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OUTDOOR MARKETS AS A REGIONAL FOOD DISTRIBUTION CHANNEL IN POLAND BETWEEN 2004 AND 2013

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INTRODUCTION

Trade plays a significant role in Poland's national economy. After industry, it is the second largest contributor to gross domestic product (GDP). In 2013, trade accounted for 16.5% of GDP, a slight 0.06% more than the 17.1% it reached in 2004. Trade made up about 19.5% of gross value added in 2004. As regards the retail sector in Poland, goods are purchased most often (56% of the time, in fact) directly from domestic producers and manufacturers, which makes up an approximately 29% share of the wholesale sector in the total sales [Internal Market 2013]. A trend to reduce the role of middlemen in the supply chain, including for food, is clearly notable nowadays, which is a positive development for sustainable production and the consumption of goods brought to market by a shorter supply chain, thus providing an opportunity for producers, especially of agricultural products, to earn a fair income. Poland had as many as 307 agricultural producer groups[1] operating in 2013, due to considerable fragmentation of farms and a weak network of producer organisations. Consequently, a large part of production capacity was dispersed among the farm holdings producing on a small scale. More than half of them generated less than 4 thousand EUR worth of produce, so the majority share features including low specialisation and limited participation in the market [RDP 2014–2020]. It is therefore important not only to provide opportunities to farmers with access to alternative outlets on agricultural markets, but to also enable local processing of agricultural produce on site in farm holdings. Given the viewpoint of especially small farms, the sales points they find attractive include marketplaces and bazaars as well as marginal sale points

[1] www.krs.org.pl [accessed: 25.11.2013].

designated by local authorities, where they can, for example, offer their raw materials, including farm produce and products processed on the farm, directly to the consumer. Such sale points include markets, bazaars and other sites specified by the local authorities as marginal sales space. Besides, for over a decade now, outdoor events such as bazaars, fairs, festivals, and special product days (for beans, cherries, plums, apples, oscypek – a Polish sheep cheese, wine and honey and other locally grown and/or produced products) have been promoted, and are now becoming increasingly popular across the country. The events have been organised in cooperation with local government authorities, public-private organisations, and chambers of commerce, providing a good opportunity to buy local products and acting as a magnet for both local farmers and tourists.

GOALS, SOURCE MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

The article seeks to show changes in the level and structure of seasonal and all-year outdoor markets in Poland since Poland's accession to the EU as one of the places where PDO (protected designation of origin) and PGI (protected geographical indication) labelled foods are sold. I refer to the results of research conducted during projects, including those concerning the consumers of traditional and regional food in Poland (grant 2007 – A programme of Cooperation Fund Agro-Smak 2, and project NN 112374540 NCN) as well as the producers of those products (grant MNiSW NN 112057234 and my own research conducted during 2010–2014). Comparative and descriptive methods are used in the analysis. Information about consumer preferences concerning traditional and regional food with EU geographical indications was obtained with the support of the PENTOR Research International polling organization in 2007 and with the support of TNS Polska polling organization in 2012. The survey was conducted among a representative sample of 1,038 and 1,200 Polish respondents over 15 years of age, respectively, using CAPI interviewing and by means of ad-hoc Omnibus method. The survey of producers of regional and traditional food was conducted between 2008–2010 (33% of the products from the list of traditional products, including also those awarded PDO, PGI and TSG – traditional speciality guaranteed, status) as well as in 2014 by means of a questionnaire (70 producers) and a telephone interview (120 entities).

OPEN MARKET TRADING IN POLAND BETWEEN 2004 AND 2013

The scale and standardization of the production output obtained from the acreage of farm holdings in Poland, especially those with an area of less than 5 ha, or about 1.5 million entities (approximately 69.2% of the total number of farms), has been a major obstacle preventing the availability of regular and continuous batches of products for the retail sector. Of course, farmers could sell their products directly on their farms – "at the gate", "under shelters", or "under a tarp", but it doing so they reduced the scope of potential opportunities and possibilities of creating added value. Farmers also sell their crops from May through October at places specifically designated for that purpose, and not only in small towns or villages within a given district or in adjacent areas. They look for ways to

increase the scope of their operations using mobile sale points, specialized trailers, trucks, and tents where they display their products, but they are steadily pressured by strong competitors such as organized retail outlets (shops, including supermarkets and hypermarkets) competing by means of price or product variety. Despite these changes, local trade still takes place at marketplaces and continues to be popular among Polish people (especially retirees seeking to buy products at affordable prices directly from farmers, or mothers buying naturally fresh food for children), especially in rural areas. As for urban areas, local trade has been revived thanks to the migrant population and demand among local residents. Even though itinerant trade has phased out as a result of the increasing concentration of trade, forced specialization of business activities[2], the entrance of foreign retail chains to the market, and the development of shopping centres and other brick--and-mortar retail facilities, and the currently expanding mail-order sales and e-commerce and online shops, which are becoming increasingly important, local trade continues to be an attractive way of delivering goods, especially farm produce, to the final consumer. It also complements the domestically produced goods offered on the market.

Outdoor markets originated in Poland on squares where farmers sold crops and live animals (they were known as cereal or horse fairs). Despite their changed function, they have remained an example of a short supply chain which today also generates numerous economic, social and environmental benefits, on a micro as well as a macro scale (Table 1).

Outdoor markets generate income for local government budgets through the fees sellers pay for the right to sell their products. At the same time, they also generate income for sellers (including farmers), make use of and reinforce local resources by providing

TABLE 1. Local food supply systems and short supply chains in Poland given as examples of marketplace benefits

Benefit	Short supply chains
Commercial	diversification of the rural economy; generation of employment; sustained maintained funding for local areas; the use and strengthening of local resources
Economic	decentralisation of food systems; goods transported (or not) over short distances from the production site; reduced needs for activities such as transportation, freezing, warehousing, storage, processing, packaging, distribution; business opportunities both on the farm and outside farming; sustained production income
Social	preservation of cultural heritage; tradition – knowledge, folklore, reduction of the generation gap, integration; a sense of pride and belonging; the strengthening of social cohesion; opportunity for young people; the restoration of links between rural and urban areas; creation and strengthening of community ties; improved quality of life
Environmental	smaller carbon footprint, climate-friendly, less energy-intensive, lower greenhouse gas emissions, reduced consumption of fuel and other resources; maintenance of local or regional heritage, the keeping of traditional breeds and species of animals, or crops typical for the area, which are better suited to local conditions; promotion of biodiversity

Source: the author's own research.

[2] Stationary shops include: specific branch dealers, multi-branch and specialised goods shops, boutiques, department stores and merchant houses, superstores, industrial and grocery stores, discounters and other retail units (i.e. petrol stations, kiosks, vending machines, sales from warehouses).

TABLE 2. Total number of marketplaces (permanent and seasonal) and marketplaces or locations designated on streets or squares as seasonal points of sale in Poland in the years 2004–2013 (by voivodship)

Year	Voivodships																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Total number of marketplaces (permanent and seasonal)																	
2004	2 204	214	230	212	214	2 238	592	67	271	98	469	453	206	110	355	503	8 436
2005	2 266	218	240	227	213	1 832	563	67	285	102	674	475	164	287	359	1 070	9 042
2006	2 112	225	241	225	238	1 710	582	82	253	102	350	489	163	337	361	1 030	8 500
2007	2 166	233	242	221	238	1 643	969	80	257	103	378	469	199	207	358	1 160	8 923
2008	2 869	219	240	232	244	1 396	877	357	268	98	310	493	155	285	721	1 759	10 523
2009	795	265	248	238	266	1 357	1 047	516	272	124	685	554	155	132	716	1 959	9 329
2010	845	259	248	225	276	1 317	1 183	468	270	137	373	532	149	135	710	2 021	9 148
2011	801	270	276	195	279	1 334	1 046	463	243	138	386	539	150	133	708	1 835	8 796
2012	803	302	282	166	286	1 487	1 047	463	248	152	343	504	146	131	708	1 653	8 721
2013	992	310	290	161	337	1 293	1 018	545	249	153	322	499	141	136	712	1 509	8 667
2013 (%)	11.4	3.6	3.3	1.9	3.9	14.9	11.7	6.3	2.9	1.8	3.7	5.8	1.6	1.6	8.2	17.4	100
Marketplaces or locations designated on streets or squares as seasonal points of sales																	
2004	2 049	69	41	139	51	2 082	279	16	139	16	374	236	118	31	104	384	6 128
2005	2 106	73	53	151	44	1 676	253	17	156	20	576	259	83	208	101	953	6 729
2006	1 954	80	55	151	72	1 554	265	25	128	20	260	274	83	257	109	916	6 203
2007	2 011	87	59	149	70	1 487	652	24	132	20	291	258	120	127	105	1 047	6 639
2008	2 716	79	51	155	80	1 244	567	299	144	19	223	291	76	205	470	1 643	8 262
2009	643	127	58	163	87	1 206	731	463	145	45	596	359	78	55	469	1 848	7 073
2010	696	123	57	150	90	1 167	872	415	144	58	281	349	72	56	473	1 910	6 913
2011	654	135	85	121	94	1 185	734	411	115	59	293	349	69	55	474	1 731	6 564
2012	658	168	97	92	103	1 340	727	413	117	74	254	318	65	54	474	1 552	6 506
2013	850	175	102	87	160	1 147	701	494	118	72	234	316	59	56	479	1 410	6 460
2013 (%)	13	3	2	1	2	18	11	8	2	1	4	5	1	1	7	22	100

Voivodships: 1 – Dolnośląskie (Lower Silesia), 2 – Kujawsko-pomorskie, 3 – Lubelskie, 4 – Lubuskie, 5 – Łódzkie, 6 – Małopolskie, 7 – Mazowieckie (Mazovia), 8 – Opolskie, 9 – Podkarpackie, 10 – Podlaskie, 11 – Pomorskie, 12 – Śląskie (Silesia), 13 – Świętokrzyskie, 14 – Warmińsko-mazurskie (Warmia and Mazuria), 15 – Wielkopolskie, 16 – Zachodniopomorskie (Western Pomerania), 17 – Poland Total.

Source: the author's own calculations based on the Local Data Bank of the Central Statistical Office in Poland, retrived from http://stat.gov.pl/bdlen/ [accessed: 23.04.2015].

jobs for local inhabitants, shorten both the supply and carbon chains, and enable the sale of products which are characteristic of a given region (and therefore protect the region's cultural or genetic heritage, including its old species, plant types, and traditional animal breeds). Despite numerous measures taken by local governments (municipalities) to improve the conditions and standards of outdoor markets (in villages as well as in towns and cities), and to increase the safety and comfort of working/shopping, improve the image of stands as well as the condition of infrastructural amenities (e.g. paved roads, parking spaces, lighting, running water, sewage system, roofs over stands, toilets), the number of outdoor markets has been declining nationwide since 2008 (Table 2).

The greatest number of outdoor markets (the total of 55.5%) in Poland was recorded in four provinces: Małopolska, Mazovia, Lower Silesia and Western Pomerania. Their popularity in those regions can be attributed to the communities living there, trading traditions, relations between the sellers and the buyers, the number of small farms (up to 5 ha), the location of outdoor markets, or their growing operations in certain seasons, especially in tourist venues at the seaside and in the mountains. In 2013 there were 2,207 permanent outdoor markets and 6,460 seasonal outdoor markets (on streets and squares), i.e. by nearly 1,300 more than in 2000. Retail outdoor markets comprised the dominant share of the all-year markets (95%, i.e. 2105). The greatest number of those operated in Mazovia (295), Wielkopolska (222) and Silesia (181), while the smallest number can be found in provinces Opolskie (50) and Lubuskie (where 73 out of 74 were retail outdoor markets), and 77–79 in provinces: Podlasie, Warmia and Mazuria and Świętokrzyskie. With the declining number of outdoor markets, their area also declined by approximately 10% between 2004–2013, to 14.4 million m^2, mainly as a result of loss of grounds by all-year markets (by 5%, 194 thousand m^2) and lack of room in the streets around squares for conducting seasonal trading activities. In 2013, the sales area on permanent markets accounted for 60% of the total market area. The number of permanent retail outlets at outdoor markets operating daily, which includes roofed booths (e.g. selling vegetables or fruit, or both), or stands (constructed with portable devices on which products are displayed for sale), amounted to 58.7 thousand, which accounted for 58% of the total number of permanent outdoor markets. Cyrek and Cyran (2006) point out that outdoor markets are attractive for clients due to low prices of products and a broad range of goods offered for sale. Customers purchase directly from producers because they are convinced that the products are high quality, and they are attracted by the sellers' kindness. The location of a market also plays a role here. Finally, according to Cyrek (2012), consumers choose outdoor markets because of specific types of products sold there and nowhere else.

PREFERENCES OF REGIONAL FOOD CONSUMERS IN POLAND

Between 2008–2014, 66% of products on the list of traditional products were sold mainly in locations where they were produced, including on farms, in bakeries, or at the producer's homes. A slightly smaller number of producers decided to reach consumers on the local market, such as the nearest town, neighbouring towns and municipalities (59%) and regional markets, i.e. provincial markets (58%) [Borowska 2010]. In reaching

consumers, crop producers use mostly short distribution channels, based on direct supply and sales (83%). The majority of traditional and local products are sold using outdoor markets as the main channel of distribution (58%), most often on the local market (38%) [Krajeński and Zabrocki 2008]. However, the selling place, the type of shop, or sale within the area of product origin are also taken into account as far as the perception of a listed product's authenticity is concerned [Bryła 2013]. In 2012, consumers in Poland expressed a desire to buy regional foods with geographical indications to be available at a nearby shop (59%), at a supermarket (32.3%), or at a nearby outdoor market (27.3%), during various local/regional events and celebrations, including at fairs (17.9%), specialized shops (15.6%), or the producer's place (13.3%); some people prefer direct home delivery (6.3%), and every twentieth respondent would like to taste it in a restaurant or a bar. However, at 2.3%, few would be prepared to go to a warehouse, and only 2% would buy such products online.

For a decade there has been a trend in Poland to minimize food processing while preserving its safety. Consumers expect producers to use processing methods that guarantee the preservation of raw product values such as aroma, freshness, taste and natural nutrients [Krupa and Krupa 2009]. Time-consuming to produce, regional Polish foods have been ousted from the market by mass production. This is why a revival of regional and ethnic foods and products granted PDI, PGI and TSG indications is underway. Growing interest in thus labelled regional and traditional foods is attributable mainly to their quality (every other consumer says as much), unique taste (over 44%), and the desire for wholesome, additive-free food (33%). Next 17% eat regional foods because they are in vogue and every tenth consumer avoids buying mass-produced food for everyday consumption. Indeed, the number of certified producers and their production grew systematically between 2007 and 2014, corroborating the existence of a trend. In 2014 alone 431 producers had the right to sell certified regional and traditional products (i.e. 29 out of 36 products)[3].

For the sake of comparison, the estimated production volume at that time for PDO foods was: oscypek 56.9 t, nadwiślanka sour cherries 665.6 t, and wrzawska beans 15 t. For foods labelled PGI, the numbers were the following: grójeckie apples 12 thousand t, łąckie apples 1 thousand t, kaszubska strawberries 466 t, sechlońska plums 46 t. For TSG the figures were: pierekaczewnik 733 pieces, *Camelina sativa* oil 6 thousand l.

In 2007, according to 57% of Poles, traditional and regional food included „products, food articles and spirits, the quality and unique properties of which resulted from the application of traditional production methods, at least 25 years old, which constituted integrity components of a given region". However, as much as 34% of the population claimed not to know of such products. It turned out that Poles were able to make associations with concrete names of food PDO-labelled articles (bryndza podhalańska cheese, for example), as well as products that were undergoing EU protection application procedures and were on the list of traditional products [Act… 2005] (i.e.: oscypek cheese, andruty kaliskie wafers, kiełbasa lisiecka, meads, St Martin's croissants, and korycińskie cheeses). They could also name products which they positively associated

[3] Unpublished data of GIJHARS from March 2015.

with the traditional Polish cuisine (e.g. pork chops, vodka, particular breads and cheeses, lacto-fermented cucumbers, and sauerkraut). Another group included people who indicated products associated positively with traditional/regional products, but they were not such products, and the fourth group of respondents included consumers who bought products originating in the region (e.g. agricultural raw-materials, processed products based on local products) [Jąder 2012].

One might conclude that when that 2007 survey was conducted some percentage of Poles interpreted the notion of "traditional or regional products" freely and individually, identifying them usually intuitively [Borowska 2007, 2008]. In the subsequent years this perception did not change much, although the percentage of consumers who started to recognise PGI, PDO and TSG products grew. In mid-2012, 13.3% of Poles over 15 years of age were aware of PDO, 13.5% of PGI and 17.15% of TSG. This relatively higher percentage was influenced by media coverage of criminal penalties for those offering fraudulent products which imitate genuine products and mislead consumers. In 2013, MillwardBrown announced that the three labels were recognizable by 6–9% of consumers, though every third person was familiar with the idea of marking products in this way. In the case of producers and distributors, 90% had heard of the European system for marking regional and traditional products. Of that 90%, 80% were producers and approximately 50% were distributors [Internal Market 2013][4].

Comparing this awareness with the knowledge of rural communities, especially that of farmers and other beneficiaries of RDP 2007–2014 with non-farmers, the former demonstrate greater awareness of food quality systems [Polish countryside… 2013] (21–24% of respondents), while the labels are known only to 15–17% of non-farmers. Growing awareness is very important, as it helps individuals make informed decisions about product purchases, and creates demand for those quality products.

It is worth examining the directions future consumption of certified regional foods in Poland may take. First, depending on the product concerned, its main consumers will be the inhabitants of the region where the food is produced. The second group of target recipients will be tourists, 60% of whom state a desire to taste regional products during their trips to the locations where they are produced [Apettite for Region 2013], and 50% of whom seek to purchase such products and food prepared by local suppliers. Approximately 67% bring regional food products home from vacation, including mainly cheeses (35%), honey (14%), fish (14%), cold meats (13%), and bread (8%). These are bought usually during regular or seasonal local and regional events such as festivals, fairs, and product days. Apart from those, culinary trails are growing in popularity (there are already nearly 40 in Poland, centred around regional, local and traditional food such as the "Oscypek Trail", the "Plum Trail", and the "Silesian Tastes" culinary trail). Rural tourism farms and HoReCa partners are also popular [Chojka 2009]. The third group of consumers is going to be new buyers who do not yet know of the products, and the fourth group is those who for the time being are against such foods for objective and/or subjective reasons. All due measures should be taken to encourage the last two consumer groups to buy and taste regional products at least once in their lives.

[4] www.trzyznakismaku.pl [May 2013].

FACILITATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF DIRECT SALES OF ANIMAL PRODUCTS, INCLUDING REGIONAL PRODUCTS WITH PGI, PDO AND TSG DESIGNATIONS IN POLAND

Poland has taken legislative action to enable the sale of regional products with PGI, PDO and TSG designations not only on local markets but also nationwide. The legislation comes in response to two issues: one, farmers' expectations vis-a-vis conducting direct sales on farms and beyond (at culinary events, fairs, and the like) of insignificant amounts of some unprocessed animal products and the resulting limitations [Regulation… 2007, Polish countryside… 2013, RDP 2014–2020]; and, second, due to growing consumer interest in food purchased directly from farmers. As of 2016, legislation will enter into force, including on the scope of direct sales of animal products. It will introduce convenient changes, including the following:

- extending the catalogue of products marketed not only on farms;
- increasing established production quantity limits, as well as new products;
- allowing for exceeding direct sales volume by entities in a given week, provided that consent has been granted by a competent poviat veterinary officer;
- preserving annual sales limits;
- lifting – under certain conditions – restrictions on direct sales during fairs and exhibitions organized for promotion purposes in Poland;
- introducing "collective sales" during events.

These measures are intended to facilitate entities (e.g. farmers) to sell directly products of animal origin without the need to register their business operations (as of 28 September 2015 there were over 7.3 million registered entities). It will also be easier to reach the final consumer. Until now, farmers could sell directly only unprocessed products; in order to sell processed food, they had to register and obtain the required permits. For 1 January 2016, farmers will be able to sell their food without registering, and their operations will be taxed at 2 % of their sales volume, with turnover not to exceed 0.6 million PLN per annum.

SUMMARY

Analysis of changes in supply and demand on the market of quality regional foods with geographical indications shows that producers have stopped being anonymous. Their products are better advertised and their brand is being built more professionally. Certification of production attests to products' origin, and the products are more easily found on the market not only through direct but also indirect (traditional and modern) distribution channels. Though those producers have not yet been satisfactorily integrated, their products are expanding on the market (especially in terms of processed products) in the case of market leaders and organized producer groups. Stakeholders of this still niche market still face numerous challenges, including effective and continuous education of producers and society on the system of food quality, the multi-directional promotion of products in Poland and abroad, institutional public and private support – at the national and local levels – of actions which identify both cultural and culinary heritage.

My own research and analysis of regional data on outdoor markets in Poland between 2004–2013 allow the following conclusions to be drawn:

1. Since 2008 the total number of outdoor markets in Poland has been declining, with seasonal outdoor markets and sales places on streets and squares growing in number. Despite the trend, outdoor markets are still of significant importance to the distribution of agricultural products, including those of regional character and those with geographical indications. They are still an attractive shopping alternative to a supermarket, not only in towns and cities, but also in rural areas, creating opportunities for direct contact between customers and producers to occur.
2. A positive change has consisted in the market of high quality certified food with geographical indications steadily growing in Poland–interest in the food has led producers to increase their production (cases in point being oscypek cheese, St Martin's croissants, Cracow pretzels, kaszubska strawberries, nadwiślanka sour cherries, wrzawska beans, regional honeys, and the like).
3. A proposed legislative solution governing direct sales of products of animal origin is set to enter into force on 1 January 2016. It is targeted at consumers' expectations and addresses the concerns of agricultural organizations. The bill provides for a number of amenities created for sales entities, including farmers, which are to shorten long supply chains, and facilitate final consumers' access to those products, including those with geographical indications.

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Summary. The article examines the importance of all-year and seasonal outdoor markets in the supply chain of regional food with PDO and PGI geographical indications. The author elaborates on changes to sales levels and the structure of outdoor markets in Poland in the years 2004–2013. She looks at the role outdoor markets play in the food supply chain, including the supply of regional food, especially agricultural products. She used consumer surveys as a primary source of information and data from Poland's Central Statistical Office as a secondary source. The article concludes with reflections on the possibility of developing direct sales of regional foods in Poland's outdoor markets in the context of consumer expectations.

Key words: domestic trade, direct sales, outdoor markets, regional products (PDO, PGI)

JEL: L66, M31, Q13

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STUDENT PREFERENCES ON THE MILK MARKET

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INTRODUCTION

Consumer preferences are defined as consumers' choices motivated by the perceived utility of products. Consumer preferences are also subjective relations inherent in the choice of products in given conditions [Kudełka and Marzec 2004]. They do not have a constant character and they undergo constant changes. The existence of preferences means that consumers' decision making is influenced by numerous internal and external factors. The analysis of preferences makes it possible to determine the conditions that are necessary every time an individual consumer makes a decision, while preference attributes make it possible to determine the solutions to decision-making problems. The consumer choice theory is of great theoretical and practical value [Szapiro 1993]. Changes in consumer preferences on the market depend on numerous factors, including a wide range of products, the health and ecological awareness of customers, their purchasing power and the possibilities that exist for creating substitute products on the market [Adamczyk et al. 2002].

According to G. Antonides and W.F. van Raaij, consumer behaviour includes all activities, both physical and mental, connected with purchasing, obtaining, applying and consuming goods. These activities allow consumers to solve problems and become fully content [Światowy 2006]. The science that investigates consumers' activities and behaviour is very broad. It collects information about all the elements of the process of buying and analyzes it. Everyone is a consumer – from a small child spending money on toys to the president of a big company who spends millions on the equipment he requires. A similar all-inclusiveness happens with products, as everything that allows for the achievement of satisfaction and the fulfillment of desires can be consumed [Solomon 2006].

The assumptions of consumer choice theory are based on neoclassical and behavioural economics. Neoclassical economics holds that the behaviour of economic entities can be described with the following assumptions [Solek 2010]:

– individuals act rationally;
– individuals act in such a way that would be widely comprehended as being in their own interest;
– individuals have consistent preferences;
– individuals act on the basis of full and relevant information;
– individuals treat reserves and income interchangeably.

In neoclassical theory, the consumer's behaviour can also be described using the concept of expected utility, which consists of the following rules:
– preferences are complete, i.e. it is possible to compare them;
– preference is transitive, i.e. if we prefer a to b and b to c, we will prefer a to c;
– invariability exists, i.e. the nature of the presentation does not influence the price.

However, in behavioural economics, we deal with limited rationality that assumes that a consumer has limited information as well as problems analyzing it. That is why consumers are not able to maximize their satisfaction [Solek 2010].

Research on consumer preferences is particularly important in analyzing the milk market because dairy products are among the most important sources of calcium in most people's diet. It is said that in Poland, due to a low intake of dairy products, people have a considerable deficiency of the macro-element hypocalcemia – of up to 50%. Two glasses of milk contain sufficient calcium and protein for an adult's daily needs [Adamczyk et al. 2009]. A deficiency of these elements contributes to numerous ailments, diseases and conditions, osteoporosis foremost among them, but also nervous disorders, uncontrolled cramps, tetany seizure and cardiac arrhythmia [Zaręba et al. 2009].

There have been notable differences in the level of milk and dairy product consumption over the past few decades in Poland. In the 1980s, milk consumption was 270–280 l per inhabitant per year while by the end of the 1990s milk and dairy product consumption had dropped to 198 l. In 2004, there was another drop to 174 l per person and in 2013 there was a small rise to 193 l per person. The reason for the decrease should be sought in the comparatively faster growth in dairy product prices than in consumer income and inflation [Świątkowska 2009]. The second reason for the fall in milk consumption is that people have been able to get their protein from greater consumption of meat and other products and are now more readily available [Adamczyk et al. 2002].

With the great changes that have characterized milk consumption in mind, the research described in the following pages was conducted. While consumer preferences in milk consumption undergo constant changes, more and more people consume processed food, which has a higher value added.

AIM, SUBJECT AND METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

The main aim of the research was to learn consumer preferences in milk and dairy products. As the main aim, the following objectives were achieved:
– to determine the frequency with which milk is bought;
– to recognize the factors consumers consider when buying milk;
– to estimate the value of the factors consumers consider while buying milk and dairy products.

The subject of the research was a group of 98 students that do the shopping in Ostrołęka for themselves and their families. The research group constituted second and third year students of management in the Higher School of Economics and Social Sciences in Ostrołęka. In the research, no probability sampling was used in order to convince the students, all of whom were studying second or third year management, to participate in the research. A questionnaire and interview were used. The questionnaire included open-ended questions, closed-ended questions and mixed questions. The factors that determined the consumers' choices were graded from 1 to 5, where 5 was the highest mark. Tables, diagrammes, and description methods were used in the analysis of the data.

RESEARCH RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH

The characteristics of the respondents were first determined. At 76.5% of respondents, women were the majority. The largest group was between 21 and 35 years of age (79.5%) while the smallest group was made up of individuals under 21 (9.2%). There were also individuals over 46 years of age in the group of respondents (Table). Unsurprisingly, in the Higher School of Economics and Social Sciences in Ostrołęka there are students who elect to study at night or on weekends because they work but are required by their employers to raise their qualifications.

Most respondents live in villages (45.9%) and in towns with up to 50 thousand inhabitants (25.5%). Only 11 respondents lived in a city of from 100 to 500 thousand inhabitants. Most respondents were single (72.4%).

TABLE. Characteristics of the respondents

Features	Amount	Percentage
Sex		
Women	75	76.5
Men	23	23.5
Age		
Under 21	9	9.2
21–35	78	79.5
36–45	8	8.2
46–55	5	5.1
Over 55	1	1.0
Place of residence		
Village	45	45.9
Town of up to 50 000	25	25.5
Town of 50 000–100 000	18	18.4
City of 100 000–500 000	11	11.2
Marital status		
Single	71	72.4
Married	25	25.5
Widow/Widower	2	2.1

Source: own study.

Numerous changes have recently occurred in the milk market lately, including to both and demand, and how they are adjusted to consumer needs. In addition, many new products have been introduced to the market and technologies have been modernized to meet consumers' expectations [Adamczyk et al. 2009].

The type of product is only one of the basic factors that shape consumer preferences. Therefore, the questionnaire included the following types of milk: pasteurized milk (which expires quickly after opening) and UHT milk (ultra-high temperature), i.e. condensed milk and milk "straight from the cow", which can be bought straight from producers or in small local shops in special containers.

The respondents were asked to indicate the milk they buy most frequently (Fig. 1). Most indicated UHT milk (70.41%), which began to be produced in the 1990s and has a long expiry date, which perhaps accounts for its popularity. Pasteurized milk was the second most frequently purchased type. It is most often chosen by people who often buy milk and who are attached to a given brand and producer. Definitely, the smallest percentage of respondents chooses milk "straight from the cow" (20.41%), which has the shortest expiry date. Moreover, its distribution and availability is limited only to selected sales points.

The students were asked to indicate how often they bought milk. Most respondents bought it every day (39.8%) or once or twice a week (22.45%). The high purchase frequency shows that the consumers use milk every day. Because milk is perishable, it should be consumed within 24 h of being opened, which creates the need to buy milk more often. Only 14.29% of respondents bought milk less than once a week (Fig. 2).

In the questionnaire, the respondents indicated the factors they consider while buying milk (Fig. 3). The most important according to the respondents were the container (2.84), the brand (2.81) and information on the container (2.76). The type of container matters not only to the milk producers, but is also important for transportation and sales considerations. The ability to open and close the container numerous times is another important factor for consumers as it enables them to use the product many times. The container should have printed on it the information needed to allow consumers to know basic information about the product, and hence reduce the risk in buying it. Such information includes the date of expiration, composition of ingredients, the percentage of fat and other ingredients, and a bar code. That consumers assess price as such an important factor in their decision to purchase a particular type or brand of milk speaks and what they are sensitive to.

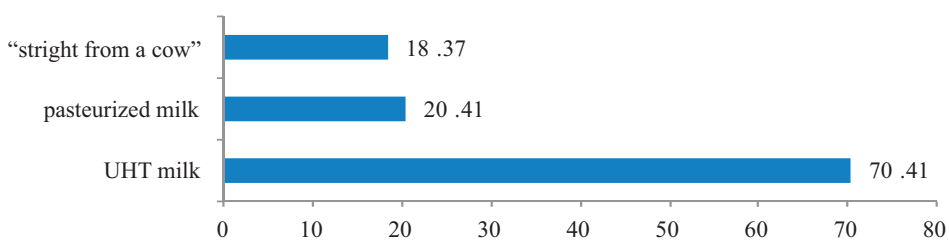

FIG. 1. Types of milk most frequently bought by the respondents (%)

Source: own study.

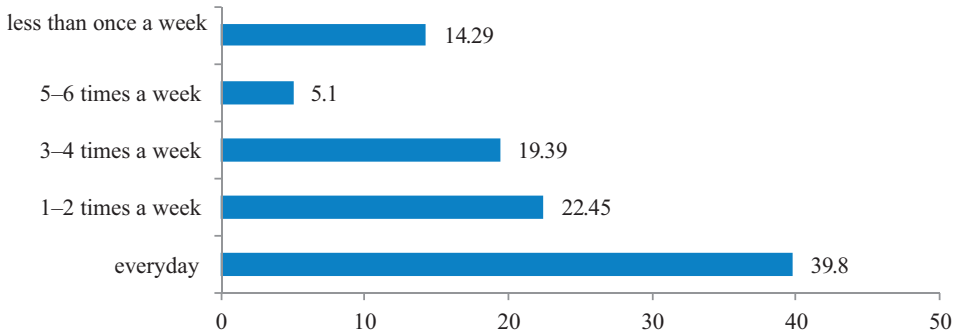

FIG. 2. Frequency of buying milk (%)

Source: own study.

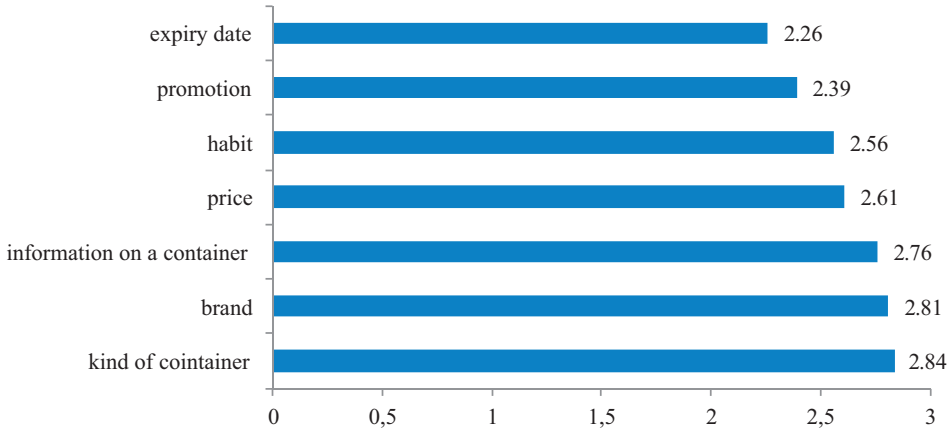

FIG. 3. Factors taken into consideration while buying milk (marks from 1 to 3, where 3 is the most important factor)

Source: own study.

Brand is important to consumers who pay attention to quality. They usually exhibit an attachment to the products they buy in the belief that they guarantee good quality [Grabowski et al. 2010]. The research results indicate attachment to brand, proving that, in the case of routine shopping, the container and the brand compel consumers to repeat particular purchases. The next factor that consumers take into consideration when purchasing milk is price (2.61). The result indicates a high sensitivity to price.

One of the least important factors that motivated the respondents to buy milk was habit (2.56) and special offers (2.39). The latter do not matter in buying milk as consumers choose the brands they know and value. Consumers also indicated that the expiration date does not matter, suggesting that they trust the sales points where they shop to offer fresh products. An additional factor in not regarding the expiration date as important is

that consumers most often choose UHT milk, which has a long expiration date and makes for a safer purchase.

The most important information placed on a container was the brand (89.8%) and the percentage of fat (83.67%). These two factors determine the choice of milk to a large degree (Fig. 4).

The information about the percentage of fat in milk is particularly important for consumers that pay attention to product quality and healthfulness. According to an Agricultural Market Agency analysis, the most popular milk has 3.2% fat, and is chosen almost 50% of the time. The second is milk with 2% fat, which consumers buy nearly 20% of the time, and the third is 1.5%, which is bought by 18% of consumers. Low-fat milk (0.5% fat content) is purchased by only 8% of shoppers [Świątkowska 2014]. The respondents then indicated container type (38.78%), the expiration date (32.65%), and the nutritional value (22.45%) as being the most important factors in their decision to purchase a particular milk, further corroborating the results reported above. Knowledge about the product and the individual reaction of consumers are the other factors that shoppers take into consideration when purchasing dairy products.

The quality of milk is determined by a group of features that determine its value in use. Those features are organoleptic properties, empirical formulas, microbiological and cytological quality and processing quality. Consumers' perception of these factors definitely differs from that of nutritionists It is important that there are numerous other features beyond the four factors that have an influence on milk quality at the end of the production process. Unfortunately, consumers are still unaware of them. While consumers may be sure of the nutritional value of dairy products, in reality they know very little about it and do not consider that value while shopping. Results of the research further indicate that a majority of consumers identify the high quality of dairy products with a brand. Apparently, the brand guarantees that the product will be of high quality, fresh and healthy.

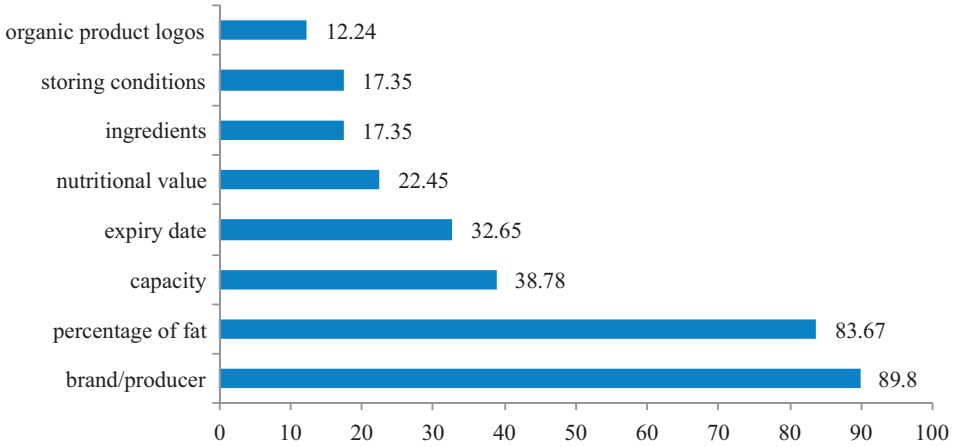

FIG. 4. Information placed on milk containers that respondents pay attention to (%)
Source: own study.

On the other hand, quality does not play such a definitive role: The vast majority of consumers do not know the quality systems (ISO 9001, ISO 22000, HACCP), meaning they do not realize what a quality management system is and that it can not only have a real influence on the quality of a product, but also, and most importantly, guarantee that it is safe for one's health.

The respondents were asked to name the places where they buy milk (Fig. 5). Most respondents indicated local shops (39.81%), discount stores (35.71%), and supermarkets (35.71%), though hypermarkets (29.59%) and farmers selling directly to consumers (11.22%) also commanded their portion of consumers. The smallest group of respondents buys milk at other sales points such as markets and straight from farmers.

The students indicated the factors that help them in choosing milk, ranking ease of purchase highest (4.19), which suggests it was the most important to them, followed by high product quality (3.99). The respondents' highlighting this factor reflects a positive attitude to the subject of product quality (Fig. 6).

The next factors evaluated by the respondents were stores offering a large number of products and a wide choice of products. The results show that respondents buy milk together with other food products.

The consumers' decisions were strongly influenced by advertising and promotions offered by milk producers. Consumers learn about a given brand from commercials. The more intensive and attractive the promotion, the more popular the product becomes. While consumers claim that price is one of the main factors in quality, it is highly probable that discounts are the most important incentive to make a purchase – in reality consumers always buy cheaper products.

Producers of dairy products face a great challenge: they have to plan and then properly market products that will bring to consumers' attention a means of properly identifying technological and consumer quality, among other things. A real promotion would be the most effective path to improving consumers' knowledge; it would inform them about

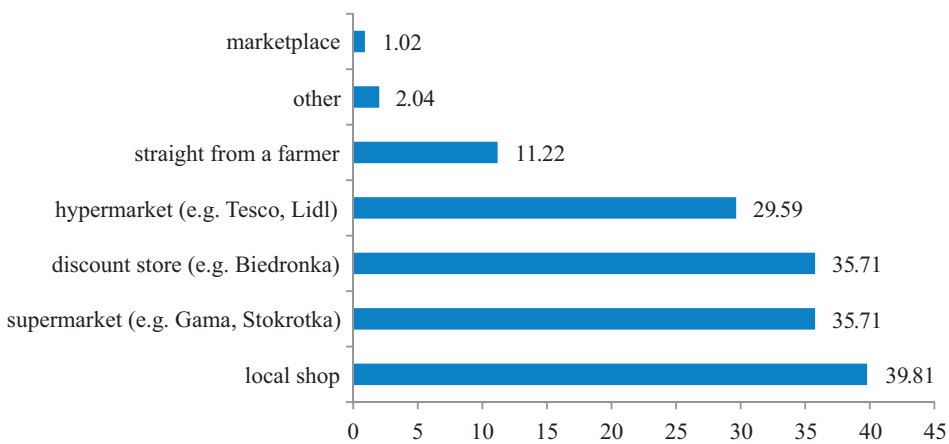

FIG. 5. Places where respondents buy milk (%)

Source: own study.

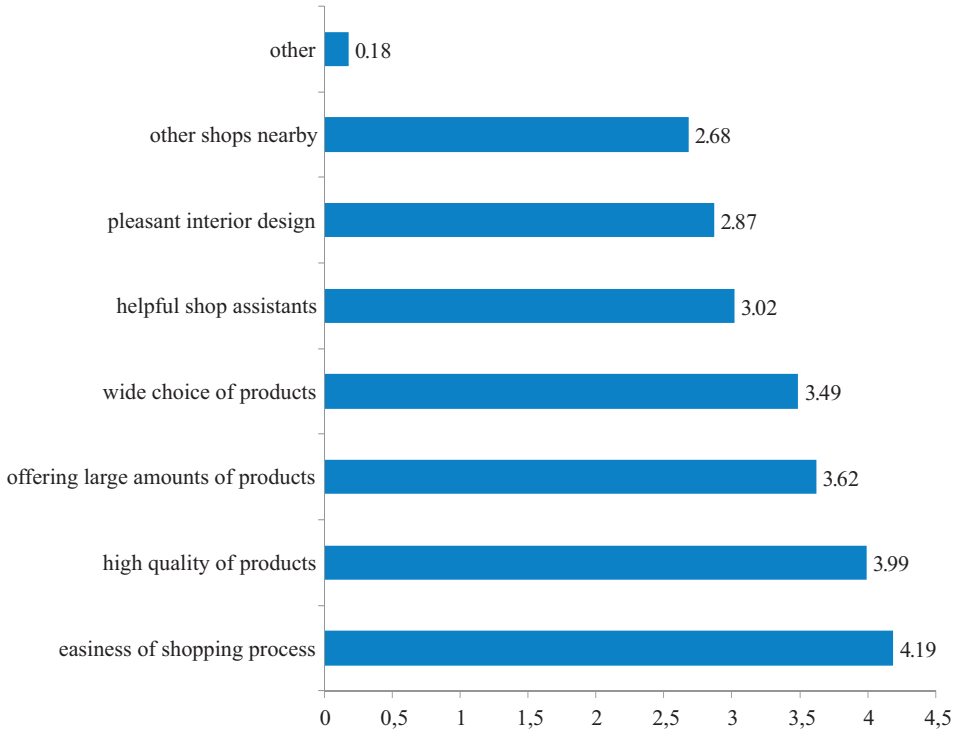

FIG. 6. The evaluation of factors that help in buying milk (marks from 1 to 5, where 5 is the most important value)

Source: own study.

the nutritional and health value of dairy products while at the same time appealing to consumers' senses.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Milk is one of the most frequently purchased products. The analysis of the collected data allows the following conclusions to be drawn:

1. The respondents bought milk every day or 1–2 times a week. High purchase frequency indicates high consumption of milk and dairy products, and suggests milk is seen as a healthy product.
2. The research group values quality and functionality as well as convenience in buying milk and dairy products. Other products, mainly food, are often bought along with milk.
3. Consumers' milk preferences change constantly. The quality, price and nature of products matter to young people more.
4. The biggest group of respondents buys UHT milk (ultra-high temperature processed milk) for its long expiration dates and convenience.

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Summary. The article presents consumer preferences on the milk market. The research was conducted on a group of 98 students studying management at the Higher School of Economics and Social Sciences in Ostrołęka in 2014. The research showed that the respondents are young and they pay the greatest attention to: quality, brand and price. The respondents buy milk every day or several times a week. The students ranked ease of purchase, product quality, and wide choice of products as the most important factors in their decision to buy a particular milk from a particular vendor. They also indicated the most important information on a container was the percentage of fat and the expiration date.

Key words: preferences, consumer, milk market

JEL: D11, Q13

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MODERN MARKETING STRATEGIES AND ORGANISATIONAL MANAGEMENT IN THE ERA OF GLOBALISATION

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INTRODUCTION

Politicians and businessmen should understand the growing economic power of newly industrialised countries. Achievements of management systems in place in the Far East point to the factors that have contributed to their success. China's open-door policy has created huge opportunities for both investors and businessmen. The reciprocal interdependence of East and West is growing rapidly. The economic power of Pacific Rim countries will have an impact on globalisation trends and developments around the world. Historically, western industrialists and scientists have believed methods used in the Far East to be ineffective, inefficient and outdated. They still do the parallel of warrants and prohibitions as well as the pros and cons of these systems. Some Americans and Europeans go so far as to say that given the Western patterns, Asians do almost everything incorrectly and that Chinese companies are not very effective be it with more abstract criteria, or in terms of quantitative efficiency scale. But the results of companies criticised in this way need no excuses. The growth rate of four newly industrialised countries Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore and South Korea – is twice higher than in Western countries. The efficiency of any economy mirrors the performance of individual companies, whose activities make it up, and the effectiveness of the company is the sum of its employees' efficiency and the effectiveness of the methods used. China or Japan or other countries in the region do not have one mark of the word "CRISIS", its designation are two terms: "DANGER" and "CHANCE". This is to remind managers that where there is a crisis and danger, there also appears "OPPORTUNITY". It reflects the Far East way of understanding this concept [Harasim and Dziwulski 2015].

A thesis can be formulated that the concept of intellectual capital becomes highly useful for managing organisations in the context of creating added value for them and building competitive advantage in the market by introducing appropriate policies with particular emphasis on marketing strategies.

Gone are the days when transcontinental, transnational, multinational corporations could ignore local values and traditions. The greatest of them may "lose face", if they fail to take into account the local culture of the region or country. No corporation can afford to disregard the global perspective, because it will end up with tragic consequences. Therefore managers should have international education and experience in this context, and also have a thorough knowledge of local conditions.

IMPACT OF DEVELOPMENT OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES ON CREATION OF MARKETING STRATEGIES OF MODERN ORGANISATIONS

The development of information and communication technologies has been so rapid that it has caused changes in the functioning of the organisation and business leading by companies and public agencies or non-profit organisations. Technology accompanies us in everyday life, contributing to the transformation of both production processes and services. This requires the introduction of organisational changes, particularly in communications with employees and customers, and in the process of their education and skills acquisition. The following question arises: how does the development of information and communication technologies influence the selection and implementation of marketing communication strategy?

New opportunities to communicate with customers and exchange information among them, the availability of information, the possibility of buying and doing business on the network via the Internet, the digitization of content and digital distribution, opportunities to earn and use massive amounts of data have an impact on the way organisations do business. This can lead some companies to achieve a competitive advantage in the market, while others lose it. On the other hand, we cannot remain neutral to technological changes because it will influence the company's position on the market. Technology is being developed over more quickly, making it all the more important that the overall strategy or marketing strategy is applied for them.

The problem organisations face is not only about whether, how and when to adapt technologies, but how to change their present actions to take full advantage of opportunities and avoid threats. The pace of social and cultural changes as well as human capital at organisations is generally disproportionate to the rapid pace of development of digital technology and often cannot keep up with it. However, the ability to adapt and keep pace with these other changes influences the effectiveness of use and further development of new technologies.

The development of global marketing is based on the belief that consumers worldwide need similar goods and services, and to be guided in such a way that their benefits, including comfort, satisfaction, lower price and high quality are maximized. The product

range includes: food, clothing, electronic equipment, books and a variety of services. This favours the globalisation of lifestyles, consumer behaviour and education – just as it does the characteristics of the global consumer.

One of the most effective and efficient solutions implemented by businesses and governments are intelligent personalised recommendations. Thanks to the interactivity offered by the Internet, e-stores can serve customers such packets of information and products that are customised to a person on an individual basis. Modern recommendation systems offer more opportunities to acquire new customers and support ones that have already been gained. Thus, mass marketing is replaced by a system oriented at individualisation, which implies, among other things, increased sales and click-through rate (CRT). In this process, the user has a decisive role shaping his profile, one which translates directly into purchases of given products. The initiative stems from him or her, meaning a pull strategy creating demand for at given product, is at work [Batorski 2011].

The process of mastering communication with other cultures consists in the following three phases [Hofstede 2000]:

- realising that each of us has been brought up differently and has a different "mental programming";
- acquiring knowledge related to the symbols, heroes, rituals and values of a given culture, because it is necessary to communicate with people of other cultures;
- acquiring skills associated with awareness, knowledge and practice, the consequence of which is the ability to recognise and use symbols of a given culture, recognise its heroes, practice its rituals and solving increasingly complex problems associated with functioning in new surroundings.

Cultural context is reflected in, among other things, the communication strategy on the market, which distinguishes two types of diversity as criteria: intercultural and intracultural.

Theoretically, there are four international communication strategies [Duliniec 2009]:

- the global strategy is based on the cultural similarities between countries and on the internal homogeneity of these countries' cultures. The activities a company carries out in marketing communications may be heavily standardised on an international scale;
- a global niche strategy based on, first, the identification of similarities between segments separated according to national cultures, and then the concentration of standard promotional activities on a selected transnational segment;
- multinational strategy appropriate to the apparent cultural diversity among foreign markets, with significant adaptation of promotional activities for the cultural characteristics of each country;
- the strategy of individualisation is brought about by, among other things, the individualisation of lifestyles, increasing educational level, higher demands with respect to products and services; it is used when there are significant cultural differences across countries. As an effect of this, companies are required to have more personalized communication with markets for example, based on direct marketing.

What does personalisation give us as customers or potential customers? With personalised recommendation systems the recipient receives an individual offer, which may lead to a purchase being made. Potential consumers have quick access to the offer of

a particular e-shop, and their expectations and needs can be met. Customer satisfaction is the most effective source of advertising because it leads to recommendations. The use of specialised software is essential to get clients to revisit the e-shop. The use of such systems builds competitive advantage in the market.

The era of globalisation has presented marketing department with new challenges and forced them to create new tools and methods, thanks to which their organisations can reach consumers faster and more effectively. Respecting and using cultural differences, becoming socially responsible, and personalising products and services are the means to accessing modern and demanding consumers. However, the most important resource of any organisation is its people. People are also the lifeblood for marketing strategy development and implementation activities. Human capital is part of the organisation's intellectual capital.

MANAGING INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL IN ORGANISATION OF THE FUTURE

The management of future business organisations, non-profit or public, will be based on these five basic elements [Edersheim 2009]:

- quality of consumer service – fair, clear and straightforward rules governing relations between the client and the company should be stated. The organisation's strategy must be consumer-oriented to satisfy consumers' constantly newer needs, which could be achieved through innovation and leadership;
- management practice – there are many situations in an organisation in which reality does not reflect the theoretical models (which sometimes vastly simplify the business world). It is therefore important to introduce new ideas that will not only improve company operations but also carry economic benefits. New ideas are an essential determinant in building competitive advantage on the market;
- simplifying complex matters – problems occurring in an organisation should have simple solutions;
- leaders' responsibilities in an organisation – the chairman or chief executive in an organisation will have to balance: internal indicators and external ones;
- human resource management – management deals primarily with people who should be treated with the utmost respect.

Without these elements, organisations will not be able to function efficiently [Harasim and Dziwulski 2012]. Peter Drucker has said that "what sets organisations apart is the ability of making ordinary people do extraordinary things, and it depends primarily on whether they carry out the tasks which will allow them to use their strengths fully" [Drucker 2004]. On this basis the following five questions may be asked:

- What kind of people should work in the organisation?
- Does the organisation provide its people with the means to achieve maximum efficiency and contribute its success?
- Do the organisation's structure and rules guarantee respect for employees and promote investment in human capital?
- Are both knowledge and access to it built into the business model?

– What is the strategy for investing in people and knowledge?

Neither the workers nor management of the organisation can be expected to bring about effective and efficient operation without equipping them with adequate tools to execute their daily tasks. It happens in practice that the people in charge of the organisation do not have adequately decisive and informational commissions from the central organisation and therefore they cannot make rational strategic decisions. Decisions taken or the absence thereof may lead the organisation to fail, and ultimately go bankrupt [Harasim and Dziwulski 2015].

The creators of concepts on intellectual capital and those that research this subject have differed in their views on its constituent elements. The different approaches are presented in Table.

Here there is a need to discuss modifications to the model put forward by the founders of the Skandia Company, as they extend the current framework to look at intellectual capital. Structural capital is therefore further divided into [Bratnicki and Strużyna 2001]:

– capital in the form of customers including relations with them, their loyalty and price sensitivity. This is often seen as market capital, because it concerns relations with customers;
– organisational capital including investments in systems, accelerating the flow of knowledge in the organisation and its environment. Organisational capital is divided into innovative capital (skill of renewal, revival of businesses through innovation in the form of protected copyrights, trade or patents and intellectual property and patents) and process capital (procedures, techniques and employee incentives and programs for the effective performance of task: includes the practical knowledge necessary for the organisation to continuously improve).

All of these elements should be closely linked and integrated into the objectives of the enterprise. Disabling one of them prevents the formation of the idea of intellectual capital in the organisation.

Modifications made to the above model relate to capital equalisation in the form of clients with primary components, namely human and structural capital. This carries certain consequences, since it means that in the context of structural capital there is only organisational capital. Since then, for many researchers it has become pointless to separate and mix together these concepts [Skuza 2003]. As a result, "structural capital" has been renamed organisational capital to simplify Figure 2.

Researchers from the University of Economics in Katowice present a quite different, innovative view of what constitutes intellectual capital. When creating their model they called it the Tree of the enterprise's values. The high accuracy, and at the same time fragmentation, of this scheme result from the lack of identification of a single measure of intellectual capital. To this point, measures have been synthetic, i.e. the value of capital has been determined on the basis of its components. This poses numerous problems because many of them are not measurable [Skuza 2003].

According to some sources, the original model of intellectual capital (IC Model) was based on Erik Sveiby's concept, which divided assets into three categories: internal, external and market (www.e-mentor.edu.pl).

In the "new economy", however, neither owned property assets (physical capital) nor current assets (working capital) determine the company's competitive advantage. It is

TABLE. The approach of researchers to define intellectual capital

Originators of the views	Components of intellectual capital
Skandia	human capital • competences • relationships • values structural capital • capital in the form of customers – customer base – relations with customers – clients' potential • organisational capital – process capital – innovation – culture
M. Bratnicki and J. Strużyna	social capital • structural capital – net connections – net configuration – the responsibility of the organisation • dimensions of interpersonal relations – trust – standards – commitments – identification • cognitive capital – shared dictionaries – a common language – shared responsibilities human capital • competences – practical skills (fluency) – theoretical knowledge – talents • intellectual skills – innovative people – the ability to follow – entrepreneurship – the ability to change • motivation – willingness to act – personal predisposition to certain behaviours – involvement in organisational processes – organisational power – managerial leadership organisational capital • internal structure – organisational structure – acting system – intellectual property – internal processes – organisational culture • external structure – market resources – relations with suppliers – relations with shareholders – connections with partners of strategic alliances – connections with other stakeholders • development capital – innovative companies – organisational learning – strategic purpose – the objectives and strategies of the company – strategy development processes – willingness to change

Source: own elaboration based on Bratnicki and Strużyna [2001], Sopińska [2005].

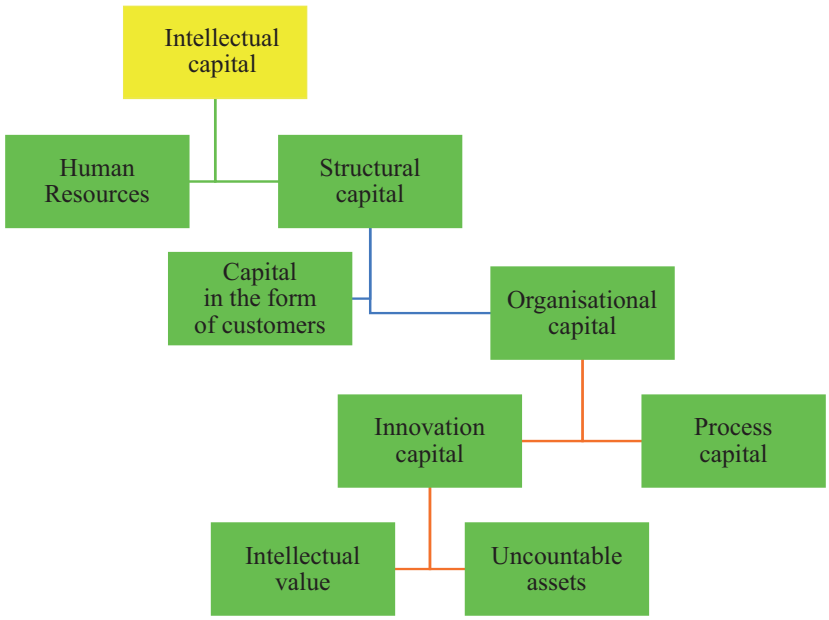

FIG. 1. Elements of intellectual capital included in the Skandia model
Source: [Edvinsson 1997, Wachowiak 2005].

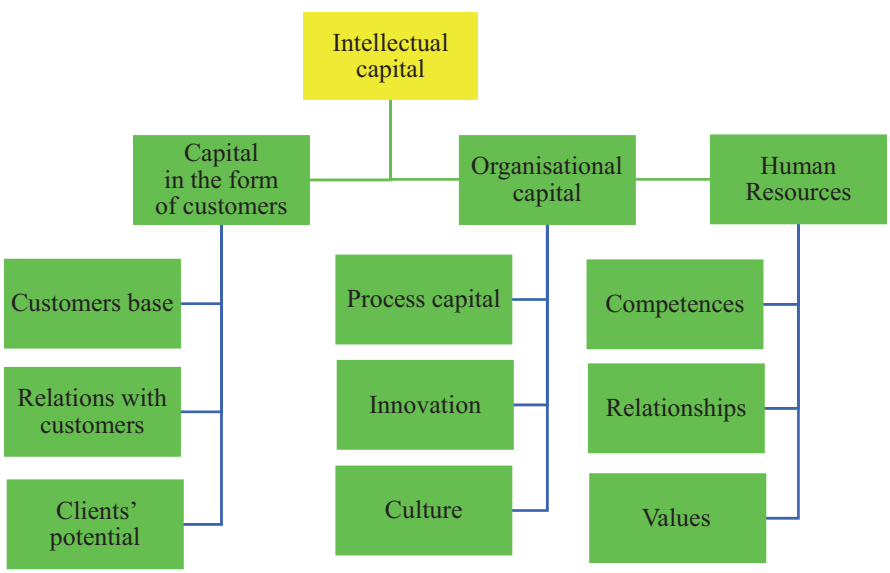

FIG. 2. Modified image of intellectual capital components
Source: [Skuza 2003].

rather brand and human capital (knowledge and innovation) supported by information technology, the so-called e-business, which do that.

The new economy means globalisation, innovation, and the humanization of work processes, but also the commercialisation of social life, the dominance of mass culture, and conflicts between cultures and civilisations.

CONCLUSIONS

All areas of management should support the strategy, organisational culture and structure of the company. Organisational strategy must also be consistent with marketing strategy. Such consistency can be achieved through individual competency management, employees' individual knowledge, skills, abilities, motivations and behaviours and organisational competencies. The latter competencies follow directly from the business and personnel strategy of the company, which is supported, for example, by a customer focus, focus on quality, collaboration, analysis, and innovation the source of which may also be values established within the organisational culture. They are the "glue" for all the elements of managing people – from competency profiles useful in the planning of personnel, recruitment and staff selection, by competences evaluation and rewarding to their development. This is reflected in both internal and external marketing activities.

Knowledge, skills, and personality are all sources of competences. Thanks to them, the experience of each employee is important. The experience an employee brings is composed of a sequence of functions and roles performed as well as work in positions of significant responsibility. They are complemented by all the difficulties and failures they may have incurred in dealing with subordinates or colleagues in their working life as well as problems that have occurred in their personal lives.

Competences are compared more and more often to the iceberg, the tip of which is visible with the "naked" eye, as it protrudes above the surface of the water. They are evidenced by the certificates and diplomas individuals receive for their knowledge and skills. Sometimes these "paper" hard competencies do not contribute to the success of the particular job and do not go hand in hand with actual skills. Yet an important part of the iceberg is hidden under the water, made up of other qualities: motivation, aptitude, self-image, and other personality traits that more and more often determine positive outcomes. These "soft" competences are difficult to examine or measure, but significantly affect how individuals are perceived as they come through their behaviour.

The concept of competence refers directly to the theory of the competence ladder. It assumes that the employees pass through three stages in the learning process. The first is a state of unconsciousness, when they are not aware of the lack of specific knowledge or skills. The second stage is called the state of consciousness of incompetence, and the third ends at a certain consciousness of having competence. The top of this ladder can be reached only when the employee already has competences and actively uses them in order to efficiently and effectively carry out the responsibilities that come with the job. Competences enable the development of the individual, but on the other hand require the continuous improvement and the mastering of knowledge.

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Summary. The article highlights the importance of components of intellectual capital in developing the organisation's strategy. Information and modern technologies are the key to effective implementation of the marketing strategy of the company.

Key words: modern marketing strategies, intellectual capital, human capital

JEL: M00, M31

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MARKETING IN POLISH ENTERPRISES – MAZOWIECKIE VOIVODSHIP AND BEYOND

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INTRODUCTION

Numerous theoreticians and practitioners alike do not differentiate marketing management in enterprise (MME) from marketing management (MM). In the literature, MME is one of a few enterprise management concepts described. It includes goal-driven management, process management and knowledge management [Brilman 2002, Zimniewicz 2003]. In MME, the starting point for all decisions and activities is the needs of clients and the market as well as – as has been emphasised in marketing for years now – the enteprise being socially responsible. A board of directors (the owners, directors, and the president) that incorporates this concept into the management of its organisation will create the conditions conducive for the directors and management to manage by marketing – that is, to implement marketing activities. This practically guarantees that a marketing orientation (marketing) is achieved.

The director of marketing together with his or her management team cannot effectively accomplish their goals, strategies and responsibilities (recorded in plans) without effective MME being put in place by the management board. This direct engagement of management is called the marketing management, and the members of a thus engaged management team are considered to be a highly capable marketing experts [Slyvotzky et al. 2000].

The aim of the present article is to describe, in mainly quantitative terms, chosen marketing activities companies in MV employed at the turn of the second decade of the 21st century and to compare them with the activities companies throughout Poland use. The marketing activities to be analysed include marketing management in the enterprise (MME), marketing research done by companies or commissioned by them, product and price evolution, and promotional activities.

DATA AND RESEARCH METHODS

The analyses described in this paper are based on data collected in scientific research by the team I head at the Marketing and Commerce Department at Nicolaus Copernicus University in 2010–2011. Research project NN115549738 was financed by the Ministry of Higher Education. The quota-random sample (n = 350) was selected from the population of Polish companies in proportion to their number and structure in each of Poland's 16 provinces, or voivodships. A total of 65 companies from the country's most populous voivodship, Mazowieckie (MV), were involved. They comprised 18.6% of the total number of companies considered for Poland as a whole, while 7.4% of the total considered for the country were based in Warsaw. Companies from MV comprised the largest group in the research. The raw data were gathered from individual interviews, which, where accessing these individuals was impossible, a computer-assisted telephone interview was done. The questionnaire used in the interview consisted of 24 questions and the responses were scaled appropriately to simplify the process of quantifying, reducing and analysing them.

The report written following the analysis was published in the September – October 2011 volume of the journal "Handel Wewnętrzny" ("Internal Trade"). To that point, only one report had been written and looked only at the Kujavian-Pomeranian Voivodship, a region on the Baltic Sea.

MARKETING MANAGEMENT IN ENTERPRISE

The basic group of marketing activities that make up the activity programme have a very positive influence on the development and success of the company. Of course, they also depend on the concepts management elects to implement. Opinions of management on selected groups of activities are presented and compared in the next three tables. Table 1 presents opinions on the importance of selected activities for the development and success of enterprises from Mazowieckie Voivodship (MV) compared to companies located throughout the country.

TABLE 1. The importance of chosen marketing activities for the company's growth and success (%)

Marketing activity	Very important		Somewhat important		Less important		Not important	
	C	MV	C	MV	C	MV	C	MV
Building lasting relationships with clients	85.7	89.2	9.7	6.2	2.9	4.6	1.7	0.0
Carving out the company image	85.1	93.8	12.3	4.6	0.9	1.5	1.7	0.0
Improving product or service quality	84.9	89.2	12.9	9.2	11.1	1.5	1.1	0.0
Modernising products	76.9	83.1	18.9	10.8	2.3	6.2	2.0	0.0
Gaining knowledge about the market	75.1	81.5	18.9	15.4	3.4	3.1	2.6	0.0
Improving employee satisfaction	70.6	70.8	23.1	23.1	4.0	6.2	2.3	0.0

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – average for the country.

Source: own study.

The vast majority of managers at Polish enterprises attach great importance to development and success factors. In MV enterprises they are clearly more important than other measures. Carving out a positive image, modernising product lines and learning about the market are also all relatively important to the MV enterprises. However, merely recognising the particular importance of certain activities does not yet mean that they have actually been implemented – they are only declarations. To determine which activities were actually being implemented (other than those listed in Table 1), the companies were asked to indicate those activities they had employed in the past three years (2008–2010). These were treated as a differentiator of marketing orientation and are included in Table 2 for the two groups of companies.

TABLE 2. Actual use of chosen marketing activities (% enterprises)

Marketing activity	C	MV
Building a sense of responsibility for the effect of marketing throughout the company	45.4	63.1
No changes to responsibility and knowledge	33.4	20.0
Improving level of knowledge employees engaged in marketing possess about marketing	30.0	36.9
Increasing those employees' responsibility for realising marketing activities	26.0	32.3
Increasing the knowledge employees from other departments possess about marketing	25.7	41.5

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – average for the country.

Source: own study.

Marketing activities are actually done to a much smaller extent than was claimed. Nonetheless, all of the ones listed in Table 2 are used much more by the MV enterprises than the average figure for the country. This applies particularly to building a sense of responsibility for the effects of marketing in the entire enterprise (63.1 in MV vs 45.4% nationwide) and increasing the marketing knowledge of employees of the organisation's other (non-marketing) units (25.7 vs 41.5%). The difference with regard to other voivodships are even more pronounced – for example, in Kujavian-Pomeranian Voivodship, only 5% of enterprises increase employees' marketing knowledge.

Planning, including marketing planning, both strategic and operational, are among the most crucial management activities. Strategic planning includes the entire enterprise and is long-term (a year minimum). The strategic plan for a new product can cover several years and involve most of the company's employees. Table 3 provides a schedule of several basic types of planning used by the MV enterprises and compares them to the data for the country as a whole.

TABLE 3. Marketing planning in MV companies and the country as a whole (%)

Types of marketing planning	C	MV
Marketing plans are worked out for a one-year period (operational plan)	39.4	46.2
Marketing activities are not planned (decisions are made in real time/on the spot)	37.4	27.7
Marketing plans are elaborated for periods exceeding one year (strategic plans)	17.4	23.1
I don't know	5.7	3.1

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – average for the country.

Source: own study.

As Table 3 shows, a significant percentage of companies inside and outside of Mazowieckie elaborate operational plans for a one-year period (along with, to a lesser extent, tactical ones). However, slightly more MV-based companies employ such plans and also lay out strategic marketing plans more often than companies elsewhere in the country (23.1%). A lack of planning also occurs less at companies operating in Mazowieckie than at those outside of it (27.7 vs 37.4%).

MME cannot be effectively implemented without support from a formal organisational marketing structure. Within this structure there are separate units that cooperate with others to make decisions and conduct marketing activities. Table 4 compares the organisational marketing structures in MV enterprises and the average for the country as a whole.

TABLE 4. Organisational structure of marketing in MV companies compared to the country as a whole (%)

Type of organisational unit	C	MV
There is no separate marketing unit (division, department or division)	51.4	44.6
There is a marketing division or department	28.3	30.8
There is a position for marketing	18.3	23.1
Marketing is organised in a different form	2.0	1.5

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – average for the country.

Source: own study.

The figures in Table 4 clearly show that companies in Mazowieckie Voivodship more often feature a marketing department (30.8%) or position (23.1%), and less often make do without a marketing department (44.6 vs 51.4%). Generally, the situation at MV enterprises is somewhat better in terms of organisation than in the country as a whole, though it is not entirely satisfactory.

MARKETING RESEARCH

The results of scientific research conducted in Poland between 1989 and 2014 show that Polish companies use only a small area of marketing research. Research done by the Department of Marketing at Nicolaus Copernicus University (UMK) in 2000–2002 on a national sample (n = 391) revealed that only 16.5% of companies carry out or commissioned any marketing study at all. However, the share grew considerably as the size of the company increased: 43% of medium-sized companies (101–250 employees) and 53% of large companies (more than 250 employees) indicated they had done marketing research [Escher 2002].

The Marketing and Trade Department at UMK in 2010–2011 repeated similar research that showed only a small degree of independently conducted or commissioned market research was being done in Poland at the time. In fact, only 21.1% of enterprises said they had conducted such research during the previous three years (2008–2010). At only 4.6%, that's very little growth over the levels reported at the turn of the century. This research was done by a somewhat larger percentage of MV enterprises, as Table 5 shows.

However, the vast majority (69.2%) of them had done no research at all over the past three years. They may perhaps find some consolation in that figure being somewhat higher than the national average. Nonetheless, a small percentage of management (6.2%) did not know if such studies had been conducted in their companies. The same held for managers nationwide, though the proportion was higher. Only 24.3% of medium-sized enterprises and 40% of large ones had conducted research [Pawlak-Kołodziejska and Schultz 2011].

TABLE 5. Comparison of the two groups of enterprises and the incidence of market research conducted (%)

Has your enterprise done or commissioned marketing research in the past three years (2008–2010)?	Location of enterprise in Poland	
	C	MV
Yes	21.1	24.6
No	73.8	69.2
I don't know	5.1	6.2

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

The low level of market research done by Polish companies stands in stark contrast to management declarations of its importance. As Table 1 shows, 75% of management is convinced that gaining knowledge about the market is essential. A full 81.5% of management at MV companies indicated the same. The results of this study suggest that the utilisation of marketing research depends on the availability of marketing professionals and the quality of their work as well as the financial capabilities of enterprises. As many as 44% of enterprises that do research have a marketing division or department, 33.3% have a dedicated marketing position, and only 6.4% have no separate marketing unit [Pawlak--Kołodziejska and Schultz 2011].

Table 6 compares some of the areas (topics and themes) of marketing research done by the companies inside and outside of Mazowieckie Voivodship. The latter group of companies prove superior to the national average, and far better than companies in some other voivodships – for example, in Kujavian-Pomerania in-company staff participates in conducting research in less than 5% of companies and the vast majority of issues is not studied at all. These data starkly expose the lack of good and experienced marketing research staff.

Remember, the data in Table 6 concern only those groups of Polish companies (21.1%) and companies in Mazowieckie Voivodship (24.6%) which do any marketing research. In both groups, research is done far more frequently by a company's own research personnel. The exception is research of the preferences, needs and opinions of clients in MV companies, where research is commissioned to agencies 50% of the time. The vast majority of research subjects/topics in both groups of enterprises relate to the preferences, needs and opinions of buyers (customers), competitors, the opinions and needs of their own employees, and the efficiency and effectiveness of self-promotion (marketing communication). In the MV group of companies, most studies also look at product prices and distribution channels. Both groups study new products and packaging comparatively less, although the number is skewed more towards enterprises in the whole country. The reason for this is probably the low level of innovation in Poland.

TABLE 6. Areas of market research the two groups of enterprises do (%)

Area of marketing research	C			MV		
	company's own team	research agency	not researched	company's own team	research agency	not researched
Client preferences, needs and opinions	58.1	23.0	18.9	37.5	50.0	12.5
Competition	54.1	14.9	31.0	56.3	25.0	18.7
Employee opinions and needs	51.4	6.8	41.8	68.8	12.5	18.7
Effectiveness and efficiency of promotions	45.9	21.6	32.5	43.8	25.0	31.2
Suppliers and sources of supply	40.5	5.4	54.1	43.8	6.2	50.0
The prices of products and services (including new ones)	37.8	8.1	54.1	43.8	18.8	37.4
Distribution channels (intermediaries)	37.8	9.5	52.7	50.0	12.5	37.5
Research on new products and packaging	28.4	12.2	59.4	37.5	12.5	50.0
Other	6.8	1.4	91.8	6.3	0.0	93.7

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

Management at Polish companies too often ignore the role played by marketing research in market activity. This is characteristic of an economy that is currently dominated by a model of development based on imitation and low risk – that is to say, a lack of innovation. Companies feel too little pressure to enlist research. When attempts are made, a lack of knowledge and experience in marketing means that managers do not know who has to collect and analyse market data. Confused management therefore assign marketing research in this field to incompetent IT specialists.

PRODUCT EVOLUTION AND PRICE

Some writers have identified product evolution as product management, product policy or product planning. It is one of the core groups of marketing activities carried out at the operational level. Like the (mainly new) product, its constituent elements, including price, packaging and brand must also be created. Management activities (managing and planning) are linked to product evolution, but they mainly consist in activities including generating ideas, creating and researching concepts, projects and prototypes, marketing, creating assortment, analysing complaints, and improving quality, among other things.

This part of the paper looks at certain innovative activities, but only to a small extent those that are implemented in the market cycle. The cycle of innovation and the market cycle make up the life cycle of the product. Such an interpretation of cycles is presented by, among others: Kreikebaum [1996] and Sojkin [2012]. According to the results of the above 2010–2011 study, 62% of Polish companies said they had made changes to their offer within the past three years. At 64.4%, MV companies indicated a somewhat higher level. Analaysis of the data for the entire country shows that only 9% of Polish companies research new products. Clearly, then, very few of those new products were analysed,

or considered against either existing or anticipated customer needs. It is unknown what percentage of new products were successful, or accepted by buyers, and nor is it clear what accounted for the failure of products. Additional research would be required to make these determinations [Kaczmarczyk 2011].

During the research, the companies revealed the types of changes they made to their products and packaging. Table 7 presents a comparison of the two groups. The total frequency of the types of the changes made exceeds 100% because some of the companies made more than one change during the research period. They mainly concerned changes made to product function, colour, shape, change or size.

TABLE 7. Types of changes in products offered by the two groups of companies (%)

Types of changes in new products	C	MV
Introducing entirely new products on the market	71.6	80.5
Changing the characteristics of products and services introduced to this point	41.9	39.0
Changing the packaging of products offered to this point	20.9	26.8
Other changes in the company's products and/or services	11.2	4.9

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

Among the more than two-thirds of the MV enterprises (64.6%) making changes in their offer, a large majority (80.5%) introduced entirely new products onto the market. This too is a considerably better result than the companies in the country as a whole turned out (71.6%). The numbers are similar for changes made to product packaging, though in this regard changes in the characteristics of products are made on a similar level by companies operating in and outside of Mazowieckie Voivodship. Other changes are somewhat more common in the companies operating outside of the province.

One of the components of a product or service is the price. In the literature one comes across a variety of definitions, many of which identify price with the value of a product. Price should be understood as information conveyed by and/or agreed with the entity holding or handling the product or service, specifying, for the holder of the product or service, the amount of money or other assets desired by the holder for selling the product or service. Quantitatively defined price rarely equals the quantitatively framed real value of the product. The price is therefore the information exposed in different forms and on different media by sellers, who establish or change it using various methods. The test methods used by the companies inside and outside of Mazowieckie Voivodship for determining changes in prices are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8. Methods of establishing and changing prices used by the two groups of companies (%)

Method of establishing or changing prices	C	MV
On the basis of costs	81.4	84.6
On the basis of competitors' prices	50.9	49.2
On the basis of research on buyers' opnions (demand method)	19.1	15.4
Other methods	10.3	4.6

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

Enterprises from MV set and/or change their prices frequently based on cost (84.6%) and competitors' prices (49.2), while they use demand as the basis much less often (15.4 %), and other methods even less so (4.6%). In most cases, companies establish and change their prices at the same time based on both costs and the impact of competition. The basic pricing decisions should also be differential pricing depending on the conditions existing in a given market or market segment. The methods the companies use to differentiate price are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9. Factors in differentiating prices used by the two groups of companies (%)

Method for differentiating prices depends on	C	MV
Size of purchase	56.0	49.2
Group of buyers (which segment of the market)	52.3	70.8
Date of payment	25.7	29.2
Season of the year	22.6	20.0
Other	16.3	7.7

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

The only factor in differentiating prices employed at a similar rate by both groups was the time of year; the use of other methods varied greatly. While differentiation by size of purchase is the leading consideration companies located outside of Mazowieckie Voivodship use (56%), in MV companies it is the group of buyers that predominates (almost 71%). Countrywide, nearly 84% of companies use price to differentiate themselves.

SELECTED ELEMENTS OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION

Enterprise marketing communications consist of basic elements including company promotions, product promotions, sales promotions and personal promotions. Beyond these, companies also use promotional research. Only the first three types of promotion were studied for this paper. Company promotions include the following types:

- public relations activities (PR);
- a comprehensive system of corporate identity;
- promotions at fairs and exhibitions;
- sponsorship;
- publicity;
- lobbing.

For our research, the first four types of promotion were considered. Since the purpose of PR is to initiate and maintain positive relationships with the public, it exerts a wide range of influences on the environment. The main aim of a company's visual identification is to create and maintain a positive corporate image in the community – and, within itself, among employees. Sponsorship plays a similar role. At fairs and exhibitions all forms of communicative activities are used. Table 10 compares how the two groups of companies use the four types of company promotion.

TABLE 10. Use of four types of company promotion in the two groups of companies (%)

Type of company promotion and PR activity		C	MV
Activity and type of PR	keeping employees up to date on company developments	59.4	83.3
	organising parties and integration trips for employees	48.9	61.9
	organising special events for customers	32.6	40.5
	press releases and conferences	29.4	57.1
	other	1.4	2.4
Other types of promotion	overall visual identification of the company	76.3	90.5
	sponsoring	58.9	71.4
	taking part in fairs and exhibitions	57.7	69.0

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

Companies from MV use all of the promotion types listed in Table 10 decidedly more often than the average for the country. Beyond organising parties for customers (40.5%) and other forms of PR (2.4%), the majority (more than 50%) of firms located in MV used all of the promotion types listed. Compared to the average for the country, MV companies are far more likely to put out press releases and hold press conferences, which 27% more of the companies in MV did, and 23.9% more of the MV companies also reported keeping their employees abreast of company developments than their countrywide counterparts did.

The second type of promotion is product promotion, a category dominated by advertising and among the most frequently used types of promotion, not only in Poland. That is why outlays on advertising are normally the highest of all promotional spending. There are more than a dozen types, the names of which come from names used in the media. Table 11 provides chosen forms of advertising used by both groups of Polish companies.

As with the promotions category, all forms of advertising are far more frequently used by MV firms. In both groups of firms, online advertising is the most commonly used. The rate of use of advertisements are the same for each form of advertising in both groups with the exception of press advertisements, which is the second most frequently used

TABLE 11. Use of chosen forms of advertising by the two groups of companies (%)

Form of advertising	C	MV
Online	77.1	88.1
In stores (at service points)	64.3	73.8
In the press (in newspapers and magazines)	63.4	83.3
Outdoor advertising	47.1	64.3
Radio	30.3	35.7
By post	23.7	28.6
Television	15.1	21.4
Other	4.6	9.5

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

form of advertising chosen by MV companies. Television advertising is used less due to the prohibitive costs of making and showing such advertisements, mainly advertising spots and product placement.

The main task of company promotion is to realise long-term goals, while the task of advertising and sales promotions is to realise short-term goals. There are four types of sales promotion: commercial promotion, consumer promotion, internal promotion and merchandising. Each of them uses uses a specific set of tools. Table 12 presents a small number of consumer promotion tools used by both groups of companies.

TABLE 12. Use of consumer promotion in both groups of companies (%)

Forms of consumer promotion	C	MV
Reducing prices	59.3	71.4
Gifts with the purchase of a product	32.1	42.9
Free trials	28.1	35.7
In-store demonstrations and product tasting	23.8	35.7
Competitions, lotteries and games for customers	18.9	33.3
Competitions among sales-people	18.6	40.5
Free products	18.3	33.3
Other	2.6	2.4

MV – Mazowieckie Voivodship, C – the entire country.

Source: own study.

The promotional tools presented in Table 12 are, like other forms of promotion, used decidedly more often by the companies operating in Mazowieckie Voivodship. In both groups the most popular type of promotion is price reductions, the only form of promotion that most companies in both groups use. Companies from MV organise sales competitions much more frequently than the national average (there's a 22% difference).

CONCLUSION

Polish companies discuss marketing activities more than they actually use them. This is true for companies both outside of Mazowieckie Voivodship and within it, though companies operating in Poland's most populous province not only use a far greater variety of activities, but use them far more often. They conduct marketing research somewhat more often, introduce new products to the market far more often, and use different types of promotion far more often. Companies located in Mazowieckie Voivodship set and change prices on the basis of insufficient customer surveys (demand method) less often than companies outside the province. Overall, the still infrequent use of marketing in Poland is typical for an economy based on imitation, lack of universal innovation, low risk, and traditional management.

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Summary. The analysis was based on data gained from scientific research done in 2010–2011 by the research team at the Marketing and Commerce Department at Nicolaus Copernicus University. The article describes and compares data on marketing conditions in Mazovia's enterprises with data on Polish enterprises from the country as a whole. The main focus is a comparative analysis of chosen marketing activities and tools used by all the companies under consideration. The issues discussed are among the practical and theoretical aspects of contemporary marketing in Poland, especially in Mazowieckie Voivodship.

Key words: scientific research, marketing activities, Polish enterprises, enterprises in Mazowieckie Voivodship

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MUNICIPAL WASTE MANAGEMENT AS A LOCAL GOVERNMENT TASK – LEGAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CHALLENGES

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INTRODUCTION

According to Article 6 of the Local Government Act, the scope of local government activities comprises public affairs of local significance that are not reserved by law to other entities. Article 7 contains a list of activities local governments are responsible for, and whose aim is to satisfy the collective needs of the community. These tasks include spatial planning, real estate management, protecting the environment and nature, and water management, to name a few. They also include filtering and removing waste water, maintaining cleanliness and order, sanitary facilities and landfills, and disposing of municipal waste.

The amendment of the Act on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities and of other acts [Act 2011], was passed on 1 July, 2011 in Poland and it has had a significant impact on the existing system of municipal waste management. It calls for local governments to create an efficient waste management system in the territories they administer, to be implemented no later than 1 July 2013. The document defines the structure of the system and legitimate tools that make it easier for local governments to provide this public service in accordance with EU standards (guided by the principle of sustainable development).

PLACE OF WASTE MANAGEMENT IN THE THEORY OF PUBLIC SERVICES

The common good is the greatest value established in Polish legislation at every level of government. The responsibility of administrations today is to provide the public with

the necessary minimum of public goods and services. These issues are therefore an important part of substantive administrative law, which plays an enormous role in achieving the common good [Woźniak 2013a]. The importance of the public interest and the common good is also stressed in the definition of public administration, as they are key elements of organisational activities and projects [Blicharz 2004].

Public services can be defined as public goods in respect of which it is impossible to exclude anyone from using them. These goods, regardless of the number of people benefiting from/using them, have a certain value, which is not affected by subsequent users. The services are, therefore, directly provided to the public by the administration in the public sector or by private entities that guarantee a given service. Public services usually need not be paid for, but in today's economy there are benefits, part of the cost of which must be borne by users; however, they remain public services because they realise the public interest. Providing the public access to public services is an inalienable duty of the state, which executes its duties in the public interest. This can be done through the creation of two types of services [Kożuch and Kożuch 2011]:

- classic services (clean) – those produced and carried out using public funds, and which serve the entire local community. They are used collectively – there is no rivalry during consumption, and it is impossible to exclude anyone. Examples include breathing clean air and using public security;
- mixed services (private services supplied by the public sector) – those defined by the basic needs of the population, in connection with the country's current social doctrine and its policies. They can serve the entire community, such as do education and healthcare services. What sets these services apart from purely public services is that they may be partially charged for.

Public services are the interest of the public sector, which consists of the central and the local government (local being provincial, district and municipal and other public sector organisational units). Public services may also be provided by a company, which is often referred to as public or municipal utility. Polish legislation also allows for services to be outsourced to public service entities, private or public benefit organisations on the basis of a public procurement procedure [Dylewski and Filipiak 2005].

The forms in which services are provided within municipal management are clearly defined in the Polish legislation [Stachowicz 2013]:

- the municipality provides services itself, with its own organisational units – either public undertakings or limited liability companies;
- the municipality, on the basis of a civil contract, commissions the services to another entity;
- the municipality organises the provision of services in the form of an agreement with another municipality or inter-municipality association.

As a public service, waste management and the maintenance of cleanliness and order is expensive. This is because there is an attendant need to protect the environment. For many years the people of Poland were not interested in caring for natural resources "at the source", at their own homes, or in disposing of their household waste. The number of landfills, including wild and illegal ones, shot up because garbage collection costs were high and people simply became accustomed to using them.

Growing consumption has increased the amount of and changes in the structure of waste, which has placed a great burden on the natural environment. Proper waste management is an important element of the comprehensive protection of the common good that is the natural environment. It serves the public interest, and – when possible and legally justified –the interest of the individual [Woźniak 2013b].

CONCEPT AND CLASSIFICATION OF WASTE

In day to day life, the term "waste" is used in a variety of contexts, though it usually comes with a pejorative slant: when speaking of waste, one generally refers to something expendable, broken, or left-over, and which one will no longer use. This applies not only to material uses, but also functional ones (while an object may indeed continue to meet a specific function, for not keeping up with current technologies and trends, it is replaced by a new, better one).

Before considering how waste management works in Poland, a brief look at the statutory definition is in order: it states that "waste" is any substance or object which the holder discards or intends to get rid of or is obliged to get rid of [Act 2012].

This definition, in force in Polish legislation, is in line with the formula used in documents issued by EU authorities and institutions. It is based on the "triad" [Radecki 2013] which applies to substances or objects which the holder discards or intends or is required to discard.

The classification of waste into groups, subgroups and types is done based on the source, properties and ingredients of the waste. According to the current Regulation of the Minister of the Environment [Regulation 2014], every form of waste is assigned to 1 of 20 groups (Table). The regulation also addresses and classifies hazardous waste. Each item in the waste catalogue is assigned a sequence of digits as an identifier, enabling easy reference to the group (first two digits), subgroups (the first four digits) and type of waste (the full chain of six numbers).

The scope of the article covers only municipal waste, so it is necessary to cite the definition in force in the Polish legislation as a starting point for further discussion on managing this specific waste type. In statutory terms, municipal waste is "waste generated in households, with the exception of end of life vehicles, as well as waste containing hazardous waste from other waste generators which, because of its nature or composition is similar to waste from households; mixed municipal waste remains mixed municipal waste, even if they have undergone a waste treatment operation that has not significantly changed their properties".

The primary sources of municipal waste are indicated to be, above all, households, as well as infrastructural objects and products (trade, services, crafts, education, industry in the "social" and others) [Resolution 2010]. This waste is therefore obviously a major part of the waste generated in municipalities.

Municipal waste can be divided into mixed waste and waste collected selectively, though the catalogue of waste(s) that is binding in Poland presents a different view of municipal waste (group 20), shown in Figure 1.

TABLE. The catalogue of wastes

Group number	Group type according to source of waste
01	Wastes resulting from exploration, mining, quarrying, physical and chemical treatment of minerals
02	Wastes from agriculture, horticulture, aquaculture, forestry, hunting and fishing, food preparation and processing
03	Wastes from wood processing and the production of panels and furniture, pulp, paper and cardboard
04	Wastes from the leather, fur and textile industries
05	Wastes from petroleum refining, natural gas purification and pyrolytic treatment of coal
06	Wastes from inorganic chemical processes
07	Wastes from organic chemical processes
08	Wastes from the manufacture, formulation, supply and use (MFSU) of coatings (paints, varnishes and vitreous enamels), sealants and printing inks
09	Wastes from photographic industry and services
10	Wastes from thermal processes
11	Wastes from chemical surface treatment and coating of metals and other materials; non-ferrous hydro-metallurgy
12	Wastes from shaping and physical and mechanical surface treatment of metals and plastics
13	Oil wastes and wastes of liquid fuels (except edible oils, 05, 12 and 19)
14	Waste organic solvents, refrigerants and propellants (except 07 and 08)
15	Waste packaging; absorbents, wiping cloths, filter materials and protective clothing not otherwise specified
16	Wastes not otherwise specified in the list
17	Construction and demolition wastes (including excavated soil from contaminated sites)
18	Wastes from human or animal health care and/or related research (except kitchen and restaurant wastes not arising from immediate health care)
19	Wastes from waste management facilities, off-site waste water treatment plants and the preparation of water intended for human consumption and water for industrial use
20	Municipal wastes including separately collected fractions

Source: own eleboratury based on the regulation of the Ministry of the Environment of 9 December 2014 on catalogueing wastes (Journal of Laws 2014, item 1923).

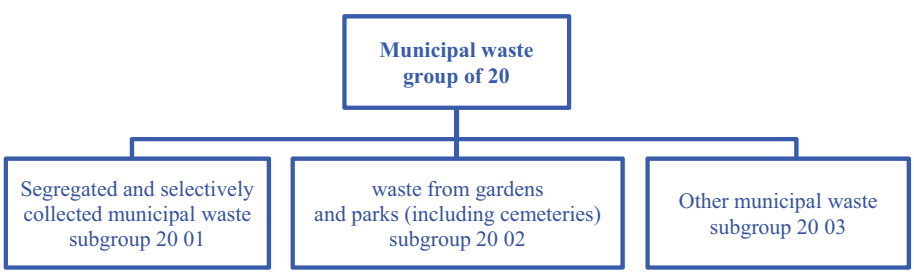

FIG. 1. The division of municipal waste

Source: own elaboration, based on the regulation of the Ministry of the Environment of 9 December 2014 on catalogueing wastes (Journal of Laws 2014, item 1923).

Particular subgroups of municipal waste can include numerous waste types. The subgroup with the greatest number is 20 01 – it contains 31 fractions of selectively gathered waste, including paper and cardboard (20 01 01), glass (20 01 02), plastics (20 01 39) and metals (20 01 40). From subgroup 20 02, the most important waste types are biodegradeable ones (20 02 01) while mixed municipal waste is an important form of household waste from subgroup 20 03.

The classification of waste used in Poland is in agreement with the classification [Decision 2000] binding from 2000 on EU territory. The harmonisation of the Polish codification enables the country to more effectively manage the particular groups, subgroups and types of waste in accordance with the guidelines followed by European institutions, and also to achieve results comparable to those achieved by other member countries.

MUNICIPAL WASTE MANAGEMENT IN EU LAW AND ITS TRANSPOSITION IN POLISH LEGISLATION

Law established by the EU creates an autonomous and uniform whole. It is used in all Member States, independent of national law, over which it is paramount and binding [Kalisz 2007]. It is based on the founding Treaties and secondary legislation adopted by European institutions.

EU environmental protection policy emphasizes the idea of looking at problems of the natural resources surrounding us as a whole. It is clearly shown that economic welfare, social justice, and a clean environment are closely linked and to an equal degree lead to an improved standard of life for citizens and balanced growth. This is why so much weight is attached to measures meant to prevent all negative anthropogenic interference. All EU Member States following a single environmental protection policy is advised as all citizens of the union are equal, so each has an equal right to the same level of environmental protection.

By signing, on 16 April 2003, in Athens, an accession treaty with the European Community, Poland became required to follow, on its territory of the Community, legal regulations in relation to which it fell far short. This applies to the country's highly ineffective waste management, including municipal waste management, which has become a priority in the EU's current environmental policy.

The main principles of European waste management identify a number of secondary legislative acts [Rosik-Dulewska 2015]. The most important of them is the European Parliament and Council Directive 2008/98/EC of 19 November 2008 on waste and repealing certain directives. It aims to reduce the burden of the very rapidly growing stream of waste on the environment and to protect human health through effective waste management and the prevention of the negative effects of that waste. The directive has the status of a framework act, meaning its provisions constitute general requirements which can be developed into specific acts, provided they are transposed and applied in accordance with the provisions of the Framework Directive [Directive 2008].

Under its provisions, the countries of the European Union were required, by 12 December 2010, to implement the relevant legal provisions necessary to comply with prin-

ciples of the Framework Directive. The most important for local governments in Poland are provisions for:

- developing at least one waste management plan;
- developing a programme for preventing the production of waste by 12 December 2013;
- establishing by 2015 the selective collection of waste (including paper, metal, plastic and glass);
- preparing waste for reuse and recycling by 2020. That means: a minimum of 50% by weight of paper, metal, plastic and glass from households and possibly other sources from which waste is similar to household waste; and a minimum of 70% by weight of non-hazardous construction and demolition waste.

These quantitative and qualitative requirements grew out of the fundamental problems regulating the Directive, which is to say the waste hierarchy, which "marks the order of priorities in waste prevention and management legislation and policy". As shown in Figure 2, EU Member States should first take all possible measures aimed at preventing or reducing waste production. Next in the hierarchy is the recovery of waste, which can be achieved by reusing, recycling or recovering recyclable materials from the waste stream. If the first four steps fail to yield results, it is possible to dispose of the waste in a manner that protects the environment and human health [Maśloch 2011]. Only in this way will waste management not cause permanent harm to the environment and allow it to be preserved for future generations.

Council Directive 1999/31/EC of 26 April 1999, also known as the Landfill Directive, contains important provisions on landfill waste. It states that Poland is obliged to reduce the amount of landfilled biodegradable municipal waste to 50% in 2013, and to 35% by 2020, relative, in both cases, to the total weight of these waste types produced in 1995 [Directive 1999].

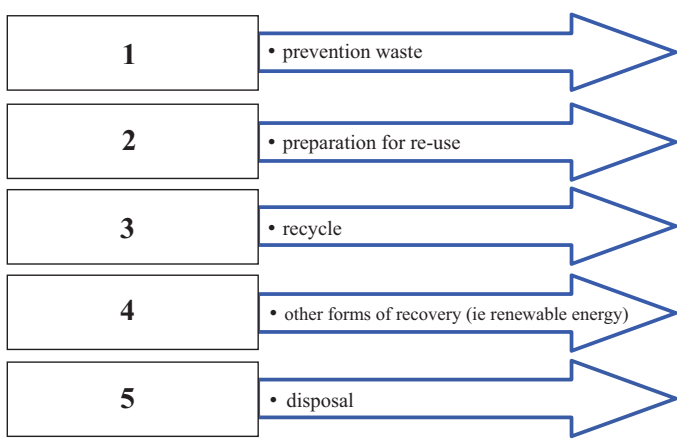

FIG. 2. The waste disposal hierarchy

Source: own elaboration based on Directive 2008/98/WE of the European Parliament and Council of 19 November 2008 on waste and repealing certain directives (Journal of Laws UE L 312 of 22.11.2008, Art. 4 point 1).

The Framework Directive was first transposed into strategic documents. In the Polish legislation this is the Second Environmental Policy, and is valid through 2025. It lays out the following objectives [II National… 2015]:

- to use the principles of balanced growth;
- to integrate the country's approach to environmental protection, considering challenges of responsibility;
- to come into accordance with the European strategy of dealing with waste: preventing the production of waste "at its source"; recovering raw materials and reusing waste and environmentally safe final disposal of unused waste.

The National Waste Management Plan (NWMP) covers a complete range of measures, providing for integrated waste management in the country while also protecting natural resources. It concerns waste both generated by Poland and imported from other countries. The Plan includes a waste prevention programme for individual fractions and a strategy for reducing their landfilling [Guidelines… 2015].

A detailed description of this document is the National Environmental Policy for 2009–2012 with a perspective to 2016 [Resolution 2009], which lays down very similar goals. Note that national environmental policy is passed for four years. However, measures it introduces can be extended a further four years [Act 2001].

Further documents, programmatic in nature, are mentioned in the Framework Directive waste management plans. They are created to achieve the objectives of national environmental policy, with which they must be compatible. In addition, they are developed at both the national and the provincial level. The provincial waste management plans should be consistent with the national ones and realize the objectives contained therein. In addition, waste management plans are updated at least every six years.

The National Waste Management Plan (NWMP) covers a complete range of activities, providing for integrated waste management in the country, while also protecting natural resources. It addresses the waste generated in the country and waste imported from other countries and also includes a waste prevention programme addressed to individual fractions and strategy for the reduction of storage (in landfills).

The National waste management 2014 plan has been binding in Poland since 1 January 2011. It was passed by the Council of Ministers on 24 December 2010 as the "National Waste Management Plan" (M.P. No 101, item 1183).

The Voivodship Waste Management Plan (VWMP) defines the territorial scope for waste management and provides a directory of regional waste treatment plants. It also provides for alternative services in these regions until the RIPOK (the Regional Municipal Waste Processing Facility) programme comes online, and lays down the plan for shuttering plants which do not meet environmental protection requirements and which cannot be modernised.

Following the entry into force on 1 January 2012 of the amendments to the Act, it was necessary to update the VWMP. The plans have become a document separate from the provincial environmental protection programmes. They were, however, tied to the National Environmental Policy and the National Waste Management Plan [Kozłowska 2012].

The next step in transposing community regulations is to draft and pass general, universally applicable legal acts. Poland had extensive legislation covering its range of mu-

nicipal services (mostly adopted in the 1990s), but a range of social, political and economic changes makes constant amendments to the legislation necessary.

Currently in force in the Republic of Poland, the laws governing major waste management issues are the following [Rosik-Dulewska 2015]:

- the Act of 14 December 2012 on wastes (Journal of Laws of 2013, item 21, as amended);
- the Act of 13 September 1996 on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities (Journal of Laws of 2012, item 391, as amended).

Beyond those, other laws that do not focus purely on waste management are relevant here, their content clearly shows the need for further action:

- the Act of 20 December 1996 on municipal management (Journal of Laws of 2011, No 45, item 236);
- the Act of 8 March 1990 on local government (Journal of Laws of 2001, No 142, item 1591, as amended);
- the Act of 27 April 2001 on environmental protection law (Journal of Laws of 2008, No 25, item 150, as amended).

In addition, in the Polish legislation, there are laws detailing the rules for handling individual groups of waste, including end of life vehicles (ELV), batteries and accumulators, used electrical and electronic equipment and packaging and packaging waste.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN MUNICIPAL WASTE MANAGEMENT

A detailed description and clarification of the general principles of waste management activities are provided by the provisions of the Act on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities. This Act brings top-down guidance for those responsible for directly performing individual tasks, but points mainly to municipalities being responsible for municipal waste management, "Maintaining cleanliness and order in communities is one of the obligatory responsibilities of the community itself" [Act 1996]. This follows from the provisions, dealing with the fact that "the scope of its activity comprises public affairs of local importance" and that "satisfying the collective needs of the community is among a municipality's responsibilities" [Act 1990]. Hence the government is responsible for the collection and proper management of waste.

The primary aims of the amended act on maintaining cleanliness and order (and other waste management provisions) are to [Guidelines… 2015]:

- establish monitoring and to set/finalise the municipal waste management system;
- reduce the amount of municipal waste, including through selective collection "at source";
- build modern and environmentally safe technical installations designed for waste recovery (while at the same time eliminating illegal dumps);
- divide the country into waste management regions, with a view to reducing the risk of environmental damage occurring as the result of transporting waste over long distances.

The Act allows for the possibility of entrusting to the inter-municipality association municipal waste management tasks, including resolutions in force in the municipalities

belonging to the association. In this case, changes in the association's statute and a detailed determination of its competences are necessary [Milewska and Czaban 2014]. The Act on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities specifies in detail the tasks the municipality is charged with carrying out. It puts at the disposal of the municipal council and its executive bodies a number of legal, economic, oversight and remedial instruments with which it can create a waste management system on the territory it administers. An illustration of this comprehensive toolset is presented in Figure 3.

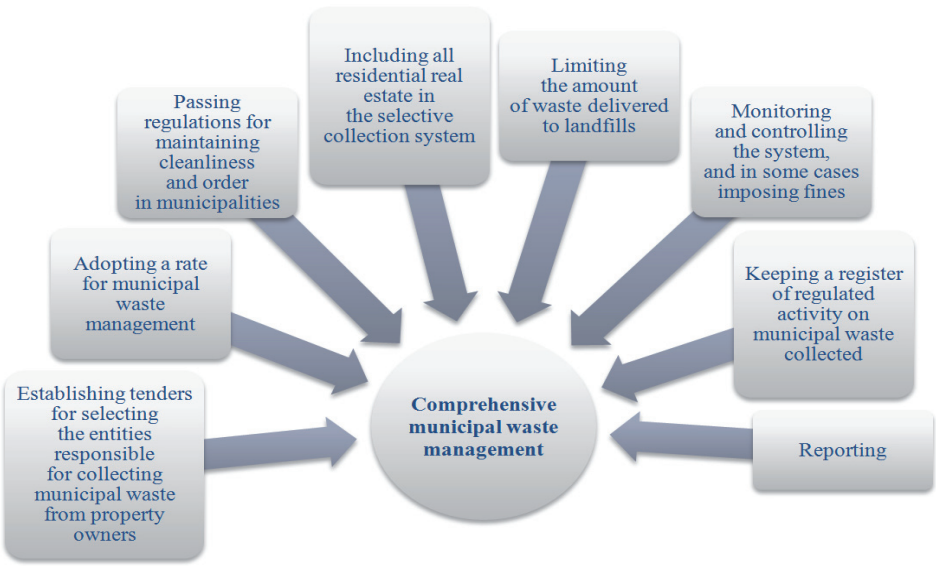

FIG. 3. Municipal waste management system activities in the administered territory

Source: own elaboration ed basison the Act of 13 September 1996 on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities (Journal of Laws 2012, item 391 with subsequent amendments)

The appropriate combination of the above tools makes it possible to create an organisational-technological framework for a system that will enable municipal waste management in municipalities that is in keeping with EU guidelines but does not generate excessive costs [Jaworowicz-Rudolf 2012].

How those municipalities go about using the key legislative instruments for creating such a system will depend on the local governments themselves.

SUMMARY

A "revolution" in the Polish municipal waste management system began on 1 January 2012 when the law [Act 2011] entered into force. Ineffective measures taken at different levels of government have, following legislative amendments, been replaced with complex solutions implemented by the local governments. Changes, though radical, were necessary and resulted from Poland applying provisions of Community law.

According to the law, municipalities own the waste they generate, and therefore only the municipal council has the right to decide how it is to be managed. In the context of the entry into force on 1 February 2015 of subsequent amendments to the law on maintaining cleanliness and order in municipalities, municipal waste management systems have evolved, particularly in terms of "garbage fee" rates.

The maximum fee rates, dependent on the percentage of the average monthly disposable income (total for one person), their impact on the income side of municipality budgets and the evolution of citizens' environmentally friendly behaviour could all be starting points for further analysis and discussion.

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Summary. The article presents the organisational and legal conditions behind a municipal waste management system. The authors reviewed the subject literature on the functioning of local government and public services theory, focusing on municipal waste management.

The paper also contains acts governing international and national law. They define, in the light of the central hierarchy of waste, the types and magnitude of necessary measures to be implemented in this area. They cover both requirements of quantity and quality.

Key words: municipality, municipal waste, environmental policy

JEL: H41, Q53, Q58

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DETERMINANTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE PŁOCK REGION

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INTRODUCTION

The Płock region is located in the Mazovian Plain in the north-western part of Mazowieckie Voivodship. The area covers two units of the local county, including the county of Płock and the city of Płock, the region's hub. The county of Płock shares borders with Sierpc, Płońsk, Sochaczew and Gostynin counties and, from the West, with Kujawsko-Pomorskie Voivodship. A population of around 110 thousand residents occupies an area of 1,796 km^2. The city of Płock is also the administrative district. The city is built around Tumski Hill, and is inhabited by over 122 thousand people on an area covering 8,804 ha.

The term region is conventionally understood as a separate, relatively homogeneous area distinguished from neighbouring areas by natural or acquired characteristics [Domański 2006]. The criteria for their separation are essential in terms of the extent and nature of the regions. One of the most important ones is the administrative criterion, which leads to defining the legal form of local administration units. The administrative division is of fundamental importance for spatial aspects of the management of socio--economic development. It is also relevant to tourism [Mazurski 2011]. In Poland, the administrative criterion has served to determine the range of Regional Tourism Organisations. For the tourist, dividing regions according to physical-geographical and cultural criteria is also an important way of dividing space, as these factors provide the basis for determining tourist attractions with either a natural and anthropogenic character. Tourism is also an important area of economic activity, and therefore it is possible to use economic criteria to distinguish regions with shared or interrelated economic centers [Liszewski 2011]. In this article, the administrative criterion was used as the basis for dividing the Płock region.

The subject of research in this article is the region of Płock, considered as an area of land and an urban county. The area is flush with tourist attractions, both natural and anthropogenic, which enable the development of tourism and have socio-economic importance [Powęska 2005]. The city of Płock, as the heart of the region and the historical capital of Mazovia, offers more man-made attractions. However, uniquely located on a bank above the Vistula river, Płock is also an area of natural attractions. A larger region of Płock is interesting in terms of the development of tourist attractions, both anthropogenic and natural ones, particularly those in the Gostynińsko-Włocławski and Brudzeński Landscape Parks.

The aim of the article is to identify opportunities to develop tourism in the Płock region. This is important both for the city, as a more and more dynamic economic centre in the country, and for rural areas, for which, apart from agriculture, tourism could have an important socio-economic impact. The main aim is achieved through three specific sub-objectives: (i) to analyse the potential advantages of the region in terms of their use in tourism, (ii) to characterise the accessibility of the region to transport and (iii) to determine the level to which the region's tourism infrastructure has been developed.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTER OF THE REGION

The Płock region comprises counties that are different from each other in a number of respects, and can therefore be regarded as complementary. Agriculture and the natural features of the countryside and the industrial and commercial character of the city complement each other. The county of Płock is diversified in terms of the natural, social and economic issues the define it. The county's economy is mainly based on agriculture. Suitable soil conditions in the east have allowed the area to play a leading role in agricultural production. In terms of agriculture and livestock breeding, particularly the breeding of hogs, the district commands a leading position in the region. All these elements interact to benefit the development of agro-food production.

Areas located on the other side of the Vistula river, south of Płock, play a different role due to their unfavourable soil conditions. However, the denser forestation and reservoirs can be used to develop tourism and recreation there. The Gostynińsko-Włocławski and Brudzeński Landscape Parks are rich in water and woodlands, and play an important role in shaping tourism in the region. There are around 4,200 businesses operating in the region, mainly in the service and trade sectors. Most are located in Płock, the region's major industrial and economic center. The city plays an important economic role not only in the county and voivodship, but also in the country. The headquarters of the largest state-owned company, PKN Orlen, a producer of crude oil and one of Europe's largest fuel distributors, is in Płock. The oil industry is highly developed because both PKN Orlen and oil pipeline company PERN "Przyjaźń" (English: "Friendship") are located in the region. Moreover, not only is Płock home to well-developed engineering, textile, food and construction companies, but it has also been selected by a number of foreign companies to establish regional headquarters. They include CNH New Holland, Basell Orlen Polyolefins, A. Schulman, Adler Polska

(Poland), Hoppenstedt Bonnier Information, Bildau and Bussmann Polska (Poland) and Hero Polska (Poland).

The Płock Industrial and Technological Park (located near the PKN Orlen) also plays an important role in the regional economy, attracting new investors and providing jobs. Finally, other companies known throughout Poland that operate in the county of Płock include meat processing plants "Peklimar" and "Olewnik" and grain processors the "Malma" – food company in Blichów and "Anna" in Łąck.

ACCESS TO TRANSPORT IN THE REGION

The Płock region occupies both sides of the Vistula river, in the Mazovian Lowland, approximately 100 km from two metropolitan areas: Warsaw and Łódź. The region has transport links with other Polish regions, with three important roads running through it. The first is the national road 60 (Łęczyca – Ostrów – Mazowiecka), which connects the southwest of the country with the north-eastern Poland, the Baltic countries and the Belarus. The second is route 60, which crosses national road 62 (Strzelno – Siemiatycze), and is an important transport link between the region and Warsaw. The third is national road 10 (Płońsk – Lubieszyn) which goes through a patch of the northern part of the region and links Warsaw and the Płock region with Toruń, Bydgoszcz, Szczecin and Polish-German border. Warsaw's Modlin Airport is just 70 km from Płock, while the larger, international Fryderyk Chopin Airport is within 100 km.

Unfortunately, no road of national or international importance runs through the region. In addition, there is no highway or express road to Płock and the surrounding areas (the nearest motorway junction is located around 40 km from Płock in the village of Strzelce, near Kutno). Another significant drawback for tourists is that it is not possible to reach Płock, such a large city of great importance for the region, directly by long-distance train. Only one railway line (Kutno – Brodnica), used mostly by freight trains, runs through the region, and there is little passenger traffic at present. According to the latest schedule, as of 14 December 2014, eight minibuses run from Płock railway station to Sierpc station, six go to Kutno station, and one train runs to Warsaw in the early-morning hours.

THE REGION'S TOURIST ATTRACTIONS

Tourist attractions are key to the development of the region's tourism [Kurek 2007, Ozimek 2011]. The Płock region's location on both sides of the Vistula river, which flows through the region, are home to two parks: Gostynińsko-Włocławski and Brudzeński, and Płock's interesting location on Tumskie Hill (Fig. 1) are the most important features of the region's landscape.

Tumskie Hill is an escarpment that runs 5 km along the Vistula river, reaching a height of 50 m and an inclination of 43°. A broad view of the queen of Polish rivers emerges from its edges. The left-bank part of the city, including the residential districts Radziwie, Góry and Ciechomice, can also be seen from the viewpoint on Tumskie Hill. At the same

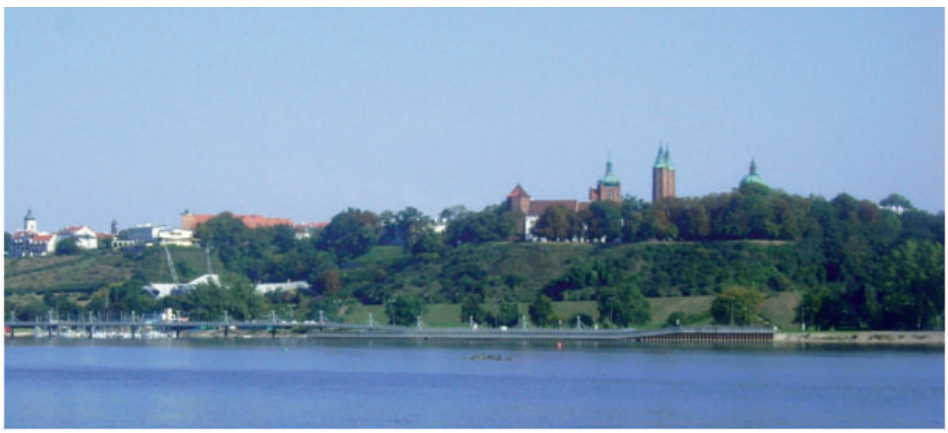

FIG. 1. Tumskie Hill in Płock
Source: Mateusz Pawłowski [August 2014].

time, the panoramic view of the forest and lake district extends into the distance, which is known as the land of Płock basin and is the main feature of the Gostynińsko-Włocławski Landscape Park. The Castle of the Dukes of Mazovia stands atop the hill, its 14th-century Gothic towers the most important cultural facilities in the city. A lower one is called the Noble Tower while the higher one is the Clock Tower. Until the Polish-Swedish war in the 17th century, the castle was the seat of a Benedictine monastery. The castle's function was later changed and it was rebuilt several times. Today, it houses the Diocesan Museum [Kulczyk 2012].

Near the Castle of the Dukes sits the Cathedral Basilica of the Mother of God worshipped in the Mystery of the Assumption. It was built in Romanesque style between 1130–1144 by Bishop Alexander of Malonne. As a result of many modernisations, the cathedral showcases three styles: Romanesque plan and apse, Gothic towers and Renaissance dome with a lantern. The cathedral is the burial place of two former Polish kings: Bolesław Krzywousty (English: Boleslaw the Wry-mouthed) and Władysław Herman.

Further up Tumski Hill may be found the old town with two historic streets: Grodzka and Tumska. Narutowicza Square is located between them, home to the former palace of the Bishops of Płock (now District Court), which was built in the classical style, the House of Providence and the building of the former guardhouse and the Gothic Trumpet House. Grodzka street runs parallel to Małachowskiego street, where Marshal Stanisław Małachowski High School can be found. Established in 1180, it is the old school in Poland. Grodzka street leads directly to the old market, the oldest and the main city square. It occupies 10 thousand m^2, and is surrounded by houses from 18th and 19th centuries. There is also a town hall, which is the seat of the municipal government. It was designed by Jakub Kubicki, who counts the Warsaw Belvedere among his creations. Every day at noon and at 6 p.m. a bugle call can be heard from the tower of the town hall. In addition, the scene of Bolesław Krzywousty knighting Władysław Herman is played on the tower with the figures of the princes at noon. The fountain "Aphrodite" adorns the area in front of the town hall, and doubles as an ice-skating rink in the winter. The Darmstadt House

(formerly the Hotel Berlin) is located near the town hall, as are the Płock local tourist organisation and the Plock tourist information office.

Founded in 1821 thanks to a social initiative, the Museum of the Mazovian region, famous for its rich Art Nouveau collection, is located on Tumska street. The museum's collections contain many historical, artistic, numismatic and archaeological exhibits. The museum also owns the historic granary with ethnographic collections from throughout the Mazovian region. It is located on Kazimierza Wielkiego street.

Thanks to its atmosphere and numerous historical monuments, Płock is a charming city. Its other tourist attractions include the Sanctuary of Divine Mercy, the Museum of Mazovian Jews, church of św. Bartłomieja (English: St Bartholomew), the Płock Scientific Association, the Monastery and the Cathedral of the Mariavites, the Church of St John the Baptist, Władysław Broniewski's house, the Monument of Marshal Józef Piłsudski, the City Zoological Garden, the Płock pier and Sobótka reservoir. "Ciuchcia Tumska", a tourist train that takes in the sights of Płock, runs May through August.

Gostynińsko-Włocławski Landscape Park (GWPK), located in the county of Płock, is, at 38 thousand ha, one of the largest in the country. Established in 1979, it extends south of the city of Płock in the direction of Włocławek on the left bank of the Vistula river. The Park area of 6,260 ha is located in the Płock region, of which 1,522 ha spreads over the municipality of Łąck, while New Duninów covers 4,738 ha. The GWPK area abounds with natural beauty. There are 14 wildlife reservations and sanctuaries, 117 natural monuments, about 800 species of vascular plants, nearly 200 species of rare and protected plants, 58 species of plants under full protection, 14 partially protected plant species, 190 species of birds, 47 of mammals, 8 of amphibians, 6 of reptiles, 30 of fish, and 3 Natura 2000 sites. The GWPK has great tourism potential thanks to its numerous attractions. Of the more than 40 lakes in the Park, nine are located in the district of Płock: Zdworskie lake (the largest), Lens, Sendeńskie, Jeziorko, Drzesno, Łąckie Duże (Large) and Łąckie Małe (Small), Górskie (Mountain), and Ciechomickie. The wild nature sanctuaries – Borderlands (Kresy), Jarząbek, Lake Drzesno, Łąck, Dąbrowa Łącka and Root (Korzeń) – are also very important for the development of tourism. The GWPK area is also known for its cultural treasures, including the 19th-century palace and park facilities in New Duninowo and Łąck. In terms of tourist attractions, the municipality of Łąck should be considered the most attractive in the region, and its greatest draw is the horse stables in Łącko (Fig. 2), which has been operating for over 90 years. Every year national and international jumping and bareback riding (vaulting) competitions are organised on its grounds.

Additionally, stallions stables offers horse riding lessons for individuals and groups under the guidance of an instructor, a variety of horse rides in the area and hippotherapy as well as participation in recreational events. The municipality's other attractions include the Forest Education Chamber and the Chamber of Historical Memory, the Stanisław Reymont Folk Art Museum, and the School Camp in Sendenie, the environmentally friendly Model Rural Ecotourism Centre. The municipalities of Bodzanów, Mała Wieś, Słubice and Wyszogród are all riverside communities on the Vistula, and have since 1988 made up the Vistula Protected Landscape Area, one of the most unique areas in the country thanks to the large number of small islands dotting the Vistula river basin. Some of those islands are permanent towheads while others are sandy islands/sandbars.

FIG. 2. The horse stables in Łąck
Source: Mateusz Pawłowski [August 2014].

Another important attraction, Brudzeński Landscape Park is located in the Skrwa valley. Established in 1988, it covers 3,452 ha. Many species of plants and animals live in this mainly forested area with diverse terrain, soil, sunlight and water conditions. There are two wildlife sanctuaries nearby: Sikora and Brwilno.

THE REGION'S TOURIST INFRASTRUCTURE

The well-developed tourist infrastructure helps make the region attractive. There are four four-star hotels located along the Vistula river in the city of Płock: "Starzyński Hotel", "Tumski Hotel", "Herman" and "Czardasz Hotel"; four three-star hotels: "Petropol Hotel" (opened in 2014), "Płock Hotel", "Podkowa Hotel" and "Adrian's Villa"; and the two-star hotels "Arcadia", "Hotel 1", "Petrochemia" and "Hotel 24". According to Central Statistical Office data, in 2013 there was a total of 736 total beds spread across Płock's guest establishments. The highest occupancy of the area's establishments is observed in July and August, when numerous festivals take place.

In the county of Płock, there is a single four-star hotel ("Hotel Kawallo" in Słubice), three three-star hotels, two of which are located in the municipality of Łąck ("Hotel Marsel" and "Hotel Rusałka") and one in the administrative borders of the municipality of Słupno ("Hotel TIM" in Cekanów), and also a two-star hotel in Słupno called "Zajazd Pod Szczęśliwą Nazwą". As of 2013, there were 1,320 beds total in the county of Płock.

Dining in Płock is mostly concentrated in the city centre, in the old town, on Grodzka street and the Old Market Square. The majority of establishments are restaurants, pizzerias, pubs and cafes. Płock restaurants offer mainly Polish cuisine, though one also finds Italian at "Arturo", Japanese at "Sakura" and Jewish at "Estera". Interesting examples of using the existing tourist facilities as places to eat are a restaurant and café located at the water tower (Fig. 3), built in the late 19th century, and the "Molo Café", the primary destination at the Płock pier.

FIG. 3. Restaurant and café located in the water tower

Source: http://www.portalplock.pl/pl/334_informacje/7436_wieza_cisnien_otwarta_polano_8230_wode_foto.html [accessed: 04.01.2015].

In Płock county, dining is concentrated mainly in places that draw tourists. The towns with the most developed gastronomy include Łąck, Grabina, Nowe Rumunki, Koszelówka, Zdwórz, Soczewka, Nowy Duninów and Cierszewo. In contrast to the city of Płock, where most places to eat successfully operate throughout the year, facilities outside the city flourish when tourist traffic is high – mainly in the summer.

Płock has the largest entertainment and sports facility in Mazowieckie, "Orlen Arena", which can accommodate more than 5,500. The local handball team Orlen Wisła Płock plays its matches there, and other sports and cultural events are held regularly. Since its opening in 2010, the arena has played host to numerous concerts (Jean Michel Jarre headlined the opening ceremony), beauty contests (Miss Poland) and other non-handball sporting events, including Polish national volleyball team matches, martial arts competitions, and the like.

Other major sports venues in the city include: the Kazimierz Górski football team's stadium in Płock (capacity 10,978), the Municipal Sports Centre, including an athletics stadium (bleacher capacity about 1000), three indoor swimming pools ("Podolanka", "Jagiellonka" and the city swimming pool), two outdoor ice rinks: Old Market Square (in summer the site functions as a fountain) and near the "Podolanka" pool (also open in the winter), the sports hall in Borowiczki (along with a climbing wall), the Municipal Sports facility complex on Dąbrowski Square, and the horseback riding centre. In Płock County, the most important sports and recreation facilities include the recreation and training centre in Cierszewo (riding lessons and kayaking), the Stallions stable in Łąck, and the sports hall in Łąck.

The main cultural venue of the region is the 3,500-seat amphitheatre, which was built in the 1960s, when it immediately became – and indeed remains today – one of the city's extraordinary examples of modern architecture. Since then it has served as a venue for concerts, festivals, and other artistic and cultural events. The amphitheater was rebuilt

TABLE. Hiking trails in the region of Płock

Name and length of the trail	Trail head	Trail end	Course of trail	Attractions (within the Płock region)
Red trail of Bolesław Krzywousty – northern part (65 km)	Płock PTTK	Sierpc PKP	Płock PTTK – Biskupice – Cierszewo – Kobierniki – Sikórz – Parzeń – Brudzeń Duży – Cieślin – Jakubowo – Choczeń – Bledzewo – Miłobędzyn – Sierpc PKP	headquarter of PTTK Płock, Płock Scientific Society, Brudzeński Landscape Park, Horse-riding Center in Cierszewo, 19th-centary. Classicistic manor in Sikórz, landscape sanctuary "Sikórz", 19th–20th-centary. Classicistic manor in Brudzeń Duży
Red trail of Bolesław Krzywousty – southern part (60.5 km)	Płock PTTK	Kutno PKP	Płock PTTK – Dzierząznia – lake Jeziorko – lake Sendeń – Lake Białe – Gorzewo stanica ZHP – Kruk – Gostynin PKP – Sierakówek PKP – Strzelce Kujawskie PKP – Raciborów – Kutno PKP	headquarter of PTTK Płock, rail and road bridge of Legions of Marshal Józef Piłsudski, Płock Radziwie, Gostynińsko-Włocławski Landscape Park
Yellow trail – the main trail in Kotlina Płocka (71,5 km)	Dobrzyków PKS	Włocławek	Dobrzyków PKS – Jezioro Ciechomickie – Jezioro Górskie – Grabina PKS – Łąck PKP – Jezioro Sendeń – Krzywy Kołek – Trzcianno – Nowy Duninów PKS – Włocławek	Gostynińsko-Włocławski PK – forest sanctuary "Łąck", palace-park complex in Nowy Duninów
Green trail of Kazimierz Wielki (71.5 km)	Gąbin PKS	Włocławek	Gąbin PKS – Koszelówka – Matyldów, Lake Łąckie Małe – Lake Łąckie Duże – Łąck PKS – Janów – Gorzewo stanica ZHP – Lucień – Miałków – Lake Lucieńskie – Cieślikowo – Lake Skrzyneckie – Włocławek	Classicist town hall from 1826 in Gąbin, eclectic palace from 1872–1873 in Łąck, stallion stables in Łąck, the gallery of painter-artist Alojzy Balcerzak in Koszelówka
Blue trail – Vistula-side trail of Władysław Broniewski – eastern part (49 km)	Płock PTTK	Wyszogród PKS	Płock PTTK – Borowiczki – Wykowo – Białobrzegi PKS – Kępa Polska – Zakrzewo – Podgórze – Wyszogród PKS	church from 1785 in Kępa Polska, 17th-century wooden church in Zakrzew Kościelny, late 18th-century. Baroque church in Wyszogród, 15th-century Franciscan monastery and church in Wyszogród, 18th-century monastery in Wyszogród
Blue trail – Vistula-side trail of Władysław Broniewski – south-western part (32 km)	Płock PTTK	Gostynin – Plac Wolności	Płock PTTK – Soczewka – Krzywy Kołek – Lucień – Gostynin (plac Wolności)	1906 Neo-gothic Church with one nave in Soczewka
Black trail of Andrzej Małkowski (25 km)	Płock PTTK	Gąbin PKS	Płock PTTK – Ciechomice – Grabina – Jezioro Ciechomickie – Matyldów – Zdwórz PKS – Koszelew – Gąbin PKS	Lakes: Górskie, Zdworskie and Ciechomickie with infrastructure, forest with spruce, oak, birch and larch
Black trail of Aleksander Macieszy (17.5 km)	Nowy Duninów	Krzywie	Nowy Duninów – Środoń – Duninów Duży – Lake Lucieńskie – Smolarnia – Krzywie	Architectural monuments in Nowy Duninów, natural monuments, diverse forest
Green trail of St Hubert (18 km)	Płock Borowiczki sugar factory (cukrownia)	Białobrzegi PKS	Płock Borowiczki Cukrownia – Cekanowo – Słupno – Szeligi – Borowice – Miszewo Murowane – Białobrzegi PKS	Chapel of St Hubert in Ciekanowski Forest, wooden parish church in Słupno from 1753, 19th–20th-century brick manor house in Borowice, 15th-century church in Miszewo

Source: own elaboration based on http://zwiedzajmy.pl/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=186&Itemid=239 [accessed: 02.01.2015].

and re-opened in 2008, and is now illuminated at night in the shape of a flying saucer and perfectly suits the tourist landscape in the city of Płock. The building is covered with a special roof, made of a membrane that fans out over the audience. A variety of musical, cultural and entertainment events have been staged since the amphitheatre re-opened.

The region's hiking trails, which lead through the most attractive places and venues in the area (Table), are another very important asset for the development of tourism in the area.

The hiking trails lead mainly through historical sites, wildlife sanctuaries and manorial parks. A good number of these trails can also be biked. These trails are located mainly in areas Gostynińsko-Włocławski and Brudzeński Landscape Parks and in the adjacent cluster of lakes in the Łącko and Gabin areas, the city of Płock and along the Vistula valley. Designated trails lead to sites in the Płock region as well as in the neighbouring areas. The hiking trails are marked by the Płock Marking Commission to make explicit reference to the natural, bibliographic and historic heritage of the region.

CONCLUSIONS

The man-made and natural assets of the region of Płock combine to form a very solid basis for the development of tourism. However, it is the diversity of potential tourist assets in the region that should be emphasised. The convenient location of the city of Płock on Tumski Hill and the opportunities presented by the Gostynińsko-Włocławski Landscape Park on the left side of the Vistula and the Brudzeński Landscape Park on the right side give the area its the greatest potential. In contrast, the municipalities located on the north-eastem side of the city of Płock remain agricultural areas.

The tourist infrastructure enabling the region of Płock to be visited is as full as the area is rich in tourist attractions. Płock's accommodation and dining are of standards from low to high, and therefore meet tourists' likewise variegated needs. The dining and accommodation infrastructure is less well developed in the rural areas, but the city offers services and facilities for tourists visiting them. The network of hiking trails may be treated as a way to learn about the region's historical and natural sites.

On the downside, limited accessibility to transport negatively affects the development of tourism in the Płock region. It is essential that it be improved if tourism and the region's other social and economic functions are to develop. The rich cultural and natural assets and the appropriate services along with the dining and accommodation infrastructure enable the development of tourism in the region. However, both the assets and infrastructure are located in pockets – in Płock and in Gostynińsko-Włocławski Landscape Park and Brudzeński Landscape Parks. Tourism can also play an important role in the socio-economic development in other areas in the region, and opportunities for the development of various forms of agro-tourism should be emphasised particularly.

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Summary. In the region of Płock, which includes the city and the surrounding county, the right conditions for tourism to develop are in place. This is important for the city, as an ever more vibrant economic center, as well as for the outlying rural areas, for which, next to agriculture, tourism could play an important role in socio-economic development. Given that, the article presents an analysis of the potential of tourist assets, the level of development of the tourist infrastructure and the region's transport accessibility. The analysis reveals disparities in terms of the saturation of tourist assets and tourist infrastructure facilities. The city of Płock is much more developed than the rural areas. However, for the Płock region as a whole, the rural and urban areas are complementary. A factor that negatively affects the development of tourism in the region is the poorly developed transport infrastructure, which somewhat limits accessibility. Improving it is utmost importance if the region is to develop its tourism potential and other socio-economic areas.

Key words: Płock region, tourist attractions, tourist facilities

JEL: O18, R11, R12

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INSIGHTS INTO THE CHOICE AND DECISION MAKING TO STUDY AT A SELECTED BRITISH UNIVERSITY IN THE EXAMPLE OF POLISH STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY GLOBAL FAIR IN POLAND

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INTRODUCTION

In the modern world, phenomena of internationalisation and globalisation are taking place in all sectors, including Higher Education (HE). Global technologies have caused the world to start shrinking. The Internet is easily accessible and innovations in transport make it much easier to travel. Economic and political changes in the world in the last few years have had a considerable impact on people's lifestyles and decisions they have taken in their private and professional lives. Poland's accession to the European Union (EU) in 2004 opened previously closed borders to its citizens and gave students the possibilities to make free choice to study abroad. Currently one of the most popular destinations of overseas study for Polish students is the UK. This is because British universities are perceived as good and noble, both in Poland and throughout the world. Studying in the UK also enables students to master their English language, and experience life in a multicultural environment.

According to the literature two main types of factors influence students' decision--making process: push and pull factors. Push factors are created by students' country of origin, and are the ones that persuade them to move abroad. Pull factors, in turn, are those which operate within the host country and encourage students to consider it as their new residence [Mazzarol and Soutar 2002]. Of course, there can also be other factors at

work, ones which cannot be classified as pull or push, but are instead attributable to an individual's psychological make-up.

Though the UK is one of the main destinations to study for Polish students, who account for a fair share of the EU students studying there, very little research has been dedicated to this particular group. A group of prospective students attending the University Global Fair in Warsaw in 2015, who selected a particular British university from north-west England, were interviewed. They were encouraged to explain their motivation to study abroad, the reasons they chose the UK, and in this particular case the motives which prompted them to select this particular British university. They were given a chance to explain their decision-making process.

The main aim of this paper is to investigate what motivates Polish students to study abroad, in particular in the UK, looking very close at students selecting a particular British university. The paper examines these students' choices and their decision-making process while selecting their university studies.

POLISH COMMUNITY IN THE UK

The Polish community living in the UK is one of the largest, accounting for 14% of all foreign citizens in Britain. It amounts to around 700 thousand people, which constitute more than a quarter of 5 million foreigners in the UK from Eastern Europe (www.dailymail.co.uk). The Polish migrant community consists of "old migrants" (pre-war ones) and those who arrived in significant numbers in 2004 onwards, when Poland joined the European Union.

A number of push and pull factors encouraged these migrants to move there. For the "old migrants", it was mainly the war and the difficult political situation they found themselves in when it ended. For the "new migrants", it was better job prospects, a better economy, a desire to gain international experience, to learn or improve their English, or to have an adventure. Migrants were people of various ages, some quite mature, and others very young and inexperienced, so the majority of them did physical labour there.

However, by opening their borders to Polish immigrants, Britain gained not only labourers but also a lot of students, who were now treated by British universities as European students, rather than as the "international" ones they had been classified as in the past [Rembielak et al. 2009].

POLISH STUDENTS IN THE UK

Poland's joining the EU in 2004 made a considerable difference to Polish students, as it gave them an opportunity to study abroad. As Polish qualifications were recognised by British institutions, a visa was no longer required, and there was a huge difference in terms of fees. Pre-accession, Polish students had been classified as international, meaning they paid considerable fees to study in the UK. For many Polish students, the international fees were too expensive and, after joining the EU, the ability to study abroad was no longer just a dream.

In 2004, the maximum level of tuition for undergraduate students (UG) was up to 3,000 GBP a year (except for in Scotland, where the fee was abolished). By 2010–2011, the maximum UG fees had increased to 3,290 GBP. In 2012 a new fee was introduced, the minimum of which was 6,000 GBP and the maximum up to 9,000 GBP a year for the annual tuition costs of EU UG students, including ones from the UK. Universities had a choice in terms of the amount they wished to charge their students to study in the UG programmes. This became challenged for prospective students as 64 universities announced straight away their plans to charge the full amount allowed by the government, while only 59 decided they would charge at least the minimum fee.

POLISH EDUCATION SYSTEM AND STUDENT NUMBERS

The Polish education system has in recent years undergone a few reforms which helped it adjust to the standards of unified European education. This came as a result of the Bologna Declaration, which was signed in 1999 by the education ministers of 29 countries, and came into force in Poland in 2003. It was designed to increase collaboration among European universities, by forming a system of easily comparable academic degrees and titles. In terms of the system of Higher Education, the biggest change was dividing upper education into three cycles of qualifications: the first cycle spanned 3–4 years and leads to the bachelor of honours degree (licencjat or engineer); the second cycle covering two years and leading to the Masters degree (magister); and the third cycle another four years and culminating in the PhD (doctor). However, some master's degrees are excluded from this system and are granted after a unique long-cycle programme, lasting between four and six years.

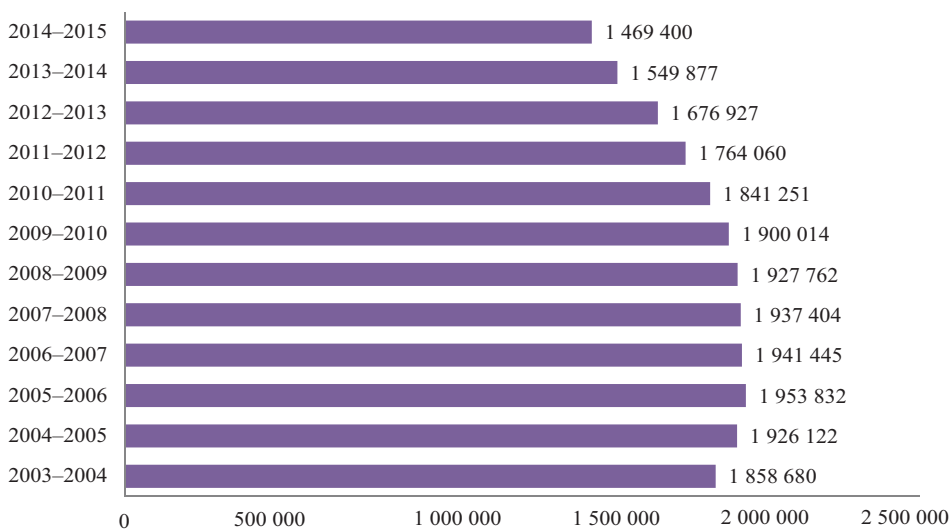

FIG. Polish student numbers in HE institutions in years 2003–2015

Source: own elaboration based on Poland in Figures 2015, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2015.

TABLE. Polish student numbers by level of education at schools in years 2010–2015

Education	2010–2011	2013–2014	2014–2015
Pupils and students by educational level at schools in thousands			
Primary (podstawowe)	2 191.7	2 152.6	2 306.1
Lower secondary (gimnazja)	1 261.4	1 124.0	1 105.9
Upper secondary (szkoły ponadgimnazjalne)[a]	1 464.9	1 277.7	1 247.6
Post-secondary (policealne)	298.8	279.0	264.6
Tertiary (wyższe)	1841.3	1 549.9	1 469.4
Students of schools and for adults in thousands (szkoły dla dorosłych)	289.2	240.3	208.1
Pupils and students[b] by age groups in % of population of a given age group			
7–12	95.7	94.5	94.1
13–15	96.5	95.3	95.0
16–18	94.9	94.2	94.2
19–24	57.3	54.6	47.8
25–29	9.8	8.2	6.6
30 and more	1.2	1.0	0.7

[a] excluding students in art schools leading to professional certification; [b] excluding foreigners

Source: own elaboration based on Poland in Figures 2015, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2015.

There are state (public) and private (non-public) institutions of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Poland. According to the Polish Central Statistical Office (GUS), in 2014–2015 academic year the total enrolment at Polish Higher Education Institutions was 1.47 million Polish students. In comparison to the last few years a decrease in enrolment can now be observed, especially in private Polish HE institutions, where students are obliged to pay fees. It has been said that many of these institutions will be eliminated from the market by higher quality providers and public universities, where education is free. Public HE institutions enjoy stable enrolment for their programmes. Polish student numbers at public institutions are presented in Figure.

Table presents Polish student numbers by level of education in schools at the various levels of education.

FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS TO STUDY OVERSEAS

The majority of customers prefer to purchase products about which they have some knowledge. The decision to purchase a "good" may be a bit easier than one to buy a service as goods are tangible and can be easily seen, touched and felt.

Higher Education demonstrates the key service features, as identified by Zeithaml et al. [1985]. It is primarily intangible, which means that potential consumers cannot see the service in advance. That is why to make the right decision they usually rely on other cues, including word-of-mouth recommendation (either from family and friends, or online discussions), the reputation of a country or institution, and the price [Bourke 2000], various university rankings, student satisfaction surveys, meetings with alumni who graduated from the institution, and many other factors.

The increasingly competitive global market offers customers more choice, which leads to different motivation and consumer behaviour. With the development of the Internet, customers have more information on offers available to them. However, being overloaded with information can potentially make choices more complicated. From the customer's point of view, a brand simplifies product choice. Similarly, a strong and reliable university brand, meaning a strong reputation, can have a positive effect on prospective students and definitely can reduce the risk of making a wrong choice.

Antonides and Van Raaij [1998] distinguish four types of risk when making purchase decisions: physical, financial, social, and time risk. With education, the physical risk may involve selecting a university that is located in a dangerous area without proper security. Financial risk comes from university fees, cost of living and transport expenses, especially if students go abroad to study, and any other unforeseen expenses. Social risk can result from choices made concerning social relations and the prestige of the consumer, for example if selecting a university of a doubtful reputation. Time risk can result from choices made about the future time expenditure of the consumer and of possibly lost time if a student makes a wrong choice regarding the location, the university, or the programme of study.

To reduce the risk of making a wrong choice, customers of higher education seek information from various sources: family, friends, alumni, internet, university websites, various rankings, open days, fairs, university promotional materials.

There are a number of reasons for why students decide to study overseas. McMahon [1992], Mazzarol and Soutar [2002], and Li and Bray [2007] all discuss global patterns of international student flows by identifying push-pull factors that encourage students to leave their homeland and study overseas.

Push factors are the ones that exist within the students' home country and influence their decision to undertake study abroad. An example would be a lack of reputable HE institutions in poorer countries. Mazzarol and Soutar [2002] look specifically at perceptions of the quality of the tertiary education system available in one's home country: if they are negative, then they will be a strong push factor to encourage students to study overseas. An unsatisfactory GNP growth rate in their home country can discourage some from studying in their homeland [Lee and Tan 1984, Agarwal and Winkler 1985, McMahon 1992], as they do not see promising career prospects for themselves there.

Pull factors, on the other hand, operate within the host country and host institution to make them attractive to international students. Examples include the availability of part-time work [Mazzarol et al. 1997] and work after the course [Lin 1997]. Binsardi and Ekwulugo [2003] stress the importance of international recognition of the host country, while others emphasize the reputation for quality [Lin 1997, Mazzarol et al. 1997, Mazzarol 1998, Soutar and Turner 2002]. Mazzarol et al. [1997] discuss the impact of the overall level of knowledge and awareness of the host country, and Mazzarol et al. [1997], Mazzarol [1998], and Cubillo et al. [2006] all focus on the importance of recognition of host's qualifications in the home country.

Another pull factor is the host nation's support of international students via scholarships [McMahon 1992], and ease of university entrance and immigration procedures [Binsardi and Ekwulugo 2003, Maringe and Carter 2007]. According to Mazzarol [1998] and Soutar and Turner [2002], the range of courses can be also a very important factor

attracting international students to study abroad, if the range of programmes to study in their home country is limited.

Customer focused organisational culture can also draw students [Mazzarol 1998], as can the presence of students from their home country [Lin 1997, Mazzarol et al. 1997] as well as recommendations from parents, relatives, and friends [Mazzarol et al. 1997, Maringe and Carter 2007]. In addition to these factors, students may have their own more personal motivations.

The decision to study internationally and the choice of which country and institution to study at, are all clearly part of a very complex problem-solving situation. The first stage in this process is the initial decision to study internationally, and is often influenced by push factors. The second stage – selecting the host country – is where pull factors become important. When it comes to selecting the institution, it would seem that there are additional pull factors that make one more attractive than others [Mazzarol 1998, Rembielak et al. 2009].

METHODOLOGY

The aim of the research was to examine what motivates Polish students to study abroad, in particular in the UK, at one university in north-west England. The research was undertaken in 2015 on Polish students who participated at a the University Global Fair in Warsaw, Poland. The paper examines these students' choices and their decision-making process while selecting their university studies.

Following Creswell's [2007] premise that qualitative research is conducted when a problem or issue needs to be explored, I applied qualitative research to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that motivated the students. I conducted a personal semi--structured interview with each of the 28 students: 12 of the respondents were female and 16 were male, all between the ages of 17 and 30; 11 of these students wanted to study postgraduate programmes and the rest would be pursuing undergraduate ones. They were very enthusiastic and eager to share their thoughts and observations.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

All of the interviewed students viewed Poland's 2004 entrance to the EU as a very positive step, one which was enabling them to undertake studies abroad now. They perceived it as a great opportunity and said this made a considerable difference as the doors to European adventure had been thrown open for them. So, in line with Binsardi and Ekwulogo's [2003] study, and Maringe and Carter [2007], the ease of university entrance and immigration procedures was one of the pull factors influencing these students to study overseas.

Interestingly, half of the students did not feel that their homeland had much less to offer than the host country in a long-term perspective. In their opinion, Poland was moving in the right direction and they felt they should be proud of their country. At the same time, they felt that they would have a great adventure in living and studying in a differ-

ent multicultural environment of worldwide renown, an opportunity in line with what Binsardi and Ekwulogo described in their work [2003]. The other half of the students felt less optimistic about Poland's future but felt that no matter what happens there, it is worth investing in their own career as one day they would benefit from it.

The majority of the interviewed students stressed the importance of British education, which they took to be a guarantee of very high quality and which, once completed, would be appreciated by future employers in Poland or, if they decided not to return home, elsewhere in the world. This is in line with the reputation for quality discussed by Lin [1997], Mazzarol et al. [1997], Mazzarol [1998], and Soutar and Turner [2002]. As one student said:

"I know studying in the UK is expensive but you can get a loan, I heard, or work a bit. But, you know, one day, when I graduate I know that my diploma will have value. I will be more competitive in the market as I would have studied in a reputable University and my employer would have a proof I am really good at English, so my job opportunities will be unlimited. I heard that employers prefer people with English qualifications".

The students also mentioned the opportunity to work while studying, which is in line with Lin [1997] and Mazzarol et al. [1997], as well as the availability of part time work and work after the course, a benefit described by Mazzarol et al. [1997]. The students said:

"I have two sisters and my parents work very hard so I don't want them to worry about me. I know from friends who study in England that it isn't easy but if you are well--organised you can study and work at the same time as the timetable allows you this. If I studied in Poland I couldn't do it. They have more classes here and the classes are spread throughout the whole week".

"I read that the majority of graduates find work straight after studies. This is what I need. My cousin graduated from a Polish University last year, studied IT, everyone was saying he would easily find a good job and guess what (…), nobody wants to hire him because he has no experience. British Universities offer internships when you study, so in fact you get experience. That's what I want. They told me about the 'sandwich year', which has a funny name but is a great idea, and this convinced me to go there".

Many of the interviewed students value the recognition of the host country's qualifications, which was pointed by Cubillo et al. [2006]. The overall level of knowledge and awareness of the people in the host country, Mazzarol [1998], Mazzarol et al. [1997] both described this factor was also considered essential by students when selecting where to study.

Prospective students stressed the fact that since 2004, when Poland joined the EU, many Poles emigrated to the UK, so almost everyone now has either a family or friends living there. There are also many TV programmes about the UK in Poland and all Polish students study English at school. Thanks to this, the UK does not feel like an unknown and hostile place, and although it is not a Slavic country, Polish people have high awareness of it and find it familiar.

The fact that so many Polish students already study in the UK was another factor which encouraged the "newcomers". This tendency is corroborated by research done by Lin [1997] and Mazzarol et al. [1997] all of whom pointed at the presence of students from the home country as an important point of encouragement. As one student said:

"I think it's great to have so many Polish students studying in England. At least they will understand your culture and will guide you in the 'new territory' so you don't feel lost and lonely there, especially at the beginning. I also read there are many Polish organisations and societies, so you can meet really nice people. Don't get me wrong, I want to mix with others but sometimes it is good to have a soul mate from your country".

There was a considerable difference regarding perceived educational experience between the students, who have not started their university adventure yet, and were planning to start their first year of undergraduate study, and those who actually currently or previously studied in Poland, and decided to study postgraduate programmes in the UK now. The latter ones felt the service offered by Polish universities to their students was in many cases not customer focused and was in need of improvement. Comparing their experience with that of their friends, who studied in the UK, they felt they could get much better service in the UK. This is in agreement with Mazzarol [1998], who stressed the importance of customer focused organisational culture in attracting students by universities. Major points of criticism of Polish universities included: lack of guidance from lecturers, some impolite individuals working at universities, timetable spread throughout the week and starting classes very early in the morning, and a lack of parking spaces.

According to Mazzarol [1998] and Soutar and Turner [2002], the range of courses can also be a very important factor attracting international students to study abroad. The students I interviewed did not complain about the range of courses available to them in Polish Universities but they felt British universities offered more flexibility and elective modules, so the students could tailor themselves the programme to customise it according to their interests.

When asked why they would want to study in this particular British university, students indicated the great location, which was easily accessible by public transport, and had both airports and a railway station nearby. One of the students said:

"I know I will miss my family back home but thanks to the closeness of the airport, and cheap flights to Poland it offers, I feel I can visit them very often and they can visit me".

Students also liked the actual region of the UK the university was located in. They felt that as it was not based in London, life would be less hectic and less expensive. As summarised by one of the students:

"I feel London is overadvertised. I was there a few times and couldn't relax. Everyone is running. I much prefer Manchester. It is a lovely city, it has the beautiful Salford Quays, where you feel like in Las Vegas at night, and has the best night life you can imagine. People are so friendly. I just love it. I cannot imagine any other place to study in".

The majority of the students saw the university website prior to the Fair, and were attracted by the University buildings. They felt they looked really modern and student--friendly. They appreciated the fact that the University offered coffee shops and cafes with a good selection of food. One student said:

"I am happy to have a chance to try real British food. I have never been to the UK before but at my English classes at school I read about mincemeat pies and I really want to try them. But seriously speaking, I don't fancy preparing sandwiches every day when I go for classes, and I would prefer to have a solid lunch and concentrate just on my studies".

Another pull factor is the host nation's support of international students via scholarships [McMahon 1992], though many of those interviewed suggested this area could

stand to be improved. According to the students, British universities did not offer enough scholarships and bursaries to Polish students and this could definitely encourage more young Polish people to study there.

Some of prospective postgraduate students were very disappointed that not only had they not been offered any scholarships, but also could not count on loans, as these were solely reserved for undergraduate students. What attracted them, though, was the length of duration of the postgraduate programmes offered by British universities in comparison to Polish ones. One student summarised it very briefly:

"I really hoped to get a loan to study a PG Programme and was very disappointed when the University representative told me there was no option to do that, but when I found out that the Programme lasts only a year and I get a Masters, I couldn't believe it! In fact, when you calculate, it isn't that bad".

The decision to study abroad and to select a particular institution is definitely a difficult task. The majority of the prospective students admitted they spent many hours searching for information online, asking family and friends for advice, which accords with what Mazzarol et al. [1997] and Maringe and Carter's [2007] research suggests. The majority of them found the Fair very helpful as they could speak directly to the university representative and clarify certain issues they were unsure about. They said they were positive they would join the university community in the next academic year. The majority of the students, though, planned to get experience in the UK and return home. Only six students considered staying in the UK or moving somewhere else later on.

CONCLUSIONS

For Polish students the opportunity to study in the UK is perceived as very attractive. In their opinion, British universities provide high quality education recognised the world over. The research results indicate that prospective students appreciate the university's offer to do an internship while studying, as it would enable them to obtain the solid practical experience so required by the market today. This was an extra value they could not get from a Polish university. They also liked the idea of working part-time during their study period.

Recognition of their British qualifications worldwide together with the favourable light in which a British diploma is seen by prospective employers in Poland encouraged a lot of students to invest in their education in the UK. The overall knowledge of Polish people about the UK and its culture made it feel like almost a home country. The attractiveness of Manchester as perceived by the majority of the prospective students definitely made this location a first choice. A well-designed university website and positive word--of-mouth from family, friends and alumni, encouraged students to select this particular university.

The students saw the British education system as customer focused. In terms of improvements, they suggested considering more financial support for Polish students: scholarships and bursaries, and loans for postgraduate programmes. All Polish students leaving the Fair were convinced that studying in the UK would give them top-class qualifications and be a valuable investment for their future.

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Summary. The paper investigates what motivates Polish students to study in the UK. The research is based on Polish students who attended the University Global Fair in Warsaw, Poland in 2015, and were inclined to study at one British university in north-west England. The paper examines these students' motivation for their choice and investigates their decision-making process in this case. According to the literature, two main types of factors influence students' decision-making process: push and pull factors. Push factors are created by the students' country of origin, and are the ones that persuade them to move abroad. Pull factors, in turn, are those which operate within the host country and encourage students to consider it as their new residence Though the UK is one of the main destinations to study for Polish students, little research has been done on this particular group. That gap created the opportunity for the present investigation, for which I interviewed a group of students. Their answers indicate that, contrary to what a number of other studies have suggested, pull factors could be more important in influencing Polish students to study at British universities.

Key words: Polish students, UK Higher Education, study motivation, push factors, pull factors

JEL: M30, M31, D1, D81, Y10

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TEACHER MOTIVATION TO WORK AT UNIVERSITIES – THE EXAMPLE OF THE NATIONAL DEFENCE UNIVERSITY

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INTRODUCTION

The article examines the motivation and motivating university employees, particularly teachers. I emphasize the importance of the work teachers do and their motivation at universities. The main question the article addresses is: how motivated are teachers to do their jobs? I obtained answers to this question using a diagnostic survey done among a representative research sample at the National Defence University (NDU) in Warsaw.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER AND MOTIVATION AT THE UNIVERSITY

Motivating and motivation to work are of utmost importance in the performance of one's profession. One may think that this issue has been sufficiently researched – and indeed many researchers have sought to describe why humans behave one way and not another, determine the motives for human acitivity, and uncover what leads humans to have the attitudes they have. However, the issue of motivation has not yet been fully explored, as J. Penc has said: "interesting studies and discussions exist in this area, but there are also serious areas of ignorance. The question thus remains an open one of what actually motivates people to act." [1996: 136].

Acquiring knowledge about motivation and motivating is valuable because it can be used to effectively influence people to activate their internal motivation and inspire a desire to act. Shaping appropriate attitudes in employees requires of management considerable effort and consistency, as well as the selection of appropriate motivational techniques. However, every human differs in terms of personality and the hierarchy of values one keeps, so each is guided in life by different motives. Recognizing them and appropri-

ately using knowledge acquired about motivation are among management's responsibilities, so that it can integrate the goals of employees with those of the organization and, ultimately, ensure the latter's improved effectiveness.

The motivation of personnel leads organizations to accomplish their goals and perform effectively [Ściborek 2012]. People, then, are the organization's most important resource, for it is they – not great amounts of capital or the degree of advanced technology applied – that embody the organization's potential [Kopertyńska 2008].

University teachers are no exception in this regard – motivation is also important for them. The creative character and double value of a teacher's work testify to its importance – "just because a creative teacher will shape the creative citizen; a reflective teacher predisposes students to reflection and thought in their future work; a teacher open to the modern world will equip the student with the key today to a barely foreseeable future" [Król and Pielachowski 1995: 11–12]. Moreover, "new social trends, deepening mutual dependence, the dynamic development of local communities and changes occurring on a global scale have brought about an increasing need to shape young people's life skills and activities in a changing environment. The role of teachers, educators and all schools in spreading democratic values through active and participatory teaching has grown" [Styslavska 2012: 39]. Given the tremendous responsibility their work carries, teachers should be as motivated to do that work as possible. The effect of their professional work is knowledge imparted to students, skills learnt, and the attitude with which students approach the world.

The question therefore arises: how does one become a good teacher? Aside from gaining the appropriate preparation and qualifications, a potential teacher must also be convinced that joining the profession is the right choice – that is to say, to be appropriately motivated to do the job. One must also be aware that a university is an organization where the conducting of scientific research and teaching coexist. Research is orientated towards gaining knowledge about reality while teaching focuses on transferring knowledge together with various methods for researching reality. Accomplishing these two tasks requires academics who are highly qualified and competent [Jaskot and Jazukiewicz 2006]. To exploit the full potential of teachers, it is essential to apply the right motivational tools, as they promote a high degree of motivation to work. Of course, it is impossible to obtain the desired effects of the work of even the best teachers if they do not wish to pass their knowledge and skills to students, or if they do not feel the need for continuous training, in which case their knowledge becomes obsolete, and they cease to be experts in their specializations. This state of affairs is highly undesirable, hence, as with any organization, it is essential to develop motivation among university employees.

The mission of the National Defence University (NDU) is to endow graduates with the knowledge and skills necessary to serve in command, in operational headquarters, at universities, and military and civilian institutions engaged in defending the state. Students are civilians trained to defend the state. Upon graduation, Academy graduates are prepared to work in any of the institutions of central government or local government related to the defense or security of the country, including the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, provincial offices and Marshal's offices of cities, counties and municipalities, as well as in research institutions. In addition to its teaching objectives, the university also engages in scientific and research work, especially in the defense and security sciences.

The science of defense includes issues of state defense, as well as the theory of the art of war. Research on security focuses mainly on issues of state security at the national and international levels. Academy also does consulting work and has expertise in the following areas: the system and strategy of national security of the Republic of Poland, the state's system of defence and Poland's defence strategy, education and the education system in the Armed Forces, and education for security [NDU's mission…]. In addition to their responsibilities at teachers and scientists, officer-teachers also serve in the Polish Armed Forces. The combination of these two professions in a single military academic teacher can cause problems, because it is difficult to combine two such important issues for the state. This type of work requires from officer-teachers a great deal of sacrifice and willingness to perform a dual profession. For this reason, examining the level of motivation of teachers who are also officers, while also precisely defining motivational incentives, is as an extremely important but difficult undertaking.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION AND TEST SAMPLE

The general population included research and teaching staff employed at the National Defence University in Warsaw in the Department of Management and Command and the Department of National Security. The research was conducted only among teachers at NDU. Table 1 shows the breakdown, taking into account the individuals' title and the department in which they work.

TABLE 1. The number of faculty at NDU

Position	Department		
	Faculty of National Security	Faculty of Management and Command	Total
Professor	7	13	20
Associate Professor	27	19	46
Adjunct	69	51	120
Assistant	6	21	27
Total	109	104	213

Source: own study and elaboration based on data furnished by the personnel department of NDU, employee status as of 23.12.2013.

The general population numbered 213 but the study sample was narrowed down to 136 respondents. The research was done in the first half of 2014.

Employee status was one of the criteria of the research sample. Respondents were to choose one of three options: civilian employee, a civilian worker who is a reserve or retired officer, or an officer. The distribution broke down as follows: civilian employees made up 25% of the total, reserve or retired officers comprised 29.4% and officers made up the remaining 45.6%. The structure of the survey sample for this criterion is presented in Figure 1.

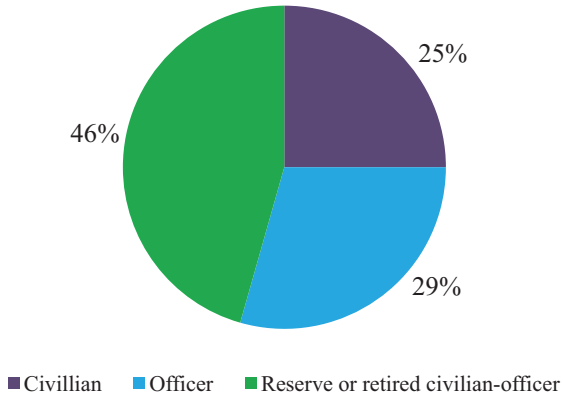

FIG. 1. The structure of the research sample for employee status

Source: own elaboration.

RESEARCH RESULTS

In order to closely examine the level of motivation of teachers to work, the following areas were distinguished: motivated to perform work generally, motivated to do research and teach, and work associated with organizational matters.

Questions about university teachers' motivation to perform work in the general distribution of responses are shown in Figure 2.

The next three figures present the levels of motivation to do research (Fig. 3), to teach (Fig. 4), and to do organizational work (Fig. 5).

Figure 3 clearly shows that all three types of teachers showed a high or rather high level of motivation to work generally and do research. None indicated a low or rather low level of motivation to work.

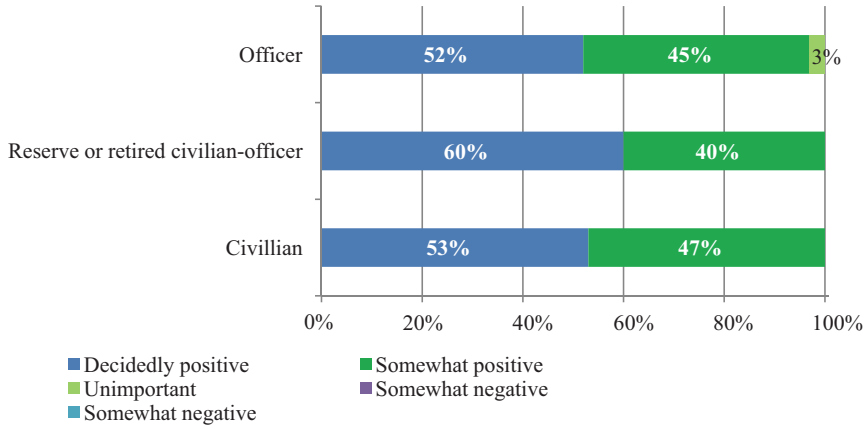

FIG. 2. The level of motivation of teachers to work at university

Source: own research.

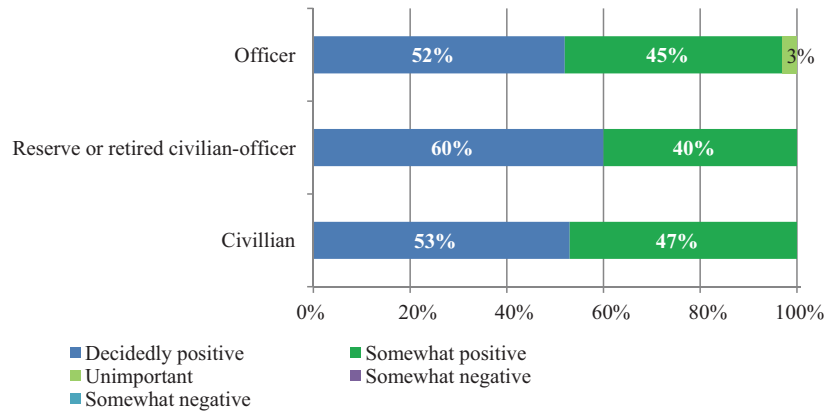

FIG. 3. The level of motivation among teachers to do research

Source: own research.

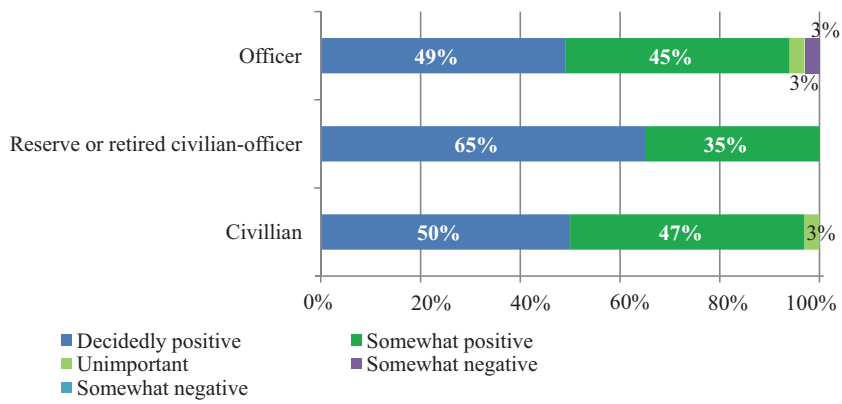

FIG. 4. the level of motivation among teachers to teach

Source: own research.

The research indicates that only 3.2% of the officers feel demotivated to work as teachers at the university. It is possible that this results from the particular demands of working as a professional soldier while also being burdened with a large teaching load. In contrast, a full 32.2% of the officers and retired or reserve officers stated that they were not motivated to do work of an organizational nature at the university.

To explore which factors all three groups found to have a motivating effect, the questionnaire asked the respondents to assess the motivators the university used. They could state whether a given motivator had a motivating, demotivating or no effect. There were presented 33 motivating factors, though for the needs of this article the 10 most often chosen by the respondents as motivating them to work were used. Tables 2–4 present the sequence distribution of answers about the impact of individual factors on the three respondent types.

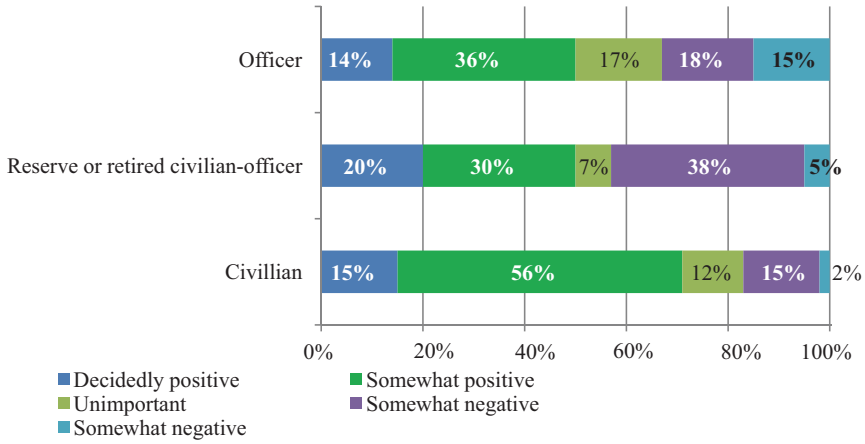

FIG. 5. the level of motivation among the teachers to do work of an organizational nature

Source: own research.

TABLE 2. The impact of the motivating factors according to the teachers-civilian employees (%)

Factor	Motivating effect	No effect	Demotivating effect
Job stability	93.9	3.0	3.03
The atmosphere in your team	94.1	5.9	0.00
Being responsible for jobs performed	90.9	6.1	3.03
Job satisfaction	94.1	2.9	2.94
The work gives me a sense of purpose	91.2	2.9	5.88
Opportunity to improve your skills, widen your knowledge through work	82.4	14.7	2.94
Working with students	94.1	5.9	0.00
Student assessments of you as a teacher (questionnaire assessments about your lessons)	85.3	14.7	0.00
Your supervisor's management style	82.4	11.8	5.88
The prestige of your position	69.7	27.3	3.03

Source: own research.

Table 4 shows that the same factors play an important motivating role for the teachers in all three groups. Interestingly, financial concerns were not considered important by any of them. This may indicate that high wages do not play a motivational role at the university. That, however, would contradict L. Evans' view that remuneration is an undeniably important motivator, especially when paired with the results achieved by employees at work [Evans 1998].

The respondents pointed to the following factors as essential for their motivation to work: "the work gives me a sense of purpose, team atmosphere, job satisfaction, responsibility for jobs performed and opportunity to improve your skills and widen your knowledge through work". As for differences, civilian teachers indicated that job stability and

TABLE 3. The impact of the motivating factors according to the teachers-reserve or retired officers (%)

Factor	Motivating effect	No effect	Discouraging effect
The work gives me a sense of purpose	97.5	0.0	2.50
Team atmosphere	85.0	10.0	5.00
Being responsible for jobs performed	97.5	2.5	0.00
Working with students	92.3	2.6	5.13
Opportunity to improve your skills, widen your knowledge through work	85.0	12.5	2.50
A sense of satisfaction from doing your work	87.5	7.5	5.00
Student assessments of you as a teacher (questionnaire assessments about your lessons)	75.0	25.0	0.00
Your current family situation	57.5	42.5	0.00
Identfying with the mission and goals of the department or institution	67.5	25.0	7.50
Your supervisor's management style	62.5	30.0	7.50

Source: own research.

TABLE 4. The impact of the motivating factors according to teachers-officers

Factor	Motivating effect	No effect	Discouraging effect
Opportunity to improve your skills, widen your knowledge through work	91.9	6.5	1.61
The work gives me a sense of purpose	85.5	4.8	9.68
Working with students	86.9	4.9	8.20
Atmosphere in your team	80.6	6.5	12.90
Job satisfaction	90.3	1.6	8.06
Being responsible for jobs performed	88.3	8.3	3.33
Student assessments of you as a teacher (questionnaire assessments about your lessons)	78.7	16.4	4.92
The prestige of your position	60.0	33.3	6.67
Job stability	70.0	18.3	11.67
Colleagues' recognition of your work	75.8	19.4	4.84

Source: own research.

job prestige were incentives, while reserve or retired officers indicated family situation as a positive motivator to work. In contrast, differences between the stimuli that motivate civilian teachers allow the generalization that the officers find recognition from their colleagues to be an important incentive, while civilian-teachers find that the leadership style of their superiors plays a motivating role.

Analysis of the above results shows that differences in the perception of the motivating factors are insignificant, so the same group of motivators has a positive influence on all three teacher groups at NDU [Wyszecka 2014].

CONCLUSIONS

A thorough diagnosis of the factors which influence teacher motivation and defining demotivating factors can effectively enable the development of teacher motivation, both among civilians and officers, to work as researchers and teachers. The research results also suggest that the NDU teachers' motivation to do any of the types of professional work is high. The results of research on teacher motivations allow the factors most commonly indicated by respondents as encouraging them to work to be determined. They include: a sense of accomplishment from doing one's job, a sense of satisfaction, the atmosphere at work, student assessments of you as a teacher, and taking responsibility for tasks performed.

Motivation and motivating professors therefore play a key role in educating a new generation. This is so essential because teachers dictate to a large extent whether the system of education operates effectively, which is why a strategic role is commonly attributed to them [Żukowska 2004]. In summary, following W. Okoń, the role of teachers in society should be emphasized because in creating science and possessing knowledge, they exert a tremendous influence on social development; at the same time, in educating highly qualified workers who will build society's future, they hold the key to that future [Okoń 1971].

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Summary. The aim of this article is to emphasize the importance of teacher motivation to work. I was interested in discovering key factors which contribute to teacher motivation to work at university, to doing research, to teaching and doing work of an organizational nature among civilian, officers and reserve or retired officers. It was found very important due to influence of motivation on, e.g. quality of school education or science researches. In order to indicate the main motivating factors to work in the university I used the results of diagnostic survey which was done among a representative research sample at the National Defence University (NDU) in Warsaw.

Key words: motivation to work, university teachers' motivation, motivating factors, military academic teacher

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