers and business people interested in banking and finance in emerging markets.

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Publisher's sheet 24,80. Printer's sheet 20,50.

Manuscript completed in December 2018, Printed in December 2018.

Printing Publishing House, 12 Powstańców Warszawy Ave., 35-959 Rzeszów

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5. Streszczenie (w języku artykułu) – 200-250 słów, pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, wcięcie całości z lewej strony 2 cm, bez akapitu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp po 12 pkt
6. Słowa kluczowe – pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, bez akapitu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp po 24 pkt
7. Imię i nazwisko Autora do korespondencji oraz pozostałych Autorów, afiliacja, adresy pocztowe, numery telefonów, e-maile – na dole pierwszej strony, pod kreską, pismo podrzędne 9 pkt z odpowiednimi odnośnikami, odstęp przed 2 pkt
8. Śródtytuł 1. stopnia – pismo podrzędne 13 pkt, grube, do lewego marginesu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp przed 14 pkt, odstęp po 9 pkt
9. Tekst artykułu, a w nim tabele (tablice), materiał ilustracyjny, wzory oraz śródtytuły niższego stopnia

10. Śródtytuł 2. stopnia – pismo podrzędne 11,5 pkt, grube, do lewego marginesu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp przed 10 pkt, odstęp po 8 pkt
11. Śródtytuł 3. stopnia – pismo podrzędne 11 pkt, do lewego marginesu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp przed 8 pkt, odstęp po 6 pkt
12. Nagłówek Literatura – pismo podrzędne 11,5 pkt, grube, do lewego marginesu, odstęp przed 12 pkt, odstęp po 8 pkt
13. Spis literatury cytowanej – pismo podrzędne 10 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza, nie należy zostawiać pustych wierszy między pozycjami literatury, odstęp po 2 pkt
14. Tytuł artykułu w języku angielskim (lub polskim) – wersaliki 11 pkt, pismo grube, do lewego marginesu, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp przed 20 pkt, odstęp po 12 pkt
15. Nagłówek Summary (lub Streszczenie) – pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, grube, odstępy między znakami rozstrzelone co 2 pkt, odstęp po 6 pkt
16. Streszczenie w języku angielskim (lub polskim) – 200-250 słów, pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, wcięcie pierwszego wiersza 0,75 cm, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp po 12 pkt
17. Słowa kluczowe – pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, bez akapitu, interlinia pojedyncza
18. Numer identyfikacyjny DOI – pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, bez akapitu
19. Terminy przesłania artykułu do redakcji i przyjęcia do druku – pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, kursywa, bez akapitu, interlinia pojedyncza

Rozmieszczenie rysunków (ilustracji, fotografii, map, wykresów, schematów)

1. Materiał ilustracyjny należy umieszczać możliwie jak najbliżej miejsca jego powołania
2. Nie należy przekraczać pola zadruku (12,5 x 19 cm), w którym musi się zmieścić i materiał ilustracyjny, i podpis
3. Większe rysunki (i inny materiał ilustracyjny) wraz z podpisem powinny zajmować całe pole zadruku, mniejsze zaś należy przesunąć odpowiednio – do lewego marginesu (na stronach parzystych), do prawego marginesu (na stronach nieparzystych)
4. Podpis w dwóch językach: w języku artykułu i w języku angielskim, należy umieścić pod rysunkiem (i innym materiałem ilustracyjnym), w jego ramach, bez kropki na końcu (jeśli jest to materiał zapożyczony, należy podać źródło), pismo podrzędne 9 pkt
5. Odstęp między materiałem ilustracyjnym a podpisem – 9 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp między podpisami 4 pkt, odstęp po 14 pkt
6. Opis słowny na rysunkach należy ograniczyć do minimum, zastępując go liczbami arabskimi, a objaśnienia przenieść do podpisu – można użyć mniejszej czcionki (8 pkt)
7. Materiał ilustracyjny powinien mieć dobrą jakość, należy ujednolicić formę i opisy w całym artykule (pismo podrzędne proste, od małej litery, maks. 9, min. 6 pkt w zależności od wielkości rysunku)
8. Materiał ilustracyjny należy ponumerować kolejno w ramach artykułu

9. Jeżeli w artykule występują różne rodzaje materiału ilustracyjnego, każdemu z nich należy nadać odrębną, ciągłą numerację
10. Materiał ilustracyjny należy przygotować w odcieniach czarno-szarych (do 20% czerni), ponieważ przy wydruku czarno-białym kolorowe rysunki są słabo lub całkowicie niereprodukowalne
11. Rysunki do druku kolorowego (za zgodą redaktora naczelnego czasopisma) należy przygotować w plikach .tif, .jpg

Rozmieszczenie tabel (tablic)

Tabela – zestawienie tekstów i liczb bądź samych liczb uszeregowanych w kolumny i wiersze

Tablica – zestawienie tekstów i liczb wzbogacone dodatkowo elementami graficznymi lub kolorystycznymi (niekiedy stanowią je tylko ilustracje)

1. Tabele (tablice) należy umieszczać możliwie jak najbliżej miejsca ich powołania
2. Nie należy przekraczać pola zadruku (12,5 x 19 cm)
3. Większe tabele (tablice) włącznie z tytułem zajmują całe pole zadruku, mniejsze zaś należy przesunąć odpowiednio – do lewego marginesu (na stronach parzystych), do prawego marginesu (na stronach nieparzystych)
4. Nad tabelą (tablicą) należy umieścić tytuł w dwóch językach: w języku artykułu i w języku angielskim. Tytuł rozpoczyna się całym słowem tabela (tablica)/table i umieszcza nad nią, w jej ramach, bez kropki na końcu; pismo podrzędne 9 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza; jeżeli tabela (tablica) jest zapożyczona, należy podać źródło
5. Odstęp przed tytułem tabeli (tablicy) 12 pkt, odstęp między tytułami 4 pkt, odstęp między tytułem a tabelą (tablicą) 8 pkt
6. Legenda po tabeli (tablicy) – odstęp od tabeli (tablicy) 6 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza, odstęp po 14 pkt
7. Teksty w główce tabeli (tablicy), tj. w górnej, wydzielonej części tabeli (tablicy), objaśniające treść kolumn zapisuje się pismem grubym, rozpoczynając od dużej litery, teksty w boczku tabeli, tj. w bocznej, wydzielonej części tabeli, objaśniające treść wierszy rozpoczyna się dużymi literami – teksty w pozostałych rubrykach składa się małymi literami
8. Tabele (tablice) należy numerować kolejno w ramach artykułu. W przypadku występowania i tabel, i tablic należy nadać im odrębną, ciągłą numerację
9. Jeżeli tabela (tablica) nie mieści się w jednym polu zadruku, można ją podzielić i przenieść na następną stronę czy strony – wówczas nad wszystkimi częściami tabeli (tablicy) należy powtórzyć jej numer i tytuł, ze skrótem (cd.)
12. Tabele (tablice) należy przygotować w odcieniach czarno-szarych (do 20% czerni), ponieważ przy wydruku czarno-białym kolorowe tabele (tablice) są słabo lub całkowicie niereprodukowalne
13. Tabele (tablice) do druku kolorowego (za zgodą redaktora naczelnego czasopisma) należy przygotować w plikach .tif, .jpg

Rozmieszczenie wzorów

1. Wzory należy umieszczać z lewej strony, z wcięciem 0,75 cm, pismo proste 11 pkt, wartości indeksów i potęg 7 pkt
2. Numery wzorów należy umieszczać w nawiasach okrągłych, wyrównując do prawego marginesu, pismo proste 11 pkt
3. Wzory powinny być opatrzone objaśnieniem występujących w nich elementów
4. Wzory, do których są odniesienia w tekście, należy numerować kolejno w ramach artykułu
5. Dłuższe wzory można dzielić na znakach relacji lub działania – znak, na którym się przenosi wzór, należy pozostawić na końcu pierwszego wiersza
6. Przed wzorem i po nim należy zachować odstęp 10 pkt

Rozmieszczenie spisu literatury

1. Spis literatury umieszcza się za treścią artykułu, w kolejności alfabetycznej nazwisk autorów
2. Powołania na literaturę należy zapisywać w tekście w nawiasie kwadratowym
3. W spisie literatury należy umieścić wyłącznie te publikacje, które są powoływane w tekście

PRZYKŁADY:

Książki

Lewandowski W.M.: Proekologiczne źródła energii odnawialnej, Wydawnictwa Naukowo-Techniczne, Warszawa 2002.

Czasopisma

Pietrucha K.: Analiza czasu odnowy i naprawy podsystemu dystrybucji wody dla miasta Rzeszowa, Instal, nr 10, 2008, s. 113-115.

Dokumenty elektroniczne

Zanotti G., Guerra C.: Is tensegrity a unifying concept of protein folds? FEBS Letters, vol. 534, no. 1-3, 2003, pp. 7-10, <http://www.sciencedirect.com> (dostęp: 8 czerwca 2011 r.).

Rozmieszczenie streszczenia

1. Po literaturze umieszcza się tytuł artykułu, nagłówek Summary i streszczenie w języku angielskim
2. Gdy artykuł jest w języku angielskim, na początku należy umieścić streszczenie w języku angielskim, a na końcu w języku polskim
3. Gdy artykuł jest w innym języku kongresowym, na początku należy umieścić streszczenie w języku artykułu, a na końcu w języku angielskim
4. Po streszczeniu umieszcza się słowa kluczowe w tym samym języku co streszczenie

Rozmieszczenie numeru identyfikacyjnego i informacji dodatkowych

1. Po słowach kluczowych należy umieścić numer identyfikacyjny DOI
2. Pod numerem identyfikacyjnym zamieszcza się terminy przesłania artykułu do redakcji i przyjęcia do druku

Inne uwagi

1. W artykule można stosować wyliczenia – elementy wyliczeń należy oznaczać w całym artykule w sposób jednolity, np. za pomocą cyfr arabskich z kropką lub małych liter z nawiasem
2. W artykule należy stosować ogólnie przyjęte skróty, ale zdanie nie może się zaczynać od skrótu – należy go wówczas rozwinąć lub przeredagować zdanie
3. W artykułach każdy cytat musi być opatrzony informacją bibliograficzną (w formie przypisu na dole strony lub odwołania do spisu literatury)
4. Przypisy (pismo podrzędne 9 pkt) należy zapisywać w sposób jednolity w całym artykule, opatrując je odnośnikami gwiazdkowymi (gdy jest ich niewiele) lub liczbowymi, przyjmując ciągłą numerację w całym artykule i umieszczając każdy przypis od nowego akapitu

PRZYKŁADY:

- ¹ M. Hereźniak, *Kreowanie marki narodowej – rola idei przewodniej na przykładzie projektu „Marka dla Polski”*, [w:] H. Szulce, M. Florek, *Marketing terytorialny – możliwości aplikacji, kierunki rozwoju*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 2005, s. 344-345.
 - ² L. Witek, *Wpływ ekologicznych funkcji opakowań na postawy rynkowe konsumentów*, *Opakowanie*, nr 5, 2006, s. 12-17.
 - ³ J. Strojny, *Zmiany gospodarcze i społeczne w integrującej się Europie*, *Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Rzeszowskiej*, nr 225, *Zarządzanie i Marketing*, z. 5, 2006, s. 45-50.
5. Nie należy pozostawiać na końcu wiersza tytułów znajdujących się przed nazwiskiem, inicjału imienia, spójników, cyfr arabskich i rzymskich
 6. Należy stosować wyłącznie legalne jednostki miar

Zachęcamy Autorów do zapoznania się z archiwum artykułów naukowych zawartych w Zeszytach Naukowych Politechniki Rzeszowskiej oraz do wykorzystania ich w bibliografii swojego artykułu.

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MODERN MANAGEMENT REVIEW

dotychczasowa nazwa (do 2012 r.)
Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Rzeszowskiej, Zarządzanie i Marketing
(p-ISSN 1234-3706)

zmiana nazwy (od 2013 r.) na:
Modern Management Review, MMR
(p-ISSN 2300-6366), (e-ISSN 2353-0758)

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