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FROM THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

We are giving you the next 27th (2/2020) issue of the Scientific Journal of the Faculty of Management at the Rzeszow University of Technology entitled “Humanities and Social Sciences”.

The aim of the Publisher is to raise the merits and the international position of the quarterly published by the Faculty of Management, that is why we are still developing the cooperation with foreign team of reviewers, as well as an international Scientific Council. The Editors have also attempted to apply for international databases; currently the quarterly HSS is indexed in **Index Copernicus Journal Master List, The Central European Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (CEJSH) and ERIH PLUS**.

The Journal has been also included in the list of projects qualified for funding under the **“Support for scientific magazines program”**.

The articles published in this publication are devoted to the broader issues of the humanities and social sciences. They are the result both of theoretical and empirical research. The subjects covered vary considerably and reflect the interdisciplinary nature of the Journal. We do hope that the papers published will meet your kind interest and will be an inspiration to further research and fruitful discussions.

On behalf of the Editorial Board of “Humanities and Social Sciences” we would like to thank the Authors for sending the outcomes of their research. We would like to express particular gratitude to the Reviewers for their valuable feedback that greatly contributed to increasing values of the scientific publications.

With compliments
Editorial Committee

Anna BARWIŃSKA-MAŁAJOWICZ¹
Bogusław ŚLUSARCZYK²

CONDITIONS AND BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN POLAND AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Entrepreneurship is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon, as evidenced by multiple studies of the subject within the field of economics, as well as other sciences. An important problem in the development of entrepreneurship is identification of barriers that significantly block this process. The main purpose of this study is to present conditions and barriers in the development of entrepreneurship in Poland on a local scale, based on the example of two poviats located in the Podkarpackie voivodeship (Krosno and Jasło poviats). The main methods adopted for the purposes of this study were: *desk research* method and descriptive and statistical analysis of research results obtained from a diagnostic survey conducted among entrepreneurs operating in Krosno and Jasło poviats. The obtained results were subjected to statistical analysis using descriptive statistics methods, including chi-square independence test (Pearson's chi-square test). The paper provides findings from the research and a theoretical model describing entrepreneurship and its determinants.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship barriers, pre-entrepreneurial behavior.

1. INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is a very broad interdisciplinary issue. It is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, as evidenced by the literature studies of the subject developed in the field of economics as well as other sciences (management, psychology, sociology). The development of entrepreneurship is influenced by a number of factors dependent on the one hand on the personality predispositions of the entrepreneur, and on the other – external conditions, in which the entrepreneurship process is carried out. An important problem in the development of entrepreneurship is identification and then overcoming barriers that significantly block this process.

The main purpose of this study is to present the conditions and barriers to the development of entrepreneurship in Poland on a local scale, based on the example of two poviats located in the Podkarpackie voivodeship (Krosno and Jasło poviats). The main

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methods adopted for the purposes of this study were: *desk research* method and descriptive and statistical analysis of research results obtained as a result of a diagnostic survey conducted among entrepreneurs operating in the Krosno and Jasło poviats. The results were subjected to statistical analysis using descriptive statistics methods, including chi-square independence test (Pearson's chi-square test). The first part of the study presents the essence of entrepreneurship and its determinants. The second part analyzes conditions for the development of enterprises on a local scale based on selected own research results. The whole paper ends with a synthetic summary of the analyses and considerations carried out.

2. THE ESSENCE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND ITS DETERMINANTS

Entrepreneurship as an economic category is currently becoming the subject of discussion of representatives of many scientific disciplines, including economics, organization and management, sociology, ethics, psychology and business economics. This means that it is interdisciplinary and has no universal definition (Dębska, Ślusarczyk, 2010). Difficulties in defining it also arise from the fact that the concept of entrepreneurship is subject to constant evolution, which takes place under the influence of changes in the conditions of business entities.

In economic theory, entrepreneurship is defined as a particular type of skill and job, or also as the fourth factor of production, next to work, land and capital. On one hand, it is a specific way of dealing with people, which is revealed by a certain set of features (Kumasz, 2009, Barwińska-Małajowicz, 2016), while on the other, the process of creating and building something new (e.g. an enterprise). It also manifests itself in the constant search for modern business opportunities. Many authors in their concepts pointed to various aspects of entrepreneurship³. However, everyone agreed that entrepreneurship is a unique concept - a unique attitude, unusual behavior, which plays a special role in the economy, especially in the market (but not only). It is inextricably linked to the development of economic life, undertaking business activities and activities of individual individuals, social groups and organizations with certain predispositions, skills and characteristics.

Entrepreneurship is therefore a multidimensional and complex concept, consisting of at least three categories, namely: entrepreneurship as an attitude, entrepreneurship as behavior and entrepreneurship as a process. Specified components of this concept intertwine and complement each other. However, today, the process approach is recognized as one of the most important principles in the field of management and organization of modern economic entities. Entrepreneurship is crucial for their economic development and functioning. It should also be noted that entrepreneurship is not only a behavior, attitude or trait, but also all economic, personality, political and legal circumstances favorable to entrepreneurial attitudes. These circumstances are found in organizations, people and, above all, macro environment.

³ Concepts of the following authors: J. Schumpeter, E. Kirzner, F.H. Knight indicated various aspects of the enterprise, namely: J. Schumpeter treated it as a process of creative destruction, that the moving spirit are innovations in a broad meaning; E. Kirzner pointed that the enterprise is the ability of using differences on markets, whereas F.H. Knight stated that the category is connected with the risk undertaken in economic activity, and profit is simply entrepreneur's payment for predictions' accuracy.

The analysis of entrepreneurship conditions should be particularly focused on researching the institutional context, the task of which is to determine the entrepreneurial potential of a given country or region. There are two dimensions that make up the institutional profile of a country or region (Pyka, 2007):

- cognitive – related to the skills that people have in a given country or region, as well as their knowledge necessary to set up and run a business;
- regulatory – covering regulations and provisions of law as well as those applied by central authorities and at the regional level, local policies that generate opportunities to support new businesses, limit the risk and uncertainty associated with starting a business, and facilitate obtaining new financing sources.

The above-mentioned dimensions are undoubtedly crucial for the development of entrepreneurship. Nevertheless, the dynamics of entrepreneurial activities is also affected by a number of factors occurring at the national, regional and local level of external and internal nature. The group of external factors includes: technical status, society's predisposition to change, market situation, compliance with the provisions on freedom and freedom of economic activity, as well as economic, educational, political and ideological factors (Frąckiewicz, Ćwiertnia, 2015). On the other hand, internal factors that shape the development of entrepreneurship are, among others: action strategy, company size, employees' predisposition to innovation, information and organizational determinants of development processes, in particular management style, organizational culture, communication system, level of qualifications as well as management and employees competences.

Summing up the current considerations, it should be emphasized that when analyzing the entrepreneurial process, barriers to the development of entrepreneurial projects aimed at innovation and creativity of the behavior of business entities cannot be ignored. In the literature on the subject, the most frequently mentioned barriers include:

- financial barriers that companies most often encounter when starting a business. They manifest themselves mainly in difficult access to capital that could be obtained for development or in access to bank loans;
- market barriers consisting, among others, in insufficient demand, difficulties in entering the market and gaining new sales markets, weaker market position in comparison with foreign contractors;
- legal and administrative barriers related to the instability and clarity of legal provisions and elements of the tax system;
- social barriers resulting from the lack of a proper work organization system, from low employee mobility and imperfections of the motivation system and career path;
- information barriers manifested in relatively inactive gathering of own market information, in too narrow conducting independent marketing research and using the services of business support agencies or consulting companies to a small extent (Zdrajowska, Zakrzewska-Bielawska, 2006);
- management and educational barriers, which are related to the inability to adapt to changing environmental conditions, competences of entrepreneurs, insufficient knowledge and small amount of training and vocational training programs regarding exploration of opportunities and threats arising in the environment.

There is no doubt that knowledge of emerging internal and external difficulties is important, as identifying them allows the application of appropriate measures necessary to overcome them in economic practice at all levels, especially at local level.

3. CONDITIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENTERPRISES ON A LOCAL SCALE – ANALYSIS OF OWN RESEARCH RESULTS

Entrepreneurship is of great importance for economic growth, the functioning of the organization and the development of employees. This phenomenon can be considered in three dimensions: national economy, enterprise (or institution) and in the dimension of the human individual. Similarly, determinants and conditions for the development of entrepreneurship can be analyzed at the national level, on a regional or local scale.

In further part of the study, results of the entrepreneurship research and determinants of its development at the local level were analyzed (on the example of the Jasło and Krosno poviats located in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship). The research was conducted at the turn of 2018/2019 using the diagnostic survey method and applying a questionnaire. One-hundred-six enterprises took part in the study (62 respondents were representatives of enterprises operating in the Jasło poviat and 44 in the Krosno poviat). Selection of the research sample was deliberate. The questionnaire was sent to enterprises electronically. It contained 33 closed (single and multiple choice) and semi-open questions. The research was anonymous. The obtained results were subjected to statistical analysis using descriptive statistics methods, including chi-square independence test (Pearson's chi-square test) in order to examine the relationship between the two selected nominal (categorical) variables.

Majority of business entities participating in the survey were micro-enterprises (including 46 companies in Jasło and Krosno poviats, which constituted 43% of the total number of respondents). Not much less – 41% (43 companies) – were small enterprises, while 15% (16 companies) were medium-sized enterprises. The least responses were received from large enterprises employing over 250 people (only 1% – only one large enterprise operating in the Krosno poviat responded to the questionnaire) (Table 1).

The survey involved both partnerships and capital companies, with the majority of surveyed enterprises operating in the form of a sole proprietorship (together from both poviats, 42% of all respondents provided such answers). In turn, 24% of all surveyed companies have the form of limited liability. The share of entities operating in the form of a company was 13%, joint stock – 9%. Each 5% of the surveyed companies operate as a civil law partnership. The least – only 2% of respondents – declared the form of a limited partnership (Table 1).

Analysis of research results indicates that just over 2/5 of respondents (43%) have been on the market for over 10 years. In turn, 30 companies (28%) have been operating for 6–10 years, while 25% have been operating on the market for 1–5 years. Only 4% of the surveyed enterprises have been operating for less than 1 year (Table 1).

Question about the nature of industry, in which the surveyed companies operate was semi-open. The respondents had the opportunity to choose from among several given answer options as well as free speech. Most companies surveyed operate in the service industry (29 enterprises), in construction (18), industry (17) and trade (12). The least respondents declared that they run a business in tourism, IT and health care (2 enterprises each) and telecommunications (1 enterprise). Most – almost 4/5 of the surveyed enterprises – operate on a regional or local basis (49 and 30 companies, respectively) (Table 1).

Table 1. Profile of surveyed enterprises (number)

	Jasło powiat	Krosno powiat	Total
Enterprise size			
Micro-enterprises	25	21	46
Small enterprises	30	13	43
Medium enterprises	7	9	16
Large enterprises	0	1	1
Organizational and legal form of the surveyed enterprises			
sole proprietorship	23	22	45
limited liability company	18	7	25
general partnership	5	9	14
joint-stock company	8	2	10
partnership	2	3	5
civil law partnership	4	1	5
limited partnership	2	0	2
Period of operation of the surveyed enterprises in the market			
over 10 years	29	17	46
6–10 years	15	15	30
1–5 years	15	11	26
less than 1 year	3	1	4
Sector			
services	16	13	29
civil engineering	12	6	18
industry	11	6	17
trade	4	8	12
commercial and service	4	6	10
production	7	0	7
finance and insurance	4	2	6
tourism	0	2	2
informatics	1	1	2
healthcare	2	0	2
telecommunication	1	0	1
Range of conducted activity			
local	20	10	30
regional / provincial	25	24	49
nationwide	11	5	16
international	6	5	11

Source: own study.

Creating a climate favorable to the development of entrepreneurship is one of the company's important goals. Building of this climate is influenced by a number of external and internal factors. A properly shaped climate and entrepreneurial culture favors entrepreneurial behavior.

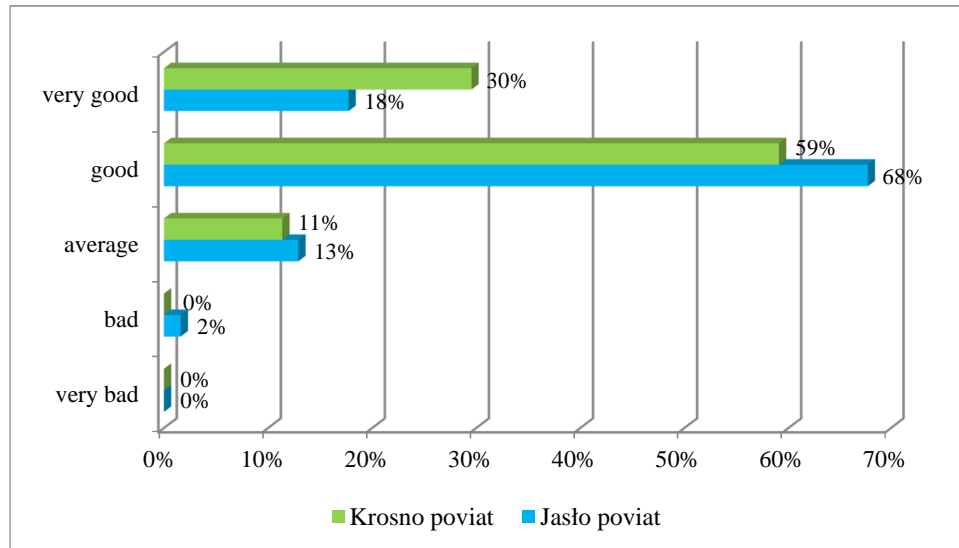


Fig. 1. Enterprise climate assessment

Source: own study.

Analysis of data presented in Fig. 1 shows that in both surveyed poviats, the entrepreneurship climate prevailing in the surveyed companies was assessed relatively high. In both the Krosno and Jasło poviats, almost 90% of companies gave a very good or good grade in this respect (89% and 86%, respectively). Only slightly more than 10% of enterprises rated the enterprise climate prevailing at an average level (13% in the Jasło poviats, not much less in Krosno, 11%).

Entrepreneurship depends not only on many different factors, but “is the result of a combination of various conditions, depending both on the internal predispositions of specific individuals undertaking the enterprise and on the external conditions, in which the entrepreneur (organization) operates” (Huczek, 2009). The literature on the subject divides these factors into internal organizational and environmental factors (Kraśnicka 2002).

As the analysis of data compiled in Fig. 2 shows, the assessment of factors influencing the creation of an appropriate climate for the development of entrepreneurship in each of the surveyed poviats is slightly different. In the Jasło poviats, the respondents considered the factors supporting innovation to be the most important group of factors influencing the creation of an appropriate climate for the development of entrepreneurship (79% of surveyed enterprises). In subsequent places, enterprises indicated attitudes and policies of the government and local authorities towards changes in the enterprise (65% of responses) and attitudes of entrepreneurial people towards changes in the enterprise (58% of respondents). In turn, Krosno companies considered the most important group of factors to be attitudes of entrepreneurial people towards changes in the enterprise (77% of responses). Slightly fewer indications were noted for factors supporting innovation and attitudes as well as policy of the government and local authorities towards changes in the enterprise (73% and 68% of respondents, respectively).

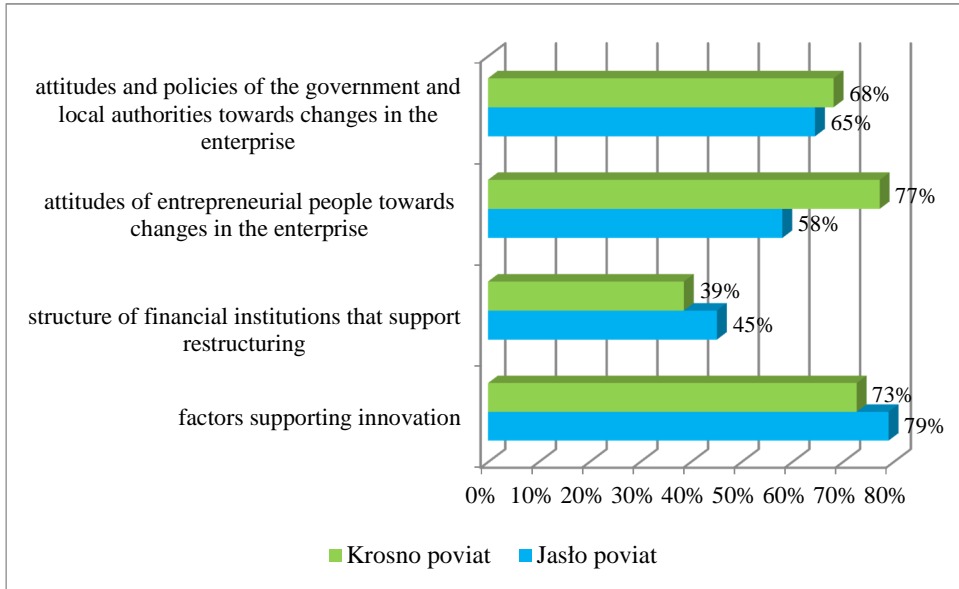


Fig. 2. Factors influencing the creation of an appropriate climate for the development of entrepreneurship

Source: own study.

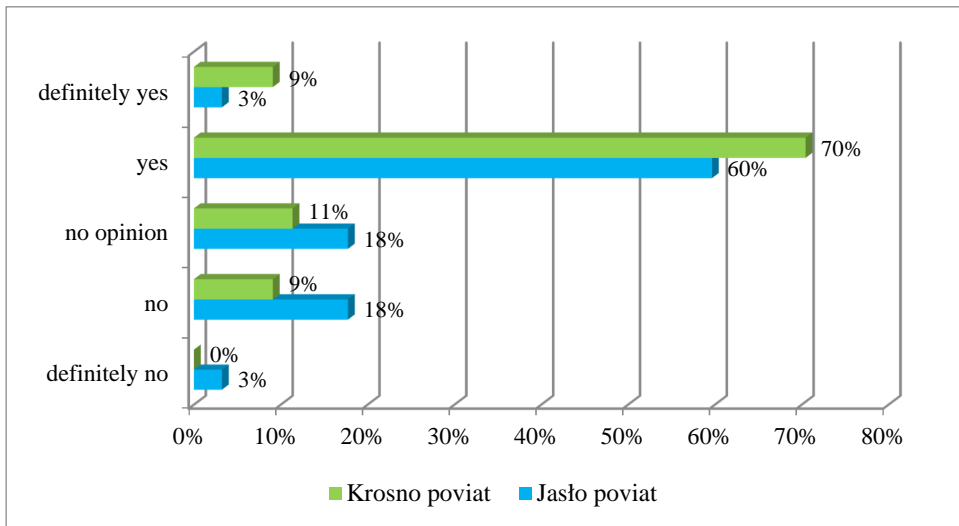


Fig. 3. Impact of environmental values on entrepreneurship development

Source: own study.

As part of the study on entrepreneurship development conditions, respondents were also asked to assess the impact of environmental values on entrepreneurship development. The

majority of enterprises from both examined poviats declared that environmental values have a positive impact on the development of entrepreneurship (63% of enterprises from the Jasło powiat, and 79% of enterprises from the Krosno powiat, and 3% of enterprises from the Jasielski powiat and 9% from the Krosno powiat responded with the answer: “definitely yes”. Relatively many respondents did not have an opinion in this respect (18% of the surveyed Jasło companies and 11% of Krosno companies). Among the respondents, there were also organizations that believed that environmental values did not have a positive impact on the development of entrepreneurship (21% of companies from the Jasło powiat and 9% from the Krosno powiat, while not one company from the Krosno powiat did not indicate the answer: “definitely no”; such an answer was declared by 3% of enterprises from the Jasło powiat). Such a high assessment of the impact of environmental values on the development of entrepreneurship may result from the strong bond of companies with the local environment and the implementation of e.g. joint projects and strategic goals. Not without significance for the development of entrepreneurship is the support of entrepreneurs by local authorities, which was mostly positively assessed.

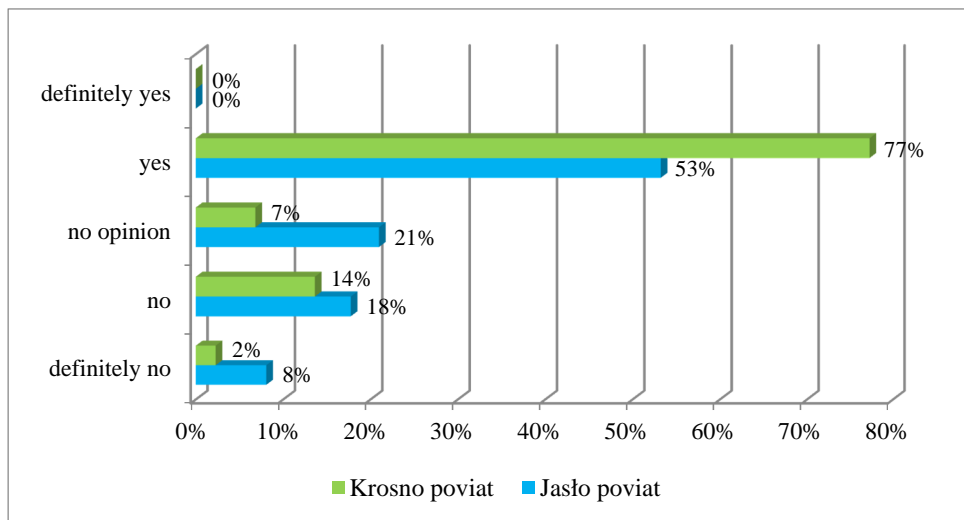


Fig. 4. Assessment of support for enterprises in the scope of entrepreneurial activities by local authorities

Source: own study.

The analysis of data presented in Fig. 4 indicates that 53% of the surveyed entrepreneurs from the Jasło powiat and as much as 77% from the Krosno powiat highly rated the support of local authorities. As many as 21% of the respondents of the Jasło powiat and 7% of the Krosno powiat did not express their opinion on this subject. The percentage of respondents who rated the activities of local authorities negatively (26% of the surveyed entrepreneurs from the Jasło powiat and 16% from the Krosno powiat, including the answers: “definitely no” responded by 8% and 2% respondents, respectively). It can be assumed that in many cases, cooperation between entities and the commune brings measurable benefits, however,

there are also some shortcomings in this respect. In the opinion of the surveyed entrepreneurs, local authorities should therefore take actions that will be focused on supporting the entrepreneurial activities of companies located in the surveyed poviats.

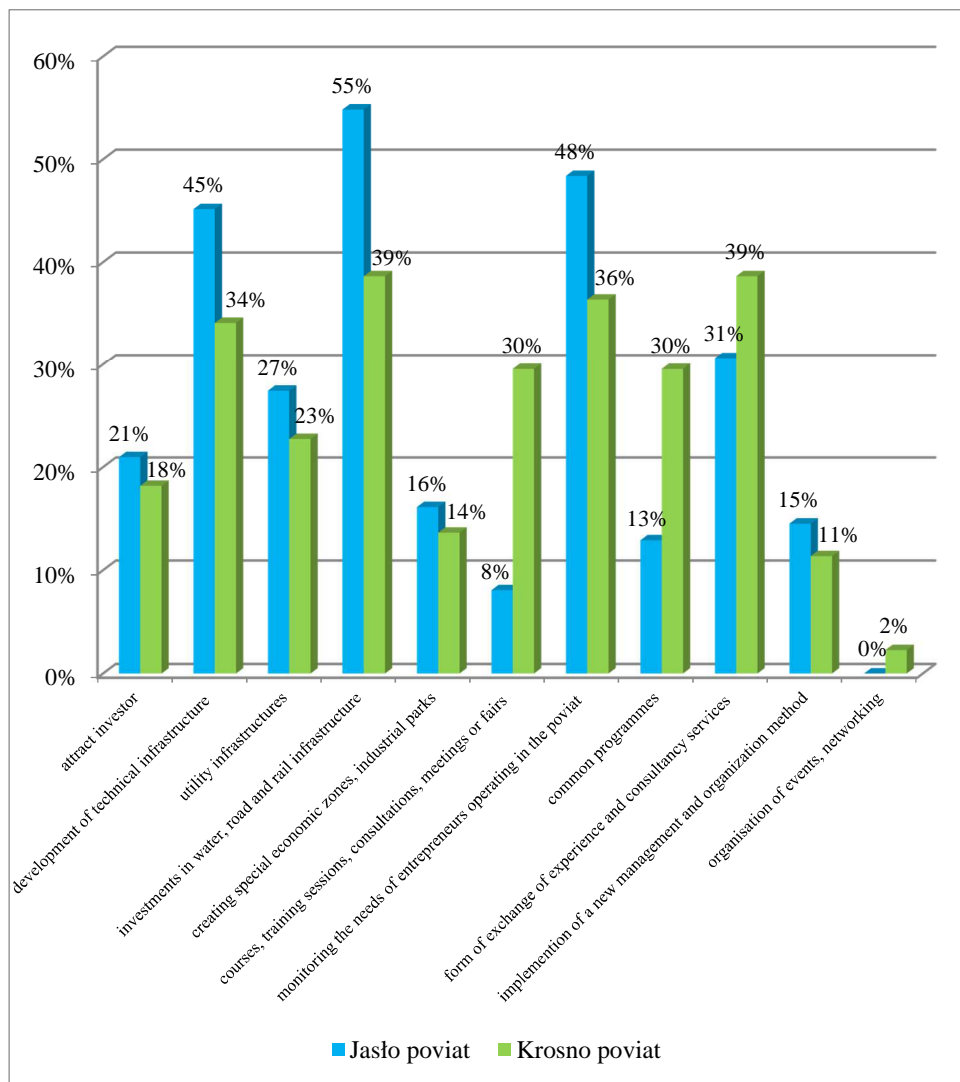


Fig. 5. Types of actions that local authorities should take to develop entrepreneurship

Source: own study.

Analysis of data summarized in Fig. 5 shows both similarities and some differences in the assessment of entrepreneurs depending on the poviats, in which their companies operate. Entrepreneurs in both poviats declared that the most important type of support for local

authorities should be investments in water, road and rail infrastructure. In the Krosno powiat, the need for support in the form of exchange of experience and consultancy services was rated equally high, while monitoring the needs of entrepreneurs operating in the powiat and the development of technical infrastructure were followed in both places. It is noteworthy that, in the opinion of entrepreneurs from the Krosno powiat, it would also be very important to support the authorities in the form of organizing courses, training sessions, consultations, meetings or fairs (30% of responses), which, in turn, according to the respondents from the Jasło powiat, was not considered desirable (8% answers).

The concept of innovation is associated with entrepreneurship. The basis for linking the two conceptual categories are the views of J. Schumpeter, who treated innovation as a factor in economic development. He perceived innovations as new combinations occurring, for example, in the case of creating a new product (or launching goods with new properties) or in the case of introducing new production methods, acquiring new markets, obtaining new sources of raw materials, creating new, more effective organizational forms of business activity (Schumpeter, 1960). According to these views, entrepreneurship is directly linked to innovation, leads to innovation and technological change, thus contributing to economic growth.

A review of the literature on the subject indicates the existence of many barriers to the innovativeness of enterprises that occur both on the side of the environment of enterprises and inside them. In connection with the above, the respondents were also asked about the most important barriers to undertaking innovative activities by their enterprises. Analysis of data summarized in Fig. 6 shows differences in perception of barriers in the field of innovation activities. According to the surveyed enterprises from the Jasło powiat, the most important barriers to undertake the innovative activities are too high costs of innovation. This answer was declared by 44% of the surveyed companies. In the next two places, the respondents of this powiat pointed out: too much risk associated with implementing innovations and difficult access to external sources (35% and 32% of enterprises, respectively). Not much less, 31% of the surveyed companies each, one of the most important barriers is the uncertain demand for innovative products and the lack of interest in new products and services on the part of clients. In turn, entrepreneurs of the Krosno powiat considered the most important barriers to the lack of financing of innovations or their excessively high costs. 41% of respondents declared such an answer. In second place, there was the lack of plans to implement innovation (36% of responses). Subsequently, the organizations pointed to high costs of innovation (32% of respondents). Difficult access to information and a lack of interest in new products and services were slightly lower in the hierarchy (23% of companies said so). Entrepreneurs of this powiat (similarly to their colleagues from the Jasło powiat) believed that the least important barrier when undertaking innovative activity is the lack of ability to use new technologies.

The distribution of answers to the question regarding support for entrepreneurship by local authorities was compared with the powiat, in which entrepreneurs operate. Table 2 presents distribution of responses divided into poviats (theoretical values calculated using Microsoft Excel 2013).

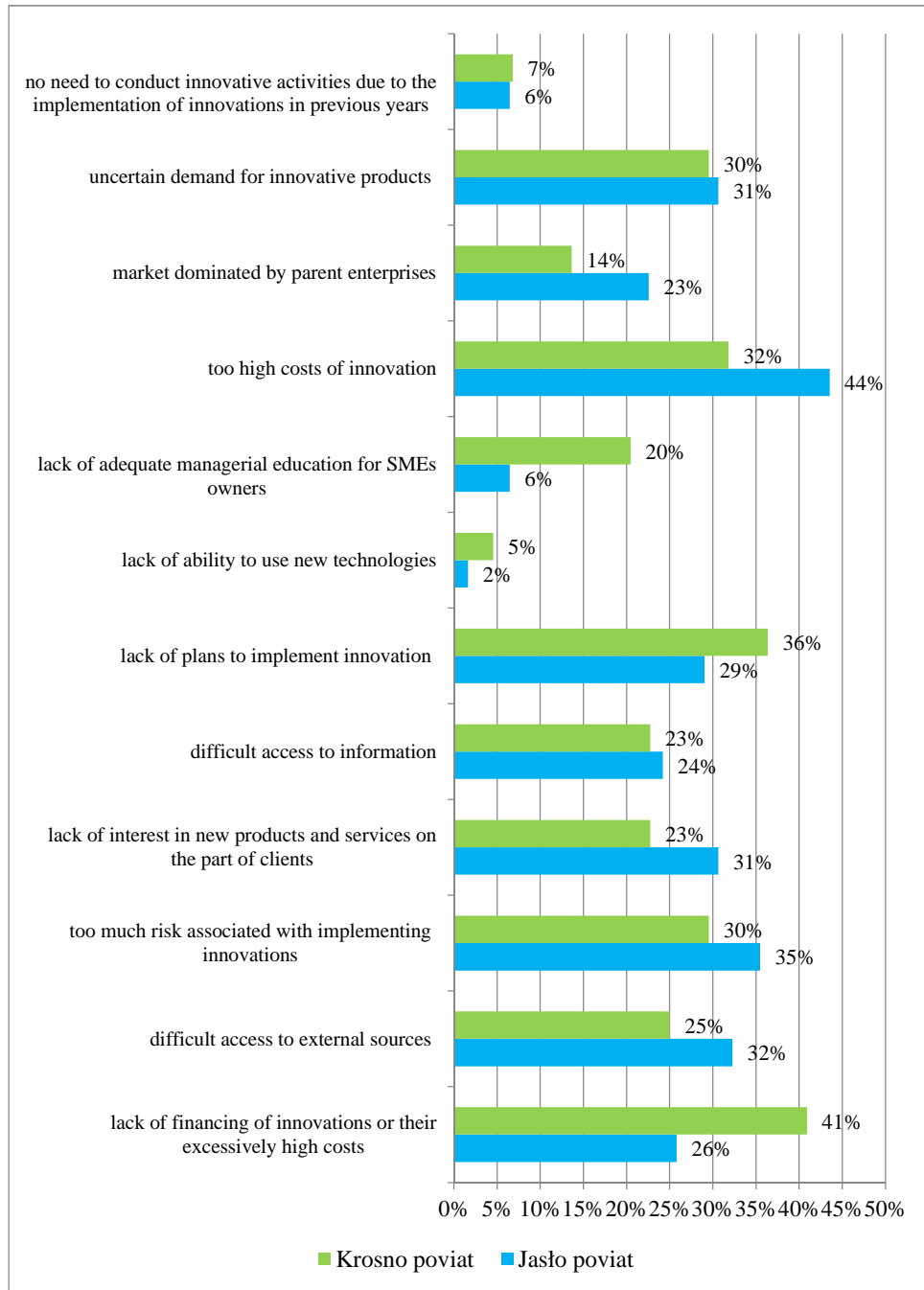


Fig. 6. The most important barriers to undertake innovative activities
 Source: own study.

Table 2. Structure of enterprise responses regarding support for entrepreneurship by local authorities divided into poviats (theoretical values)

	definitely not	no	no opinion	yes	definitely yes	n_j
Jasło powiat	3,509433962	9,943396226	9,358490566	39,1886792	0	62
Krosno powiat	2,490566038	7,066603774	6,641509434	27,8113208	0	44
n_i	6	17	16	67	0	106

Source: own study.

The chi-square test was used in further analysis. Two hypotheses were made to examine the relationship. The first H_0 , called the null hypothesis, assumed that support for entrepreneurship by local authorities is independent of the powiat. It takes the form: $H_0: p_{ij} = p_i \cdot p_j$. The second H_1 hypothesis, in relation to the null hypothesis, called an alternative hypothesis, assumed that the support of entrepreneurship by local authorities depends on the powiat. It takes the following form: $H_1: p_{ij} \neq p_i \cdot p_j$..

Table 3. Chi-square test feature values

n_{ij}	$n \times p_{ij}$	$(n_{ij} - n \times p_{ij})^2$	χ^2
5	3,509433962	2,221787	0,633089876
1	2,490566038	2,221787	0,892081189
11	9,943396226	1,116412	0,112276682
6	7,056603774	1,116412	0,158208052
13	9,358490566	13,26059	0,416958309
3	6,641509434	13,26059	1,99662307
33	39,1886792	38,29975	0,9773167
34	27,8113208	38,29975	1,37712808
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
			7,563681962

Source: own study.

For significance $\alpha = 0.05$ and $(2-1) \times (5-1)$ degrees of freedom, the critical value of the chi-square distribution is 0.710723021. The calculated value of test statistics falls into the critical area, hence we reject the H_0 hypothesis about the independence of features, because $\chi^2_{stat} > \chi^2_{crit}$, ($7.56 > 0.71$). We cannot assume that the features are independent – the features are significantly dependent. We reject the H_0 hypothesis in favor of the alternative H_1 hypothesis, claiming that the support of entrepreneurship by local authorities depends on the powiat.

4. SUMMARY

When summarizing the conducted considerations and research results, it should be stated that entrepreneurship is a complex and multidimensional category. It can be defined as a skill, a feature of an enterprise, a human being to search for and introduce new solutions. However, this requires ingenuity, energy, initiative, the ability to take risks, as well as responsibility for actions and decisions taken. It is a means of achieving success for both organization (enterprise) and human, and has a key impact on the development dynamics of economic entities, because its essence lies in innovation and creativity.

Development of entrepreneurship depends on both internal and external factors. However, the most important factor is knowledge and information about difficulties preventing the development of entrepreneurship. They make it possible to identify them and overcome them in business practice in every field of their activity, both on a macro- and microeconomic scale. The analysis of research results carried out in this study shows that the level of entrepreneurship of companies is determined by many different factors. Among the most important barriers affecting the entrepreneurship development, respondents pointed to financial difficulties (53%), frequently changing legal provisions (42%), and high taxes (39%). On the other hand, they see opportunities in the availability of capital resources (58%), access to modern technologies (29%) or accessibility in communication (96%). In addition, it was pointed out that business environment institutions play an important role in the development of local entrepreneurship. They provide IT, training, consulting, financial and technical services for people starting a business. They also generate favorable conditions for already operating enterprises and for newly created ones. Entrepreneurship incubators, innovation centers, technology parks, scientific research institutes, technology centers, academic entrepreneurship incubators, special economic zones are one of many business environment institutions. These centers are key stimulators of entrepreneurial ventures and determine the success of undertaken actions.

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CLIMATE CHANGES AND THEIR IMPACT ON CURRENT AND FUTURE THREATS TO THE PODKARPACKIE PROVINCE

Currently, a forward-looking approach to threat assessment in a particular region is important. This approach applies especially to organizational units that are in the structure of offices at the basic level—the municipality, city and powiat. Currently, when generating hazard forecasts for a specific region, one focuses efforts mainly on objects or natural resources of the area (rivers, lakes, mountains, forests, factories, communication infrastructure), which are a potential source of threats (floods, fires, road collision, poisoning, etc.). This approach is a response to what is known but is unpredictable; such actions are rational and fulfill obligations related to ensuring security for the population. However, the approach does not sufficiently respond to the latest challenges faced by communities related mainly to climate change. Global warming intensifies the occurrence of existing threats and also brings new phenomena not encountered in a given area, such as drought, desertification of the area, and epidemics of new diseases. Based on the observations of the last 30 -40 years, it follows that new phenomena has negative effects on the existence of the population and the economy of the region. Although warnings about the possibility of their occurrence are not new, such changes do not occur in a month or a year; they are often underestimated, and their consequences seem distant and remote. The purpose of the paper is to show, on the basis of examples of events that took place in the Podkarpackie Province, Poland and Europe, that for the security of the population in the region it is important to anticipate threats and implement services to counteract their effects.

Keywords: threat, warming, floods, epidemics.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Podkarpackie Province is located in the south-eastern part of Poland, borders on the east with Ukraine and the southern one is the border with Slovakia. Within the country, it borders with three provinces, from the west with Małopolskie, and in the north with Świętokrzyskie and Lublin. The area of the province is 17 926 km² where over 2 million people live (statistical year 2019). Administrative division includes 21 poviats, 4 cities with powiat rights and 160 municipalities. Within the province, several regions can be distinguished: mountainous in the south (the Bieszczady Mountains), highlands in the middle and lowland in the north (Sandomierska Basin). Several rivers flow through the Podkarpackie Province, including the Vistula River along the northern border, in addition:

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San, Wisłoka, Wisłok, Jasiołka, Ropa, Breń, Tanew and several smaller rivers, which in certain situations may also pose a threat of flooding in specific regions of the region. The A4/E40 motorway, the S19 express road and 4 national roads run through the region. The density of poviats and municipality roads in the province is 36.2 km/100 km² and 44.7 km/100 km², respectively (Województwo podkarpackie, 2019). In the region there are 12 upper-tier establishments, 12 lower-tier ones and about 30 plants that can be potential industrial accident facilities. These plants produce, use or store chemicals that affect safety in individual poviats of the province. Dozens of objects are classified as critical infrastructure in 7 different systems (Ustawa, 2007, art. 3, pkt 2). The leading industry in the province is the aviation industry (Aviation Valley), which includes about 100 economic entities, as well as the raw material industry (sulfur, gas, oil).

Each area along with the infrastructure existing there is not free from all kinds of threats to people, animals or infrastructure. To properly understand this issue, it must be defined. A threat is a situation in which there is “an increased likelihood of losing life, health, freedom or material goods” (*Leksykon*, 1979). In turn, the Polish dictionary defines a threat as “a situation or condition that threatens someone or in which someone feels threatened” (*Słownik języka polskiego*). Considering only these two of many definitions, one can see that this concept has extremely subjective significance as it indicates both real existing situations causing a decrease or lack of security, as well as probable situations or even feelings that may have, for instance, an individual whose probability may even be faint. In further considerations we will focus on those threats that are real and probable. A crisis-related category is a crisis situation which the legislator defined as “a situation adversely affecting the level of security of people, property of considerable size or the environment, causing significant restrictions in the operation of competent public administration bodies due to the inadequacy of the forces and resources possessed” (Ustawa, 2007, art. 3, pkt 1).

Security is another term closely related to the subject matter. there is no single definition that would comprehensively and unambiguously define what it is. This is due to its interdisciplinary nature, and its aspects are dealt with in many different fields of science, defining them differently. The differences in defining result from the dangers facing a man and societies. These threats have changed over the centuries. The first threats were related to the operation of nature and concerned the threat to life and functioning in the natural environment. Wild animals or the elements could kill a person, weather phenomena associated with drought or floods or other natural disasters destroyed crops and wreaked destruction. Along with the development of technology, some of these threats have been minimized, but others related to the development of civilization have arisen. A man himself began to pose threats to himself and the community (Czekaj, 2018). We often equate security with the lack of threats felt by an individual or group (Korzeniowski, 2005), or with the certainty that such threats do not occur (Ziomba, 2008).

Both provinces as well as the poviats or municipalities forming them differ significantly in terms of landformness and land cover. They are also distinguished by industrialization and equipment with technical infrastructure. Therefore, the threats occurring in different parts of the poviats are different and occur with varying intensity. To determine the scale of possible threats and the type and frequency of their occurrence, the observational and statistical methods were used, as well as document testing. These methods allow determining the types of threats that occur in individual poviats, their frequency, strength and predict potential consequences.

2. ADMINISTRATION BODIES RESPONSIBLE FOR CRISIS MANAGEMENT

The central and local government administration in its structure at every level of functioning has organizational units (departments, centers, teams) dealing with the safety of the population living in the province (city, poviát, municipality). The task of crisis management department is to assess the threat in a given area and its impact on the security of the population living there. The threat to the population in a given area depends, in most cases, on natural resources, terrain and land cover, which includes rivers, lakes, forests, minerals (oil, gas etc.). However, the infrastructure created by people in a given area will have the significant impact on the type of threat, including: roads, workplaces, airports, dams on rivers. Everything that makes up the terrain of a given area and what the man has enriched this area can provide protection, help to function well or pose a threat to residents in certain conditions.

In preparation for counteracting possible threats at all levels of central and local government administration, a "Poviát (provincial, urban, municipal) crisis management plan" is being prepared, which is the attitude to take action in the event of a crisis. The basic plan data is the characteristics of a given administrative area in which it is exposed: geographical location, terrain, rivers and water bodies that are in a given area, gorges, landslides, wetlands, etc. An important element is the infrastructure of e.g. a poviát, including mainly road and rail network, airports, production plants, including facilities and equipment classified as critical infrastructure. Based on the quality and quantity of the infrastructure owned, the location of the poviát, there are assessed the threats that may occur in a given area both in a natural way in connection with extreme climate disasters and caused by human activities.

The location of a given poviát or municipality and its infrastructure may help people or intensify threat factors. The threats caused by natural forces will intensify in those poviáts whose geographical location and land cover create such opportunities, e.g. flood – they occur in those poviáts which rivers flow through or there are water bodies. The consequences of snowstorms are drifts, but they pose a special threat where roads run in ravines, etc. In some cases, the combination of terrain and infrastructure, such as regulated riverbeds, can generate hazards, such as floods. Other examples of threats are: fires, damage after the passage of a whirlwind, hurricanes, snowstorms, frosts in connection with moisture causing the accumulation of rime on electric wires. Hazards caused by human actions, lack of consideration can lead to fire or to intentionally starting fires. Reckless driving behavior is the cause of traffic accidents, and especially on expressways often leads to traffic accidents (collisions). Lack of maintenance of public facilities or their misuse may lead to building or industrial accidents etc.

In the Podkarpackie region, as many as 78 municipalities or parts thereof constitute areas at risk of flooding (Zarząd województwa, 2015). Most often this type of phenomenon occurs in the valleys of the Vistula, Wisłok, Wisłoka and San rivers. Flooding can also occur in mountainous and foothill areas. Another phenomenon causing threats are landslides, which are conducive to the terrain of the province, in particular its southern part. Deforestation, excessive development, increased traffic and activities resulting in undercutting of existing slopes contribute to the increased threat of this phenomenon. There is a threat of this type of threat in 81 municipalities in the province (Zarząd województwa, 2015).

At each level, crisis management plans include a safety net detailing likely hazards in the area and institutions and services responsible for their elimination. It can be assumed

that individual crisis management units use a similar algorithm to analyze potential threats. First and foremost, the most probable and most common threats are identified, such as: floods, fires, snowstorms, storms and chemical pollution of the area. Subsequently; epidemic threats, technical failures, sometimes a terrorist attack is added.

3. CLIMATE CHANGE AND NEW THREATS.

The basic question that arises is whether these threats are permanent for a given area or can they change? The answer is unequivocal, by investing in the improvement of facilities posing a threat, we eliminate their negative impact and sometimes one can eliminate a specific threat. But is that all? – probably not! The new challenge is climate change – the warming it already has, and in the near future will have the greater impact on the threats of natural disasters caused by weather phenomena. Decades ago if one needed to find out if there was warming, they had to use scientific methods to prove it, and now people who remember the 70s of the last century can easily compare them with the weather changes today to find out that warming is a fact. Some scientists claim that this is a stage of the natural cycle, but others say that apart from the cycle, the interference of a human being, which contributed to the increase in CO₂ in the atmosphere and thus influenced the temperature increase, is not without significance. American climatologist Jonathan Cowie writes

“The climate of our planet is getting warmer, as well as numerous other phenomena: melting glaciers and ice sheets, faster sea level rise, climate zones and seasons shifting, freezing times of lakes, rivers and ports , more and more frequent heat waves, a decrease in the occurrence of cold days, an increase in air humidity or migration of animal species towards poles and up to sea level” (Cowie, 2009),

is one example that nature and animals are ahead of us in preparing to live in new conditions. Nicholas Stern assesses climate change in a similar way.

“An increase in global average temperature has the significant impact on the highest aspects of our natural environment, including water level, precipitation, strength and frequency of hurricanes and many more” (Sten, 2010).

Do these forecasts also apply to Europe, or far away countries in Africa, Asia, and Oceania? We have evidence that we also have weather anomalies recently (hurricanes, droughts etc.).

Similar phenomena can also be observed in Podkarpackie, average temperatures in the province are rising (measured at the meteorological station in Jasionka), in the years 1971-2000 the average temperature was 7.90°C, in the period from 1991 to 2000 – 8.20°C, between 2001–2010 – 8.70°C, in 2018 it was already 9.90°C (Rocznik statystyczny, 2019). Along with other changes, this causes many areas to be at risk of drought.

Municipalities most endangered by soil drought: rural: Adamówka, Bojanów, Cmolas, Dzikowiec, Grębów, Harasiuki, Jarocin, Majdan Królewski, Niwiska, Rakszawa, Ranizów; urban and rural communes: Nowa Dęba, Nowa Sarzyna, Radomyśl Wielki, Sokołów Małopolski. Municipalities most endangered by hydrological drought, rural municipalities: Baligród, Besko, Bukowsko, Chorkówka, Cisna, Czarna (Bieszczady powiat), Dębowiec,

Frysztak, Haczów, Horyniec-Zdrój, Jasienica Rosielna, Jasło, Jaśliska, Komańcza, Korczyn, Krempana, Krościenko Wyżne, Lubaczów, Lutowiska, Miejsce Piastowe, Nowy Żmigród, Olszanica, Osiek Jasielski, Ostrów, Solina, Tarnowiec, Wiśniowa, Wojaszówka, and Zarszyn; urban and rural municipalities: Brzozów, Dukla, Iwonicz-Zdrój, Jedlicze, Kołaczyce, Lesko, Narol, Rymanów, Strzyżów, Ustrzyki Górne, Zagórz; municipalities: Jasło, Krosno, Lubaczów (Zarząd województwa, 2015). The total number of communes at risk of this phenomenon is 59, which is more than a third of all municipalities in the province [this is not synonymous with the surface – author's note].

Another more extreme manifestation is the desertification of part of our territory, especially in Wielkopolska, Kujawy and south-eastern Poland. Due to the lack of groundwater and a warmer climate, typical steppe vegetation was noticed in these areas. Marek Graniczny in his study states

“In southern and central Poland, the level of groundwater is low for natural reasons. It is further reduced primarily due to the lack of coherent water management and the exploitation of natural resources, especially lignite using the opencast method” (Graniczny, 2017).

Desertification is only a margin of nature, it's not an alarm yet, but one needs to take specific measures, makes decisions to stop further erosion of the earth. Ł. Kudlicki writes that

“the desertification (steppe) of Poland has been talked about not for today, but for over 50 years. Desertification, or rather dehydration (a mild form of this process), means, above all, soil degradation in dry, semi-arid soils with periodically dry areas, caused by various factors, including climatic and anthropogenic. Counteracting this phenomenon should include activities aimed at reclamation of partially degraded areas as a result of soil erosion, deterioration of its physical, chemical and biological properties, or long-term loss of natural vegetation” (Kudlicki, 2006).

The loss of productive land means the loss of pasture, efficient grain harvesting, lack of animal feed, and the result is fewer food products on the market and higher prices for us consumers.

One of the effects of less rainfall, lowering the level of groundwater and the lack of an adequate number of retention reservoirs outside drought is the reduction of potable water resources so necessary for the functioning of both humans and animals. Lack of water can be a huge strategic problem. A. Nowakowska-Kutra writes that

“at the macro-scale, access to potable water is a very important social problem. In Poland, it can be imperceptible and not experienced by many Poles. It is estimated that by 2030, two billion people in the world will not have access to clean water. This is one of the most important manifestations of the global polarization of the creation of the social world of poverty (understood inter alia as the inability to satisfy basic needs, including access to water) and on the other edge of wealth, understood here as luxury (...) access to clean water, but above all everyone drinking bottled water. As a result of the disturbance of the hydrological balance by the economy, seas and oceans are becoming increasingly polluted. The

rivers are drying up and large rivers are polluted on an unprecedented scale: the Nile, the Yangtze River, holy for Hindus Ganges, (...) holy for Christians Jordan. The robbery of Israel and Jordan, struggling with the problem of access to fresh water, (...) has led to the fact that the great Jordan River, supplying water to people from the entire region, has turned into a stream in some places. (...) In Poland, in August 2012, the lowest level of the Vistula was recorded in six hundred years” (Nowakowska, 2014).

An extensive action in this area is necessary. It would seem that this is rather a task related more to environmental protection or water management, and to a much lesser extent to crisis management. We can think so until the time when due to hot weather there is not enough potable water for the inhabitants, and high temperatures will favor fires that will not be extinguished. From this moment it will be a crisis situation requiring immediate action and mobilization of resources accumulated in this case.

An increase in average temperatures and longer periods of drought do not exclude a phenomenon that appears to be in conflict with the first two, namely floods. In addition to the periodic flooding that we observe every year, we also deal with phenomena of a much larger scale. One of the biggest floods took place in 1997 and covered the Odra River together with tributaries in the Czech Republic, Poland and Germany. M. Graniczny and W. Mizerski write that

“Heavy rainfall 3-8 VII 1997 caused that already on July 7, the first villages and towns were flooded by Bila (the Czech Republic and Nysa Kłodzka. Jeseniki, Kłodzko, where four hundred-year-olds collapsed, were under water. Large urban agglomerations and areas adjacent to them on both sides of the Polish-German border were also victims of the flood on the Odra River. Racibórz, Opole Wrocław nearly half the city was flooded), (...) water level at the mouth of Mała Panew near Opole July 10.11 and Odra amounted to 733 cm and flow 3500 m³/s, while the average long-term flow in this place is forty-two times less (82.5 m³/s) and the average water level over 5 m lower (213 cm)” (Graniczny, 2009).

Podkarpacie was also affected by floods, the Wisłoka and Breń rivers flooded at the mouth of the Vistula River, as a result of which the towns in Czermin and Borowa municipalities from the Podkarpackie Province were flooded. The neighboring provinces whose poviats currently belong to the Podkarpackie also fought against the flood at that time. Most of the rivers flowing through Podkarpacie have their sources in the mountains and with heavy rainfall in the upper rivers, flooding in the central part of the Podkarpackie Province is certain. This is due to the fact that in the upper course of the rivers the bed base is stony and streams along stony slopes quickly supply water to rivers and its excess is the cause of floods. If for several years we have observed violent storms, during which it falls to several tens of cm of rain per m², then probable catastrophic floods are almost certain. The balance of catastrophic flood losses for Central Europe, according to M. Graniczny and W. Mizerski, was as follows:

- “The summary flood balance is:
- 55 fatalities
 - 200,000 people evacuated
 - 2592 flooded towns, including 1362 completely

– 480 bridges destroyed, over 1370 km of roads and 1,100 km of flood embankments” (Graniczny, 2009).

In subsequent years, floods did not bypass the Podkarpackie region, especially the 2010 flood, which covered several poviats of the province. The most affected poviats were: Mielec Tarnobrzeg, Stalowa Wola, Jasło, Przemyśl, Rzeszów, Ropczyce and Sędziszów. It was a catastrophic flood exceeding in all respects considered the 1997 flood. This is one of the next phenomena that we will probably have to deal with more often. Unexpected and devastating catastrophes caused by extreme weather phenomena (natural disasters, earthquakes, epidemics of infectious diseases of humans and animals) appear more and more often. J Cowie on climate change writes that

“Changes in the future may be practically quite small, with only a marginal surplus over previous cases. The problem is that the flood is a catastrophic event. Small changes can bring great results. Things are fine as long as there are no breaches in the flood embankments. But if the peak of the wave rises by just a few millimeters, catastrophic changes can occur. We expect an increase in the number of major floods in Europe, despite the fact that summer is expected to be drier. It seems paradoxical, but computer models predict an increase in intense summer rainfall and global warming. Instead of smaller rain evenly distributed throughout the summer months, we can expect a tendency to rarer extreme downpours” (Cowie, 2009).

The created warning system and the forces dedicated to the rescue operation are ready for action. However, it should be remembered that subsequent weather anomalies can be more catastrophic than previous ones.

Each latitude can be attributed to specific diseases that attack the population at appropriate times of the year, and this part with weaker immunity is more difficult to fight the virus or even dies, but it is statistically a small group of people. Some of them, apart from a periodic increase in the incidence, lead to local epidemics, and specialized services deal with this problem well. It's worse when we are harassed by viruses that cause illnesses or animal epidemics. Examples of this could be swine or bird flu, African swine fever, or mad cow disease. Rapid intervention of specialized services is able to protect the population against the epidemic, so far zoonoses have not spread to humans on a large scale. But will it always be this way? It has been pointed out for several years that the change in weather (warming) is poisoned by the occurrence of increasingly frequent periodic illnesses. J. Cowie writes:

“The summer increase in the number of cases of food poisoning in the temperate zone suggests that in a warmer world there may be even more. WHO and the UN for Food and Agriculture have estimated that at least 2 billion people get food poisoning each year and some of them die. (...) As a result of climate change, the seasonal course of Lyme disease (Lyme disease) may also change” (Cowie, 2009).

In addition, globalization means that phenomena, including diseases originating in one region of the world, can move to the opposite end in one day. Malaria also goes to our temperate zone, which we attribute to a warmer zone on Earth, but with warming, it knocks

at our door. We know today that viruses have no boundaries or distances fighting coronavirus. Scientists wrote about the possibility of this type of pandemic a few years ago.

4. CHALLENGES FOR CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

It's time for the Crisis Management units to try to identify new challenges – threats to be prepared for. It should be assumed that the existing threats will continue to occur, however, some of them will occur with extreme severity and rapid course, forcing a new approach and seeking new ways of dealing with. In turn, completely new ones are those that have not previously occurred in a given area, e.g. prolonged drought turning into desertification in some areas, increased appearance of various pests of agricultural and pathogenic crops (Colorado beetle, ticks), increased migration of population caused by climatic and economic factors, epidemics.

These threats are so serious that both states and international organizations are verifying existing security strategies as part of the fight against new threats. An example would be the actions taken by the European Union to reduce the negative effects of CO₂ emissions. Tomasz Młynarski writes, quoting Norman Myers,

“that national security is not only about warring armies and armaments, but increasingly refers to access to water resources, arable land, forests, biodiversity resources, climate, and other factors rarely considered by military experts and political leaders” (Młynarski, 2017).

Crisis management units should face a problem to be resolved, where to get water for people and animals during drought and scarcity. This is no longer a temporary suspension of the use of existing waterworks due to the detection of harmful microorganisms that will recover after disinfection, but the lack of water from existing sources of supply. One needs to look for spare water sources in their territory, e.g. (construction of retention reservoirs, limiting river channel regulation only to places where it is necessary), construction of artesian wells, old rural wells that need to be cleaned and supervised, mineral water sources, such which from an economic point of view is not profitable but can prove useful in a crisis. These are just a few examples that can help in extreme situations, but you should not postpone the matter, because the need may be in a few months or several years. One should not forget about education related to saving water every day.

How to prepare for great pandemics like in the case of coronavirus? The current situation of the world in the fight against coronavirus is a powerful experimental field that exposes the lack of material resources to protect the population against the virus. Lack of procedures for the basic organizational units responsible for protecting the population in the event of a non-military threat. If we draw conclusions from this and prepare crisis institutions for an action in situations of non-military threat and sometimes even more dangerous than military ones, such as unknown viruses or pathogenic bacteria, then each subsequent pandemic will have a mild and controlled course for humanity.

Can cyber threats really threaten people's life and health? Is it possible to predict new threats, and if not how to prepare for flexible response to the unexpected. This is certainly a challenge for the services responsible for security and crisis management in the near future.

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SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE EASTERN EU ENLARGEMENT: THE PERSPECTIVE OF A CRITICAL SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH

This paper claims that the assessment of the eastern EU enlargement depends on the adopted theoretical perspective. The practitioners of critical approaches in sociology claim that mainstream approaches to European integration suffer from neglect. Critical thinkers provide an alternative account of European integration claiming that it can be conceptualized as enforcement mechanism for the spread of neoliberal capitalism. The eastern EU enlargement should be analyzed on the basis of world-systems theory and post-colonial theory. From this point of view, the post-communist political, social and economic transformations based on the neoliberal economic theory have produced mixed results. Specifically, economic neoliberalism is a flawed economic theory that demonstrated its weakness in the post-2008 period. Transnational capital exploited EU spaces to force a neoliberal agenda on the candidate states by way of conditionality. Narrow sectoral interests took precedence over economic rationality and social policy goals. Hence, the relative failure of post-communist transformations in such domains as: EU cohesion policy, unstable democracies, or demography undermining future economic growth prospects. Moreover, the multidimensional crisis initiated by forcing the neoliberal agenda on the candidate states has initiated adverse social and political developments on EU-wide scale in such domains as anti-immigration backlash and the ascendancy of far-right political parties.

Keywords: EU integration, critical theory, East-Central Europe, transformation, EU enlargement, neoliberal capitalism.

1. INTRODUCTION

The enlargement project with reference to post-communist states was presented by EU institutions as the process leading to economic prosperity, long-term stability, peace and security. This approach was reflected by most scientific accounts of EU integration. Academic circles focused on technical issues or macroeconomic data instead of on more

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nuanced socioeconomic data³. The authors of the paper submit that the assessment of the transformations in the CEECs (Central and Eastern European countries) depends on the assumed theoretical background for considerations.

The analysis is carried out on the basis of critical sociological approaches in sociology which have been applied to international relations forming the cornerstone of the reflexive paradigm. These approaches allow an alternative conceptualization of European integration and the eastern EU enlargement which produced to some extent adverse social and political effects. Sociological imagination makes it possible to reevaluate the post-communist transformations putting into context supremacy of Western culture, shedding the burden of Eurocentrism, and constructing an alternative body of knowledge related to the results of the eastern EU enlargement.

2. UNDERLYING TENETS OF CRITICAL THEORIZING IN SOCIOLOGY AND THEIR APPLICATION TO EU INTEGRATION

„A number of very different approaches are placed under the rubric of ‘critical theory’” (Humrich, 2014). They include postmodernism, postcolonial theory, neo-marxism, neo-gramscianism and constructivism. As a result, one can assume that there is a critical approach in sociology (Włoch, 2015). One of the underlying fields of enquiry within the critical theory consists in casting doubt on the objectivity of scientific knowledge. It is done by way of radical deconstruction of scientific texts seeking the motives behind their creation (Burchill and Linklater, 2005). Critical thinking is associated with post-positivist epistemologies. The opposition towards realist thinking is based on radical interpretivism and deconstruction revealing the “politics of knowledge”. It concentrates on the impact of social life and deep structures on cognitive processes concentrating on the critique of dogmatic thinking (Devetak, 2005). Critical thinkers aim at disclosing the hidden relations of domination and hegemonic interests behind the world order that structure world politics. Within this framework mainstream international relations theories were created to transform Western economic and military supremacy into intellectual hegemony (Pijl, van der, 2014).

Critical approach in sociology is multifaceted and it exceeds the tenets of the critical theory encompassing Marxist economic theorizing in the field of international political economy. Sociology forms the basis for the reflexivist paradigm in international relations which includes Marxism, critical theory and constructivism (Mateos and Morcillo Laiz, 2017). Sociologists contributed to critical thinking about the EU by way of Marxist (world-systems), Gramscian (neoliberal hegemony) and Foucauldian (discourse analysis) writings and their later developments, such as post-colonial theory, neo-gramscianism, or post-structural discourse analysis with the aim of deconstructing privileged knowledges.

Marxist underlying claims in the international sphere involve the existence of deep power structures rooted in the economic base which aim at ever growing capital accumulation. These forces shape international relations on a growing scale. Critical

³ With reference to critical accounts of the eastern EU enlargement, see the following edited volumes: *The European's Burden: Global Imperialism in EU Expansion*. (2006). S. Engel-Di Mauro (Ed.), New York: Peter Lang Publishing; *Revisiting the European Union as Empire*, H. Behr, Y.A. Stivachtis (Eds), New York – London: Routledge and *Empire's New Clothes: Unveiling EU Enlargement*. (2001). J. Böröcz, M. Covacs (Eds.). „Central Europe Review”, Telford. Access on the internet: <http://aei.pitt.edu/144/1/Empire.pdf>.

thinking consists here in rejecting the state as the main unit of the analysis. Hence, its falling within the rubric of critical social science. On the global scale, invisible economic structures are more important than the official international relations. There were several stages of theorizing the relations between capitalist core and periphery. They involved imperialism, dependency studies, world-systems analysis and post-colonial studies (Wallerstein, 2005). In the course of time the analysis has been refined and it currently involves sectoral interests (transnational corporations and transnational ruling classes) and ideology as neoliberal capitalism is ideologically laden and its proponents refrain from outright violence preferring seduction. Therefore, the neoliberal agenda is promoted in a subtle way (Burchill and Linklater, 2005).

As for the Gramscian concept of hegemony, invisible forces which stand behind the emergence of the economic neoliberalism control the cultural sphere by way of producing dominant discourses validating the current economic model. This way of thinking was initiated by Antonio Gramsci who wrote about cultural hegemony enabling the dominant classes to retain power without resorting to violence. Robert Cox (the founding father of neo-gramscianism) said that even scientific knowledge is produced to support particular interests (Cox, 1981). That is why some topics are excluded from the sphere of the legitimate scientific inquiry. There are dominant and marginal discourses. Scientists should not rely solely on the former ones and postcolonial studies give priority to the voice of the weak (marginal discourses). It is, however, difficult as it amounts to coming into conflict with the prevailing power structures (Pijl, van der, 2014).

The same applies to thinking about the EU which means that only positive accounts of European integration are regarded as scientifically valid. According to its own narrative the EU is 'a community of values', i.e. a project aiming at spreading such values as democracy, free market (social well-being), human rights and peace around the globe. The EU's exceptionalism consists in its functioning as a normative power attracting external milieu or peripheral regions. This agenda is aimed at legitimization of the EU and it is spread by an elaborate and unique political system which is self-organizing and non-hierarchical implying the network approach within functional analysis. This official neofunctionalist-welfarist approach determines the acceptable interpretations of European integration (Walters, 2004) which results in the marginalization of critical accounts of the EU.

On the basis of critical thinking about the European integration and neoliberal capitalism, the EU can be conceptualized as an enforcement mechanism facilitating the spread of the neoliberal economic model (Cafruny and Ryner, 2019). EU agenda has been increasingly influenced by neoliberal interests (Haar and Walters, 2005). EU contributes to the spread of neoliberal world order by promoting democracy at its borders as democracy promotion is imbued with a neoliberal agenda (market democracy) (Kurki, 2011). Within this approach to European integration the EU policy of conditionality with reference to the Union's enlargement work as 'enforcement chain' On a wider scale, the Union's neighbourhood and development policies serve the purpose of creating a 'non-imperial empire'. (Behr and Stivachtis, 2016). Sociological expertise allows for deconstructing knowledges related to the EU eastern enlargement by taking into account structural, cultural and ideological factors influencing knowledge production.

3. EASTERN EU ENLARGEMENT AND THE GEOPOLITICS OF KNOWLEDGE

Economic assessments of the post-communist transformations fail to account for cultural and ideological aspects of economic reforms which are central to the spread of the neoliberal agenda to post-communist states seeking EU-membership. It can be explained employing the Gramscian concept of cultural hegemony and Western orientalism towards candidate states within postcolonial studies.

In the 1990s the West assumed that Central and Eastern Europe needed socialization to adopt the standards of the civilized West. When the great transformation was initiated Western experts and politicians adopted a paternalistic attitude toward the transition states. Western paternalism entailed a sense of obligation to look after the candidate states and monitor the situation in the CEECs with reference to economic freedom, human rights and democracy. From cultural point of view the applicant countries were 'othered' as a result of Western Eurocentrism (Covacs and Kabachnik, 2001; Kuus, 2006) and they were treated as a repository of Eastness. The transformation was carried out on the basis of "a blatant continental orientalism operating in the EU's 'eastern enlargement process'" (Hooper and Kramsch, 2007).

The transformations were 'managed' by the West. Western economists, politicians and institutions needed a convincing argument to persuade the elites of the candidate countries that the proposed neoliberal economic model was the optimal one. The argument belonged to cultural and ideological sphere as neoliberal capitalism has cultural and ideological underpinnings. Namely, the West portrayed itself as the ultimate achievement in terms of the form of civilization with respect to cultural, economic and political domain. This assumption provided legitimacy to the Western management of the post-communist transformations which was to result in the adoption of superior Western standards (Kuus, 2004). On the scientific level, it amounts to invoking the outdated modernization theory. Both societies and elites of the candidate countries succumbed to this view. In consequence, even though the societies of transition countries suffered enormously, there was virtually no resistance to the shock economic therapy forced upon the candidate states (Böröcz, 2016).

The West acted on the basis of the rule 'the West knows best'. The candidate states were subjected to 'external governance' which lasted more than ten years (Böröcz and Sarkar, 2005; Schimmelfenning and Sedelmeier, 2004). The rules of integration were hardly negotiable for the EU *acquis* was regarded as sacrosanct which resulted in 'impositional Europeanization' (Jakubek, 2008). EU institutions evaluated progress with reference to economic Europeanization until each candidate state was recognized as a 'functioning market economy'. EU law provided the legal framework for the eastern enlargement. The *acquis* should be regarded as one of European spaces (Rumford, 2008) providing formal legitimacy to the process of eastern enlargement. In other words, neoliberal hegemony in the 1990s consisted in imposing EU regulations and standards as precondition for EU membership (conditionality). In this context Susan Silbey (2005) writes about legal hegemony which enables to shape people's consciousness. In practice the *acquis* is treated as 'standard of civilization' and free market in the form of neoliberal capitalism is part of Western superior civilization.

EU economic field was extended to post-communist countries before accession by way of association agreements. The candidate countries did not benefit from full membership, but they were subjected to the rules of EU economic field. Their economies were severely

affected (Murrell 1993) as state-owned companies were not able to compete with Western ones. The application of EU economic field amounted to 'structural violence' against the accession countries (Staniszki, 2009). Therefore, the network approach with reference to creating markets is not suitable at least until the enlargements of 2004 and 2007. As a result of Western cultural hegemony, the association agreements were asymmetrical in several respects which contributed to a multidimensional crisis in the candidate states in the 1990s but the ensuing socioeconomic problems were presented as transitional ones. (Böröcz and Sarkar, 2005). József Böröcz and David A. Smith (1995) argued as early as in the 1990s that 'the eastern boundary of Europe is thereby mentally manipulated'. Transnational capital exploited EU spaces to force the neoliberal agenda upon the candidate states. The acquisition of the most valuable parts of the CEECs' economies at fire sale prices in the 1990s serves as a good example of hidden sectoral interests which took precedence over the official EU agenda (Böröcz and Sarkar, 2005).

Western scholars largely present the economic transformation as a success story offering ample statistics in support of their views. However, constructivist sociologists underline that even statistical data can be distorted or picked selectively to support a thesis. Scientific data are produced according to culturally calibrated tools (Zybertowicz, 2001). During economic neoliberalism the accounting standards were changed as well as the methodology of creating statistical data to support the hegemonic economic system.

Academic resistance to this prevailing account is weak. In order to understand it one should turn attention to 'the geopolitics of knowledge production' (Hooper and Kramsch, 2007). In this context, currently a global network of businesses, think tanks, NGOs, scientists and politicians exploit their influence to put into practice neoliberal hegemony with the aim to promote mostly sectoral interests (Plehwe and Walpen, 2006). This network guides and if necessary disciplines (by way of marginalization) the practitioners of the other branches of economics for purportedly the only scientific branch of economics is the neoliberal one. Neoliberalism is, however, ideologically laden but it claims to be the ultimate achievement of social science and the West. (Maccartney, 2011). The neoliberal economic model was forced on the accession countries by way of Europe agreements and more broadly by membership criteria. Therefore, it is not possible to claim that Western renowned economists or the EU were mistaken as it would result in credibility loss putting in jeopardy Western supremacy.

The minority adherents of the critical accounts of European integration who do not subscribe to the success narrative, prefer invoking the lack of social cohesion and unstable democracies to support their skeptical opinions concerning the effects of post-communist transformations. Moreover, they point out that the new member states were middle income countries under communism and they have retained this status. Those CEECs which adopted the neoliberal economic model experienced a great economic decline in the 1990s while the East-Asian, state-run, mercantilist economies were far more successful. Thus, the application of the neoliberal economic theory in post-communist countries contributed to their underdevelopment and peripheral status in the framework of the EU (Böröcz, 2016). It is also pointed out that in The Czech Republic and Slovenia the social situation is better than in the other new EU member states which is ascribed to their resistance to neoliberal reforms.

4. SOCIAL RESULTS OF THE TRANSFORMATION IN THE CEECS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE WELFARIST EU NARRATIVE

Evaluating the real state of the societies of the CEECs should include such problems as the level of unemployment, the employment rate, poverty, exclusion, social mobility, working poor, the provision of social services, corruption, nepotism, fragile political systems (the social dimension of EU integration). The above mentioned indicators should be analyzed in the context of disparities in regional development and income inequalities (the Gini coefficient) as economic benefits of the transition have been spread unevenly. In general, the reappraisal of The eastern EU enlargement should be based on broad-based socioeconomic processes discernible after 25 years of EU integration and not solely on GDP figures as system integration should not be confused with social integration (Boje et al. 2007). With this respect one can enumerate the following processes and problems which contradict the prevailing narrative with reference to the eastern EU enlargement:

- Uneven economic development and rising social inequalities (Heynes, 2005). Local economies in peripheral regions were based on state-owned enterprises employing whole local communities. The liquidation of such key enterprises brought misery for factory towns. Peripheral regions have never recovered from the crisis brought about by the ‘shock economic therapy’. Private investors are not willing to invest in such regions due to transportation costs and problems with infrastructure. Economic growth is concentrated in the biggest cities. As a result, the distance between the richest and poorest regions is not narrowing (Casi and Resmini, 2012). EU structural funds can only alleviate economic divergences between the EU core and periphery. Regional economies are supported to a large degree by emigrants and their remittances, social benefits and money transfers from the richest regions. The economic collapse of peripheral regions puts them in the position of internal peripheries as they are the source of labor force for the most developed EU regions. Geographical inequalities are exacerbated by social inequalities. A substantial increase in wage inequality (Meardi, 2012) is corroborated by the Gini coefficient which rose dramatically during the transformation period (Heynes, 2005). The trend did not stop after the eastern enlargement (Meardi, 2012).
- Low employment rate and emigration. The most important EU-wide phenomenon which currently jeopardizes popular support for EU integration is a wave of economic migrants from the new member states who “flood” the richest EU member states. Economic transformation resulted in a steep decline in employment rate in the candidate states. Their employment rate is the lowest within the organization and it amounts to 55–60 per cent (Eurostat, 2019a). As a result, millions of dispossessed and impoverished workers seek a better life in the West as there is a correlation between life dissatisfaction and the willingness to emigrate (Otrachshenko and Popova, 2014). Immigration provokes a backlash in the richest EU member states for ordinary people see immigrants as a competition on the labor market. The phenomenon has been amplified due to the current economic crisis (Brochmann et al.). As a result, popular support for EU integration is waning in the West in spite of the fact that Western businesses profit from cheap labor force from the CEECs (Drinkwater et al, 2009). Approximately 2,5 million Poles have emigrated to the West in recent years which constitutes roughly 6 per cent of the population. In case of smaller countries the figure can exceed 15 per cent (Bulgaria, Lithuania).

- The problem of anomie. Critical economic situation in the candidate states in the 1990s resulted in anomie (Ådnanes, 2007) and innovative ways of coping with the crisis. Adaptation involved resorting to crime. Impoverished people engaged in petty crime to survive. Some of them set up organized crime groups which acted with impunity corrupting their societies as the police was initially not prepared to fight them. Generally, there was a 250 per cent increase in the incidence of crime in the candidate states following their economic collapse (Kornai, 2006). In numerous cases organized crime turned against Western societies (e.g. car theft) and the crisis involved trade in women. An anomic culture marked by risk, anxiety, distrust and hatred emerged in the CEECs in the 1990s (particularly those left behind by economic globalization were affected) (Shlapentokh and Vanderpool, 1999).
- The lost generation and falling birthrates. The economic collapse of the CEECs coincided with a steep rise in real estate prices. The oversupply of labor force, in turn, depressed real wages. People from the CEECs earn on average 50–67 per cent of EU average or one third of western wages (Eurostat, 2019b) but the prices of real estate have converged. As a result, even young people who had employment were forced to take tremendous mortgages which limited their consumption possibilities. In consequence, young people were discouraged from setting up families and having children. The population decline in the new member states (United Nations Development Programme, 2011) will result in subdued economic growth in the future due to labor force shortages and a high dependency ratio. The economic system in the new member states fails to reproduce the labor force which will result in the pension system crisis (particularly in Poland).
- Emergence of Dickensian capitalism outside of the state sector. The labor question influences the totality of social life and the quality of democracy, in particular (Meardi, 2012). New businesses offered disadvantageous conditions of employment in comparison with state companies. Wages were subdued, employment contracts did not provide adequate social security and employment without any contract was common (informal employment). The reality which set in with reference to industrial relations is reminiscent of 19th century capitalism or Third World capitalism. In spite of the fact that the rights of employees are protected from formal point of view by EU regulations, they were difficult to enforce due to unfavorable market conditions. Employees remained powerless and vulnerable. Thus, working very often did not shield from poverty. The provision of social services was inadequate and over 20 per cent of children suffered from poverty (Meardi, 2012).
- Corruption and nepotism. The transformational recessions triggered off cutthroat competition for resources. Dozens of millions found themselves in a precarious situation. Corruption and nepotism inherited from communism was reinforced by adverse economic circumstances (Miller et al. 2001; Vachudova, 2009). Illegal methods were used to get access to jobs. Meritocracy was limited by corruption and nepotism.

In the conditions of acute social crisis, the EU was unable to extend the European social model to the East. Josef Kornai (2006) writes that from the perspective of everyday life it is questionable whether the great transformation can be regarded as a success story for general well-being is strongly correlated to material well-being. The societies of the new member states expected a remarkable increase in living standards in connection with

European integration. Statistical data indicate the existence of convergence with respect to quality of life among EU member states (European Quality of Life Survey, 2016). The problem is that according to subjective expectations of the populations, the process of catching up is too slow. Hence, the feelings of frustration became increasingly visible leading to voting out of power pro-EU political parties.

5. POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE EASTERN EUROPEAN TRANSITION TO DEMOCRACY IN THE CONTEXT OF IDEOLOGY AND POLITICAL LEGITIMACY

Applying sociological imagination one can come to a conclusion that people subjectively define their situation. Growing social inequalities and the economic collapse of peripheral regions resulted in quite widespread negative accounts of post-communist transformations. Gugliermo Meardi (2012) makes a claim that from social point of view the eastern EU enlargement has failed. Therefore, workers vote with their feet emigrating to the old EU member states and those who remain in the new member states are vulnerable and disgruntled putting Western liberal democratic order in danger. An anomic culture marked by risk, anxiety, distrust and hatred emerged in the CEECs in the 1990s (particularly those left behind by economic globalization were affected) (Shlapentokh and Vanderpool, 1999). The new socioeconomic order was marked by primeval struggle for scarce resources. The theory of traumatic sequence is plausible in the light of numerous pathological phenomena the candidate states faced from the 1990s onwards. The theory advances a hypothesis that the process of transformation was traumatic and did not lead to the adoption of Western democratic standards (Sztompka, 2000).

David Ost (2006) made a claim that the reliance on economic liberalism may be dangerous for democracy as it creates millions of dispossessed who would blame liberal democracy for their economic hardships. That is exactly what happened in the CEECs (Greskovits, 2000). Initial hardships were to be overcome as a result of a forecasted steep economic recovery. The recovery took place but still large segments of transition societies were left behind. Industrial workers who were at the forefront of anti-communist struggle became the main losers of the transformation. The CEECs were faced with “a radically shrinking public budget combined with increased demands on the state” (Grzymala-Busse and Innes, 2003). From sociological perspective people oppose rising social inequalities more than poverty as such. The economic transformation was marked by a steep rise in inequalities which explains why the economic recovery has failed to contribute to political stability (post-communist societies tend to be egalitarian ones). Economic hardships resulted in populations turning against anti-communist democratic oppositions.

The liberal elites of the new member states support the narrative of a successful transition from communism to western liberal democracy but in reality the political systems of the new member states are rigged, unstable and in danger of being overcome by radical political forces. Initially it was thought that pro-democratic elites would win establishing durable liberal democracy but the protracted and multidimensional crisis and the impossibility to solve such basic problems as poverty and unemployment undermined this assumption (e.g. Hungary and Poland). Dissatisfaction with the current distribution of resources is growing putting into jeopardy the legitimacy of the power structure in the new member states. The reaction on the side of the establishment was to brand those who question the existing order as losers lacking adaptive skills who incite subversive attitudes

out of political reasons. Western pundits and media discourses most often mistakenly ascribe this state of affairs to the political backwardness of Eastern Europeans who presumably failed to internalize Western values (the failed Europeanization of domestic politics) (Copsey, 2013). In fact, workers anger is channeled into destructive political choices (Vanhuysse, 2007). Millions of dispossessed people are easily swayed by populist political parties which can destabilize political systems (Baylis, 2007).

From political point of view the problem boils down to the legitimacy of the current power structures in the new member states. The success narrative is forced on their societies to retain the legitimacy of powers structures. Namely, both West and East European elites who benefited from post-communist transformations have to present them as a success to legitimize their hold on power and privileged access to resources. The legitimacy of both the EU and Eastern European elites with reference to the transformations can be maintained on condition that the success narrative is not questioned by post-communist societies. People are obedient to authority on condition that they regard it as legitimate. A social order is regarded as legitimate if empirical facts corroborate ideology on which it is based. If there is discrepancy between them the social order is challenged as legitimacy claims are based on a truth claim (Silbey, 2006).

The internal political dynamics in the CEECs is closely connected with the social effects of the post-communist transformations. The so-called pro-democratic and pro-European elites are supported by the EU as they contribute to the maintenance of the status quo. Currently every attempt at changing the system and challenging the success narrative is deemed an assault on democracy and thus provokes media moral panic. This attitude is, however, counterproductive as it has failed to prevent EU-sceptic political parties from seizing power.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Critical theorists within sociology and international relations frame EU expansion to the East as a case of the imposition of the neoliberal economic agenda on the candidate states by way of conditionality. Neoliberal capitalism is treated as a failed economic theory and practice. Hence, the claim that the eastern EU enlargement has brought suboptimal results in the social and political sphere, in particular. According to researchers working within the critical sociological tradition, impositional economic transformation in the candidate states can be assessed as a great success for western sectoral actors but it should be regarded as only a relative success from social and political point of view as it has led neither to the emergence of Western-style capitalism, nor to the creation of viable liberal democracies (Berend, Bugarcic, 2015). Therefore, the invoked modernization theory should be discarded in favor of world-systems and post-colonial theories which offer a better explanation of post-communist transformations. The EU economic and social cohesion targets have not been achieved. The same conclusion refers to convergence with respect to quality of life (the social dimension of EU integration) and Western political standards as well. Rather, a hybrid political and economic system was created which can be referred to as semi-peripheral post-communism (according to world-systems theory) which clashes with the official neofunctionalist-welfarist narrative of the EU. The pernicious consequences of hijacking the EU agenda by neoliberal interests in connection with the eastern EU enlargement have turned against both the old and new EU member states affecting the whole organization in several domains. Its negative EU-wide effects include:

- Immigration backlash contributing to the vote on Brexit. This crisis was central to the discussion on the so called Brexit and it facilitated the ascendancy of right-wing, anti-immigrant political parties in numerous EU member states even before the influx of migrants from the Middle East and Africa⁴.
- The ascendancy of EU-sceptic political parties in the new member states swaying millions of dispossessed voters. This process has led to crisis on EU-level (particularly the case of Poland and Hungary which remain in conflict with EU institutions).
- Relaxed standards with regard to business activities (e.g. flawed accounting and bribes resulting in the acquisition of the most valuable enterprises in candidate states at fire sale prices).
- The concentration of EU companies on easy profit while taking over CEEC's economies brought about the loss of competitiveness on a global scale.
- Crime spreading from the crisis affected candidate states to the West feeding anti-immigrant sentiments.

The authors of the paper are of the opinion that one should qualify the above mentioned research results achieved under the critical approaches umbrella as the point of reference for assessment is decisive with this respect. The effects of the economic and social transformations in the Community of Independent States countries were far worse which may indicate that the EU-guided economic reforms should be regarded as a relative success. One has to admit that large sections of the CEECs' populations achieved economic success which they ascribe to the extension of the EU to the East. On the other hand, the populations had very high expectations which have not been fulfilled so far. What is more, people subjectively judge their standard of living comparing it to the well-off sections of the population acting on the basis of the definition of the situation. In view of growing income disparities, the fillings of frustration and disenchantment are easily explained. Even though the EU cannot be blamed for the adverse effects that were brought about by the neoliberal agenda, the organization bears the brunt of social discontent and runs the risk of credibility loss on EU-wide scale as economic neoliberalism developed within European spaces.

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⁴ Goodwin and Milazzo (2015) claim that immigration is central to Euroscepticism in Britain and the ascendancy of right wing parties throughout Europe was based to a large extent on anti-immigrant electoral platforms.

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FAMILY TOURISM AND ITS INFLUENCE ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOURS AS TOURISTS

This research focused on family tourism and its influence on the current interest and participation of students in tourism and on the quality of their lives. The study examined the participants' frequency and limitations on their involvement in family tourism. The results from the study were compared to the current level of tourism activity. The study compared the forms, types of tourism and methods of its organization. Qualitative research provides more precision in examining the results and this study concentrated on the perception of elements within family tourism involvement that improved life quality. The study collected data using the methods of diagnostic survey and structured in-depth interviews. In addition, the study utilized the non-parametric chi-square test and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient for statistical analysis. The study found that there was statistically significant dependence between travelling with parents in the past and the level and quality of current tourism activities of academic students.

Keywords: family tourism, family leisure, tourism activity, student's tourism, determinants of tourist activity, family travel, family.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an integral part of the lives of contemporary families which live in developed countries. It gives satisfaction and is a source of joy for them. The importance of tourism and relaxation for the improvement of life satisfaction has been thoroughly analysed in literature. Diener and Suh (1997), and Karnitis (2006) claim that rest and recreation play an important role in the quality of human life. Silverstein and Parker (2002), and Dann (2001) emphasise that valuable pastimes, e.g. practising sports and tourism, are investments aimed at satisfactory experience of late adulthood and old age. When analysing the role of tourism services for the quality of life, Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (2004) have discovered that satisfaction with tourist experiences and reflections on travels have an influence on general life satisfaction. These issues are particularly important in the conditions of swift social changes where families try to stabilise their role and increase coherence (Charles, Davies, Harris, 2008; Hill, 2011). Spending free time together is an element which brings families closer, especially in the sphere of tourism (as argued by Lehto, Lin, Chen, Choi, 2012),

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where common tourism or recreation experiences are conducive to the forming and developing of healthy social relationships and emotional bonds among family members (e.g. Gram, 2005; Zabriskie, McCormick, 2001).

The actual consistent presence of adults in the life of a child belongs to the most important factors affecting the future of the child in terms of happiness, academic success, leadership skills or significant relationships (Siegel, Bryson, 2020). It is hard to find situations with greater closeness and company of adults than when travelling. The distancing of family members is reduced when travelling. In contemporary homes, each family member usually has a separate place to stay, clearly defined chores and a plan of activities to perform on their own. Such personal space is usually limited during travels when everyone does the same things at the same time: sightseeing, relaxing on the beach, doing sports, having meals together, etc. This shared personal and time space is a source of jointly experienced joy and misunderstandings solved together. Spending time together without daily duties can also be relaxing for family members. As early as in the 1980s, Harper emphasised that a contemporary family functions in stressful conditions and that family recreation can counteract certain “negative influences” on the group, thus guaranteeing family well-being. He also postulated that programmes aimed at motivating families to joint tourism and sports activities should be promoted (Harper, 1985). His observations remain valid despite the change in the family structure. The observation of family functioning and its impact on a new, developing generation is an interesting topic of research. One of the interesting aspects of family functioning is the development of an active, pro-health attitude which helps learn about the environment and culture. All this is supposed to help raise and educate an individual whose life is of value and brings satisfaction.

There is a group of studies focused on family consumption in the context of research on the tourism market (e.g. Khoo-Lattimore, 2015; Gram, 2007) and families' tourism motives (e.g. Kim, Lehto, 2013). However, when browsing through literature one notices that research on the influence of family tourism on behaviours of adult tourists does not enjoy popularity. Research has been carried out in Poland when examining determinants of tourism activities (Delekta, 2013; Delekta, 2014; Delekta, Stecko, 2016) and in Lviv (Ukraine) with greater focus on the very issue (Delekta, Stecko, 2018). These research studies laid emphasis on the family and family traditions in relation to tourism as some of the most important determinants of tourism activities in the life of an adult.

This research is dynamic; it evaluates and compares family tourism during childhood and adolescence with the current level of tourism activities of the research subjects from the Kiev academic centre.

Students have been chosen as research subjects because of the immense importance of the academic period on the development of the tourist lifestyle. Withdrawal from the influence of a family is a test for a person's tourism development. It is the time when a person enters a stage of stabilised tourism activities (Winiarski, Zdebski, 2008). The period can see the development of tourism preferences independent of the tradition of a family home or, quite on the contrary, based on this tradition. A question arises whether family tourism has a considerable impact on the level of tourism activity of an adult.

H1 hypothesis has been formulated regarding the existence of a dependence between the level and methods of family tourism in the past and the current participation of the research subjects in tourism.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Quantitative and qualitative methods have been used for this research study. Data has been collected using a diagnostic survey and in-depth interviews. Both research procedures are complementary. Triangulation logic (Bryman, 1992) has been applied to integrate both approaches. It involves verification of quality by juxtaposing statements by respondents with quantitative results using recommendations of C. Frankfort-Nachmias, D. Nachmias (2011) and Flick (2011).

Research was conducted in November 2019 on a group of first-cycle students at the Faculty of Geography at the Kiev University. It began with work on the discussed phenomenon in the Kiev academic centre and is to be continued in Kiev in other faculties of the Kiev University and other higher education facilities. A random purposive sample of 126 subjects has been chosen (seven questionnaires have been rejected because incomplete answers have been given). Purposive selection resulted from a need to exclude first-year students from the sampling frame of respondents. This approach was necessary due to preliminary assumptions in accordance with which respondents needed to be adults with a status of a student for at least one year.

The sample is characterised by a prevalence of female respondents, which adequately reflects the sex distribution of respondents from the Faculty of Geography at the Kiev University, where students constitute a general population and a basis for considerations and analysis in this research study. The majority of the respondents live in cities or towns: 43% of them come from large cities (with a population of more than 100 thousand), 32% come from medium-sized and small towns, and 25% come from the countryside. Forty percent of students come from families where both parents have higher education and another 30% from families with one parent having a diploma of higher education. The majority of respondents are in a good financial condition: 60% of respondents think that their financial situation is average and 54% claim that the material standing of their families is average. Sixty-five percent declare that income per capita in their families exceeds average income per capita in Ukraine, 14% of respondents work for money and as many as 21% work as volunteers.

The diagnostic survey method has been used when collecting data, with data collected in small, randomly chosen laboratory groups. Research subjects were asked to confirm their willingness to take part in the study. Subsequently, the objective of the study was explained to them and tips were given on how to complete individual parts of the questionnaire. The study was carried out in the mother tongue of respondents (Ukrainian). The researcher was present throughout the duration of the study in case respondents had any questions. The questionnaire was prepared in accordance with collective literature on tourism activity and considered specific observations on the conditions of this activity and barriers to its occurrence. The questionnaire had been tested, used and verified earlier, for example, during similar research studies at the Lviv University in 2018 (Delekta, Stecko, 2018) and in research at several Polish academic centres.

The first part of the questionnaire included questions regarding family travels: planning, organisation, kinds of activities and limitations in travels. The subsequent part focused on the exact identification of the level of tourism activities since respondents reached the age of maturity. That part also included questions regarding pastimes, types of tourism, organisation of tourism and barriers which restrict or disable tourism. The last part included questions aimed at characterisation of a respondent.

A series of in-depth interviews were carried out with eight students of the Faculty of Geography who were staying at university campus. Interviews were partly structured and concentrated on the current and prior tourism activities and on the perception of problems associated with a selected trip/journey (preparations, course of the trip/journey, post-evaluation) and the destination. Interviews elaborated on the topics touched upon in the questionnaire and enabled more precise specification and better understanding.

In order to verify the hypothesis, the frequency of family tourism in the past, types of tourism and methods of its organisation were analysed. Next, it was checked if there was a dependence between these variables and the actual level and quality of tourism activities of respondents.

The following tools were used in the statistical analysis of quantitative material:

- a) chi-square independence test to determine the dependence between the current level of students' tourism activities and variables of family tourism such as frequency of family vacations, financial situation of a family, level of parents' education, barriers to tourism, and to determine the dependence between family tourism and current tourism habits. The adopted statistical significant was $p < 0.05$.
- b) Spearman rank correlation coefficient to analyse the co-dependence and strength of the relationship between kinds of tourism chosen for family vacation and kinds of tourism currently chosen by respondents.

In the last stage, results of quantitative and qualitative research were compared.

It should be added here that this study focuses on family tourism in a strict sense, which includes family vacation understood as travels by spouses with children and by single parents with children, by parents and grandchildren, or by aunts and uncles with their nephews/nieces (Kowalczyk-Anioł, Włodarczyk, 2011).

3. RESULTS

Based on the research on the influence of the frequency of tourism practiced with parents in the past on the current level of average tourism activities of students, it is concluded that there is a statistically significant dependence between the analysed variables, $p < 0.01$ (Table 1).

Table 1. Tourist activity with parents in the past and the average frequency of tourist trips during the year

Participation in tourism with parents in the past	The average frequency of tourist trips during the year (since the beginning of studies)							
	Many times a year		Once per year		Once every few years or not at all		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Dozen/several times	38	92.7	2	4.9	1	2.4	41	32.5
Once or twice per year	37	64.9	15	26.3	5	8.8	57	45.2
Not at all	14	50.0	7	25.0	7	25.0	28	22.2
Total	89	70.6	24	19.0	13	10.3	126	100
Test chi²	p < 0.01							

Source: Compiled by authors.

In order to verify and precisely define these dependencies, family vacation is juxtaposed with the level of tourism activity of respondents occurring during the last year (directly before the date of research survey). The statistical analysis shows that the level of statistical significance p is below 0.01 for the analysed variables. Therefore, there is a statistically significant dependence between tourism activities in the past with parents and the frequency of excursions of research subjects during the year preceding the date of research, with the assumption that each of them covered accommodation for at least one night in the visited area (Table 2).

Table 2. Tourist activity with parents in the past and tourist activity in the last year

Participation in tourism with parents in the past	Tourist activity in the last year (with a minimum of 1 night's stay)							
	At most once		Two, three times		Many times		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Dozen/several times	2	5.1	10	25.6	27	69.2	39	31.0
Once or twice per year	12	20.7	27	46.6	19	32.8	58	46.0
Not at all	11	37.9	12	41.4	6	20.7	29	23.0
Total	25	19.8	49	38.9	52	41.3	126	100
Test chi²	p<0.01							

Source: Compiled by authors.

The method of tourism organisation used by the families of research subjects in the past also had a significant influence on the current organisation of trips by adults from these families. The juxtaposition of replies concerning entities involved in the organisation of family tourism with replies regarding organisers of tourism chosen by students in adulthood infers the occurrence of statistically significant dependence ($p=0.006$). Sixty percent of the respondents whose parents organised tourism on their own in the past currently organise their holidays on their own and at their initiative. Research subjects who used the services of travel agents with their parents in the past tend to imitate this organisation method.

The comparison of the past tourism with parents with currently chosen forms gives the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient equal to 0.88. This is evidence of a strong positive correlation between the discussed phenomena. The ranks of currently chosen forms of tourism activity reflect the ranks indicated with regard to family tourism in the past. The chart illustrates respondents' replies regarding this matter.

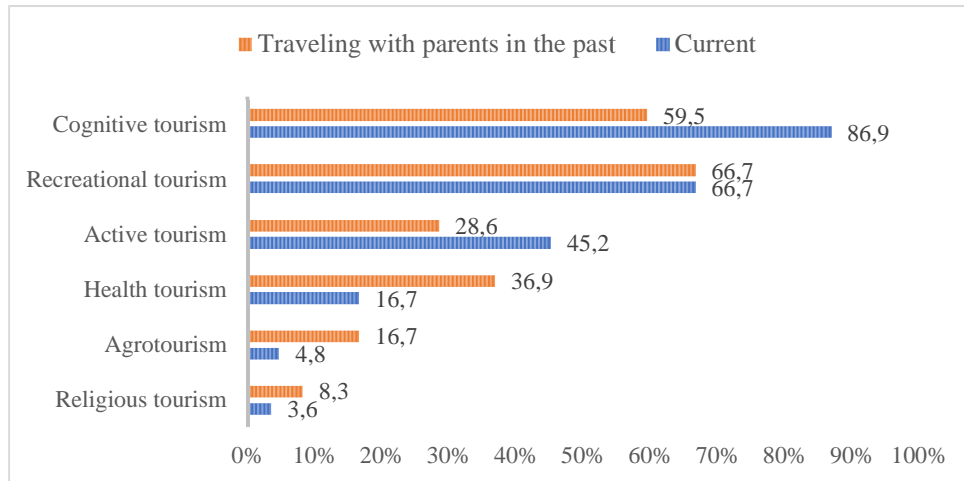


Fig. 1. Types of tourism with parents in the past and types of tourism currently practiced by students

Source: Compiled by authors.

The analysis also covers the characteristics of the family which could determine the level and shape of family tourism and the current tourism activities of the subjects. These characteristics include the financial situation of the family, its place of residence, and parents' education level. The family's financial situation turns out to be a significant factor influencing family tourism ($p < 0.001$) and the current level of tourism activities of the subjects ($p < 0.001$).

Students' place of residence had no impact on the frequency of family tourism – statistical significance higher than assumed, $p = 0.07$. The dependence is noted between the student's place of residence (understood as the place of origin) and the current level of tourism activities ($p = 0.01$). Residents of large cities were those who travelled most frequently during the last year (several or more than a dozen times) whereas respondents from the countryside did not travel at all and were the largest group of respondents.

Based on the analysis, it should be concluded that the education of parents had no influence on family tourism and has no influence on the current tourist behaviour of the subjects. In both sets of variables, p was higher than the assumed value of 0.05.

The statistically significant dependence also occurs in the juxtaposition of replies regarding the participation in preparations for a family vacation with the level of tourism activities in the previous year ($p = 0.05$).

Finally, respondents were asked about inhibitors of tourism activities in the past. The lack of parents' free time (63% of responses), family's material situation (60%), parents' household chores and the lack of command of foreign languages (19%) were the greatest limitations to family tourism. Such limitations as the lack of parents' interest in tourism activities, the lack of suitable companions or of suitable organisation, the fear of changing the surroundings or the health status were of lesser importance. Qualitative research confirms the importance and ranks of these barriers. Only 16.7% of research subjects declared that there were no limitations to family tourism.

Based on the above research results, hypothesis H1, saying that family tourism significantly affects the level of tourism activity of research subjects, should be accepted and the null hypothesis regarding the absence of such an influence should be rejected.

4. DISCUSSION

Family tourism belongs to the largest markets in the tourism industry and accounts for approximately one third of the entire market of recreational travels (Schanzel, Yeoman, 2015). Research on family tourism and its consequences seems justified and desirable, as pointed out by numerous authors, e.g. Schanzel and Yeoman 2014 or Delekta et al. 2018.

Family's pastimes, including the quantity of time devoted to tourism activities with parents during childhood and adolescence, are not indifferent to the frequency of tourism activities during adulthood. These topics are discussed by Kowalczyk-Anioł (2007), Delekta (2014), Delekta, Stecko (2016). Their research conducted among Polish students implies that tourism experience of a family home is the most important determinant of the level of tourism activity of an adult. The mentioned research concerned an influence of various groups of factors (social, economic, demographic, geographic, and others) on participation in tourism. Based on the measurement of the strength of the relationship between factors which would indicate the relationship with tourism activities (with a level of statistical significance $p < 0.05$), it was noted that travelling with parents had the strongest relationship to the dependent variable (Delekta, 2013). This research also confirms the statistically significant relation between the level of family vacations and the level of current tourism activities of the respondents. It also suggests a strong correlation between types of activities during the analysed time periods.

Research by Delekta (2013, 2014) and Delekta, Stecko (2018) implies that the experience from childhood, especially gained during active participation in preparations for the vacation, causes that a person acquires skills and certainty of being an organiser of tourism for their kids or other family members. This has resulted from both quantitative and qualitative research. This quantitative research also confirms the occurrence of such a dependence.

It is envisaged that family vacations will be on the increase at a pace faster than that for any other pastimes, partly due to the fact that vacations reunite a family and are ideas for family members to spend their time together, at a distance from professional duties (Schanzel et al., 2012). In accordance with international research via Expedia, quoted by Lehto et al. (2012), Americans spend most of their holidays by travelling with their closest relatives. Similarly, American Express research (2011) has shown that travelling with the family in the free time is still a priority for the American society. This is also confirmed by statements of respondents who notice the advantages of active time management for the purposes of tourism and declare the implementation of this style of spending their free time with kids in the future.

It should also be noted that, apart from all positive aspects, family tourism can also have debatable implications. Shaw (1992) draws attention to certain aspects of the functioning of the family before and after vacation. She emphasises that the organisation of family activities and the creation of situations which are conducive to relaxation with the family require work and effort. Work is not distributed equally among men and women. Conclusions on this matter should not be drawn from this research but it should be noted that in their free statements respondents more frequently pointed out that mothers were the

ones who initiated and organised vacations. But this issue requires more detailed examination.

Another question arises: did family tourism take account of children's needs? Was participation in family tourism another duty imposed by parents convinced that this was right? Finding answers to these questions is worthwhile, especially that there are certain premises resulting from qualitative research which suggest the existence of these issues.

In light of the above considerations, it should be noted that family tourism undoubtedly deserves attention not only because it is characterised by a growing trend but also due to the fact that it has important structural consequences in the today's layered society and binds families together, making them stand out and developing the quality of life of the generation to come, through close contact with nature and culture.

5. CONCLUSION

The juxtaposed results of quantitative and qualitative research clearly indicate that:

1. The frequency of family vacations in the past has an influence on the frequency of tourism activities in the present time.
2. Types of tourism with parents in the past have a positive correlation to the current types of tourism.
3. There is a relation between the organisation of family tourism and currently chosen methods of organising tourism.

Research results suggest that the hypothesis of the influence of family tourism on the level and quality of present tourism activities of respondents should be accepted.

A practical conclusion is also the fact that research results can be useful to tourism organisers. Literature and this research provide arguments proving that the analysed market segment (families with kids) can treat tourism and recreation excursions as priorities and make decisions in this area regardless of the changing circumstances, e.g. decreased income of the family. As qualitative research shows, this often results from a need and awareness of developing a young generation, investing in the health and education of children, and often also from fashion for tourism. These segments are very attractive to the tourism industry because they are predisposed to minimise susceptibility to unpredictable crises and external shocks.

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BICYCLE TRANSPORT WITHIN SELECTED POLISH AND EUROPEAN UNION CITIES

Urban transport and its organization is one of the most important areas related to the functioning of the city. Properly organized urban transport should quickly and efficiently meet all transport needs. Transport activities can have negative effects on the urban environment. The most significant are congestion, environmental pollution, and noise. In addition to the negative impact on the city's environment, transport also contributes to the consumption of non-renewable energy sources. For this reason, the idea of sustainable transport has started to play an important role in recent years. This idea provides residents with economically and time-favorable ways of moving while limiting the impact of transport's harmful effects on the environment. Bicycle transport is an important element of sustainable transport; in many cases, it is faster and has zero emissions. The purpose of this article was to present the impact of selected factors such as the size of the city and the degree of economic development on the functioning of bicycle transport in selected cities of the European Union and Poland.

Keywords: bicycle transport, sustainable transport, public transport.

1. INTRODUCTION

Properly functioning public transport is the basis for the right functioning of the urban organism. The transport needs of urban residents depend on the degree of economic development of the urban area and its size and number of citizens. The functioning urban transport is also responsible for a number of adverse effects for the city and its inhabitants. The most significant harmful effects include congestion, environmental pollution and noise (Śmieszek, 2019). Not all forms of urban transport have the same environmental impact. The most friendly and least burdensome form of urban transport is bicycle transport. Currently, a growing policy is being implemented in an increasing number of cities to promote intra-city cycling (Woods, 2017). Bicycle transport is one of the most common

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ways to eliminate environmental pollution and reduce congestion in the city (Bagloee 2016). Cities to encourage residents to use a bicycle, most often invest in the development of bicycle paths, the construction of rental shops and appropriate street marking (Gutiérrez, 2020). City bike systems operate in over 600 cities around the world (Kaltenbrunner, 2010). Cities decide to launch city bike systems for several reasons: to increase cycling, to reduce congestion, to improve air quality, and offer residents an alternative to urban transport in the form of active mobility. In addition, the city bike has two main advantages compared to other transport projects: implementation costs are relatively low and the duration of the entire project is short. It is possible to plan and implement the system in a very short time, which means that the benefits accrued from the functioning of the system can be obtained much faster than in the case of other urban transport projects (e.g. investments in new buses).

The purpose of this article was to present the impact of selected factors such as the size of the city and the degree of economic development on the functioning of bicycle transport in selected cities of the European Union and Poland. The article presents the advantages and disadvantages of cycling. The activities of selected EU and Polish cities were also presented, aimed at developing bicycle transport.

2. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CYCLING

Each means of communication has advantages and disadvantages, but there is one that combines especially many advantages – it is bicycle transport. Convenience and comfort can be debatable, but when it comes to economic and ecological indicators, the bike can without any doubt boast about the highest place.

The first advantage is virtually zero operating cost. The highest costs are incurred when purchasing this means of transport. Despite this, they are incomparably lower compared to all others. Additional costs incurred by the bicycle user are related to its servicing. In case of car users, the repair costs are incomparably higher and, in addition to them, car owners also incur insurance and fuel costs. Much lower prices include the purchase of a train or a bus ticket, but the bicycle is still the most economical in financial terms.

Another important factor, for some, is travel time. Traffic in the city is unfortunately characterized by traffic jams, especially in the mornings and afternoons, so travelling by car or bus takes a very long time, which leads to frustration for drivers and passengers. Since all major cities are equipped with bicycle paths running along the pavement, travelling by bicycle helps significantly reduce travel time. Additionally, one can use various shortcuts by passing through places where traffic is not possible (e.g. squares, parks). When the streets are not congested, cycling time is slightly longer than by car. However, the lack of traffic jams in larger cities is a rare phenomenon.

The most characteristic feature of bicycle transport is its environmental friendliness. The only emissions released into the atmosphere arise during its production. It does not need fuel, so it does not lead to the need to extract or deplete any natural resources. It doesn't emit any pollutants without burning any fuel. Failure of this measure also does not threaten the environment in any way.

Failure rate is another feature that is worth considering. The bicycle does not break down very often, and the costs of removing the defect are relatively low. Inspections do not have to be carried out as often as in case of a motorbike or a car. It is also worth mentioning that,

unlike a bus or a car, a breakdown does not reduce traffic flow, which in turn creates traffic jams.

The range of most means of transport is very large, however, only in terms of distance. As for urban transport, there are many places that can only be reached by bicycle or on foot. Of course, you can park your car in a different place and move on foot, but this is associated with longer time and discomfort. On the other hand, those travelling by bus are limited by the bus routes and quite rare distribution of bus stops (Corazza, 2019).

Parking is a problem that does not apply to cyclists. You can leave your bike practically anywhere, all you need is a bike lock. There are also many adapted places to leave the bike, every store or institution has stands to attach the bike.

Health and fitness aspects are an important element of cycling. Moderate physical effort promotes health and well-being (Raustorpa, 2019, Mertens, 2019). Regular cycling lowers the risk of heart, improves coordination and circulation in the veins, without stressing the joints (Štastná, 2018). More oxygen is also supplied, and you avoid stress related to driving and wasting time in traffic jams. On the other hand, cyclists on shared public roads have a greater risk of injury or death compared to those traveling by car (Nilssona, 2017). The risk of accident and injury largely depends on the condition of the bicycle infrastructure (Marshall, 2019).

However, you cannot hide that the downside is the ability to easily steal the bike. The loss of a car is undoubtedly much more expensive, but it happens much less often than a theft of bicycles.

Convenience is a questionable feature, depending on personal preferences (Thigpen, 2019). Some find it convenient to ride a bike in the fresh air, and some effort will be an advantage for them. However, late autumn and winter periods are certainly less comfortable for cycling than those in summer. Occurrence of rain significantly degrades comfort, while snowfall can even prevent driving. Such weather, however, does not bother bikers in Scandinavia (Böckera, 2019). Temperature and wind have the great impact on the rider, which is not the case for car drivers or bus passengers.

Another disadvantage is the inability to transport other people and larger loads. The need to make larger purchases excludes the option of using the bicycle as a means of transport.

To sum up, bicycle transport has some limitations related to weather conditions, the weight of transported cargo and the inability to take passengers. These restrictions also include the risk of theft. However, despite everything, it is undoubtedly the cheapest means of transport, both in terms of its purchase and a further operation. In many situations, bicycle transport is faster than car transport, especially in rush hour traffic. The bike allows reaching all places and parking problems are rare. Possible failures do not expose you to high costs and danger. Considering all the pros and cons, it can be stated that the bike is a means of transport cheap, economical, fast in the city, ecological and safe.

3. EUROPEAN CYCLING LEADERS AND THEIR ACTIVITIES

The development and popularization of cycling is influenced by many additional factors besides the benefits of cycling mentioned above. The most important factors include the condition and development of cycling infrastructure, the policy of city authorities favoring and promoting cycling, the construction and maintenance of city bike sharing networks, care for cycling safety and the promotion of a healthy lifestyle. In the latter case, it is both about the health and physical condition of society and about activities aimed at improving

the condition of the urban environment by reducing air pollution. A large number of cities around the world are making efforts to restore the bicycle as an accepted and practical form of transport. Actions taken in these cities are registered and evaluated. On their basis, a ranking of friendly and supportive cities for cycling is created.

This ranking is known as the Copenhagenize Index. According to (<https://copenhagenizeindex.eu/>) there are 15 European cities in the list of twenty most friendly and supporting bicycle transport in the world. In these fifteen, 14 cities are cities of the old Union. The composition of the top three in six years has not changed. In 2015, Copenhagen took the first position and has maintained it up to this day. Fig. 1 shows the positions occupied by the first ten cities in the (<https://copenhagenizeindex.eu/>) ranking in 2017 and 2019.



Fig. 1. Copenhagenize ranking of bicycle-friendly cities

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<https://copenhagenizeindex.eu/>).

Amsterdam and Copenhagen have been at the forefront of the ranking since its inception in 2011. In 2019, Copenhagen residents 62% travelled to work and school by bicycle. Every day they cover 1.44 million km by bike. City authorities are investing in cycling infrastructure. Calculated per capita, it is 40 euros per year. As part of the investments, 12 pedestrian and bicycle bridges were built, and 167 km of new regional bicycle highways were built. The new cycle paths in Copenhagen are 5.5 meters wide in every direction, which can accommodate 22,000 cyclists a day.

The second position in the ranking was won by the capital of the Netherlands, known worldwide for its cyclist-friendliness. The city is implementing a very ambitious cycling plan consisting in creating new cycling routes, expanding existing paths, building more cycling streets, redesigning major intersections to ensure safer cycling for cyclists. The plan is also predicted to be closed by 2025. 11,000 parking spaces for cars, which will be replaced by bicycle parking lots, greenery and walking places. The construction of a bicycle bridge is also planned. In Amsterdam, a ban on mopeds along cycling routes has also been introduced.

Utrecht is another Dutch city included in the ranking. It took 3rd place. Like many Dutch cities, Utrecht uses world-class cycling infrastructure. In Utrecht, bicycles are more important than cars. The city is building the world's largest bicycle parking structure, increasing the station's capacity to 22,000 bicycle parking spaces.

The fourth place in the ranking is occupied by Belgian Antwerp. The bicycle transport development plan includes improving and connecting the bicycle network by enhancing intersections, managing traffic lights and striving to reduce car speed limits to 30 km/h on 95% of all streets. Bicycle parking lots have also been expanded and bicycle highway networks connecting to the regions around the city are being expanded. Thanks to these investments, the share of bicycle transport in Antwerp increased from 29% to 33% in 2014–2018. The next stage of investment in bicycle transport will be the construction of a bicycle bridge.

Strasbourg was in the ranking after Antwerp. It is considered the most bike friendly city in France. The development of bicycle transport has been achieved thanks to the modernization of the road network and extension of bicycle highways. 16% of residents ride a bike to and from work or school. Bordeaux is another French city included in the ranking. Bordeaux maintains its position in the ranking because it continues to innovate and maintains the bike as a priority in transport planning in the city. Over the past two years, a ban on car traffic has been introduced on the historic Pont de pierre bridge, which has allowed a 20% increase in bicycle traffic and better conditions for walking or cycling.

The Norwegian capital city Oslo was seventh in the ranking. For the first time, Oslo was on the list of bicycle transport leaders in 2017, taking 19th place. Oslo should be an example for cities that claim that the climate or terrain prevents them from developing bicycle transport. Oslo's first investments and decisions were to remove cars from the city center and to eliminate 1000 parking spaces for cars. As a result, better conditions were created for residents moving by bicycle or on foot. Citizens and companies can benefit from subsidies for the purchase of bicycles for freight transportation. To enable residents to ride bicycles during the winter, which is not favorable for safe cycling, the city has equipped 400 bicycles with studded tires as part of a pilot project.

Paris is the next city in the ranking. Paris, thanks to the extension of the bicycle network, improved its position in the ranking compared to 2017 by 5 positions. In spite of the thriving city bike rental system, it managed to achieve a 5% share of bicycle transport in his travels. The planned achievement of a 15% share for 2020 seems unrealistic at present.

Another city is Vienna, which in spite of modest investments in cycling infrastructure, stands out from other cities thanks to innovative and constructive communication activities and policies. The city's ability to use the untapped potential of freight bicycles in city logistics and city life has made Vienna a leader in the field of cycling policy. For years citizens have been able to rent free bicycles. Recently, the direct grant program has facilitated the purchase of over 300 freight bikes for local Viennese companies. In Vienna, cycling infrastructure is developing at a steady pace. To meet demand, the city has installed 5,000 parking spaces for bicycles over the past two years. The last of the cities analyzed is Helsinki. Currently, the share of bicycle transport in the city is 11%. Helsinki has over 1300 kilometers of cycling infrastructure and 20 kilometers of bicycle highways, and another 140 kilometers are planned.

4. COMPARISON OF SELECTED CITIES OF THE UNION AND POLAND

One of the publication's aims was to compare the functioning of bicycle transport in selected EU cities. The comparison was made for four groups of cities. In each group of the cities compared, there were two cities from EU countries with many years of experience and two cities from the group of countries admitted to the Union after 2005. The basic

indicator deciding about the allocation to a given group was the size of the city. An additional factor determining the selection of the city was the degree of economic development of the country represented by the city. The chart in Fig. 2 presents the ratio of current GDP per capita income to the average value in the group of EU countries. The curves presented in the chart do not fully reflect the income in selected cities. Big cities are usually economic centers and per capita income is usually higher than the country's average income. However, it can be assumed that such a situation applies to similarly large cities from the old EU member states as well as newly admitted ones.

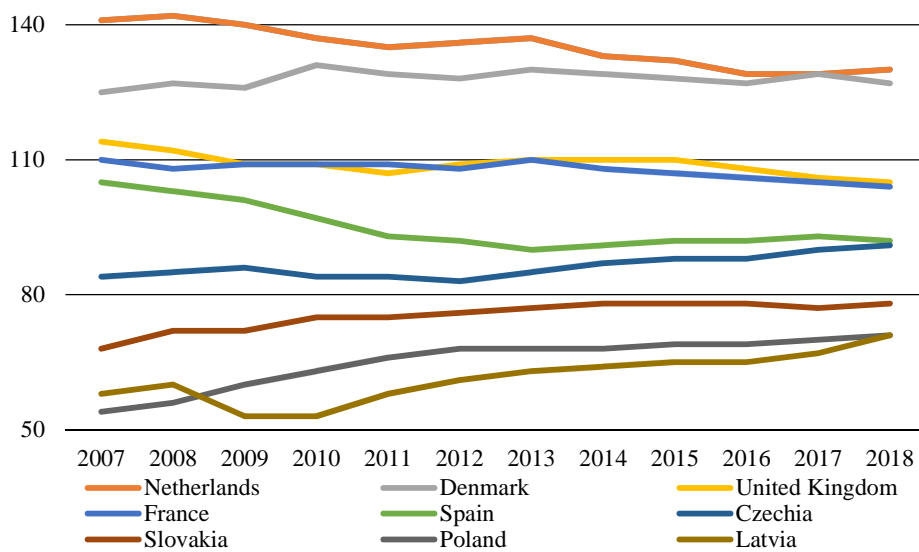


Fig. 2. Ratio of current GDP per capita income to the average value in the group of EU countries

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<https://ec.europa.eu/>).

The first compared group comprised the cities with over one million inhabitants (fig. 3). This group included four cities: Paris, Barcelona, Budapest and Warsaw. In all these cities, the use of bicycle transport according to splitmodal data ranges from 1% to 3%. Such a negligible share of bicycle transport indicates that these are large agglomerations where bicycles are used primarily for recreational purposes. Due to the large distances that residents have to travel when going to work, most of them use other forms such as public transport (metro, public transport). However, these cities do not neglect efforts to develop bicycle transport.

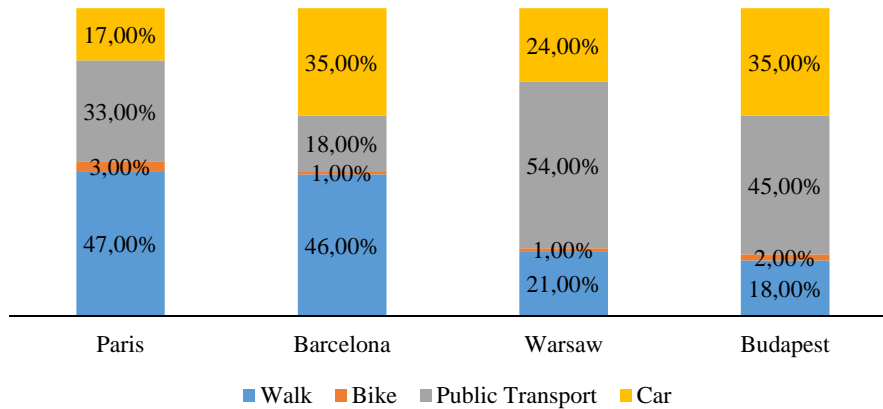


Fig. 3. Percentage distribution between different modes of transport in cities with more than 1 million inhabitants

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<http://www.epomm.eu/>)

The second group of cities analyzed were cities from 500,000 up to 1 million inhabitants (fig. 4). In this group, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Wroclaw and Riga were analyzed. The first two of them are considered European leaders when it comes to using cycling. In the case of Amsterdam, the share of bicycle transport is 22%, and Copenhagen 30%.

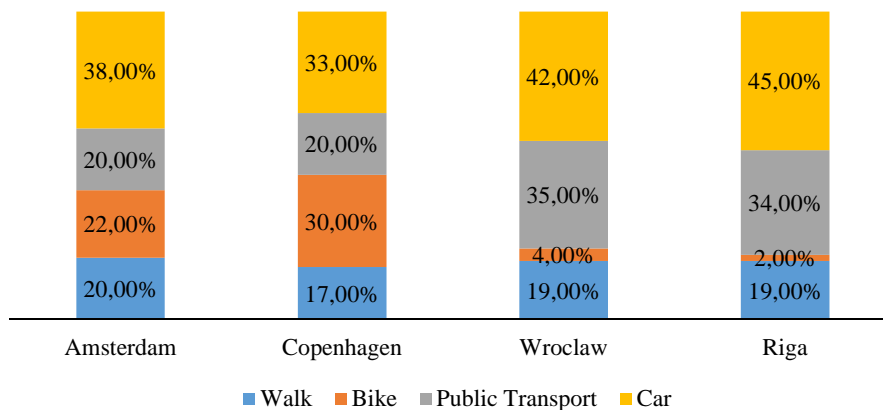


Fig. 4. Percentage distribution between different means of transport in cities with a population of 500,000 to 1 million

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<http://www.epomm.eu/>),

However, in the other two cities in this group the share of bicycle transport is marginal and amounts to 4% for Wroclaw and 2% for Riga, respectively. It is worth noting the income level of the inhabitants of the cities analyzed. In the case of the Netherlands (Amsterdam)

and Denmark (Copenhagen) it ranged from 127–142% in relation to the average income per EU citizen in 2007–2018. However, in the case of Poland (Wrocław) and Latvia (Riga) this income does not exceed 70% of the average income for a resident of the EU. There is a relationship here. Namely, in high-income countries, residents pay more attention to issues such as sustainable transport, and thus the economic benefits of implementing this idea and minimizing the environmental impact of vehicles.

The third group analyzed were the cities from 150,000 up to 250,000 residents (fig. 5). In this group four cities of Eindhoven, Oxford, Plzen and Gdynia were analyzed. Also in this group of cities one can notice significant differences in the use of bicycle transport depending on the economic development of a given country. In the case of Eindhoven (The Netherlands), the average income of the inhabitants of the Netherlands during the years 2007–2018 ranged from 130 to over 140% of the average income of the Union, and the share of bicycle transport in this city accounts for 40%. The residents of Oxford also boast a high use of bicycle transport – 19%. The income of the inhabitants of England in the period analyzed ranged from 104 to 112% of EU income. The next two cities are characterized by very little use of bicycle transport. For Plzen it is 3%, while for Gdynia 2%. In both the Czech Republic and Poland, the average per capita income is lower than the average EU per capita income. In the case of the Czech Republic, this income at the turn of 2007–2018 was in the range of 85–90%. However, for Poland, this income does not exceed 70% of the average EU income. Also in this group of cities one can notice a greater awareness and care for the environment of residents of cities with a higher per capita income.

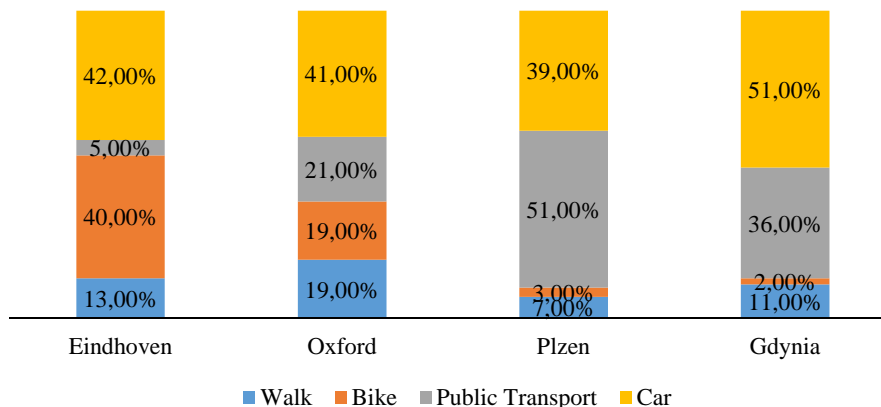


Fig. 5. Percentage distribution between different means of transport in cities with a population of 100,000 to 250,000

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<http://www.epomm.eu/>).

The last group of the cities analyzed were the ones of 50,000 up to 100,000 residents (fig. 6). As in the previous groups, four cities were analyzed. The first two cities are Delft (the Netherlands) and Gladsaxe (Denmark). For both the first and the second cities, the income of residents exceeds the average income per EU citizen, and the share of cycling is 34% (Delft) and 23% (Gladsaxe), respectively. In the case of two further cities, the share of

bicycle transport is 7% (Konin) and 8% (Zilina). Income in Slovakia does not exceed 80% of the average income of EU residents. For Poland it is 10 points lower percentage and does not exceed 70%.

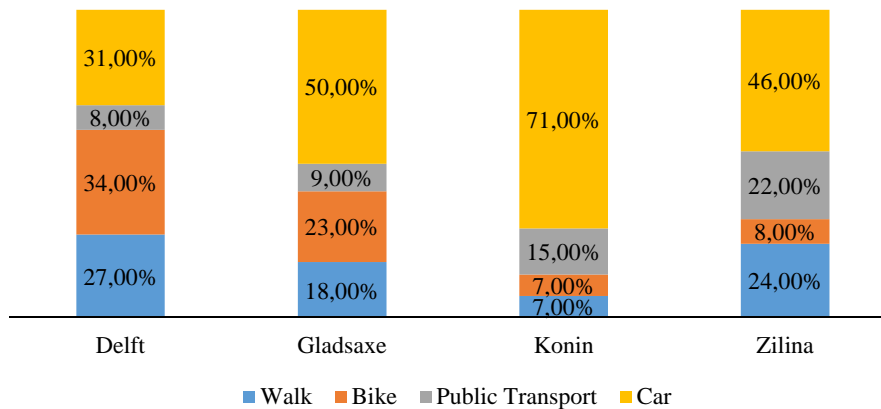


Fig. 6. Percentage distribution between different means of transport in cities with a population of 50,000 to 100,000

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<http://www.epomm.eu/>).

In the group of cities with a population of less than 1 million, there is a clear link between economic development and the share of cycling. The higher the income, the more developed bicycle transport is. In wealthier countries, the idea of sustainable transport is widespread. Hence, care for minimizing the harmful effects of vehicles on the environment and awareness of the economic benefits of implementing this idea. Large cities have a very well-developed public transport network based in most cases on the subway. Due to the large area of cities, one-off journeys are definitely longer and traffic on crowded streets is not very safe.

5. THE CONDITION OF BICYCLE TRANSPORT IN POLAND

The development of bicycle infrastructure is being observed throughout Poland. The increase in the share of bicycle transport in Poland and change of habits is slowly noticeable (Biernat 2018). Bicycle paths are created both in cities and along extra-urban routes. An increasing number of cities are also investing in city bike rentals. In 2018, there were 13,904.7 km of bicycle paths throughout Poland. Warsaw is the leader among Polish cities in terms of the length of bicycle paths. The length of bicycle paths in the capital is 590 km (fig. 7). As part of the municipal bicycle rental in Warsaw, cyclists have over 390 stations and over 5,700 bikes at their disposal. Wroclaw is the next largest bike path in terms of length. In 2018, it had 260 km of bicycle paths. Wroclaw bike rental has approximately 200 stations and 2,000 bikes. Poznan is equal to Wroclaw in terms of the length of bicycle paths, for which the length of bicycle paths is 242.5 km. The Poznan bicycle system has 113 stations and about 1000 bikes. Cracow also invests in the bicycle transport system. It has

bicycle routes with a length of 213.7 km. The city bike system in Cracow offers 150 docking stations and about 1,500 bikes.

The advantages of cycling have been appreciated by Gdansk. The length of bicycle paths for Gdansk is 182.3 km. In 2019, a system offering over 1,200 bikes and 660 parking stations operated in Gdansk and several other locations.

Another Polish city that appreciates the advantages of cycling is Lodz, which has 158.3 km of bicycle paths. The city bike system functioning in Lodz has 150 stations and over 1,500 bikes. The city of Rzeszow has a slightly smaller length of bicycle paths. It is 156.2 km of bicycle paths. The rental shop operating in Rzeszow offers 120 bicycles. Other Polish cities developing cycling infrastructure are: Lublin with 140 km of bicycle paths and a municipal bicycle rental of over 90 stations and 910 bicycles, Szczecin with 137.3 km of bicycle paths and a municipal bicycle rental of 87 stations and 742 bicycles, Bialystok with 128.4 km of bicycle paths and a municipal bicycle rental with 59 stations and 625 bicycles.

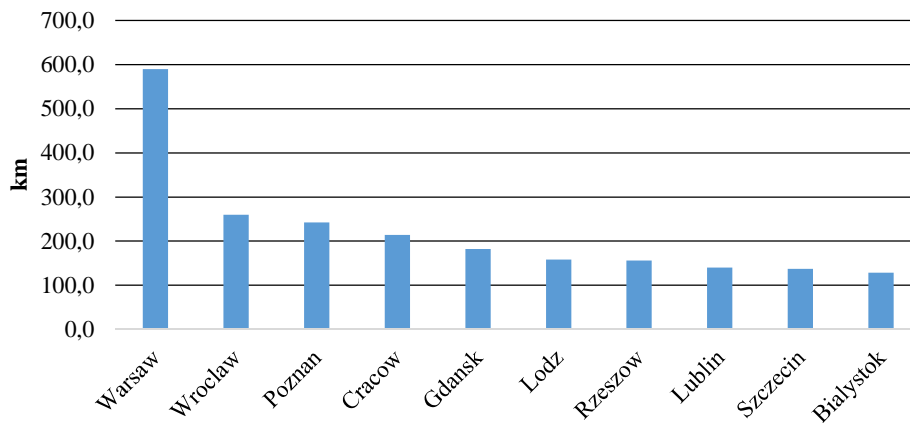


Fig. 7. Length of bicycle paths in selected Polish cities

Source: Prepared on the basis of (<https://bdl.stat.gov.pl>).

Many cities decide to implement urban cycling systems and develop cycling infrastructure not only because of the popularization of bicycles as one of the basic means of transport, but also because of the need to create modern interchanges. Bicycles are to increase the accessibility of integration nodes and enable faster and more comfortable transfers, e.g. to a train, bus, trolley bus or tram. Thanks to such solutions, the mobility of travelers increases and an alternative to car travel is created. And this in turn reduces the negative impact on the environment and reduces exhaust emissions and noise.

6. CONCLUSION

Inhabitants of many cities complain about the poor quality of life manifested in polluted air, high noise levels, accidents, and occupying more and more space by cars (Śmieszek 2016). Therefore, it is very important to make the public aware of the assumptions and benefits of introducing sustainable transport. One of its main assumptions is to limit the use

of cars for environmentally friendly means of transport. A bicycle is one such ecological means of transport. Sustainable transport assumes the sharing of means of transport with an emphasis on the use of environmentally friendly ones, thus ensuring more economical management of financial resources and time as well as more effective protection of the natural environment. All these activities contribute to improving the quality of life of residents. As the analyzes carried out in the article showed, the inhabitants of highly developed countries, whose inhabitants can boast a high income exceeding the average income per EU citizen, were more aware of the beneficial effects of sustainable transport. The leaders in this group are residents of Denmark and the Netherlands. A very large 40% share of bicycle transport in public transport is observed in the cities of these two countries. The situation is worse in poorer countries where the average per capita income does not exceed 80% of the average EU per capita income. This group includes Poland. In these countries, the share of bicycle transport is very low and reaches several percent. It is optimistic that these countries draw examples from the more developed EU countries and strive to improve this situation by implementing a number of projects and projects aimed at implementing new, environmentally friendly means of transport which is definitely the bicycle

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CASTRO II. RAÚL – IDEOLOGICAL LEADERSHIP IN THE ANTILLES

The article describes and analyzes the main stages of Raúl Modesto Castro Ruz's political activity– the second most important leader of socialist Cuba. The structure of the article is based on the principles of chronological narration. The conceptual basis of Raúl Castro's ideological outlook has been systematized and generalized. The article pays special attention to his Marxist-Leninist leanings and his closeness with the national liberation ideas of Jose Marti. The article adopts a psychological perspective in describing Raúl's fierce revolutionary struggle in the second half of the 1950s and uses methods from political management showing that Fidel Castro, Raúl's brother, allowed Raúl to make his personal management decisions and to implement them often with risks to his life and reputation. For the last 50 years, Cuba's power mechanism can be characterized as a non-classical diarchy of the Castro brothers: Fidel was a common leader, Raúl was a military leader, and from 2006 until the death of Fidel he was controlled by the leadership of his brother. Raúl, during the years of his presidency and after escaping from Fidel's psychological pressure, carried out reforms in the country that were aimed at bringing Cuba closer to a market society. These changes were made in the country yet were limited by Raúl's ideology. Raúl Castro's reforms were related to his denial of the right of the individual to express his own views if they differed from those of the dominant doctrine. However, the reforms didn't influence the development of democracy and freedom of civil rights. Finally, the article describes Raúl's intransigent attitude towards American imperialism and his willingness to defend Cuba's independence and revolutionary achievements.

Keywords: political leadership, political marketing, policy-making, geopolitics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Castro brothers opened a new era for their country. Together with Fidel, Raúl stood at the origins of the revolutionary movement on the island, laid the foundations of the modern

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Cuban statehood and did much to save the independence and sovereignty of Cuba under the severe external pressure (Farber, 2006; Huberman, Sweezy, 1961; Lievesley, 2004).

This article will be focused on the politician, who for decades was the right hand of its elder brother, the legendary Commander Fidel Castro. About a man who for 10 years from 2008 to 2018, led the implementation of an extremely difficult task: to adapt the outdated Cuban economy to the challenges of the new time. In 2018 he was brave enough to transfer the full power to Miguel Diaz-Kanel, the representative of the generation which did not know the beginning of the Cuban revolution (Eckstein, 2003; Kapcia, 2014).

Raúl is one of the last, if not the least, representatives of the “old Cuban Guard” of the revolutionaries. On January 1, 1959 this Guard overthrew the dictatorial regime of Fulgencio Batista, the American puppet, oligarch and corrupt.

2. YOUTH AND THE FORMATION OF A WORLDVIEW

Raúl Castro is the son of Angel Castro, a Spanish native, and his second wife (former servant of Lina Rus Gonzalez). According to some new sources, he is not the sibling, but only half-brother of Fidel (Nevskoe vremya, 2019). This explains the lack of the external resemblance of brothers. The future revolutionary studied at a Jesuit school in Santiago de Cuba. Back in 1937 at the family meeting it was decided that Raúl would continue his education in the so-called “Civil-military school”, not far from his native Biran. In January 1938 this school was visited by Batista himself and during the meeting the colonel lured Raúl and put him on his knees. The boy at first looked at the medals on Batista's chest, and then said a phrase, which he had learned by the task of the head of the school: Colonel Fulgencio Batista, on behalf of the pupils of the school, I ask you to promote our sergeant-director to the military rank of the lieutenant. The future dictator became stupefied and, after keeping some silence, answered: “Well, I will do this”. Could he think at that time that this boy would be the one of the perpetrators of the collapse of his power? (Leonov, 2015).

All Fidel's and Raul Castro's biographers try to understand why the quite wealthy children of a major landowner, who were on a wide road to politics or business, became revolutionaries, changed Cuba radically and even destroyed their own estate. And no one finds a reasoned answer (Lago, 2012).

After the graduation from the high school, Raúl followed the footsteps of his charismatic brother and went to Havana in 1950. There he entered the preparatory courses at the University in the capital of Cuba, after which he became a student of the Faculty of Law of the University, with the specialization on “management” (Gugin, Ostasz, Gugin, Gierczak, 2012).

He took active part in the youth movement, participated in the organization and conduction of José Martí Followers' National Congress for Human Rights. His participation in the youth movement was so active that at the beginning of the following year Raúl got an invitation to go to Vienna and to attend the International Conference on Youth Rights as the head of the Cuban delegation.

At that time Vienna was still under the occupation of the allied forces and the conference delegates were forced to live in the Soviet sector, in a dilapidated hotel. According to Nikolai Leonov, the Russian biographer, who knew the Cuban revolutionary for more than half of a century, his father Don Angel became mad before the trip: “I won't give you a cent for a trip beyond the Iron Curtain!” But then he softened up and allowed to send Raúl 500 dollars (Leonov, 2015).

Upon his return to the homeland, Raúl plunged into a serious political struggle: he became the member of the People's Socialist Party of Cuba (Communists). Raúl's biographers were interested in the reaction of his older brother to this decision. The answer to this question can be found in the book "100 Hours with Fidel" by Ignacio Pionet, the French writer, published in 2006: "Raúl was a person with certain left-wing beliefs, and in fact I was the one who told him about the Marxist-Leninist ideology. His entrance to the youth organization of the Communist Party met his understanding of Marx's teachings. To Pionet's surprised question: "Did he join the party by his own decision? – Fidel replied: "Yes, he always had his own views" (Pionet, 2016).

3. CHARACTER-BUILDING IN THE FIGHT – FROM MONCADA TO ESCAMBRAI

Raúl Castro was in the vanguard of 124 young men who, on 26 July 1953, stormed the Moncada barracks in Santiago de Cuba, Cuba's second most important military facility. It is necessary to note that until the last moment Raúl did not know what object was chosen by his older brother for the attack of the revolutionaries. Fidel told his plans to the participants of the operation only an hour before the scheduled time of the assault. Raúl headed the group that captured the Palace of Justice and, thus, distracted the Batista's armed forces from the actions of the squad led by his older brother. Alas, Maxim Makarychev, Fidel's Russian-speaking biographer regrets, "due to the chain of ridiculous accidents, young people were defeated by Batista's government troops" (Makarychev, <https://>). Then inhuman tortures waited for them: the heroes of Moncada's capture were thrown from the rocks, their genitals were cut out, air was injected into their veins by syringes, and, finally, they were beheaded.

Two days earlier than Fidel Raúl was arrested on his way to their home estate in Biran. He told different name, trying to pretend to be a man who was coming back from the carnival in Santiago. He was taken to the commandant's office to check his identity. And only there, absolutely occasionally, by the evidence of a man, who recognized him, it turned out that the young man, playing with the police, was the younger brother of the main organizer of the daring attack. Raúl Castro was sentenced to 13 years in prison. After two years in prison with his brother and other comrades, who survived, he was released according to the amnesty law taken by the Cuban Congress (Jayatilleka, 2007).

On December 2, 1956, the legendary yacht "Granma" (Grandmother) moored on the south-eastern coast of the country. In his notes Che Guevara compared the landing itself with the shipwreck. Raúl Castro said later that in the dawn of the darkness it was difficult to see the contours of the coast and a terrible thought drilled his head: "What happens if we landed not on the shore, but on the one of the many islands covered with mangroves?" (Castro, Archivo). On December 2, 1978, one of the authors of this article, who worked at that time at the University of Holguin, managed to visit the landing place on the anniversary of the historic occasion. There was only one thought: "Horror!". Because of the traitor, who gave out the plans of the revolutionaries, the army of Batista destroyed the troop almost completely with the help of army aviation. 13 persons survived out of 82, including Raoul, Fidel and Che Guevara. After that, Raúl began his military career in the Rebel Army next to his brother and Ernesto Che Guevara, with whom he became very close. Numerous victorious fights brought him the rank of Commander in February 1958 (Anderson, 2010).

4. COMMANDER RAÚL IN ACTION

On July 2–3, 1958, the negotiations were held between Commander Raúl Castro and the U.S. consul, who came from Santiago de Cuba to the “partisans republic” in the north of Oriente province. Raúl was accompanied by several front officers and Wilma Espin (his future wife, with whom he lived for almost 50 years), who was as an interpreter. Negotiations were held in the presence of several American prisoners and journalists from the United States and Brazil. The consul left soon with four Americans and one Canadian, but he came back to the partisans’ location in only two days, shaking by the New York Times newspaper, which reported that Castro, the coordinator of the July 26th movement, made an order to release all American prisoners. The American public, not knowing the final goal of the rebels, welcomed the noble deed of the Cuban leader (Martínez-Fernández, 2014).

Being the commander of the Second Front, Raúl Castro got the order to consolidate all disparate armed groups in the north of the province. Raul managed to create five new partisans’ troops out of the new recruits. The partisans’ active actions under his leadership led to the establishment of a revolutionary power on the territory of the Oriente province, which size is equal to the half of Belgium. Raúl bravely took the responsibility for all his actions within Fidel’s strategy. The leadership of the Second Front became a real life university for him, where, according to his biographers, he was formed “not only as a military leader, but also as a mature politician and statesman” (Leonov, 2015).

In January 1959 as a result of the victories of the revolutionaries, the commander of the garrison of government troops numbering to five thousand people, asked Fidel to meet him. Colonel Rubido said he was ready to surrender the garrison, but he was not sure of the position of most of the officers. Raúl suggested immediately to go to the garrison with his brother, but Fidel had other solution. He sent Raúl there alone and his task was to convince the entire regiment that there was no sense to support the already collapsed regime (Skierka, 2008).

Raúl, who was jokingly called a “slammer” by his comrades-in-arms, could not refuse his older brother. Wilma Espin insisted on going with him, but Raúl did not agree and entered the fortress of Moncada almost alone, accompanied only by a bodyguard. In the bright sunlight he saw the entire regiment staying on the square. According to witnesses, after negotiations with officers Raúl ripped off the portrait of Batista, threw it on the floor and shouted: “Long live the revolution!”. After a minute pause, the soldiers exhaled “Long live!” The officers asked Raúl to address the assembled soldiers. In a brief speech he described the revolution and promised the soldiers of the garrison a raise, not given by the previous government. At the end, Raúl invited the senior officers of the garrison to meet the commander of the garrison en Hefe in an agreed place (Leonov, 2015).

Raúl Castro was in the Orient province until February 9, 1959, when Fidel called him to Havana and gave the position of the Deputy Commander of the Armed Forces. The revolutionary confrontation ended with Batista’s escape and people’s unconditional victory. The nationwide enthusiasm, multiplied by the clear strategy of the Castro brothers, was a decisive factor in this victory.

5. THE SECOND PERSON IN THE CREATION OF A NEW SOCIETY

Raúl became the second person in the state and later in the party he “was Fidel’s permanent understudy at all political and state posts” (Dabagyan, 2016). Raúl Castro

became the ministry of defense in October 1959 and was on this position till February 24, 2008, when he officially became the President of Cuba. On 22 December 1975, at the first congress of the Cuban Communist Party, Raúl Castro was elected to be a Second Secretary of the Central Committee.

Fidel, while presenting his brother's candidacy, talked about him for the first time after the revolution: "As for Comrade Raúl, I can say one thing: I am honoured that such an outstanding figure in the revolution is my brother. Raúl gained his authority in struggle, which he was among the first to join. Our family relations allowed only to involve him in the revolutionary process, to attract him to Moncada capture. And I remember that when a patrol broke into the courthouse in Santiago de Cuba and arrested Raúl's group ... he snatched the gun from the patrol's chief and managed to capture the patrol that had arrested his comrades. If he hadn't done so, they would have been killed in Moncada in a few hours" (Makarychev²⁰¹⁷).

The Castro brothers kept the posts of the first and second secretaries of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Cuba, the chairman and his first deputy of the State Council of the Republic, the prime minister and his first deputy, the supreme commander-in-chief and the minister of defense of the country for about half a century. Thus, Raisa Karakhanova, the Russian researcher told, "the leading Communist Party, administrative and administrative structures of the state apparatus, law enforcement agencies were subordinated to the Castro brothers for many years, which ensured the stability in the country's" (Karahanova, 2018).

This idea echoes another idea by Ksenia Konovalova that the political elite in Latin American countries, as a creative minority of government officials, "turns out to be personified" (Konovalova, 2018). In other words, it is "associated more with bright individual personalities than with any formalized groups, pre-established tools and methods of concentration and administration of power" (Konovalova, 2018).

But the execution of the second leader's functions did not always go smoothly. In his book Leonov cites excerpts from an interview of Raul with a Mexican journalist in 1993. He told about the dramatic trip to Moscow in December 1982, which Fidel sent his brother to. The purpose of the trip to the USSR was to bring to the attention of the Soviet leadership an opinion that due to the anti-Cuban aggression in the Reagan administration it is necessary to take urgent political and diplomatic steps in order to prevent and to stop the renewed threats of Americans, which were going to make a military strike to the island.

According to the Cuban side, such steps should had been made in the form of an official Soviet warning to the United States. The warning should show that the Soviet Union would not tolerate aggression against Cuba. Raúl Castro expressed such views to Yuri Andropov. The answer of the highest Soviet leader was categorical: "In case of American aggression against Cuba we cannot conduct military operations there, because you are 11,000 km away from us", – and he added – "we will not go there for them to beat us up" (Leonov, 2015).

Of course, the USSR promised to provide political and moral support and to continue to supply weapon in accordance with the current program. This was the biggest diplomatic defeat of Raul Castro. He hoped for a positive solution of the issue, as in the Kremlin he was considered to be a firmer communist than Fidel.

That's why, at a meeting of the Politburo after his return from Moscow Fidel said that this issue was very dangerous in case of a leak of information about it and it should be left to the competence of the first and second secretaries. The Politburo agreed with this opinion.

The year 1991 became a time of the most acute economic crisis for Cuba, which was related to the collapse of socialism. Raúl Castro had not only felt the inevitability of the disaster in advance, but he had also taken steps to mitigate its effects. Back in April 1990, almost a year before the collapse of the Soviet Union, he convened a meeting of the highest leaders of the party, government structures and the highest command of the armed forces of the country in the province of Pinar del Rio. There, for the first time, the term “special period” was used to describe the situation. The meeting was devoted to the correlation between the economy and defense capabilities. A special exhibition was held in front of the participants, where the products and technologies, necessary to overcome the difficulties of a special period, were presented. The emphasis was made on the home production of spare parts for the imported equipment, on the production of feeds for animal husbandry based on domestic raw materials, the use of local materials for the creation of pharmaceutical products.

At the end of the meeting Raúl said: “In everything that is connected with the thrift, rational use and austerity, you should consider that we live in a special period” (Karahanova, 2018). By Raoul's order, the exhibition was shown later to the leaders of all levels of the party and state apparatus. Special preparations were held in military units, party and state structures in order to prepare the armed forces and the entire society for the upcoming difficulties. Since the beginning of 1990, by Raúl's order around 1,800 detailed recommendations have been developed and implemented in the Cuban Revolutionary Armed Forces in order to save as much as possible resources without compromising the country's defense capabilities. The army assumed the responsibility for almost 85% of its self-sufficiency.

Generally speaking those, who passed the Cuban army school, remember that Raúl Castro's style of work was characterized by a high level of exactingness, rigidity of criticism of shortcomings, and at the same time by his skill to soften the “spread under the curtain”. Those who were criticized didn't leave with the sense of hopelessness and oppression in their hearts (Baez, 2014).

6. THE PRESIDENT

On July 31, 2006, Raúl Castro took temporary leadership of the country due to Fidel's health problems. “The power was taken by Raul Castro, who was in the shadow of his brother for over a half of a century. Without Fidel's charisma and being in the shadow for many years before, he managed to rule Cuba with dignity, without crises and failures, as broadcasters from Florida predicted. Moreover, he started the big changes on the island” (Makarychev, 2017). When on 24 February 2008 he became the President, he took a courageous decision and started the historic phase of adjustments in the domestic and foreign policy. Speaking on his election in the Parliament, Raúl Castro quitted: “You elected me to be the Chairman of the State Council not to restore capitalism in Cuba; not to betray the revolution. I was elected to defend, strengthen and improve socialism” (Karahanova, 2018).

Since the late 1980s Raúl had a reputation of a liberal. The package of laws was adopted by his initiative. That package legalized partially the individual entrepreneurship, opened the Cuban economy to foreign investments and thereby absorbed the impact of the worst crisis of the 1990s (Karahanova, 2018). From the very beginning, the Raúl Castro government announced a program of spending cuts. The list of basic necessities that had

previously been available by cards for almost nothing, was reduced. In this regard Raúl expressed himself directly: “Cuba must stop to be the only place on earth where you can live without working” (Makarychev, 2017). This was explained by an attempt to stop the deepening crisis and to save the public sector of the economy. In one of its issues, the “Granma” newspaper quoted Fidel Castro, who said in 1986: “No state can give its citizens what it does not have” (Masiubańska, Masiubański, Montenegro, 2016).

Even though Raúl's reforms began in 2008, the main guidance for its implementation was based on the decisions of the 6th Communist Party Congress in spring 2011, the so-called “Directions of the Party's Economic and Social Policy and Revolution”. They set the course for employment restructuring, labor productivity increase and search for alternative sources of financing. A number of improvements in the private sector, the conditions of sale and purchase of movable property and real estate, the use of the Internet and mobile communications have changed the picture of ordinary Cubans' lives markedly. Private business was legalized in 178 areas of the professional activity, travels abroad were allowed, and the process of housing privatization began. At the same time, Raúl repeatedly stated that reforms should never “import neoliberal formulas and shock therapy into Cuba in lives of the poorest people” (Kozdoyev, 2019).

Raúl Castro made significant changes to the Cuban model of socialism. He set the new path for the country, which was a big step forward. However, not all his plans were implemented, and some of them didn't bring the expected results. In his report to the 7th Congress of the Communist Party in April 2016, the head of the state said that only 21% of the 313 approved directions had been implemented. 77% were in the process of the implementation, and 2% have not been started yet. The implementation of the Five-Year Plan (2011-16) showed the main obstacles in the planned course. This is “a ballast of outdated thinking of the part of establishment, which does not allow getting out of illusory hopes for external assistance. On the other hand, there are also disguised attempts to restore capitalism” (Roke, 2016). The words of the Cuban leader clearly show that the choice was made in favor of a mixed economic system. In his report, Raúl noted the necessity for “the recognition of the market together with the functioning of the socialist economy” (Roke, 2016).

Without large reserves of necessary raw materials, a strong production infrastructure and modern technology, Cuba is largely dependent on external relations. Therefore, Raúl's internal reforms were accompanied by changes in the nature of the foreign policy. Havana began to cooperate actively with the countries of Latin America, Europe and the Asia-Pacific region. The most important catalyst for these processes was the normalization of the American-Cuban relations.

On December 17, 2014, after long secret negotiations, Raúl Castro announced the agreement, which was reached between the Cuban and American authorities in order to restore diplomatic relations and to start the process of normalization of relations between Havana and Washington. In the next two years both governments took concrete steps to ease some of the U.S. sanctions against Cuba, which were the part of the economic, commercial and financial embargo imposed by Washington in 1961.

In March 2016, US President Barack Obama made a historic visit to Cuba. Meeting the honored guest, Raúl Castro was full of dignity and still unbended. He stopped Obama from patting himself on the shoulder during the farewell ceremony at the airport.

7. SUMMARY

Summing up the analysis of Raúl reforms, it should be noted that the infringement of political and civil rights was practically not abolished. The existence of a single-party system and the constitutional refusal to separate the branches of power allows to talk about serious lameness of Castro's political system and the absence of the most important instrument of democratic checks and balances in Cuba, which would ensure the implementation of political rights. In particular, during the reign of Raúl Castro there was a number of restrictions in the sphere of civil rights: a constitutional ban on the creation of private media; a complicated procedure for the country's leaving, expressed in the necessity to obtain the permission to leave the country; difficulties in establishing new religious associations and the supervision of them by the state authorities (Elbaeva, 2010).

Raúl Castro resigned as president in 2018. His successor was 57-year-old Miguel Díaz-Canel, whose promotion was made under the close supervision of Raúl (similar to his promotion by Fidel). Raúl Castro introduced the future president to the Politburo in 2003 and appointed him to be the Minister of Higher Education in 2009. Even when Díaz-Canel was elected the head of state, Raúl Castro, who kept the post of the first secretary of the Communist Party, said about the successor in a very symptomatic way: "He is not a pop up, he is not an improvisation, he just stayed behind the scenes during the last time" (Konovalova, 2018).

Raúl didn't leave the politics. Speaking at a meeting of the National Assembly of People's Power this spring, he said that U.S. actions are becoming more and more aggressive and are continuously undermining the bilateral relations. According to him, "Havana notified Washington through open diplomatic channels that Cuba is not afraid of threats and sanctions of Trump, it will persistently follow the socialist path, will protect the future of the state from the interference of other countries and will protect the cause of peace" (Comments «IA SinChua», 2019).

Nowadays the biographers of Cuban leaders note that "Raúl's main enemy is not Americans (Makarychev, 2016), but the age and time, which are inexorably running out, and, despite the other enemies, these ones he cannot overcome or, at least, curb.

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HIGHER EDUCATION AS PART OF THE MODERNIZATION OF CONTEMPORARY POLAND

The aim of the article is to analyze the social problem of mass education within higher education. This process was particularly noticeable in the late 1990s and in the early 2000s. The phenomenon accompanying the massification of higher education was the creation of private universities. This research describes two studies utilizing two study modes – full-time and part-time (extramural). The analysis of the research problem was made on the basis of statistical data from sources of official statistics as well as reports, analyses, and scientific publications. The findings from this process included a significant increase in the number of people who started part-time studies at public or private universities. In the years 1990–2017, the number of universities increased from 162 to 390, and their students from 390 000 students to 1 292,000 students; the number of graduates increased from 56,000 to 387,000. One of the most important effects of the mass education process of higher education was a significant increase in the level of education of the population.

Keywords: higher education, massification of higher education, modernization, universities.

1. INTRODUCTION

From the perspective of a long-lasting process, universities were the centres which gave birth to new ideas, theoretical concepts and new technological solutions. Higher education institutions were a forge of social elites and intellectual societies. A historical look at the importance of universities in Europe takes us back to the early Middle Ages, where *universitas* meant institutionalized community of knowledge and scientific research, where values, standards and community of concepts created a spiritual frame of then contemporary Europe. The only language that was used by science in those days- Latin, created a kind of communication community and a platform for cooperation and understanding and brought closer distant academic centres of Europe (Ciechanowska, 2012). For many centuries the opportunity to continue their education at a higher level was reserved only for the few. Property, status and social hierarchy-based qualifications prevented many individuals and social groups from taking advantage of education. This trend was apparent practically throughout the entire twentieth century. In fact, throughout the period of People's Republic of Poland higher education had the elitist status. This was a consequence of a low value of education in society, especially in groups situated at the lower levels of the social ladder, even in spite of numerous ideological attempts to change it, like the introduction of preferential points for social background. Obviously, these attempts had to be ineffective as

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the accessibility of higher education for rural and workers' youth was largely limited, primarily by institutional factors, including the barriers at the earlier educational stages, a relatively small number of universities, as well as socio-cultural conditioning (Wasielewski, 2015).

After the end of World War II, higher education in the world experienced a number of significant changes, gradually shifting from an elitist model of higher education, which is characterized by a small number of independently existing institutions and a focus on educating a small group of young people from the upper classes, to the model of universal education, increasingly oriented to the needs of the labour market (Dybaś, Dziemianowicz-Bąk, Krawczyk-Radwan, Walczak, 2012). In Poland, the process started at the beginning of the nineties of the twentieth century. This delay was associated with social and economic changes that resulted from the introduction of a free market economy.

2. HIGHER EDUCATION AND MODERNIZATION

The term "modernization" is closely linked with the concept of development and in this aspect it means transformation, or continuous transformation. This term is qualitative and positive. It concerns the transformation of both economy and society, which allows for a marked improvement in their functioning. In modern terms, the "macro" concept means further advancement of the economic structure, its increased modernity and elimination of institutional cultural and technical barriers inhibiting social entrepreneurship (Gudowski, 2010). Today it has been accepted, among others in social sciences, to use special indicators to measure the level of modernization of countries or societies. These indicators can be recognized at different levels:

1. In economics – the detailed measures of modernization may be, for example, the GDP *per capita* measured in a given period of time or the Human Development Index (HDI).
2. In demography – there specific indicators may be: infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births for a given period of time or, life expectancy of a person born in a given year expressed in years.
3. In economy – the indicator in this area may be the structure of sectors (branches) concerned.
4. In the quality of life – the detailed measures of modernization can be, for example: the ratio of life-satisfaction or the Gini coefficient (of social inequalities).
5. In education - in this area the indicators can be, for example, the structure of residents' education, the system of higher education or the number of university graduates completing their higher education in a given year.

Changes in higher education and including them in the process of modernization were associated with the change of knowledge availability paradigm. The changes that took place in higher education, were both quantitative – a significantly increased number of studying persons and qualitative – a radical redefinition of the role of higher education. In the previously dominant elitist model the university education was reserved for a small group of students from privileged social classes, allowing for a few exceptions. These persons had substantial resources of social capital and cultural capital, which they received from parents as a kind of inheritance. Knowledge which was imparted during studies based on such a model did not necessarily have to be useful to perform a specific job or profession, which does not imply, however, that it wasn't highly functional – after all, the fact of having it

confirmed and legitimized social position occupied by its holder. It was only with the change in perceiving the mission of higher education, and in particular with the need resulting from a new economic and social context to appreciate the role that education can have on the labour market and for the economy, that the gradual opening up of universities onto a wider group of young people from diverse social backgrounds took place (Dybaś, Dziemianowicz-Bąk, Krawczyk-Radwan, Walczak, 2012). This process was also visible in Poland, where we can venture to say that in the last two decades Polish higher education was forced to seek a state of relative balance between the arising contradictions. These being, on the one hand, the need to continue the current policy of higher education development, referring to the diagrams and models developed by tradition, on the other hand, the need to address modernization challenges imposed by the risk society and knowledge society (Karczmarczuk, 2009).

So far the main driver of educational changes were dynamically developing production technologies. In the twenty-first century they give way to the education which grows to be a decisive component of the development of 'new economy'. Education striving for the development of reason by enlightenment standards becomes insufficient. The traditional model of instructing education, must be put to rest, and replaced with a model of forming education, developing students' personality in terms of their intellect, affective and psychomotor learning (Denek, 1998). It became a widespread belief that living in the risk society, as defined by Ulrich Beck (Beck, 2002), young people find in the increasingly better education a specific escape from uncertainty of their professional and social future. The drive toward higher education may reduce the risk of social marginalization.

3. MASSIFICATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The transformations in the higher education sector determine three neo-liberal institutional arrangements. The first of these is associated with neo-liberal economic reforms, initiated two decades ago, which aimed primarily at significant reduction in the state's role in the economy and in other spheres of social life. In the higher education sector this limitation of the role of the state was made possible by the amendment of the Law on Higher Education Act of 12 September 1990 (Journal of Laws No. 65 item 385, as amended). It opened the way for a free and autonomous development of higher education by restoring decision-making powers to the rectors and university senate. It rejected the past strategy of funding higher education entirely from public funds, introduced a very broad autonomy for public universities, created conditions for the creation of private universities, which in turn led to the marketisation and "commodification" of teaching and research processes. Another institutional solution became the Bologna Process adopted by the Member States of the European Union in 1999. They agreed on the general principles of organizing education, the so-called European Higher Education Area, which were to lead consequently to profound transformations in the higher education systems in all countries of the European Union. In practice, this meant opening the higher education sector to competition, privatization and marketisation (Karczmarczuk, 2010). The third institutional solution that influenced the transformation of the higher education sector was Poland's accession to the European Union, which contributed, among other things, to the increase in mobility of students and teaching staff and participation in programs financed from the EU funds (e.g. Erasmus and Erasmus Plus), more application chances due to the European Union financial support, or more funding for human resources (e.g. Human Capital

Operational Programme) and placing greater emphasis on increasing the access and dissemination of continuing education.

Two fundamental changes that took place in the Polish higher education in the 90s of the twentieth century largely contributed to the transition from the elitist to universal higher education. The first of these was the development of non-public higher education, which resulted in the most developed non-public education system in Europe. The second change, which was made possible by the Higher Education Act of 1990, authorizing the introduction of fees for some educational services, helped develop the system of paid evening studies, part-time and postgraduate studies in state universities. Popularisation of Polish higher education has some special characteristics. Firstly, over the twenty years of political transformation there increased abruptly the number of students, resulting in the Europe's highest level of popularity of tertiary education. Second, the spread of higher education decreased the value of university degrees in the labour market. On the one hand, in the late 90s of the twentieth century the labour market started to welcome the first graduates enrolled under the "educational boom", on the other hand, a university degree gradually ceased to be not so much a guarantee of well-paid job, as a protection against unemployment. Thirdly, the "educational boom" caused an increase in the number of people with higher education in the total population of economically active Poles between 19 and 64 years old, which means that the popularisation of higher education directly resulted in increased competition in the labour market among people with higher education. Fourth, since the liberalization of the Higher Education Act in 1990 the number of higher education institutions has increased. The higher education institutional order has started to undergo a continuous change. Free-market rules in higher education (especially non-public universities) caused that the universities' names began to evolve, higher education institutions began to fall, merge, and even be taken over by stronger institutions. Non-public universities have become smaller, less institutionally stable, and therefore more susceptible to demographic fluctuations. In addition to the sector of newly-created non-public higher education institutions there have also appeared new public universities – mostly State Higher Vocational Schools (PWSZ), created especially in the towns that lost their status of regional centres as a result of the administrative reform in 1999, and which clearly lacked public higher education institutions. Popularisation of higher education was therefore accompanied by strong institutional fragmentation and instability. Fifth, the transition from the elitist to universal model of higher education has changed the nature of higher education. Popularisation of education caused a revolution in the understanding of the concept of higher education, leading to it being more practical or relevant for the labour market. The issue of employability of graduates, providing them with the market-relevant qualifications became part of the educational policy. Popularisation of higher education has fundamentally changed educational goals, which led to a reformulation of its contents. In addition to providing education in the basic fields of study there were opened new fields preparing the students for the entrance into the labour market. The changes that have taken place in higher education and its environment created a special dimension of international mobility of students (Dybaś, Dziemianowicz-Bąk, Krawczyk-Radwan, Walczak, 2012).

If the only reference point taken for the evaluation of the higher education massification in Poland is the prism of statistical data on Polish universities, then it should be necessary to confirm the thesis that this process has already reached the highest point of growth and for several years has been characterized by a period of stagnation. This trend is noticeable both in terms of the number of higher education institutions, and the higher level enrolment

rate. Taking the first years of transformation for the analysis, it can be assumed that in the academic year 1990/1991 universities educated a little more than 400 thous. persons (Ludwikowska, 2013). In the academic year 2017/2018 the number of students amounted to 1,291 thousand people. A record year in terms of the number of students was 2005, when the premises of Polish universities offered a place of study for nearly 1,940 thous. people. The increase in the number of students was very large. Only in the first five years of transformation the number of students doubled from 403 thous. to about 795 thous. people. Two years later, in 1997, the number of people studying at Polish universities exceeded one million persons. Each following year noted an increase in the number of students ranging from one hundred thousand to two hundred thousand people.

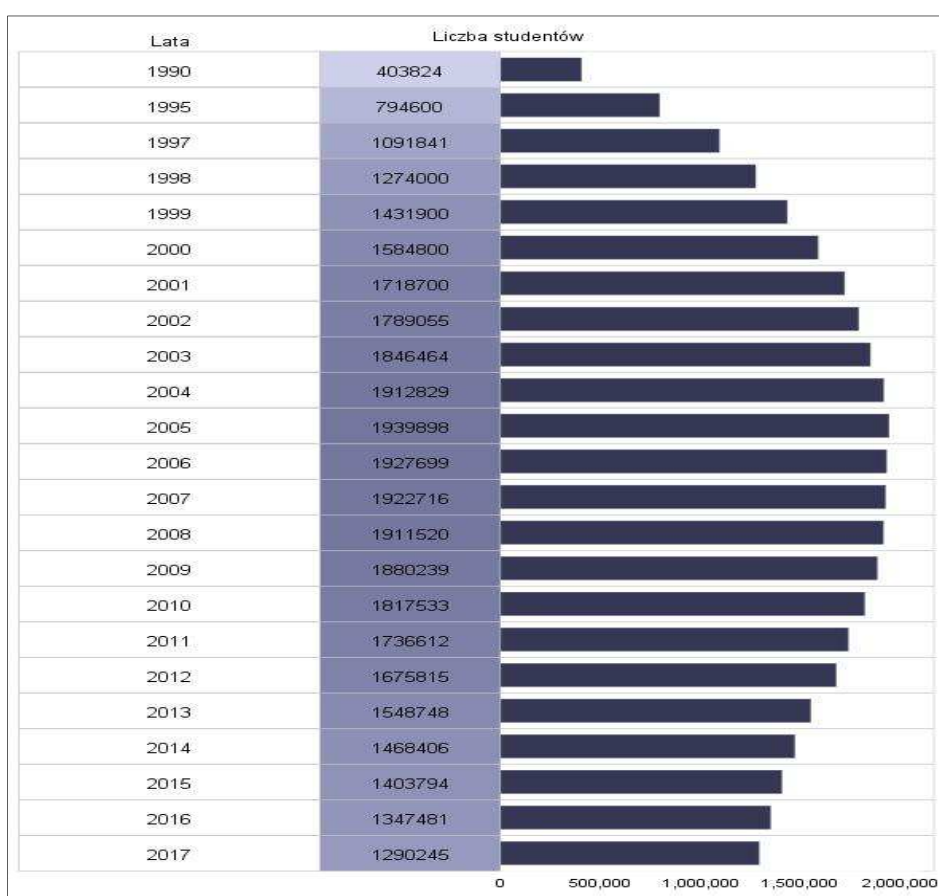


Chart 1. Number of students in years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

The dynamics of change can be clearly seen on the chart 2, which takes as one hundred percent the number of students in 1990.

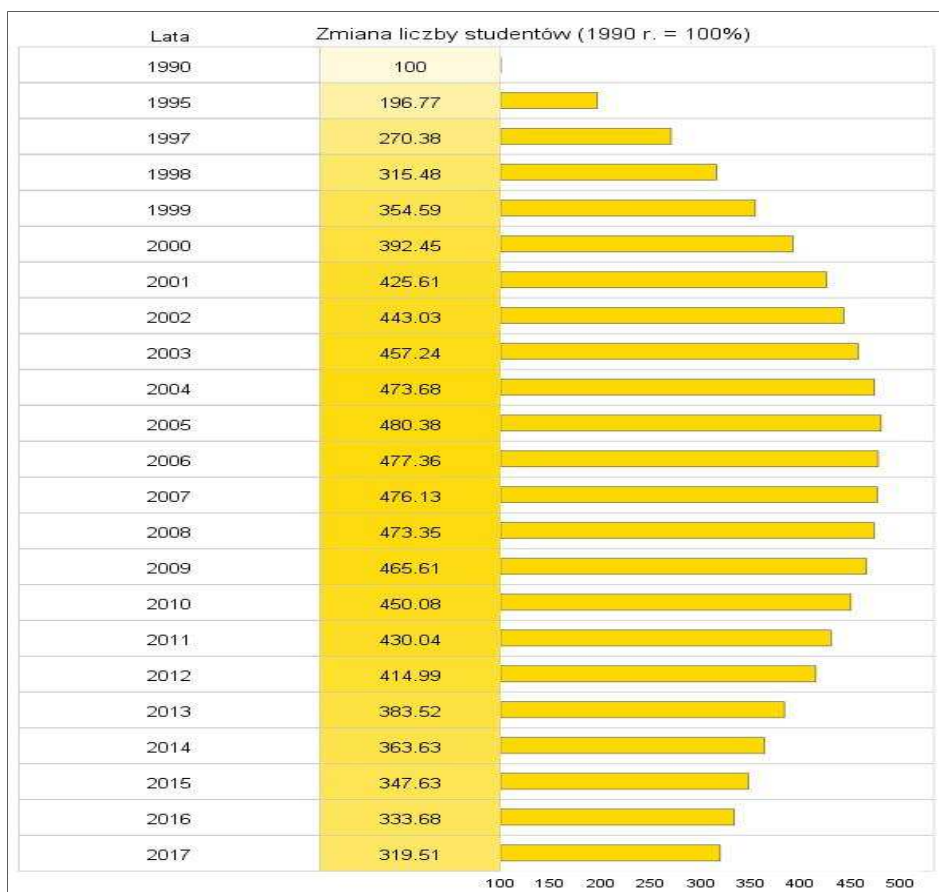


Chart 2. Dynamics of changes in the number of students in the years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

As can be observed, since 2001 the number of students has risen four times compared to 1990. Since 2011 we have noted a continuous and significant fall in the number of students. This was due, on the one hand, to the demographic low, which negatively affected the number of students, and to the saturation of the market in persons who complemented their education mainly through part-time studies.

This was related to the increased demand observed in the nineties of the twentieth century for higher education and a limited offer (number of places for students) of full-time (daytime) studies at public universities. The answer to this process was a significant increase in the number of persons who took part-time studies in public universities or in non-public higher education institutions.

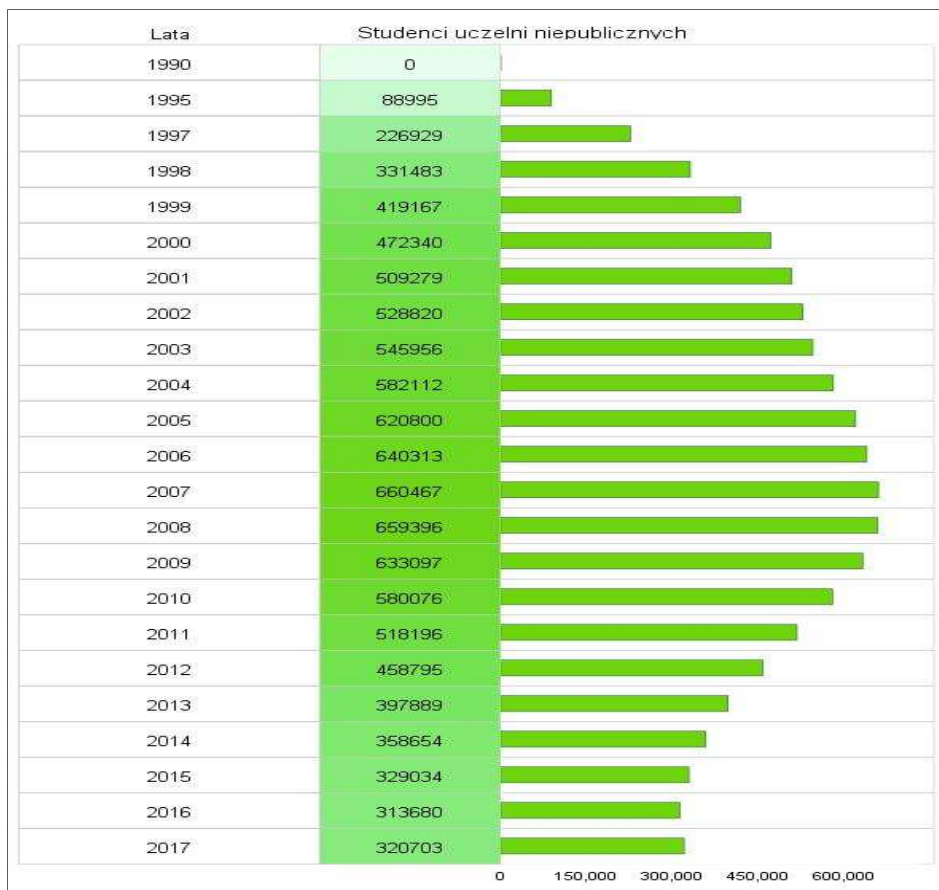


Chart 3. Number of students of non-public higher education institutions in years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

The number of students of non-public higher education institutions noted a dynamic growth. In 1990, there was no student at a non-public university as the first such a school was founded in August 1991. In 1995, the number of students of non-public universities was close to ninety thousand, and two years later it was already more than one hundred and thirty thousand bigger. At its peak – in 2006 the number of students of private universities amounted to 660 thous. people. Since 2010 we have observed a fairly rapid and continuous decline in the number of people choosing university studies in those higher education institutions. The current number of students in non-public higher education institutions is similar to the level in 1998.

In the years 1990–2017 the number of universities increased from 162 to 390. It should be noted that at the peak of the education boom the number of higher education institutions was between 460 – 2012.



Chart 4. Number of higher education institutions in years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

The dynamics of changes have been presented in the chart 5, which takes as a hundred percent the number of universities in 1990. In 2012, the number of universities hit the record high and exceeded by almost four hundred percent the value for the base year – 1990.

Polish society began to attribute great importance to education. This is shown by opinion polls, according to which the social assessment finds formal education an important determinant of successful career – one in three respondents (32%) considers it as one of the factors contributing to the success in this sphere of life (*Does Education matter?*, 2013). The attractiveness of higher education is also reflected in other opinion polls, in which potential educational aspirations of parents related to their children. The vast majority of the respondents would like their sons and daughters to graduate with at least a diploma in engineering, bachelor's or master's degree (84% -85%) (*Is education worth the investment?*, 2017). Assigning high value to education is also confirmed by the enrolment ratio, which

is a measure of popularity of education. The growth in the number of students and the number of universities was also accompanied by a significant increase in the gross enrolment ratio in higher education in Poland². In the last several years, the enrolment rates in higher education were more than quadrupled. The value of gross enrolment ratio in higher education in 1990 was 12.9, while in 2017 it reached 53.8, it was also the climax, where the ratio was the highest.

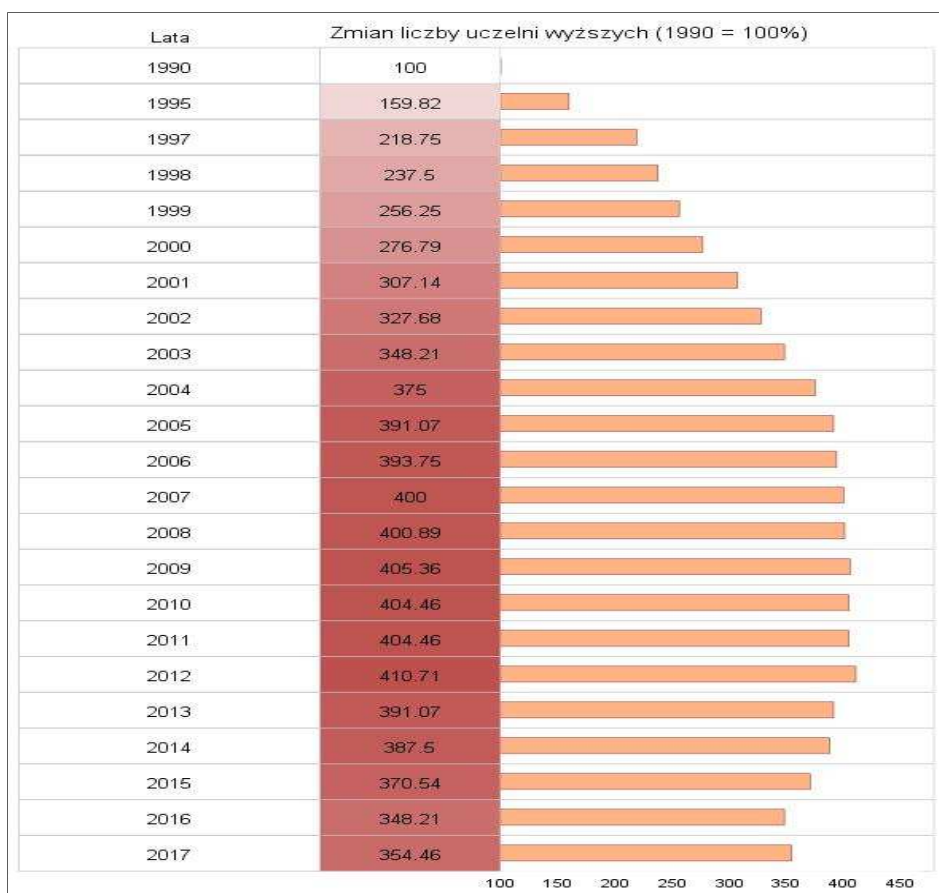


Chart 5. The dynamics of changes in the number of institutions of higher education in years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

² Gross enrolment ratio is the relation between the number of students (at the beginning of the school year) at a given level of education (regardless of age) to the population (as of 31 December) in the age group defined as corresponding to this level of education – in the case of higher education the nominal age of education is 19–24 years.

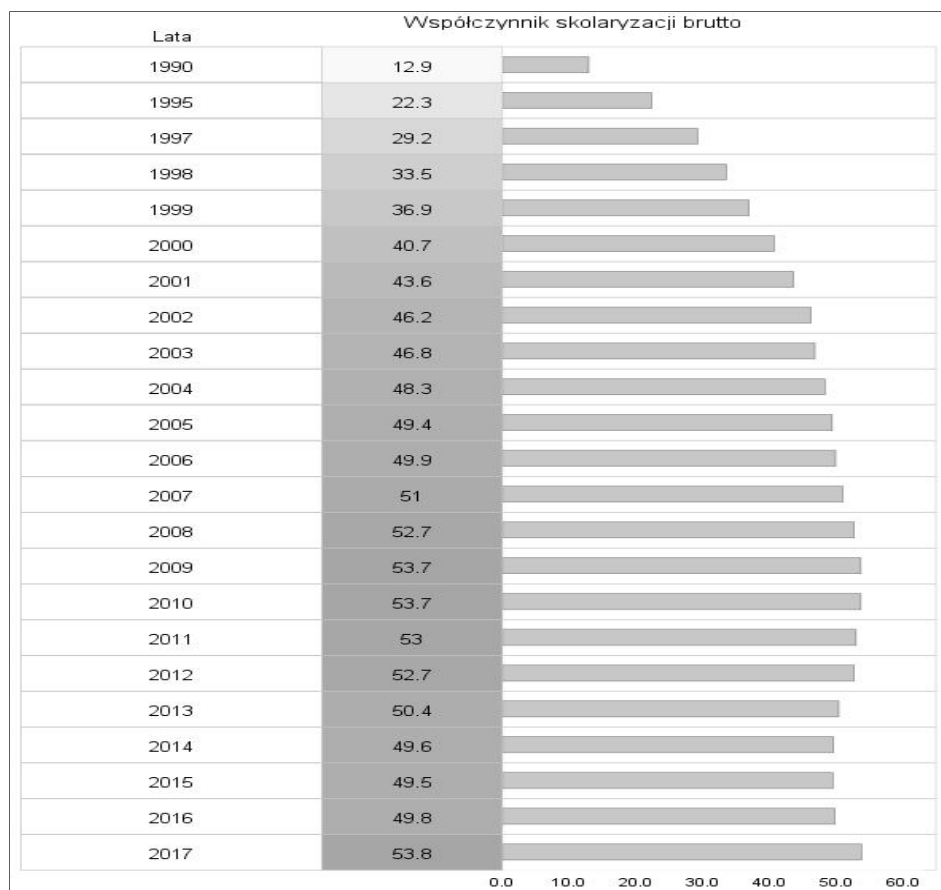


Chart 6. Gross enrolment ratio in years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

The increase in the number of students and universities was also connected with the increase in the number of people undertaking doctoral studies which, according to the Bologna Process principles, have become the next level of higher education (third-cycle studies), representing the continuation of studies after the Master's degree (second cycle). At the beginning of systemic transformation in the academic year 1990/1991 a total of 2,695 persons followed doctoral studies conducted by universities, research institutes, scientific institutions of the Polish Academy of Sciences and the Centre for Postgraduate Medical Education. More than a quarter of a century later, in the academic year 2017/2018 the participants of doctoral studies totalled 43,181 persons, which means more than a fifteen-fold increase compared to 1990.

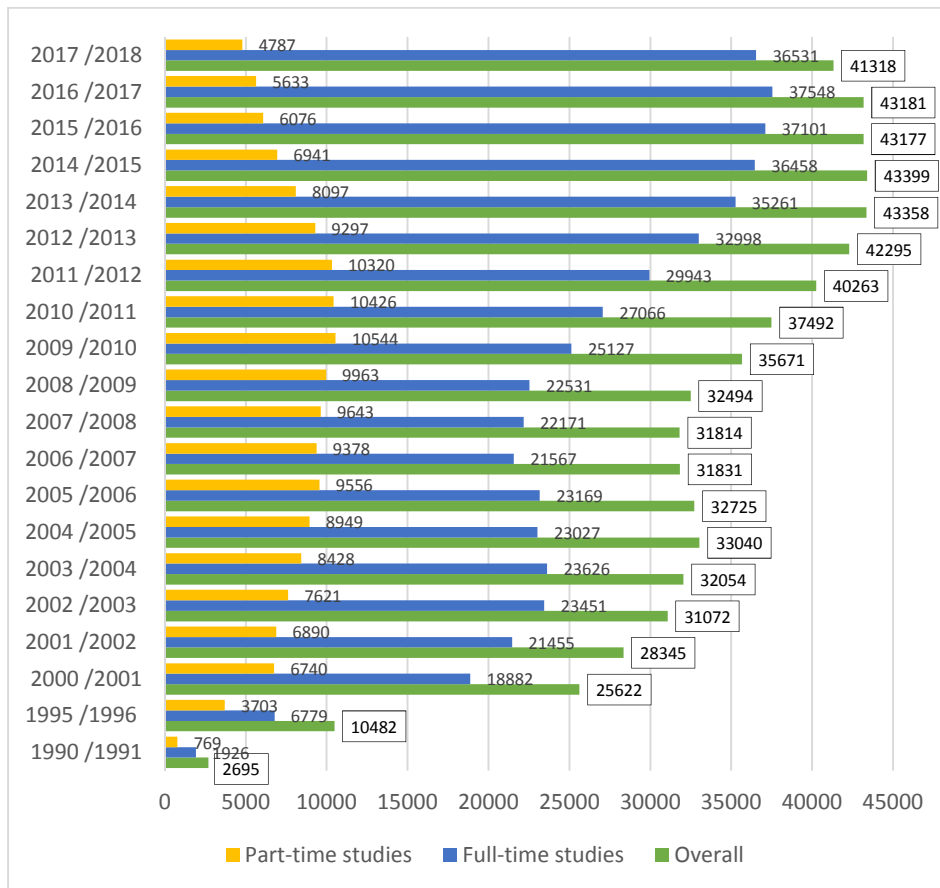
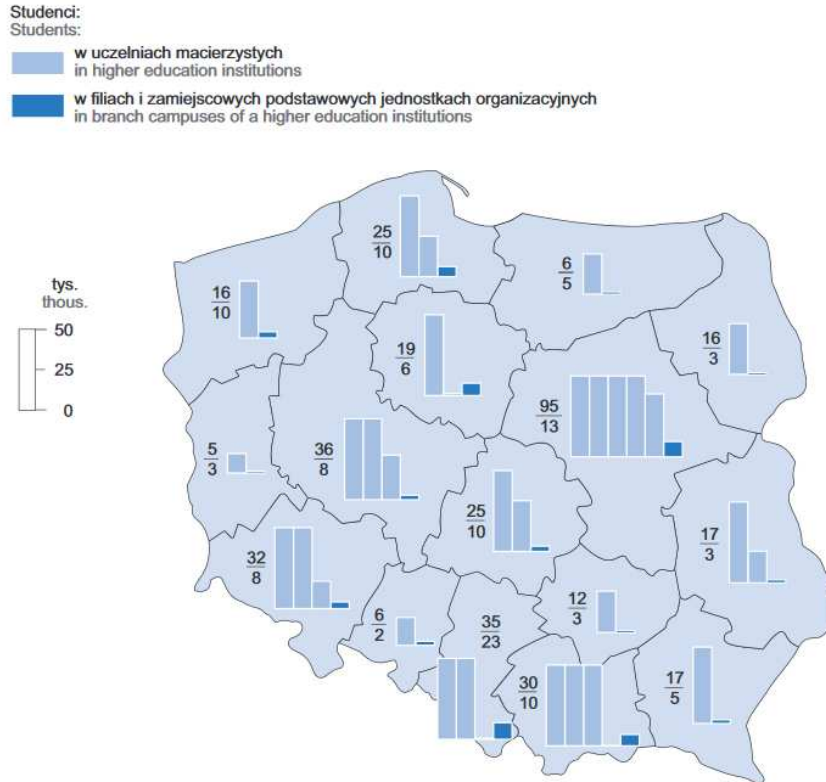


Chart 7. PhD students in the years 1990–2017

Source: own calculations based on the research Universities and their finances in 2017 (GUS, Warszawa 2018).

The process of massification of higher education varies spatially. The largest concentrations of universities and students are in the largest Polish cities. The most significant centre is Warsaw, which is definitely a cut above Krakow, Poznan and Wroclaw. It should be emphasized that in each province and its capital there is at least one university. Fig. 1 shows the spatial distribution of universities.



^a Bez szkół resortów obrony narodowej oraz spraw wewnętrznych i administracji; w podziale według województw zamiejscowe jednostki organizacyjne zostały wykazane w miejscu siedziby tych jednostek, z wyjątkiem zamiejscowych jednostek organizacyjnych działających za granicą, które zostały wykazane w miejscu siedziby uczelni macierzystej.

^a Without educational institutions of the Ministry of National Defence and Ministry of Interior and Administration; in the breakdown by provinces the field organizational units have been presented at the seat of these units, with the exception of the field organizational units operating abroad, which have been presented at the seat of the home university.

Fig. 1. Students by provinces in the academic year 2017/2018

Source: *Polish Statistical Yearbook 2018* (GUS, Warszawa 2018).

A very important consequence of the process of massification of higher education was a significant increase in the level of education of the Polish population. In light of the data of the National Population and Housing Census of 1988 the percentage of people with higher education was 6.9 per cent. According to Research Labour Force Survey (LFS) of the Central Statistical Office, the percentage of the population aged 15 and older with tertiary education in 2017 was 23.7 percent.



Chart 8. Percentage of persons with tertiary education in 2017

Source: own calculations based on data from BDL GUS.

4. SUMMARY

Changes in higher education and changes related to its popularisation were one of the clearest indicators of modernization of the Polish society of the late twentieth and early twenty-first century. The process of massification of higher education meant that nearly one quarter of Poles aged over 15 holds a higher education diploma. Over the last three years there has been noted, therefore, a nearly fourfold increase in the percentage of people with tertiary education. It should be noted that massification of higher education was accompanied by a new process of establishing of non-public higher education institutions. The increase in the student population is also to a large extent the result of the development of non-public education. In the years 1949–1989, Polish higher education system subjected

to a strong state control saw no significant, systemic transformations (Dybaś, Dziemianowicz-Bąk, Krawczyk-Radwan, Walczak, 2012). The reforms introduced after 1989 and the integration with the European Union resulted in the autonomy of the universities and a significant marketisation of higher education. Universities, and mostly private educational institutions, have become companies providing educational services. The rapid growth of interest in higher education translated into a quantitative increase in the number of students and universities. It also led to a lower prestige of higher education and a shift from the elitist nature of universities and studies.

Overeducation of the young generation is a visible phenomenon in Poland. In the conditions of overeducation of the society, the value of higher education is lowered. The main indicator of this phenomenon is high unemployment among university graduates and work below qualifications. Richard Freeman's observations about American society have also been seen in Poland since the beginning of the 21st century. In the conditions of overeducation, the following actions take place: young people change their choices from humanities to technical ones, more often young people graduate from bachelor's studies than master's studies, and competition in access to the best universities and prestigious positions begins (Freeman, 1976). The massification of higher education meant that the situation of people who completed university studies is the same as the situation of people with secondary education. Often, higher education acquired by students was not adequate to the demand for specific professions, dynamically changing Polish economy again and again (Rószkiewicz, 2009). It should be noted, however, that the benefits of higher education have an impact on the fact that people with higher education are more flexible on the labor market. They have the ability to be more mobile and easier to retrain than those with secondary education.

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CONSEQUENCES OF THE LIQUIDATION OF THE BANK ENFORCEMENT TITLE AND SOCIAL EXPECTATIONS

The subject of the article is an analysis of the regulation of the banking enforcement title in the provisions of Polish law, the reasons for its revocation by the Constitutional Tribunal in the judgment of 14.04.2015 and the use of new instruments by banks for the quick and effective recovery of claims from their clients. Considerations are conducted both in the context of the constitutional principle of equality and the principle of "equality of arms" between banks and their clients in court proceedings, as well as social expectations regarding the abolition of banking privileges. The article also analyzes the effects of the repeal on 07.11.2019 of the Article 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure which constitutes the basis for banks to obtain orders for payment in order for payment based on an excerpt from bank books signed by persons authorized to make statements regarding the property rights and obligations of the bank, which in practice constituted a kind of "new version" of the repealed banking enforcement title.

Keywords: enforcement banking privileges, banking enforcement title, order for payment, writ of payment order.

1. INTRODUCTION

The issuing of bank enforcement titles was one of the most important and at the same time the most controversial privilege that allowed banks to use the simplified procedure, as the debt recovery procedure from their clients was bypassed³. However, this put the client-debtor at a disadvantageous procedural situation, leading to an imbalance between him and the bank, which should be maintained as part of the civil law legal relationship between these two entities. For this reason, opponents of the b.e.t. – putting the need to protect the interests of bank customers first – pointed to the need to remove it from the provisions of the Banking Law (Janiak, 2003). Supporters of the b.e.t. argued that it allowed the bank as a so-called public trust institutions for quick and facilitated pursuit of their

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³ Bank enforcement title (hereinafter: b.e.t.).

claims in order to maintain, among others payment liquidity and ensure adequate protection of funds entrusted to it by depositors (see Kaszubowski, Tupaj-Cholewa, 2010; Fojcik-Mastalska, 2010; Janus, 2017).

Constitutional Tribunal several times (See: the judgment of the Constitutional Tribunal, 1995; the judgment of the Constitutional Tribunal, 2005; the order of the Constitutional Tribunal, 2005; see also: Kryński, 2007; Zapadka, Mikos-Sitek, 2009) analyzed the execution privilege under Art. 96–98 bank accountability (Act, 1997; hereinafter referred to as bank attorney). Among other things, in the judgment of 26 January 2005 (P 10/04, OTK-A 2005, No. 1, item 7) the Tribunal examined whether the right to issue bank enforcement titles is consistent with the constitution in the context of the right to court and the rule of law as well as protecting consumer rights. It considered then that the service by banks of the b.e.t. does not violate art. 45 item 1 in connection with art. 2 and art. 76 of the constitution. Moreover, the Constitutional Tribunal emphasized that the debtor before the uprising of b.e.t. may bring an action to establish the existence or non-existence of a legal relationship (Article 189 of the Code of Civil Procedure) (Act, 1964, hereinafter as the Code of Civil Procedure), while raising an objection of invalidity or ineffectiveness of the declaration submitted. However, after the enforcement clause has been granted, the debtor may defend his rights by: appealing to the court's decision to grant the enforcement clause (Civil Procedure Code Art.795), anti-enforcement action (Civil Procedure Code Art.840), an action for damages based on Art. 415 of the Civil Code in the event of damage caused to him as a result of instigating enforcement on the basis of an unlawfully issued title.

Despite such arguments of the Constitutional Tribunal and the statement that the privileged enforcement position of banks does not lead to a gross violation of consumers' interests, especially in the context of specific information obligations of banks when concluding contracts, the discussion on the need to remove the b.e.t. from the Polish legal order and more broadly equating the position of banks with the position of their clients.

At this point, it is worth mentioning the judgment of the Constitutional Tribunal of 15.03.2011 (Journal of Laws No. 72, item 388), in which the Constitutional Tribunal ruled that art. 95 paragraph 1 bank account in the wording given by the Act of June 26, 2009 amending the act on land and mortgage registers and some other acts (Act amending the act on books ..., 2009), in connection with art. 244 § 1 and art. 252 of the Act of 17.11.1964 – Code of Civil Procedure (consolidated text, Journal of Laws of 2018, item 1360 as amended), in the part in which it gives legal effect to an official document in the bank's accounting books and excerpts from the books bank accounts in relation to the rights and obligations arising from banking activities in civil proceedings conducted against the consumer – is not in accordance with art. 2, art. 32 section 1 first sentence and art. 76 of the Constitution. In implementing the provisions of this judgment, the Act of 12 April 2013 amending the provisions of the Banking Law and the provisions of the Investment Funds Act (Act, 2013; for more see Kurzępa-Dedo, Kurzępa, 2016) lifted one of the significant banking privileges classified as so-called enforcement privileges of banks (Kaszubowski, Tupaj-Cholewa, 2010), namely deprived the power of official documents of accounting books and excerpts from the bank's accounting books in civil proceedings. The above amendments to the Banking Law came into force on July 20, 2013 and were intended by the legislator to ensure "equality of arms" of the bank on the one hand and clients on the other as part of civil proceedings in accordance with the principle that no one could be considered a credible witness in their own case (*nullus idoneus testis in re sua intelligitur*). During the legislative work on the Act of 12/04/2013, a postulate was made to eliminate, in

addition to depriving of official power bank documents and securitization fund documents, at the same time eliminate another, functionally associated banking privilege – the bank enforcement title. At the time, this idea did not gain the approval of the majority in the Sejm and was rejected⁴.

The verdict of April 14, 2015 (P 45/12, OTK-A 2015/4/46), in which the Constitutional Tribunal stated that art. 96 section 1 and art. 97 paragraph 1 of the Act of 29 August 1997 Banking Law are incompatible with art. 32 section 1 of the Constitution and the principle of equality expressed in it. As a consequence of such a resolution, the above-mentioned provisions governing the bank enforcement title and the rules for issuing it lost its validity as of August 1, 2016.

The purpose of the article is to present the regulations of the b.e.t. in Polish law and a discussion of the effects of its removal from the Banking Law for banks as well as their clients, especially from the point of view of the *ratio legis* of such a solution declared by the legislator and social expectations in this respect. The hypothesis that the removal of the bank enforcement title will, as a rule, equalize the trial situation of bank customers will only be verified. In practice, banks to a much greater extent than until the date of the expiry of the binding force of the provisions of Art. 96–98 bank accountability used to pursue their claims, simplified proceedings, first of all writ proceedings, whose scope of protection of the debtor's rights is similar to the model for obtaining an enforcement clause for the b.e.t.

2. THE HISTORY OF THE BANK ENFORCEMENT TITLE IN POLISH LAW

The history of the bank enforcement title in Polish legislation dates back to the inter-war period, but then its subject and the scope were narrower compared to the institution's model resulting from post-war regulations. Pursuant to art. 87 of the Regulation of the President of the Republic of Poland of January 20, 1924 regarding the establishment of the statute for the issuing bank, the books of the Bank of Poland and other entries included in the bank's accounting and extracts thereof authenticated by the bank, had the probative value of public documents, and documents stating obligations with the bank's statement that the claim based on them is due and legally mature for enforcement, obtained the status of executory titles (consolidated text Journal of Laws of 1939, No. 46, item 296). An enforcement clause for these titles was granted by the competent town court according to the provisions of the then applicable Code of Civil Procedure (Act, 1930, art. 533 et seq.)

The enforcement privilege in question could also be used by banks with public funds allocated for the implementation of tasks commissioned by the state, inter alia in the scope of supporting certain entities. The aforementioned aid was mainly related to the removal of the effects of the great economic crisis and concerned only some of the real estate pledged as collateral for certain types of debt. For example, the Act of March 24, 1933. on facilities for credit institutions, granting debtors relief in respect of agricultural claims provided for the possibility for the Acceptance Bank to issue (for more on the activities of the Acceptance Bank see Morawski, 1996) enforcement titles without the need to obtain court enforcement clauses for them Act, 1933, art. 11 paragraph 1). On the other hand, in the regulation of the President of the Republic of Poland of October 21, 1932 on the execution of real estate enforcement by the State Agricultural Bank (Journal of Laws No. 91, item 769), the

⁴ See, among others, the statement by J. Żyzyński, a Law and Justice deputy at the meeting of the Sejm Public Finance Committee on April 17, 2013 (<http://orka.sejm.gov.pl/Zapisy7.nsf/wgskrn/FPB-161>; more broadly: Kurzępa, Kurzępa-Dedo, 2016)

simplified claims procedure was allowed only for the purpose of realizing the debt enforced in the first place by the Państwowy Bank Rolny (National Agricultural Bank) due to a loan granted in mortgage bonds or bonds of the bank, and State Treasury receivables belonging to the Agricultural Reform Fund for land sold for sale or granted for consideration (art. 2 sent. 1).

Banks after World War II gained much broader enforcement privileges, which was associated primarily with their special status as part of the command and distribution economy, including on the financing of the economic sectors assigned to them. For instance, in November 1949, the Municipal Bank financed local government, and in 1950 the Agricultural Bank responsible for credited agriculture and forestry (for more information: Białas, Mazur, 2016). In the wake of the role of the banking apparatus in this way, in creating the socialist economy, legislation has begun to equip banks with imperious forms of action in relation to the entities served (see Sura, 2016).

In the decree of 15 January 1945 on the National Bank of Poland (Journal of Laws No. 4, item 14), in Art. 40 the instruction was issued, according to which documents confirming the liabilities with the bank's statement that the claim based on them is enforceable and legally mature for enforcement, have the force of enforceable titles. In the bank reform decree of October 25, 1948 (Journal of Laws No. 52, item 412) all banks were authorized to use bank enforcement titles. Moreover, from the date of entry into force of the said decree, they did not have to be granted judicial enforcement clauses, and the execution itself was carried out at the bank's choice either in accordance with the provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure or in administrative enforcement. The institution of the banking enforcement title, and in principle the banking enforcement title in the subject and subject scope described was maintained in the provisions of the banking law: of April 13, 1960, of June 12, 1975, of February 26, 1982 and of 31 January 1989 (See Act, 1960, art. 21, section 2; Act, 1975, art. 16, section 2; Act, 1982, art. 94, section 2; Act, 1989, art. 53, paragraph 2).

In view of such a strong enforcement position of banks, the legislator, in order to strengthen the situation of the debtor, granted him in banking law – starting from the Act of 13 April 1960 – the possibility of bringing an action to discontinue all or part of the enforcement carried out by the bank on the basis of a bank enforcement title both in court and in administrative proceedings. The debtor could indicate in the grounds of his action: the absence of the enforced claim, its existence in an amount less than that pursued by the bank, or submit a counterclaim suitable for offsetting with a bank claim covered by the bank enforcement title. The claim could be secured, at the plaintiff's request, by suspending the enforcement proceedings (Banking Law of 1989, art. 53, section 4).

Bank enforcement titles were used by banks to pursue claims arising from their banking activities, the so-called *sensu stricto* (Articles 4 and 11 (1) of the then Banking Law) (Sikorski, 1997). However, they were not issued for any claims arising from banking activities classified as so-called *sense largo* (Judgment of the Supreme Court, 1995). In addition, it has been emphasized in the literature that a banking enforceable title can only issue a bank against its personal debtor (borrower, guarantor, guarantor), and not a material debtor (e.g. due to his establishing a mortgage or pledge) (Szpunar, 1995). In connection with the issuing on January 3, 1996 by the President of the Constitutional Tribunal, an announcement on the loss of binding force of Art. 53 section 2 of the Banking Law Act, it was not possible to issue a banking enforceable title against the debtor of a claim acquired

by transfer. The above rules for issuing banking writings were in force until January 1, 1998, which is the entry into force of the Banking Act of August 29, 1997.

3. ISSUING OF BANK ENFORCEMENT TITLES PURSUANT TO ART. 96–98 OF THE BANKING LAW

In accordance with art. 96 of the Banking Law of 29.08.1997, banks could issue bank enforcement titles, being a type of enforcement title, referred to in Art. 777 § 1 item 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure (CCP) (Act, 1964). They were based on the books of banks or other documents related to banking activities, of which – listed in art. 96 section 2 right bank – data had to be found in b.e.t. The lack of any of these elements resulted in the court rejecting the application for an enforcement clause b.e.t.

It should be noted that the bank enforcement title could only be issued by a bank, including a mortgage – to the extent that it was authorized to perform specific banking activities – and cooperative savings and credit unions, which issued the so-called executory titles (no longer in force in Article 29a) (Act on cooperative ..., 2009). The central bank did not have such competences (Act on cooperative ..., 2009; Kryński, 2000). A bank enforcement order may be issued only in respect of a claim arising from a banking act (Article 5 of the Banking Act) or used to secure a debt arising from such an act. Banking activities in connection with which the bank could issue a bank enforcement order were those listed in art. 5 paragraph 1 and 2 of the Banking Law (Resolution of the Supreme Court, 1999). The issue of the designation of a banking activity, on the basis of which the b.e.t. was issued, was subjected to the analysis of the Supreme Court (Gronkiewicz-Waltz, 2013), which in a resolution of 19 March 2010 found that the banking operation was established in the b.e.t. should be indicated in a way enabling its identification as a banking activity within the meaning of art. 5 right bank (III CZP 6/10, OSNC 2010, No. 9, item 120). It should also be emphasized that the bank enforcement title could not relate to the activities referred to in art. 6 of the Banking Law.

B.e.t. as a rule, facilitated the banks' recovery of overdue receivables from customers. A condition for initiating and carrying out enforcement by banks on the basis of b.e.t. was to grant the bank enforcement title, an enforcement clause only against a person who directly performed banking activities with the bank or was the debtor of the bank for securing the bank's receivables arising from banking operations, and also made a written declaration of submission to enforcement, and the claim under the title resulted directly from this banking activities (Marszałkowska-Krześ [ed.], 2017). It should also be noted that it was permissible to issue a bank enforcement order against a guarantor, also against a bill of exchange guarantor (Piasecki, 2015).

It should also be noted that pursuant to art. 97 of the Banking Law the b.e.t. could be provided with an enforcement clause only when the person against whom he was issued made a written statement (*ad probationem*) (Sikorski, 2019) on submission to enforcement and when the claim covered by the title resulted directly from this banking activity or its security. The statement specified the amount of debt (principal and incidental benefits e.g. interest, including for delay, costs, etc.), to which the bank may issue a bank enforcement order, and the date by which the bank may apply for an enforcement clause. Both elements of the statement indicated the maximum ratios because the bank could not issue the b.e.t. for an amount higher than stated in the statement, even if the debtor's actual debt was higher. As for the form of the declaration of submission to enforcement, it required a written form.

It could be included in the contract from which the claim arose, or it could be an independent document.

The clause proceeding regarding the granting of the bank enforcement title the enforcement clause was conducted according to art. 781¹ and then according to C.C.P. The repealed art. 97 paragraph 3 of the Banking Law like 781¹C.C.P. provided for a 3-day, instructional deadline for posting b.e.t. an enforcement clause from the date of submission of the application in this regard. Meeting this deadline was not a condition for the effectiveness of the enforcement clause (Piasecki, 2015). There is no doubt, however, that the time taken by the bank to obtain the writ of execution which constituted the basis for initiating enforcement proceedings was definitely shorter than in the case of payment being claimed by other creditor entities.

In initiating the clause proceedings, the bank was obliged to present, in addition to the bank enforcement title itself, also documents that justified its issuing. In accordance with art. 97 of the Banking Law they were: the debtor's declaration of submission to enforcement, documents showing the legal succession of the debtor) (Sikorski, 2019). As argued in the case-law, the failure to submit these documents could not be sanctioned pursuant to Article 130 of the Code of Civil Procedure, as they constituted the substantive basis of the application (Resolution of the Supreme Court, 2001).

As mentioned before, it was only giving the b.e.t. the enforcement clause made it the enforceable title constituting the basis for enforcement. It is worth noting that the clause procedure was not costly, comparing it with the payment procedure, in which the creditor must prove the existence and amount of the claim being pursued. In accordance with art. 77 section 1 point 3 of the Act of July 28, 2005 on court costs in civil matters, the fee that was charged in the clause proceedings was an office fee of PLN 6 for each started page of the issued document (Journal of Laws of 2019, item 785; amounts in the validity of the b.e.t. provisions). Currently, the fee is PLN 20. In a situation where the creditor wants the b.e.t to have the enforcement clause, he would be represented in the clause proceedings by a lawyer or a legal advisor, which in the case of banks usually took place, then he could demand from the debtor against whom the bank enforcement order was issued, the reimbursement of the costs of legal representation. The minimum rate on providing the enforcement order with an enforcement clause, in accordance with § 8 par. 1 point 14 of the Regulation of the Minister of Justice of October 22, 2015 (Journal of Laws of 2015, item 1800 as amended) amounted to PLN 120 (amounts during the validity of the provisions on the b.e.t.). Therefore, it should be noted that the initiation of the clause proceedings was beneficial in terms of the costs incurred not only for the creditor (these costs came down to the office fee in the above-mentioned amount), but also for the debtor. It is true that he was not able to participate in such proceedings due to the fact that it was conducted in closed mode and on the decision on the provision of the enforcement order with an enforcement clause, he was not entitled to complain, but the possible costs of the clause proceedings, which the creditor could recover from the debtor, they were certainly lower than in the case of standard payment proceedings (also in a prescriptive and admonition procedure), in which the fee for a lawsuit constituted in principle 5% of the value of the subject of the dispute, and the minimum rate in the scope of lawyers' fees also depended on the amount claimed in the lawsuit. Considering the overdue amounts that banks usually demand from their clients, it should be estimated that the costs of a possible legal representation should be estimated at amounts several or several dozen times higher than in the case of clause proceedings. The ruling on the costs related to the procedure for granting an enforcement clause, contained

in the content of this clause, constituted an enforceable title entitling them to download them (Resolution of the Supreme Court, 1974).

The bank enforcement title was provided with an enforcement clause in closed session by way of a decision on which a complaint could be lodged. According to art. 795 paragraph 2 CCP the deadline for lodging a complaint ran for the creditor from the date of issuing him the writ of execution or notifying him of the creation of the writ of execution in the ICT system or from the day of announcing the refusal, and when the announcement was not – from the day of delivery of that order. For the debtor, this period ran from the date of delivery of the notification of the initiation of enforcement. It is clear from the above provision that the debtor's ability to question the legitimacy of giving b.e.t. the enforcement clause, unlike the creditor, i.e. the bank, could only take place after the initiation of enforcement proceedings and did not stop the proceedings in any way (see Janas, 2013)⁵. It is argued in the doctrine that, in a complaint against a decision granting an enforcement clause, substantive objections as to the existence and scope of the debtor's obligations or creditor's rights cannot be raised. Thus, the debtor's substantive defense was only made possible by an anti-enforcement action (Zedler, 1995; Pietrkowski, 2009). By way of complaint, formal defects committed by the court in the course of proceedings for granting an enforcement clause should be combated (Resolution of the Supreme Court, 1985; Zieliński [ed.], 2012).

While the clause proceedings are not very costly proceedings from the point of view of both the creditor and the debtor, it prevented the debtor of the bank from undertaking substantive questioning issued by the bank b.e.t.

Valid provision of the b.e.t. enforcement clause, in turn, made it possible to initiate enforcement proceedings which, without submitting the enforceable title, could not be initiated. It constituted the last stage in the procedure of the bank's recovery of overdue receivables, under which the legal norms specified in the enforceable title were enforced (Zieliński [ed.], 2012), but on the other hand it created the possibility for the debtor to change the enforceable title, i.e. in the course of an anticompetitive action. It is worth adding that anti-enforcement actions are subject to a court fee of 5% of the value of the subject matter of the dispute, which in an action for deprivation of enforceability is the challenged amount established by an enforceable title.

Liquidation of the b.e.t. occurred on the basis of the provisions of the Act of 25 September 2015 amending the Banking Act and some other acts (Journal of Laws of 2015, item 1854), which is the implementation of the Constitutional Tribunal's judgment of April 14, 2015 (reference number P 45/12) recognizing the contradiction of bank enforcement titles to Art. 32 section 1 of the Constitution.

In the justification of the judgment, the Constitutional Tribunal decided that the possibility of using the b.e.t. in the event of a contractual relationship between customers and banks, which by its very nature is characterized by the equivalence of parties, places banks (private business entities) in a privileged position. This, in turn, contradicts the essence of a private law relationship, whose characteristic feature is, among others parity in the scope of the possibility of defending one's rights (Sura, 2016).

In addition, in the opinion of the Constitutional Tribunal, the bank is therefore a judge in its own case (*iudex in causa sua*) and *de facto* the subject of justice, which, according to

⁵ The author analyzes the procedure for granting an enforcement clause b.e.t. in the context of exercising the right to court.

art. 175 of the Constitution are exercised exclusively by the courts the b.e.t. also violates the principle of equality in relations between banks as creditors and other entities that are creditors that do not have such enforcement privileges. The institution of the b.e.t. in the end, it violates the principle of equality in relations between bank debtors and debtors of other entities (For different information see, i.a., Janus, 2017).

Pursuant to the abovementioned CT judgment, the provisions of the Banking Law Act regarding banking enforcement titles were to expire on August 1, 2016, unless the legislator decides to eliminate unconstitutional provisions from legal circulation earlier. The bank enforcement title was completely eliminated from the legal system earlier. The Act of 25 September 2015 repealing the provisions on the b.e.t. entered into force on 27 November 2015, repealing Art. 96–98 bank accountability. The legislator justified the reduction of *vacatio legis*, among others by the fact that "after the Constitutional Tribunal's judgment, there will be an increased issuance by BTE banks in all possible matters subject to recovery" (from the justification to the Act of 25 September 2015 amending the Banking Law Act and some other acts). However, according to art. 11 paragraph 1 of the aforementioned Act, proceedings on granting an enforcement clause to the bank enforcement title initiated and not completed before its entry into force were subject to discontinuation. If, however, before the date of entry into force of this Act, a decision was issued regarding the granting of an enforcement clause to the bank enforcement title, further proceedings regarding the granting of the enforcement clause were conducted in accordance with the provisions on the b.e.t. (Article 11 (2))

4. BANKS CLAIMS AFTER THE REPEAL OF BANK ENFORCEMENT TITLES

The repeal of the bank enforcement order laws put banks in a difficult position. They lost the tool for automatic enforcement of overdue receivables, their position as creditor was weakened and finally they were forced to use other procedures for enforcing overdue receivables from even concluded loan agreements, which would guarantee optimal protection of banks' interests. Therefore, the possibility of making the conclusion of the contract between the bank and the debtor dependent on the debtor's submission to enforcement by means of a notarial deed (Article 777 § 1 item 5 of the Code of Civil Procedure), as well as pursuing claims under the order for payment procedure (and on the basis of non-binding on November 7, 2019, Article 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure)⁶.

Anyway, for such a possible consequence of the liquidation of b.e.t. pointed out the vice president of the Polish Bank Association – Jerzy Bańka, saying that "this regulatory change hits customers – paradoxically not those who take out a loan knowing immediately that they do not intend to repay them, but in those who do not repay loans for various reasons random. The main instrument that will serve to accelerate and ensure the efficiency of bank recovery is the practice of borrowers issuing blank promissory notes for low-value loans. In the case of mortgage loans and corporate loans, banks will use declarations of submission to enforcement by means of a notarial deed. This will result in additional costs (<https://www.pb.pl/zbp-ostrega-przed-Skutkom-likwidacji-bankowego-tytulu-egzekuczego-790592>).

⁶ Article 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure was repealed by art. 1 point 176 lit. c of the Act of 4 July 2019 amending the Act – Code of Civil Procedure and certain other acts (Journal of Laws of 2019, item 1469) on November 7, 2019.

There is no doubt that the procedural situation of the bank and the debtor in the event of submission of the latter enforcement by a notarial deed is in principle similar to the case of the b.e.t. but with the difference that the bank's clients will be obliged to bear the costs of preparing such a notarial deed. After the court grants an enforcement clause, a notarial deed in which the bank's debtor surrendered to enforcement becomes an enforceable title and the basis for initiating enforcement proceedings.

Banks more often used the option of initiating an order for payment procedure pursuant to art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure, repealed on November 7, 2019. The increase in the number of such proceedings was, of course, caused by the repeal of the b.e.t. and the need to use the fastest possible solutions for redress from bank customers. Pursuant to art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure the court issued an order for payment, if the bank sought claims based on an excerpt from the bank books signed by persons authorized to make statements regarding the property rights and obligations of the bank and the bank's seal, and proof of delivery to the debtor of a written request for payment. The increase in interest of banks in this form of debt collection, which is unfavorable from the point of view of bank customers' interests, was pointed out by the Ombudsman in his letter to the President of Polish Banks, while raising the lack of justification in further abolishing the privilege of bank claims (see the letter of Ombudsman Adam Bodnar to Krzysztof Pietraszkiewicz, President of the Polish Bank Association).

It should be noted that in accordance with art. 95 paragraph 1 of the Banking Law, bank accounts and statements based on them and other statements signed by persons authorized to make statements regarding the property rights and obligations of banks and bearing the bank's seal, as well as receipts of receivables prepared in this way have the legal force of official documents with regard to the rights and obligations arising from banking activities and collateral established for the bank and may constitute the basis for making entries in the land and mortgage registers. In turn, in accordance with paragraph 1a of the aforementioned Act, the legal force of official documents referred to in par. 1 shall not apply to documents listed in this provision in civil proceedings. For this reason, the Ombudsman also postulated that the provision of art. Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

The bank's initiation of the order for payment procedure (most often resulting from the bank's client's failure to perform a credit agreement) should start with a judicial summons for payment. Such a request includes, in particular, an indication of the basis for the claim (in this case, a specific loan agreement), presentation and documentation of the circumstances of the debtor's delay, the amount of the main benefit and the incidental benefit, and an indication of the time limit for meeting the claim.

The abovementioned tender procedure is standard in all such legal disputes, especially taking into account the amendment to the provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure as regards strengthening the principle of amicable dispute resolution (Act on the amendment of certain acts in connection..., 2015). It should be noted that pursuant to art. 187 § 1 item 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure a claim to court should include information as to whether the parties have attempted mediation or other out-of-court resolution of the dispute, and if such attempts have not been made, an explanation of the reasons for not taking it.

If the debtor fails to perform the payment due to the bank despite the superstitious request for payment, it becomes necessary to initiate court proceedings, i.e. the creditor-bank submits a claim for payment, usually under the order for payment procedure. The application should comply with the general requirements specified in art. 187 of the Code of Civil Procedure Until November 7, 2019, it also included an excerpt from the bank books

attached to it containing the elements listed enumerated in art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure. Such an extract constituted evidence of the defendant's delay in payment and determined the amount of benefit due. In addition, the plaintiff was obliged to pay a court fee on the claim, which in the case of proceedings for property rights (and this category of cases is undoubtedly the case for payment) is determined according to the value of the subject of dispute or the value of the subject of the appeal, and at the value of the subject of the dispute or the value of the subject of appeals over PLN 20,000, a relative fee of 5% of this value is collected from the letter, but no more than PLN 200,000 (Act, 2005, art. 13). On the other hand, a fourth part of the fee is collected from an action in an order for payment, while three quarters of the fee is collected from a defendant in the event of an objection to a payment order issued in an order for payment (Article 19, paragraphs 2 and 4), and the fee cannot amount less than PLN 30 (Article 20, paragraph 1). In the event of an order for payment being issued in the order for payment procedure, it was served along with the lawsuit of the defendant, who within two weeks from the date of delivery could file charges against the order for payment (non-binding Article 491 § 1 of the Code of Civil Procedure). The essence of the order for payment issued under the order for payment procedure was that at the time of issue it was a title of security, enforceable without giving it an enforcement clause (Article 492 § 1 of the Code of Civil Procedure). This enforcement takes place by way of judicial enforcement or other means. In the first case, the provisions on enforcement proceedings apply, respectively, to the provision of security, while in the second case – provisions regarding this method (Civil Procedure Code Art.743). Non-enforcement of the order for payment as a security may consist in the debtor depositing the adjudicated amount with interest at the creditor's request on the deposit account of the Minister of Finance. The same applies to the submission to the court deposit of an amount equal to the value of the subject of the dispute, if the order obliges to release replacement items (Marciniak, Piasecki [ed.], 2016). Submission of charges by the defendant within a statutory period of 14 days resulted in the case being referred to a hearing, and the court then examined it either on the basis of general provisions or possibly in a simplified procedure. It should be noted that the lodging of the charges did not cause the payment order to lose its force. Only after the evidentiary proceedings were completed, in the judgment issued, the order for payment, in whole or in part, was the court upholding or repealing it and ruling on demanding the claim, or by order repealing the order for payment and rejecting the lawsuit or discontinuing the proceedings (non-binding Article 496 of the Code of Civil Procedure).

In the literature on the subject, they were raised in 2017 after the repeal of the b.e.t. suggestions that in the event of depriving the banking books of the power of bank documents, Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure he lost his *raison d'être* and therefore it must be set aside (Jasiecki, 2017). It was emphasized that further functioning in the legal market of the possibility of obtaining an order for payment on the basis of an excerpt from bank books unjustifiably privileges the claimant who obtains the enforcement order on the basis of a private document issued by him. There is no doubt that the basis of the claim submitted under the repealed art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure only on excerpts from bank books, it generally abolished the need to prove the existence of a claim on the basis of other documents, e.g. a contract concluded with the defendant, its termination or a request for payment. In principle, the issuing of an order for payment by the court in this mode was possible after the presentation of a private document, without the bank having to prove the basis of the claim, which unreasonably led to privileged banks. A similar position

regarding the legitimacy of the regulation specified under Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure was taken by the Ombudsman, who in his letter of 27 January 2017 addressed to the Minister of Justice indicated that after the judgment of the Constitutional Tribunal of 14 April 2015, which questioned the constitutionality of the provisions constituting the basis for issuing bank enforcement titles, art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure it has become an instrument enabling banks to quickly bring lawsuits based on excerpts from bank books that can be heard by a court in order proceedings⁷.

As for the change that followed the amendment to art. 95 Banking Law, it should be noted that, although it theoretically led to the equalization of the procedural situation of banks and its debtors, it was still possible for the creditor bank to obtain a court decision regarding the claim being pursued in a faster order procedure, in the event that the creditor bank had no document with the status of an official document but a private document. Numerous criticisms of art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure led to action to repeal it. A government bill was amended to amend the Code of Civil Procedure Act and certain other acts of November 27, 2017, which provided, inter alia, repeal of art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure (<https://legislacja.rcl.gov.pl/docs//2/12305652/12474240/12474241/>). The proposed change was positively opinioned by the Legislative Council, which in its opinion of February 8, 2018 argued that "the proposal to eliminate the possibility of issuing an order for a bank claiming claims based on banking books deserves acceptance because it eliminates the privilege of banks over others creditors that may be qualified as contrary to art. 32 of the Constitution. It should be recalled that in the judgment of 14 April 2015 the Constitutional Tribunal recognized that art. 96 section 1 and art. 97 paragraph 1 bank account not in accordance with art. 32 of the Constitution. The arguments cited in this judgment are also valid regarding the bank privilege provided for in art. 485 and therefore the proposal to repeal Art. 485 § 3 "(<https://radalegislacyjna.gov.pl>).

In turn, the opinion prepared by prof. Andrzej Jakubecki, commissioned by the Center for Research, Studies and Legislation of the National Council of Legal Advisers on a draft act amending the Act - Code of Civil Procedure and some other acts (draft of November 27, 2017) of February 26, 2018, was different from the Council Legislative position regarding the repeal of Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure. In this opinion, it was stated that the repeal of the provision which recognized the existence of an excerpt from bank books as the basis for issuing an order for payment in order proceedings (Article 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure) would cause the costs of the process of awarding a benefit to the bank to increase dramatically. Professor A. Jakubecki argued this view as follows: "I am not enthusiastic about this regulation, but with its repeal there is a potential risk that these costs will be passed on to the bank's contractors. A lost trial will result in the defendant being ordered to pay the costs and they will be higher than they would be in the order

⁷ According to the position of the Ombudsman, "the Ombudsman doubted the constitutionality of the regulations of art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure and unjustified differentiation of the procedural situation of a professional entity, which is a bank, in relation to the defendant consumer by granting the possibility of pursuing bank debts in order proceedings. In the Ombudsman's view, the preference for bank claims in writ proceedings leads to an imbalance in the process to the detriment of the weaker party, i.e. the defendant consumer. Meanwhile, in the current law, there are no grounds to maintain special rights with respect to banks in civil proceedings "(<http://www.sprawny-generalne.brpo.gov.pl/yszneoly.php?pismo=957722&sygnatura=V.510.5.2017>).

proceedings. In addition, banks will compensate for the risk related to pursuing claims against counterparties by increasing the amount of fees for their activities. This change will have adverse consequences, unless the banks modify their policy and in any case require the debtor to issue a promissory note or notarial submission to enforcement”(<http://obsil.pl/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/Opinia-z-26-February-2018-R-to-design-MS-KPC.pdf>).

Taking the above position into account, it should be noted that the collateral for the performance of the loan agreement by the bank issuing a promissory note (usually in a blank form) is also associated with court order proceedings (Article 485 § 2 of the Code of Civil Procedure). The legal nature of the bill of exchange makes this way of securing the debt relationship a relatively risky tool. In addition, it should be noted that pursuant to art. 492 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure the payment order issued on the basis of a bill of exchange, warrant, reverse or check becomes immediately enforceable after the time limit for settling the claim has expired. In the event of an objection, the court may, at the defendant's request, suspend execution of the order. This is undoubtedly a more disadvantageous solution for the bank's debtor than the order-making procedure in which the payment order is issued on the basis of an excerpt from bank books. In the case of a promissory note, immediate enforceability of the order for payment results from the force of law. Immediate enforceability means that the order for payment is fit for enforcement by way of judicial enforcement, regardless of its validity.

The aforementioned Act of 4 July 2019 amending the Code of Civil Procedure and some other acts of Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure was repealed. In support of eliminating art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure it was raised *inter alia* that:

"In the current legal status, among the evidence that may constitute the basis for issuing an order for payment, an order for payment in the order proceedings still includes an extract from the bank books signed by persons authorized to make statements regarding the property rights and obligations of the bank and stamped with the bank's seal. In this way, the bank's right to obtain an enforceable title on the basis of its own private document is maintained. A similar situation with regard to the banking enforcement title was declared unconstitutional by the Constitutional Tribunal in the judgment of April 14, 2015 in case P 45/12. Acknowledging the validity of the argumentation which gave rise to this decision and which *mutatis mutandis* also applies to the privilege of a banking document, this exceptional right should be abolished by repealing Art. 485 § 3" (Justification to the draft act of 4 July 2019).

5. CONCLUSIONS

There is no doubt that the Constitutional Tribunal's judgment of September 25, 2015 has satisfied the public's expectations regarding the liquidation of bank enforcement privileges. However, despite the repeal of the b.e.t. it has formally deprived the creditor banks of an instrument that significantly simplifies the pursuit of claims from clients, and is in conflict with the principle of "equality of arms" in the dispute between the parties to the obligation relationship, but this did not lead to a real improvement in the procedural situation of the debtors themselves. Banks use other, normatively specified instruments, which – as noted in the above considerations – are relatively similar in terms of their structure to a banking enforcement title (e.g. a declaration of submission to enforcement in a notarial deed) or involve more serious bank debtors consequences, in particular in the financial sphere

(pursuing claims under the order for payment procedure, in particular from a promissory note)⁸.

Considering the opinion of bank representatives, it should be stated that the liquidation of the bank enforcement title did not significantly affect the effectiveness of pursuing claims from bank debtors by November 7, 2019, i.e. repealing Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure constituting the basis for obtaining payment orders by banks. Moreover, there was no significant increase in the cost of loans, nor did the interest of clients of this type of contracts in banks decrease. Therefore, opinions are justified that the total liquidation of the b.e.t. it may have been carried out too hastily. In the literature, there were proposals to introduce "improvements" to this enforcement instrument by, among others the obligation to serve the decisions granting an enforcement clause b.t.e. and the debtor's ability to appeal against it within seven days (See more: Janus, 2017).

Disturbing, from the point of view of procedural equality of the parties, was the abuse by banks as a substitute for the b.e.t. payment orders obtained under the repealed art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure, which was indicated by, among others Ombudsman. In this context, it can be forecast that after repealing on November 7, 2019, Art. 485 § 3 of the Code of Civil Procedure perhaps, apart from payment orders "in the ordinary manner", bills of exchange will become the main form of securing the interests of banks, which, due to the abstract nature of the bill of exchange obligation, will definitely have a negative impact on the situation of bank debtors.

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⁸ The cost of issuing a promissory note as security for claims under a loan agreement is not higher than the cost of issuing a bank enforcement order. These costs may possibly increase if the bank's client submits a declaration of submission to enforcement in a notarial deed (Article 777 § 1 item 5 of the Code of Civil Procedure). The notary tax in this case depends on the amount covered by such a declaration (e.g. in the case of an amount between PLN 30,000 and PLN 60,000, it will be a maximum amount of PLN 710 + 1% from the surplus above PLN 30,000). It should be remembered, however, that this is the maximum fee, rarely required by notaries. In addition, as representatives of banks point out, contrary to earlier predictions, the declaration of submission to enforcement by means of a notarial deed has not yet become a common tool for securing the interests of banks. On the other hand, interest in bills of exchange increased, often issued when credit agreements were concluded that involve large amounts, usually above PLN 100,000.

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ISSUES OF BRAND CAPITAL LOSS RISK ANALYSIS

The article describes issues accompanying the analysis of the risk of brand capital loss resulting from risk assessment and the specificity of the subject of assessment. It was proposed to adopt a definition of risk as a feature of a situation in which it is possible to quantify threats. The research focused on considerations regarding possible approaches for a measurable indicator for the assessment of the level of risk based on conditions of relative market balance and lack of global threats to the industry of a given brand. The article proposed to modify the customer life-time value indicator to estimate the expected value of the customer's loss, as one of the indicators of brand capital loss. An example was provided showing the possibility of using a simplified customer decision model based on Markov processes to estimate changes in the probability of losing a customer over time.

Keywords: brand, brand capital, risk, risk analysis.

1. INTRODUCTION

A brand is like trust in business, it facilitates a lot of things. This concise comparison explains the observed, dynamic development of knowledge concerning the building, measuring and managing brand capital. However, this phenomenon would not really exist if it was not for the measurable effects of return on marketing investments. The search for selected offerings in source literature devoted to marketing issues made it possible to notice that understanding the need to successively increase the brand capital has slightly dominated the concern for its loss – it is difficult to find examples of literature devoted to the risk of losing brand capital.

A general, comprehensive method of brand capital assessment was also not found. Perhaps this is because in multi-criteria assessments it is extremely important and difficult to estimate the right relations between the criteria, which correspond to the needs of the evaluator. Moreover, the ability to make an expert diagnosis of the current state of a brand capital, on the basis of many economic indicators and the results of broadly understood marketing research, is just the easiest condition to meet, needed to forecast its change in the long term. This leads to the assumption that the majority of problems in analysing the risk of losing brand capital are related to the selection of measurable indicators allowing for risk evaluation. The signalled state of affairs leads us to take a specific risk of making a judgement on a few reflections and observations regarding the observed problems within the discussed potential scientific exploration area.

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The aim of this article was to identify, describe and explain, the essence of selected problems of risk analysis, related to the possibility of losing the positive effects for the brand owner resulting from its possession, and to discuss proposals for general possibilities of overcoming selected, noticed difficulties at this stage of risk management. The considerations were limited to a relatively stable market situation². The emergence of “external” threats destabilising the brand-specific industry, such as e.g. new inventions and technological innovations triggering revolutionary changes in customers’ needs, creates a situation in which, in practice, it is sufficient to identify threats to the loss of brand capital without a quantitative, comprehensive assessment of the risk this phenomenon entails (as this risk is usually unacceptable). The analysis of such situations also goes beyond the subject matter of this article.

It has been noted that many important problems in the analysis of this risk concern methodological, axiological and even ontological aspects (here e.g. related to the difficulty of determining the ontological existence of a risk definition), as well as arise from the specificity of the brand itself and the loss of brand capital.

2. BRAND, ITS FUNCTIONS AND CAPITAL

A brand, in essence, is a company sign – a graphic symbol or a trade mark – recognised on the market, allowing to identify a producer, service provider or seller (owner). In a broader sense, it can be treated as a mental shortcut referring directly to the image of the brand owner. A successful form of a graphic sign associated with a given brand is usually a catalyst for building this positive image. A strong brand, representing an owner whose image is consistent with reality and sufficiently recognisable, may perform several more important, positive functions, understood as an objective effect of its presence on the market. The following functions of the brand can be mentioned here:

- protective – safeguarding against imitation or counterfeiting of a legally protected trademark;
- informational – informing about the origin of the product and its consumer's membership in the group of the brand products users;
- emotional – being a source of personal satisfaction of the consumer derived from possession;
- promotional – it is an element of brand promotion itself, through the presence of a graphic sign in public space;
- guarantee – informing about the guaranteed, potential product quality;
- limiting the buyer's risk – increasing the sense of certainty of choice made by the buyer in the most often multi-criteria product assessment;
- limiting the risk of the brand owner – consumer loyalty to the brand allows to limit the risks of market functioning (e.g. investment decisions taken);
- added value – allows to obtain an inflated, market-acceptable sales price of products (services), limit expenditure on their promotion.

The quality of these functions is an indicator of the brand's strength and represents a contractual value for both the owner and the consumer. The difference in the marketing

² Market stability is understood here as the ability to return to the balance lost as a result of disturbances. This stability is an important assumption as it allows to identify probability distributions characterising market phenomena using statistical tools.

behaviour of the customer caused by the perception of the brand is called customer-based brand capital. The basic components of this capital are “(1) the differentiating effect, (2) brand awareness, (3) consumer response to marketing. They set out the general direction of its construction” (Keller, 2015).

Diversified characters of brands and the multifaceted nature of their functions cause the phenomenon of loss of brand capital to be understood ambiguously. For the purposes of the considerations being the content of this article, it has been assumed that the loss of a brand capital is a market phenomenon, connected with the disturbance of its functioning on the market in aspects of many of the above mentioned functions, and sometimes with the reversal of their positive perception (e.g. an auto-advertising may become an anti-advertisement), which in consequence is connected with the loss of a brand capital and losses for its owner. However, due to the assumed generality of considerations, it is also assumed that the degree of weakening of the brand capital and the related extent of losses can be assessed by an owner according to subjective criteria. The source literature offers descriptions of a number of methods for measuring the results of a brand capital, allowing to indirectly deduce its strength, but as Kelvin L. Keller (2015) claims, a comprehensive, quantitative method of evaluating this capital using a single indicator has not yet been developed.

3. RISK ESSENCE AND RISK ANALYSIS, SELECTED AUTOGENOUS RISK ANALYSIS PROBLEMS

Risk management is already a common practice in almost every company wishing to meet ISO standards (e.g. PN-ISO 31000:2018-08). In the light of the guidelines of these standards, modern risk management deals with situations in which measurable risk and immeasurable uncertainty are assessed, which, intrinsically, gives rise to certain methodological difficulties.

Before explaining the essence of risk analysis, it is worth defining the concept of risk itself, as the practice of defining it in many risk management methods is controversial, and the regulating nature of these definitions may have negative consequences also for the risk assessment itself. This is particularly important in view of the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision's definition of various types of risks by means of risk³.

The source of formal difficulties, transferred to the practice of risk management, is the ambiguity of understanding risk as an ontological entity – the concept becomes a term after defining it. The definition usually narrows down the original meaning of the concept for communication in a given area of knowledge. Over time, the term displaces the original meaning of the concept from users' awareness, becoming the cause of difficulties in verbal communication, consisting of reification, i.e. interlocutors having difficulty in distinguishing name from a referent (reality from the model, e.g. risk from risk measures). Risk is a classic example of this, and over-restricting the meaning of a key term may also narrow down the scope of risk assessment.

There are many definitions of risk in standardisation documents and risk management source literature, referring to these and other ontological categories. For example, according

³ Resolution No. 8/2013 of the Polish Financial Supervision Authority of 8 January 2013 regarding the management of operational risk in banks assumes, as the Basel Committee of Banking Supervision, that operational risk is to be understood as the risk of loss resulting from maladjusted or unreliable internal processes, people and technical systems or from external events.

to ISO 31000: 2012 standard “risk is the result of uncertainty in striving to achieve a goal”. It can be noted that: there can be many effects of uncertainty; the definition does not specify whether this effect is to be measurable; when there is an effect there is no longer any risk, since there is a specific loss; the uncertainty itself needs to be defined⁴. An example of the identification of risk with the possibility⁵ of adverse events is the definition given by Ladislav Tempnan (2002) or William D. Rowe (1977). There are many examples of perceiving risk as a danger. For example, according to Maria Sierpińska and Tomasz Jachna “Risk is usually defined as the danger of loss (...)”. (Sierpińska and Jachna, 2005). If we notice that taking risk is the exact factor that exposes to danger, then in the quoted fragment of the definition the effect is identified with the cause (because a danger is in fact a state of danger).

As a result of standardisation, the most common interpretation is the perception of risk as a combination of the quantitative probability of loss occurrence and the severity of that loss. E.g. “Risk means the frequency of accidents and incidents leading to harm and the severity of that harm” (Commission, 2013, p. L,121/11). In many known risk assessment methodologies developed according to the guidelines (PN-ISO 31000:2018-08), in practice, the concept of risk – R is reduced to one indicator expressed as a relationship:

$$R = P \cdot L; \quad (1)$$

where: P is the probability of loss occurrence; L – value of loss.

The discussed narrowing formally allows to boil the risk assessment down to the acceptance as a criterion for its assessment – the result obtained using the relation (1). It is easy to see the awkwardness consisting in the risk becoming, in this situation, the same construct as the risk assessment criterion.

An attempt to solve this problem is the author's proposal for the definition of risk in the following wording: a risk is a feature of a situation in which a projected random development may bring about only negative, negative or positive effects, and the probability distribution of these effects is known, identified with acceptable accuracy (Makowski, 2016).

The Definition referring to one of the basic ontic categories, which is a feature of a situation, is a proposal that eliminates the difficulty of determining what risk is. The knowledge of probability distributions of state variables describing the forecasted situation is a condition for effective forecasting (risk assessment). The essence of forecasting, as opposed to prediction, is a quantitative description of a fragment of the future with a specific error. Random consequences may be interpreted in relation to both speculative and pure risk. In light of this definition there is no need to limit the interpretation of risk to one indicator.

Within the material scope of risk management undertakings, a set of analytical-assessment and planning-control activities can be distinguished (Sienkiewicz, 2006). E.g.

⁴ Note that F.H. Knight, the progenitor of risk research, published his concept of measurable and immeasurable uncertainty in *Uncertainty & Profit* as early as 1921, where he called the former the risk and the latter the uncertainty in a strict sense – thus uncertainty is a category that needs to be defined on par with risk.

⁵ Possibility is also an ambiguous concept. It is also sometimes interpreted as e.g. an option, a chance, a solution, probability, which does not ensure unambiguous perception of risk.

according to the regulations of the PN-ISO 31000:2018-08 standard, risk analysis is an element of the risk assessment stage and is preceded by risk identification activities. This is illustrated in Fig. 1.

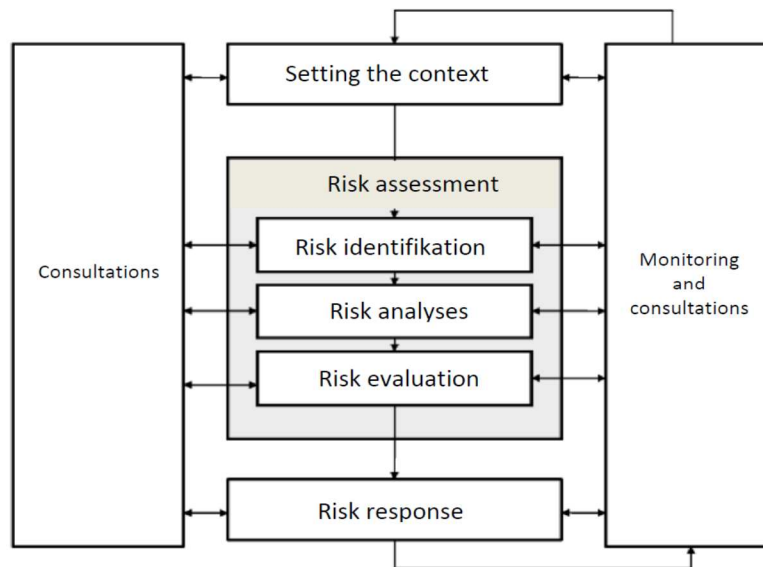


Fig. 1. General scheme of the risk management process

Source: own elaboration based on (PN-ISO 31000:2018-08).

The essence of risk analysis in this context will be to select and estimate the values of indicators allowing for risk evaluation and it is treated as such here (despite the existence of many other interpretations).

In the light of the discussed standardisation requirements, it is generally accepted to present the results of risk assessment in the form of a risk matrix on which the assessed risk can be located in the probability and loss coordinates. The advantage of the risk matrix is the preservation of information about the nature of the risk resulting from the relationship between P and L , and this is of key importance in the choice of risk management strategy (as the value of the risk index alone does not determine this). However, this form may cause excessive simplification in risk assessment practice. For example, when the nature of the losses incurred has a different distribution than a binomial. This is also important in the context of assessing the risk of loss of brand capital and its weakening.

If expert methods of probability estimation are omitted (according to Bruno de Finetti's (1975) subjective theory, probability is a person's opinion), then in the case of loss of brand capital, which usually happens very rarely to a particular owner in similar circumstances, it is difficult to estimate the probability of such an event applying a frequency interpretation.

The classic statistics based on the estimation of probability distribution parameters due to the required retrospective nature of the research material becomes futile here⁶. It would

⁶ In the formal sense, frequency probability does not exist in relation to bringing a random variable to effect, which maps a phenomenon that has never happened before.

be necessary to have a verified model that maps the phenomenon in question, taking into account not only known threats but also those that may occur hypothetically. The postulate of the possibility of forecasting, resulting directly from the content of the proposed definition of risk, creates in practice a serious methodological problem with regard to forecasting of the so-called extreme events.

Another autogenic problem of risk analysis is related to finding an answer to the question: which of the known interpretations of probability should be assumed?

In the analysis of extreme situations on the market (usually occurring rarely), the parameters of dispersion of the probability distribution of losses, characterizing the riskiness of the situation, also leap to prominence. The more “flatter” this distribution is, the more likely the extreme events are. In the source literature, however, one can find criticism of the achievements to date in risk assessment according to the criteria of average value and standard deviation of the probability distribution of losses (Kaczmarek, 2010).

4. SELECTED PROBLEMS OF THE METHODOLOGICAL LAYER GENERATED BY THE SPECIFICITY OF THE SUBJECT OF RISK ANALYSIS

In practice, it is difficult to reliably assess the loss of brand capital by directly estimating the risk as the product of probability and losses, mainly due to the difficulty of estimating the probability of its occurrence. Moreover, if we notice that probability may be a function of time, and changes in its value may be significant within the assumed time horizon of an assessment, then the discussed difficulties increase even more, often excluding the sense of evaluating direct risk according to the discussed standards. Thus, there arises a problem of assessing the risk of loss of brand capital by other methods, using indicators that indirectly characterise this risk (e.g. based on the intensity of symptoms that are precursors to the discussed phenomenon).

Negative market phenomena for brand owners forced the necessity to implement risk management systems in the management of companies, where the specificity of threats and the definition of their undesirable effects (losses) resulted in the separation of many types of risks (e.g.: market, operational, credit, investment, bankruptcy, legal), as well as methods of their assessment. It can be argued that brand capital or its elements play a significant role as important variables in models for the evaluation of the levels of these risks. Therefore, their control becomes an obvious priority for assessing the risk of loss of brand capital.

The question arises: in a relatively stable market situation, do the indicators describing the economic condition of a company allow drawing conclusions on the risk of losing brand capital? For the conditions of the discussed market situation, companies should calculate market and operational risk resulting from internal and external operating conditions, which may cause random losses. The often mentioned measure of risk is then the so-called – *VaR* (*Value at Risk*) – critical value of losses and the probability of exceeding this value $P = \alpha$ (α should not be greater than 1÷5%). The idea of typical distribution of losses and interpretation of *VaR* is presented in Fig. 2. There is a possibility to apply a certain analogy here, consisting in determining this critical *VaR* loss related to brand capital loss. If it were easy to single out the impact of conditions originating only from the deteriorating functioning of the brand on the probable losses of its owner and identify such a distribution, including the *VaR* probability component, then the problem of assessment could be theoretically solved, but it would not allow to avoid the known disadvantages of this

approach. In practice, all known methods of identification of the discussed *VaR* distribution use records of observations of mainly expected (normative) losses, rarely the ones of excessive nature (Fig. 2), situated in the so-called “chain of decomposition”, i.e. the most significant area. As a result, in this area the model of probability distribution of losses is the least accurate. This very defect is the source of the fundamental problem of unreliability in the application of this approach.

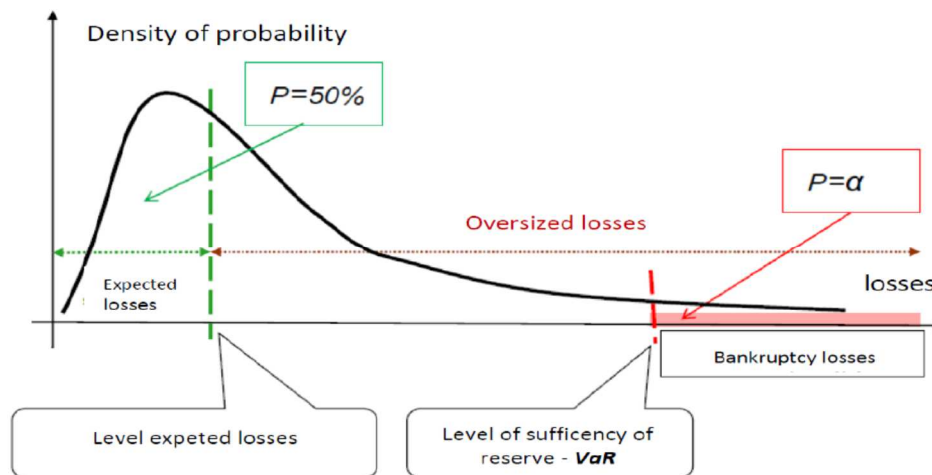


Fig. 2. Loss distribution, interpretation of *VaR* as a measure of operational risk (example)

Source: own study based on (Brink, 2002).

Frequently, the loss of a brand capital is the result of the owner's bankruptcy (it does not have to result only from the loss of a brand, and in some situations the loss of brand may be due to the owner's bankruptcy). Forecasting methods may be helpful in analysing the risk of bankruptcy because of their predictive effectiveness (usually one year), giving the brand owner time to react. In the assessment of credit risk, banks have predictive and effective bankruptcy models. Among others, Polish bankruptcy models are known, such as the “Poznań” model, the Mączyńska and Zawadzki model, the Wierzba model, the Appenzeller and Szarzec model and others. These models refer to such variables as those occurring e.g. in the Mączyńska and Zawadzki model:

$$Z = 9.478X1 + 3.613X2 + 3.246X3 + 0.455X4 + 0.802X5 - 2.478; \quad (2)$$

where: $X1$ – operating result / total assets; $X2$ – equity / total assets; $X3$ – (net result + depreciation) / total liabilities; $X4$ – current assets / current liabilities; $X5$ – sales revenue / total assets (Kisielińska and Waszkowski, 2010). These variables are the content of companies' economic reports summarising mostly annual operating effects and, similarly to the description of *VaR*, it is difficult to isolate the impact of brand functions on the values of these variables. It follows from the above considerations that the bad condition of the brand owner's company has an obvious impact on the current and future capital of the brand, but forecasting the loss of this capital is of secondary importance in view of the real

possibility of bankruptcy. That is why it is so difficult to find descriptions of methods of deducting the risk of losing brand capital on the basis of economic effect indicators of the company.

In this situation, facing the problem of assessing the risk in question, it seems reasonable to refer to the basic components of customer-based brand capital (differential effect, brand knowledge, consumer's response to marketing). A customer, especially when making market decisions about changing a given brand to another one, expresses subjective knowledge about the brand, shows explicitly negative reaction to marketing, including promotional offers, and deprives the brand owner of part of the differentiating effect. Therefore, the forecasted loss of existing customers may be, in relatively stable market conditions, an indirect indicator of the risk of losing the brand capital, although it is worth noting that certain brands may lose customers periodically due to a decrease in their purchasing power, e.g. in periods of economic crises, and this does not mean a weakening of the power of these brands. The influx of new customers, although significant, does not inform so well about the situation of the brand, as the new customer may have incomplete knowledge about the brand.

Contemporary marketing research allows for precise profiling of customers in the light of many criteria, effecting multifaceted segmentation of customers. Whereas, the use of classifiers (e.g. Bayes) allows to forecast, in the case of the representatives of the segmentations made, also their typical market behaviour in terms of probabilities. It is also possible to estimate e.g. the migration rate – the probability that a customer (with a given profile) will stop cooperating within the assessment horizon.

Analytical marketing has defined many indicators reflecting the effects of work of marketing managers. In terms of assessing the risk of losing a customer, the customer life time value (CLTV) indicator, calculated on the basis of relationships, seems particularly interesting:

$$CLTV = -AC + \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(M_n - C_n)P^n}{(1+r)^n}; \quad (3)$$

where: AC – means the cost of acquiring a customer; M_n – means the margin achieved on transactions with a given customer in the n^{th} period; C_n – the cost of marketing and service in the n^{th} period; P – probability that the customer will not stop cooperating in the next year, N – total number of years or other periods, r – discount rate (Jeffery, 2015).

The essence of the relationship (3), may be used after necessary modifications (taking into account the customer's loss event) to estimate the risk level of losing a customer using the indicator marked here with an abbreviation – *FRLC (Forecasted Risk of Losing a Customer)*, the value of which is proposed to be estimated based on the following dependency:

$$FRLC = AC + \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(M_n - C_n)(1-P)^n}{(1+r)^n} \quad (4)$$

Dependency (4) allows for an estimation of partial risk of lost value in customers representing segments obtained as a result of profiling, which in total should give an assessment of the risk of lost value in customers as an indicator of brand capital impairment.

A certain disadvantage of this approach is the need to verify possible changes in the value of data for the calculation over time.

One of the key objectives of the risk assessment is to warn as early as possible about the possibility of the risks materialising in the form of losses. The observation that in assessing the risk of loss of brand capital the quantitative aspect is important, but the expected time after which it may occur is no less significant, raises further methodological problems due to the fact that, as a rule, a larger forecast horizon determines its lower credibility. This forces the assessment procedures to be repeated periodically on the basis of updated empirical data.

5. CUSTOMER DECISION MODEL

In certain situations, it is possible to make “customer value” dependent on the expected time of cooperation with a given company. The example below shows a situation for which a decision model of an average customer (simplified for the purposes of this article) has been developed, by means of which an attempt has been made to explain the essence of the proposed approach enabling an assessment of the expected probability of losing a customer (migration rate) as a function of time. This in turn should make it possible (e.g. for the owner), regarding a certain critical value of this probability, to estimate the expected time available to achieve it. This time can be used to implement risk mitigation measures. Determining the expected time of cooperation with an average customer also simplifies the assessment of CLTV values.

Companies such as banks, mobile phone operators, cable TV operators etc. – to mitigate fluctuations in the migration rate of their customers – use fixed-term contracts, the termination of which imposes certain encumbrances on the customers. The decision of the customer of such companies to continue cooperation is therefore particularly mature and important from the point of view of assessing her/his satisfaction with the quality of this cooperation. Let us consider a simplified decision-making model of an average customer of a company of this type (Fig. 3), whose contract for a definite period of time at $t=0$ transformed into a contract for an indefinite period of time.

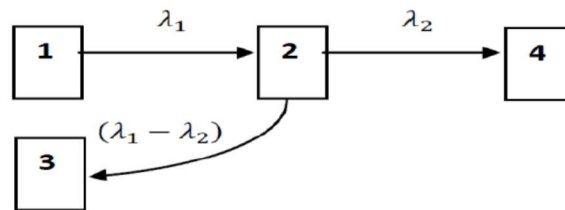


Fig. 3. A graph of the decision model for an average company's customer

Source: Own study.

This state is reflected by the vertex [1] of the graph in Fig. 3. If a customer is satisfied with the contract, she/he may not change it. Otherwise, she/he can go e.g. to the customer service office – vertex [2], where she/he receives a new cooperation offer. If the customer decides to accept it, vertex [3], she/he continues a new contract for a fixed period of time. She/he may also resign from the services of a given brand – vertex [4]. The likelihood of the customer's transition to particular states from $t1$ to $t2$ depends on the difference $(t2 - t1)$

and does not depend on the initial moment, meeting the criteria of Markov's discrete processes. Moreover, intensities of transitions between states (λ_1 and λ_2) are known. Thus, in the first approximation, identification of the model can be made on the basis of acceptance of assumptions for Markov's stochastic processes, although the empirical verification would of course be advisable by all means.

Let us also assume that the assessment horizon is shorter than a typical fixed-term contract period.

In the simplified model, it is assumed that the intensities of λ_1 and λ_2 passages are constants, which facilitates the analysis. In the case of observed strong trends increasing over time, especially $\lambda_2(t)$, it is obvious that undertakings inhibiting this trend must be implemented immediately and the risk of losing the customer is not accepted. Whereas, an insignificant intensity trend can be approximated in certain time intervals by means of constants and the analysis of the model's behaviour in the designated periods can be carried out as for a stationary model. In turn, decreasing λ_1 and λ_2 trends indicate that brand capital is strengthening.

To obtain forecasts of the values of the discussed intensities on the basis of observation results, known time series forecasting models can be used. The analysis of time series as a field of knowledge offers many efficiently predictive classes of models, such as autoregressive models, with a moving average and numerous methods of smoothing out fluctuations: seasonal, pertaining to economic conditions, as well as accidental obtained empirical research material.

The λ_1 and λ_2 intensities were defined as follows:

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{k_1}{K} \quad (5)$$

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{k_2}{K} \quad (6)$$

where: K – known number of customers with the status of state [1], during the time horizon of the analysis (e.g. during the year); k_1 – forecasted intensity of the number of customers willing to resign from the contract for an indefinite period of time in the calculation unit of time – T (e.g. a week); k_2 – forecasted intensity of the number of customers willing to accept a new offer of cooperation for a definite period of time in the unit of time T .

For a graph in Fig. 3, the following arrangement of Kolmogorov's differential equations can be arranged in light of the assumptions described above:

$$\begin{cases} P_1'(t) = -\lambda_1 P_1(t) \\ P_2'(t) = \lambda_1 P_1(t) - \lambda_2 P_2(t) - (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) P_2(t) \\ P_3'(t) = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) P_2(t) \\ P_4'(t) = \lambda_2 P_2(t) \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where: $P_1(t)$ – probability of state [1] continuing; $P_2(t)$ – probability of transitioning from state [1] to state [2]; $P_3(t)$ – probability of transitioning from state [2] to state [3]; $P_4(t)$ – probability of transitioning from state [2] to [4] (probability of losing customers).

For the model under consideration the following initial conditions can be assumed for $t=0$: $P_1(0) = 1$ and $P_2(0) = P_3(0) = P_4(0) = 0$.

By transforming Laplace's differential equations system (7) and taking into account the initial conditions, the following algebraic system of equations was obtained:

$$\begin{cases} sP_1(s) - 1 = -\lambda_1 P_1(s) \\ sP_2(s) = \lambda_1 P_1(s) - \lambda_1 P_2(s) \\ sP_3(s) = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) P_2(s) \\ sP_4(s) = \lambda_2 P_2(s) \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where: s – Laplace's operator.

For example, Laplace's transformation was obtained with regard to the said probability of losing the customer described by the following relation:

$$P_4(s) = \frac{\lambda_2}{s\lambda_1} - \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1(s+\lambda_1)} - \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1(s+\lambda_1)^2} \quad (9)$$

By performing a reverse transformation of Laplace's dependency (9), the original was obtained:

$$P_4(t) = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} [1 - e^{-\lambda_1 t} (1 + \lambda_1 t)] \quad (10)$$

Dependency (10) allows to estimate the limit value of probability of losing the customer (so-called absorbing state for $t \rightarrow \infty$, $P_4 = \lambda_2 / \lambda_1$). It also allows for estimating the time (t_{kr}) needed to reach the value of P_4 considered critical – $P_4(t_{kr}) = P_{kr}$, i.e. below which it is still unprofitable to improve the promotional offer. This may be important e.g. in decisions related to the implementation of promotional undertakings – increasing the value of intensity ($\lambda_1 - \lambda_2$). It is easy to notice that models of this type also facilitate factoring (of “what if” type).

An example of a dependency diagram (10), describing the nature of changes in time in the value of the probability of losing a customer – $P_4(t)$ is presented in Fig. 4. The diagram was made for: annual assessment horizon; T – weekly assessment time unit; $K=50$ thousand; $\lambda_1=0.015$; $\lambda_2=0.0045$ and accepted $P_{kr}=0.12$. For the discussed example, this probability does not reach the value considered critical within the assessment horizon – which means no need to implement a new promotional offer. Apart from the threshold value of probability, the time needed to achieve it is also important. This confirms the thesis that taking into account the time factor may have a significant impact on risk assessment.

Practical applications usually require more complex models, mapping more decision-making situations, moreover, not necessarily describing stationary processes. Their creation and use may be supported by the observed dynamic development of numerical methods of solving the calculus problems.

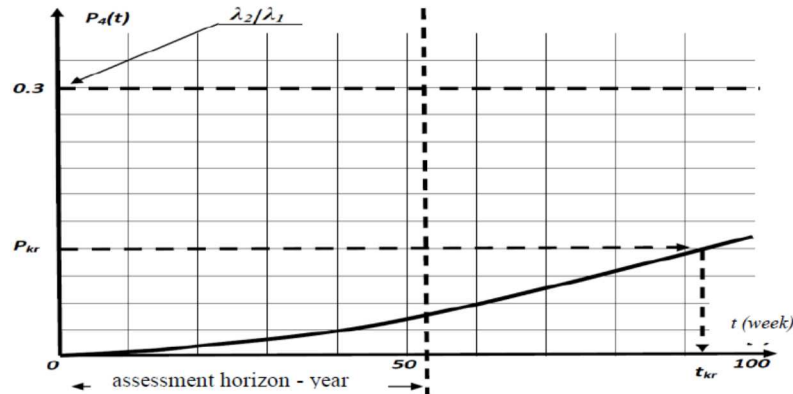


Fig. 4. Example of a graph for $P_4(t)$

Source: Own study.

6. CONCLUSION

The loss of a brand capital may have irreversible consequences, hence the possibility of analysing the risk of losing it seems to be an important management problem. Extracting the risk of loss of brand capital aggregated in market and operational risk assessments may give interesting results useful for marketing departments of companies. Although the specificity of each brand requires the development of dedicated methods for analysing the risk of losing its capital, the selected problems of this process outlined in this article are of such a general nature that they may contribute to triggering a discussion among those interested in this issue, which would be a source of genuine satisfaction for the author.

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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AS A PREDICTOR OF CAREER SUCCESS

Career success and physical activity are often treated as two very separate domains. However, an increasing number of publications indicate that being physically active affects various aspects of life, including professional work. It is possible to distinguish at least a few ways in which engaging in sport influences professional work, including the development of advantageous competencies, such as teamwork skills and the ability to achieve goals. These competencies allow for the building of social capital and have a positive effect on physical and mental health. The article examines the relationship between physical activity and career success in Poland. The research involved the use of the Social Diagnosis database and found that practicing sport is related to the level of a person's earnings and their job satisfaction. These two factors are important because they are indicative of career success. The study concludes that practicing sport may contribute to career success.

Keywords: career success, physical activity, sport, income, job satisfaction.

1. INTRODUCTION

Firstly, it would be desirable to define the term career success. According to T.A. Judge and his co-authors, career success is “the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one's work experiences” (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). M.B. Arthur, S.N. Khapov and P.M. Wilderom (2005) believe that career success “may be defined as the accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes at any point in a person's work experiences over time”. In turn, according to P. Bohdziewicz (2008) “the essential indicator of success, that which an individual associates with the pursuit of one's professional career, is the achievement of long-term goals formulated in that field”. The above descriptions demonstrate that career success is not a precisely defined term. It is determined based on various achievements, ranging from very specific measures of remuneration to very general measures of well-being (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

In subject literature, two criteria for the evaluation of career success are most often distinguished: objective – measurable, accessible to third parties; and subjective – available only to a specific person (Arthur et al., 2005; Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011; Heslin, 2005; Judge et al., 1995; Schomburg, 2007). Objective career success can be described using observable and measurable indicators, such as earnings or promotions. In contrast, subjective career

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success is the feelings that a person associates with their work. The basic indicator in such cases is job satisfaction but also includes pride in achievements and a sense of balance between one's professional and personal life.

In the case of sport, according to the definition established by the Council of Europe, "sport" is defined as: "all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels" (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). Because sport is a form of physical activity, it has been decided that in this article, words such as sport and physical activity will refer to the same activity and be used interchangeably. However, it is worth providing additional descriptions of these two terms. According to C.J. Caspersen, K.E. Powell and G.M. Christenson (1985), physical activity is any movement of the body made by skeletal muscles that lead to energy expenditure and is positively correlated with physical fitness. In turn, sport is a subset of physical exercises, and these have the characteristics of a planned, structured, repetitive body movement, which aims to improve or maintain physical fitness.

Physical activity and career success are often approached as two different issues. However, more and more research results indicate that physical activity affects professional life. It is possible to distinguish at least a few ways in which engaging in sport influences professional success. The first way is that during participation in sport, one can acquire advantageous competencies for the labor market, such as communication skills, teamwork skills, the ability to organize work and pursue goals (Bailey, Hillman, Arent, & Petitpas, 2013). The second way is by building social capital (Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell, 2008). By engaging in sport with other people, it is possible to make contacts that are useful in professional work. Physical activity can also affect career success by constituting a positive signal. It has been discovered that employers more often contacted work candidates who signaled sports abilities (Rooth, 2011). Besides, physical activity has a positive effect on mental health, helps to cope with stress and anxiety, and relieves depression (Swan & Hyland, 2012). Even short physical activity during work may improve efficiency and mood (Thogersen-Ntoumani et al., 2015).

It is worth to add that some studies indicate that practicing sport at a young age may be conducive to higher incomes later in life (Barron, Ewing, & Waddell, 2000; Kavetsos, 2011). Seemingly, it might appear that any activity that limits the time that could be spent on schooling does not serve young people well; however, it is the contrary, because participation in sport has a positive impact on school performance (Pfeifer & Cornelissen, 2010). Furthermore, students engaging in sport enjoy school more and more often decide to continue their education at university (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003).

It has to be also stated that so far, in Poland the present subject is not yet of significant interest. Therefore the article aims to present the relationship between physical activity and career success in Poland. Because the literature on the subject often lists earnings and job satisfaction as basic indicators of career success, in this study, it was decided to focus on these two indicators. Further parts of the article will present research methods, results and discussion.

2. PRESENT-DAY PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND CAREER SUCCESS

To examine dependencies between physical activity and career success, the Social Diagnosis database was used. The Social Diagnosis Project is a comprehensive survey of households and the conditions and quality of life of Polish people (Czapiński & Panek, 2015). During this research, both economic (e.g., income) and non-economic (e.g., lifestyle) information are collected. The first measurement was carried out in 2000, and since 2003 every measurement took place at a two-year interval. In the subsequent rounds of the Social Diagnosis participate all available households and individuals from the previous rounds. Due to the length of the project, in subsequent rounds, some households and individuals resigned to participate in the survey. At the same time, new households were included in the sample. Such actions ensured the assumed size of the sample and its representativeness on a national scale.

A question regarding sport was added to the questionnaire used as part of the Social Diagnosis in 2009. Therefore, the time range of the data used is 2009–2015. During this period, four measurements were taken, in 2009, 2011, 2013 and 2015. In 2009, 26 243 respondents took part in the Social Diagnosis survey, in 2011 – 26 453, in 2013 – 26 308 and 2015 – 24 324. It turned out that in each of the analyzed rounds of the Social Diagnosis, people practicing sport earned more on average, and the average difference in wage was about 500 PLN. Detailed data are presented in Fig. 1.

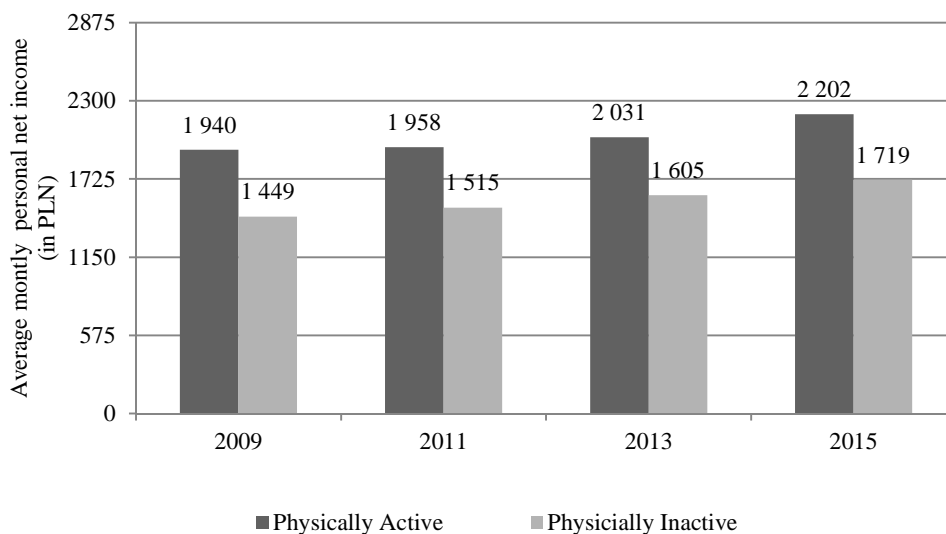


Fig. 1. Average monthly personal net income of people physically active and physically inactive

Source: own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

The results of the Mann-Whitney test (shown in Table 1) indicate that practicing sport significantly differentiates respondents' incomes (value $p < 0.05$ indicates this). The values of the magnitude of the η^2 effect can be interpreted as small.

Table 1. Results of the Mann-Whitney U test verifying the differences in net income of physically active and inactive people between 2009 and 2015

Year	Mann-Whitney U test	Standardized Z-test	Asymptotic significance (Bilateral)	η^2 effect magnitude
2009	21 229 271.00	- 21.72	0.000	0.024
2011	31 893 902.50	- 24.75	0.000	0.032
2013	32 785 220.00	- 24.02	0.000	0.029
2015	22 855 337.50	- 24.77	0.000	0.037

Source: own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

The second basic indicator of career success is a sense of job satisfaction. The results of the research indicate that people who practice sport more often than physically inactive people show a higher degree of satisfaction with their jobs (they chose the answers: "very satisfied" and "satisfied"). A detailed distribution of respondents' answers from four rounds of Social Diagnosis is presented in Table 2. Numbers placed in parentheses indicate the size of the given sample.

Table 2. Distribution of the level of job satisfaction among active and inactive people (in %)

Level of job satisfaction	2009		2011		2013		2015	
	PA (n=3119)	PI (n=10417)	PA (n=5219)	PI (n=8404)	PA (n=5304)	PI (n=7861)	PA (n=4669)	PI (n=6633)
Very satisfied	8.8	5.4	9.9	6.1	9.3	5.3	10	6.3
Satisfied	41.9	36.6	40.6	35.9	38.9	33.8	39.2	36.0
Quite satisfied	34.2	38.8	33.2	36.8	34.6	38.3	35.0	37.9
Quite dissatisfied	8.2	10.3	8.2	11.0	9.0	11.4	8.4	10.7
Dissatisfied	4.4	6.6	5.3	7.5	5.7	7.7	4.9	6.5
Very dissatisfied	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.7	2,5	3.5	2.5	2.6

PA – physically active, PI – physically inactive.

Source: own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

Large differences can also be observed in the case of “dissatisfied” answers, which were more often chosen by physically inactive people. The results of the U Mann-Whitney test (presented in Table 3) showed that practicing sport significantly affects the level of satisfaction that the respondents feel with their jobs. Physical activity is associated with greater satisfaction with one’s job and being physically inactive, on the contrary – with greater dissatisfaction.

Table 3. Results of the Mann–Whitney U test verifying the differences in the level of job satisfaction among active and inactive people

Year	Mann–Whitney U test	Standardized Z-test	Asymptotic significance (Bilateral)	η^2 effect magnitude
2009	14 582 874.50	– 9.20	0.000	0.006
2011	19 597 783.50	– 11.02	0.000	0.009
2013	18 458 533.50	– 24.93	0.000	0.047
2015	14 107 020.00	– 8.52	0.000	0.006

Source: own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

Based on the analyses carried out, it was confirmed that the present-day practice of sport is associated with higher earnings and greater job satisfaction, i.e., with two basic indicators of career success. The next part of the article presents how practicing sport in youth affects later career success.

3. SPORT IN HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY AND LATER CAREER SUCCESS

It was decided to verify whether physical activity in high school and university is a factor that influences later career success. To check this, people studying in high school and university were selected from the Social Diagnosis database. It was also important to determine which of these people combined both studying and practicing sport. In 2009, 895 high-school pupils and 1346 university students took part in the Social Diagnosis. In 2009, 62.9% of the high-school pupils and 54.1% of the university students declared that they practiced sport. The next step was a consideration of the professional situation of these people in 2013–2015. It was decided that the data from 2011 would not be analyzed, because at that time, too many people from the group in question were still studying. It was, therefore, possible to check whether the effects of practicing sport are revealed after 4 or 6 years.

Those who in 2009, while in high school or university, were physically active, later achieved higher average incomes. In 2013, the difference in average incomes was almost PLN 126 in favor of physically active people. Then, within two years, it increased and amounted to almost PLN 400 on average. Detailed data are presented in Fig. 2.

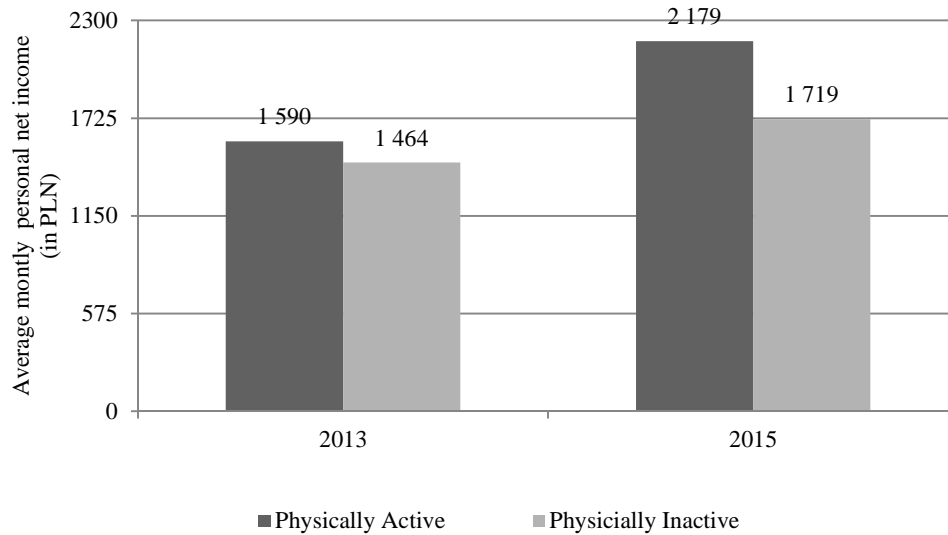


Fig. 2. Average personal monthly net income in 2013 and 2015 among physically active and physically inactive high school students and university students from 2009

Source: own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

Using U Mann-Whitney test, it was possible to check whether the differences in income were significant and the following results were obtained: 2013 ($U = 9450.00$, $Z = -1.25$, $p = 0.213$); 2015 ($U = 3028.50$, $Z = -1.62$, $p = 0.104$). The results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences (the p value > 0.05 confirms this). The lack of significance may, however, result from the small size of the compared study groups, because in 2013, it was a total of 288 people, and in 2015 – 169 people. This is because in each subsequent round of Social Diagnosis, some respondents from the previous years were absent.

The second analyzed indicator of career success is a sense of job satisfaction. People who – while in high school or university in 2009 had practiced sport – more often in 2013 and 2015 chose the answers: “very satisfied” and “satisfied”. Interestingly, physical activity was also associated with a more frequent indication of such responses as “quite dissatisfied” and “dissatisfied”. However, the answer “very dissatisfied”, as well as the answer “quite satisfied”, prevailed in people who did not play sport. Therefore, it is difficult to interpret the results unequivocally, because playing sport simultaneously combined the preference of both very positive and partially negative responses.

The following results of U Mann-Whitney test checking the differences in the level of job satisfaction were obtained: 2013 ($U = 9728.00$, $Z = -1.26$, $p = 0.209$); 2015 ($U = 3485.50$, $Z = -0.68$, $p = 0.497$). It should be stated that despite some differences between the groups in question, it was not possible to confirm that physical activity in high school and university is a factor that influences later career success. Perhaps this is due to the small size of the compared study groups. The reason may also be that the positive effects

Table 4. Distribution of the level of job satisfaction among people who in high school or university in 2009 played sport or did not play sport (in %)

Level of job satisfaction	2013		2015	
	PA (n=145)	PI (n=146)	PA (n=87)	PI (n=85)
Very satisfied	8.3	6.1	11.6	5.9
Satisfied	37.2	30.8	37.9	35.3
Quite satisfied	34.5	42.5	26.4	40.0
Quite dissatisfied	9.0	6.2	13.8	10.6
Dissatisfied	7.6	8.9	8.0	3.5
Very dissatisfied	3.4	5.5	2.3	4.7

PA – physically active, PI – physically inactive.

Source: Own work based on the integrated Social Diagnosis database, www.diagnoza.com [Access: 09.05.2017].

of physical activity can only be fully observed after a longer time period. In the present study, however, the observation period over the years 2009–2015 were not able to be extended. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the average values of individual indicators suggest that such a dependency may exist. Therefore, in order to deepen the analysis of the importance of sport in high school or university, in future studies it would be worthwhile to extend the observation period and increase the research sample.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The above analyses were aimed at showing that an undertaking of physical activity is connected with a career success. It has been shown that physically active people receive higher incomes and are more satisfied with their jobs and these are two indicators of career success most frequently mentioned in the literature. From a scientific perspective, the results can be seen as an argument that physical activity is an investment in human capital. By practicing sport, a person invests in himself/herself, which brings measurable benefits in his or her professional career. It can be assumed that by practicing sport, a person improves their well-being, which also increases job satisfaction and work efficiency, which directly contributes to an increase in earnings. In turn by referring to the theory of signaling (Spence, 1973), it may be possible to explain the greater career success of physically active people by the fact that information about practicing sport is a positive signal that gives an advantage in the labor market. People who practice sport can be seen, by potential employers, as healthy, ambitious and persistent.

The obtained results are not only of scientific significance but can also have practical applications in the work of people managing human resources and in implementing policies on various levels of public administration. Perhaps it is worth, following the example of the largest American companies (e.g. Google and Facebook), allow employees to engage in

sport in the workplace or outside work. Also, the dissemination of knowledge about the relationship between physical activity and career success may contribute to a rise in participation in sports activities which can be also beneficial for the functioning of the entire economy (Kutwa & Rafał, 2019).

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ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE – BENEFITS AND THREATS FOR SOCIETY

In the 20th century, a huge expansion of new information technologies began and in the 21st century, there was a rapid development of digital media and information technologies with people utilizing virtual reality to fulfill their needs. With the emergence of Artificial Intelligence there was a greater increase in activities that allowed technology to move in space, as well as to process symbolic information. However, now that humans have relationships with Artificial Intelligence, there is a need to modify the theory of social creation of reality. This will allow for a sociological analysis of social reality at the level of cyberspace.

Keywords: cyberspace, Artificial Intelligence, theory of social creation of reality.

1. INTRODUCTION

The 20th century started a huge expansion of new information technologies, while the 21st century has become a period of rapid development of digital media and information and communication technologies, as well as a period of convincing people that the progress of civilization is aimed at “moving around” in a new reality that is virtual reality, part of which is the Internet. New tools emerge, with great potential, such as the “Internet of Things”, whose impact on human life has not yet been examined.

Virtual reality is the environment of “unreal reality”, which is on the Internet (Napora, 2008). The Polish equivalent of the word “virtual” (*wirtualne*) means something unreal, the Chinese term for the word “virtual” translates to something created out of nothing (Nian, Kuo Chuen, 2015). This reality can be understood in a specialized way, related to technical sciences, in particular to computer science, as well as in accordance with the rules of social sciences. It is believed that something should be either “real” or “virtual” because it cannot have both properties at the same time (Bednarek, Andrzejewska, 2009). Therefore, it is recognized that the virtualization of reality entails a very diverse issue, covering four types of worlds, including: a) the real world (the *Reality*), having no virtual elements, only encompassing the real world; b) extended reality (*Augmented Reality*), or real world with elements of the virtual world; c) extended virtual world (*Augmented Virtuality*), or a virtual world with objects from the real world; d) the virtual world (*Virtual Reality*), in which there

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are no elements of the real world, only a virtual world generated by computers (Ambroży, Serafin, 2016). Virtual world or virtual reality are the terms that are used in scientific studies. However, there are many other terms like: *Artificial Reality*, *Cyberspace*, *Virtual Environment*, *Virtual Worlds*. Each of these terms has its own definition, and also concerns such phenomena and types of activities that arise from the use of the latest technologies. The role of the human mind in creating the meaning and the sense of this virtual world cannot be rejected, the more so, because it is believed that the virtual world (*Virtual Reality*) is a typically psychological construction. Virtual world does not exist solely in information technologies, nor does it exist only in the human mind; is the relationship between the internal mental construct and the technical computer product. The illusion of the reality that appears does not lie in the technique itself, but in the user's willingness to treat the creations of his/her imagination as if they were real (Miczka-Pajestka, 2014).

It can also be said that the term "augmented reality" exists in close proximity to the term "virtual reality". Augmented reality is treated as a complement to the idea of virtual reality, although it is based on slightly different assumptions, therefore the system of augmented reality should: a) combine the virtual and real worlds; b) enable real-time interaction; c) allow freedom of movement in a three-dimensional plane. Augmented reality is characterized by great potential for development, because it can be used in many fields of knowledge, the more so, because augmented reality does not generate a separate, entirely "digital world", though it is based on the "real world", enriching the information about existing places or facilities, due to application of virtual elements containing additional data, often in a multimedia form. As such, the image of virtual reality is difficult to distinguish from the real world (Baudrillard, 2005; Kluszczyński, 2005; Virilio, 2006; Bednarek, 2009; Rawski, Szadura, Laskowski, 2012).

One of the highest forms of using "virtual reality" is the possibility of introducing *Artificial Intelligence* (AI) into everyday human life.

2. ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE AND SOCIAL CREATION OF REALITY

What is AI? (Winston, 1992). According to Mariusz Flasiński, artificial intelligence is a feature of artificial systems that enables them to perform activities requiring intelligence in the case of a human being. It is a property of certain systems that allows them to move in space (dimensions) as well as to process information that is symbolic in character. Such definition of AI constitutes the basis for analysis of social creation of reality (Flasiński, 2018).

It is believed that AI is no longer *science fiction*, but part of everyday human life, and at the same time, there is a belief that, just as the steam engine or electricity changed the world, AI will lead to significant changes in the modern world. This is another information revolution, in which computers profoundly change people's lives. Presently, AI is used in the military as well as in police-rescue, medical, economic, informational, cultural and social spheres of life (Fehler, 2017).

Among the detailed objectives of creating AI, the following can be mentioned: a) development of computational theory of intelligence, the functioning of the human brain, memory, consciousness, instincts, emotions; b) building intelligent computer systems to effectively solve difficult issues applicable in a normal world (Fehler, 2017). In connection with the strive to build AI, three levels of implementation of this objectives have been specified: narrow AI (*Artificial Narrow Intelligence* – ANI), with a level of weak artificial

intelligence; general AI (*Artificial General Intelligence* – AGI), equal to human intelligence; super-intelligence (*Artificial Superintelligence* – ASI), surpassing humans in every respect (Gurkaynak, Yilmaz, Haksever, 2016). However, attention ought to be paid to the threats resulting from the creation and use of the AI, especially since computers can achieve such abilities, that will cause artificial intelligence to outperform human intelligence (Cellan-Jones, 2014). Taking into account the current pace of research on AI, it is indicated that the breakthrough may occur in the years 2045–2060. If this happens, then avalanche changes will occur, with unpredictable consequences, because the extended capabilities of AI will be able to outperform people intellectually, and constantly improve themselves (Fehler, 2017).

The potential of new technologies, such as the Internet of Things or the IT, as well as the potential threats associated with it have been taken acknowledged even by the agencies responsible for small US industry (NIST, 2018). An example of such problems is the possible disappearance of the separation between nature products and human products, in the form of hybrid bio-technology solutions. Studies on bio-technological hybrids are already underway, in which appropriate connections between the electronics and the nervous systems of creatures allows i.e. management of insects acting as cyborgs, to explore dangerous and hard-to-reach places (O’Callaghan, 2018). As such, the boundaries between classic electronics and biology have blurred, making it is possible to create hybrid devices, while devices involving a brain-computer interface have been successfully tested. Most of these studies are covered with a layer of mystery and thus it is very difficult to recognize the actual effects of the work being carried out. Currently, US government agencies coordinate research and officially support the work on a data collection system that integrates elements of biology with semiconductor technology. Further development of computers will significantly contribute to the growth of the capabilities, and as a consequence, the growth of the importance of these technologies (Wolpaw et al., 2000).

Among the negative aspects of AI, the following is mentioned: a) AI is the main element of the “IV technical revolution”, understood as the disappearance of the boundary between the functioning of machines and the human functioning. It is reasonable to speak of a “hybrid society” composed of people and machines; b) it is believed that AI tools (socio-drones, robots) are underdeveloped, so their actions cannot be fully predicted; c) it is believed that the main reason for introducing the use of AI technology was initiated by the Cold War; d) AI is significantly use in the defense industry, where devices work “shoulder to shoulder” with people on the assembly line of the latest generation of aircrafts (Bruno, 2018).

Using AI in military operations, it is important that the connection between the owner of the device and its operator who controls the given device is maintained. However, in situation of war, it is difficult to evaluate the actions in question, even when they bear the features of targeted actions against the population (Chłopecki, 2018).

Due to the fact that sociology, which grew out of the heritage of the humanities and natural sciences (Turner, 2012), nowadays has been undergoing evolution, becoming a multi-faceted science, capturing the contemporary world from new perspectives, which must lead to a radical change in the sociological paradigms, which find place for cyberspace as well (Manterys, 2008; Manterys, Mucha, 2010; Baert, Carreira de Silva, 2013). It should be noted that modern sociology does not reject the scientific paradigms of traditional sociology, but modifies them and adapts them to the present day (Turner, 1985; Hałas, 1998; Blumer, 2008; Hałas, 2012; Lech, 2013). It is supposed, therefore, that symbolic

interactionism in a modern approach assumes that: a) interaction is not constructed, but controlled; b) actions are not made on the basis of a definition of a situation, because the individual is the object, not the subject of the action, while AI is programmed and fixed; c) interaction can be symbolic, if AI has been programmed to adapt to each individual; d) interaction takes place not through mutual “adjustment of action” or anticipating partner behavior, but as a result of taking the role of a dominant partner; e) taking the role of “partner” occurs, without being aware of the existence of subordination; f) interaction is not emergent, because it has already been programmed, despite the appearances of interaction emergence and despite the seeming activity of the partners (Leśniak-Moczuk, Moczuk, 2002). The existence of “thought-controlled drones” is a response to technical and social doubts, especially in the field of social creation of reality.

One of the approaches to this issue is the use of the theory of social creation of reality introduced by Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckmann (Berger, Luckman, 1983; Lech, 2013), to analyze social behavior at the interface between the human and the technology, in which interpersonal relations, at the level of symbols, are replaced by human-AI relations. However, creation of a perfect AI is not so simple, especially due to the fact that there are many types of intelligence, and moreover, it is important to include cultural symbols that are different for each culture. Dreams are also important, as well as proper interactions with other people. It is therefore important to establish whether AI will meet these requirements and whether it will enter properly into relations with people, in such a way that the individual is convinced that its interlocutor is a different person, not an artificial creation.

Therefore, a question arises, whether creation of social reality must be exclusively interpersonal, especially that humans are constantly “externalizing the world”, creating reality by highlighting important aspects of the world from own perspective, and in contact with other individuals, he/she agrees with his/her vision of the world, while this knowledge gains the value of intersubjectivity and is treated as an “objective” one. If the answer to this question is positive, then it can be said that the theory of social creation of reality introduced by Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckmann, is still valid, especially that since the beginning of human existence, interpersonal relations have been sufficient enough, thus we can speak of existence of society. However, if an “alternative” vision of interpersonal relations emerges, in which there are no “face-to-face” contacts (including technical carriers of information), essential part of which is constituted by AI replacing humans in the virtual world, behaving in such a way as if it were a real person, is it possible to talk about creating a social reality. If one of the “partners” in the relations in the cyber world is AI, then this theory must undergo serious methodological changes, due to the problem on the human-technical line.

Wanting to adopt the theory of Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckmann to the issues related to functioning in cyberspace, it should be said that an individual constructs his/her identity on the Internet, yet not encountering human but AI, he/she must adapt to it, while the interaction, despite the appearance of two-sidedness, is unilateral. Significantly, AI is able to manage an individual and even a group, so that he/she/they think that he/she/they arrive at it and their decisions are autonomous, independent of any influences, thought out and objective. The individual, however, forgets that there are spatial and asynchronous interactions in the virtual world, which means that interactions in cyberspace are not limited either spatially or temporarily. In addition, virtual communities are astigmatic, meaning they do not play the role of status and physical characteristics, regardless of the race, nationality, age, gender, physical handicap, education. However, there is a doubt as to

whether virtual communities can be called communities that can complement or completely replace participation of people in real communities (Siuda, 2006).

3. CONCLUSION

Concluding these considerations, it should be said that AI has ceased to be only a “creation” of science fiction writers and it “can” participate in people's social life, shape it and influence people's choices in the social sphere, thus there is a need to “revise” the theory of social creation of reality introduced by Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckman and to adapt it to cyber-society.

This means that a new scientific paradigm should appear on the grounds of social sciences, allowing expansion of the issues of social creation of reality onto the cyber world, as well as recognizing the fact that it is possible for AI to influence the society. If this is the case, AI can control each individual and shape the social behavior of people. This, however, does not take place without the detriment of the society, because AI is not subject to the same normative restrictions, which the members of society are subjected to, while not being limited by time and space, AI can shape any given reality, being prepared and programmed for it.

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LEVERAGING ACADEMIC AND VOCATIONAL PERFORMANCE THROUGH SELF-EFFICACY

The majority of research examining the impact of self-efficacy on performance across a variety of settings has provided evidence to validate the claim that agency beliefs facilitate human achievement. However, such inquiries have focused within a single domain of functioning. The present study explores the influence of agency beliefs on academic success and the counteraction of the lack of decisiveness in the case of career choice, also known as career indecision. The first part of the paper is conceptual and provides the reader with the theoretical background behind both constructs. The quantitative analysis supported the existence of a bi-directional relationship between the study variables. The last section of the paper is devoted to the qualitative investigation and discussion of the implications prompted by our examination and reveals several noteworthy conclusions: the inability of the participants to extend their agency beliefs from one domain of functioning to another domain without initial guidance and the lack of a clear vision of a future career path stemming from insufficient career counselling.

Keywords: self-efficacy, academic performance, vocational pursuits, qualitative analysis, quantitative analysis, career indecision.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent decades mark an era of extensive research into the impact of self-constructs and affective variables on both developing academic buoyancy and displaying favourable vocational behaviours. This tendency within the inquiry seems to be entirely justified nowadays as the volume of young people attempting to effectively juggle the demands of higher education with remaining professionally active is constantly growing. According to Gati et al. (1996), much of the success in both realms of human existence appears to be the result of the favourable combination of a number of developmental tasks. In both domains, however, it is possible to identify cases of exceptionally successful individuals who produce desired outcomes in a somewhat effortless manner, whereas their less fortunate counterparts fail to match the requirements of an endeavour, resulting in withdrawal behaviours rather than effort intensification. Even though the literature on the subject abounds with examples of variables capable of accelerating the likelihood of auspicious conduct, no consensus was reached that would promote one factor as the ultimate performance facilitator. Nevertheless, it appears that the central focus of the inquiry remains on self-efficacy as, to this day, the concept is believed to be one of the major predictors of performance, regardless of a setting

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(Oldham, 2016). In this paper, our attention will be devoted specifically to scrutinising the extent to which well-developed agency beliefs may leverage one's performance in the areas of human functioning specified above as well as the capacity of the notion to remedy the cases of career indecision amongst vocationally active students of English as a foreign language.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Bearing in mind that self-appraisals regarding one's capacity to succeed ebb and flow throughout time, predicting the likelihood of behaviour execution seems to be a profoundly arduous task. In efforts to account for the way human beings estimate the sufficiency of their skills and knowledge in producing desired attainments, in the late 1960s, Albert Bandura coined the construct of self-efficacy. Although, in its original sense, the concept was designed to better comprehend the nature of human performance within the domain of sport, due to its enormous practical potential, self-efficacy was soon encompassed within the fields such as education, health, and career choice. In the view of Schwarzer and Warner (2013), self-efficacy reflects the positive belief that one can successfully perform novel or challenging tasks conducive to a desired attainment. This, in turn, allows such individuals to execute a certain degree of control over constantly fluctuating circumstances surrounding their existence by means of their own behaviour. Importantly, expectations upon personal efficacy are believed to leverage numerous aspects of one's performance, including decision-making and goal-selecting processes, the volume of effort one is willing to contribute to producing an outcome, and the overall level of resilience a person displays in the vicinity of adversities. The majority of empirical investigations into the subject matter is consistent as to the claim that high value of self-efficacy may be a crucial mediator of behavioural change and, by the same token, accounts for the success of one's undertakings. It is not illogical to assume that those assured of their own ability to meet requirements of a task are more persistent in their pursuits and display more grit once difficulties arise as opposed to their counterparts lacking efficacy who display a tendency to cease their efforts prematurely rather than sustaining their commitment to a cause. Bandura (1991) asserts that people who are confident their abilities would suffice in pursuing a goal approach troublesome endeavours as areas for further development rather than threats to be avoided. In the case of efficacious people, initial challenges are not likely to possess a discouraging impact on a person's readiness to perform as the engagement of such individuals is propelled by a genuine desire to actualise one's potential. Furthermore, demanding pursuits are believed to stimulate one's beliefs of efficacy and therefore individuals with well-instilled personal agency rarely delimit the pool of potential activities by discriminating undertakings which would pose a threat to one's sense of self. Beyond any doubt, such attitude would be desirable in the field of career choice, with several studies confirming the positive correlation between agency beliefs and various indices of career choice behaviour, for instance, variety of perceived options, expressed interests, and vocational preferences (Wheeler, 1983; Lent et al., 1984). On the other end of the spectrum, those lacking assurance regarding their capacity to perform successfully are most typically reluctant towards new activities, let alone endeavours one may perceive as challenging. Following Bandura and Locke (2003), such individuals have lower aspirations in general and tend to lower their goals even further should out-turns be lacking. Instead of explaining initial failures in terms of inadequate effort or yet insufficient skills and knowledge, people

who are beset by the lack of efficacy attribute unsatisfactory proceedings entirely to factors of external nature and visualise bleak scenarios, leading to the deficiency of motivational impetus and, ultimately, task abandonment. Even though such individuals may, in fact, possess the skillset required to produce a desired outcome in the long run, the lack of foundational persistence in an inept attempt to preserve one's self-image significantly reduces the possibility of delivering favourable performance.

It has become a commonplace to discuss the notion of self-efficacy in terms of three different dimensions, namely magnitude, strength, and generality. The magnitude element refers to the beliefs an individual holds regarding the level of task difficulty within one's perceived reach. Whereas in the case of uncomplicated undertakings people possess similar efficacy levels, more demanding and intricate pursuits may cause for some entities to doubt the likelihood of goal attainment. Turning now to the second factor, Schwarzer and Warner (2013) allege that the dimension of strength pertains to how robust are the self-efficacy beliefs of a person. As previously mentioned, in the face of challenges, ill-efficacious people tend to withdraw from a task rather than intensify their efforts. Additionally, should an individual lack the self-assurance as to one's capacity to succeed, regardless of an endeavour, failure further undermines the belief that the task at hand is indeed achievable. The last realm of self-efficacy that is generality addresses the degree to which self-efficacy expectations are generalised across various life situations (Lunenburg, 2011). Most individuals with well-developed agency beliefs are capable of extending their confidence to other domains of functioning and, similarly, the lack of such certainty would also permeate from one level of existence to another.

Bandura (1997) posits that one's beliefs regarding self-efficacy expectations may stem from four principal sources, including mastery experiences, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion, and emotional cues. Past performance accomplishments, which in the seminal work of Bandura are referred to as enactive mastery experiences, serve as indicators of one's aptitude to succeed and are believed to be crucial components in accruing efficacy information. Basing on experiences accumulated during the lifespan, a person is capable of assessing whether one's skills and knowledge would be sufficient in producing favourable outcomes in the case of perspective endeavours. On logical grounds, acquiring control within a specific domain of existence would embolden a person to unhesitatingly approach further challenges. As postulated by Reddan (2015), success builds a robust belief in one's personal efficacy and failure undermines it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established. This is not to say, however, that experiencing setbacks in one's undertakings possesses a solely detrimental impact on the overall quality of performance. To Bandura's mind (1997), some difficulties in human pursuits indicate that success usually requires persistent effort. Overcoming individual limitations through effort intensification rather than attributing the lack of results to external adversities allows a person to gradually develop one's tenacity and diminishes the disheartening impact of challenges one would regularly experience in the case of distal and demanding pursuits. Moving on to the concept of vicarious learning, it is yet another potent source of efficacy beliefs. Building on the principles of behaviour imitation, Bandura (1997) claims that the observation of people attempting to produce outcomes which hold relevance to an individual and corresponding consequences of a perceived behaviour may increase a person's beliefs in their own capability to master similar tasks with comparable effect. Not only does such an observation boost one's agency self-conceptions but also equips an observer with behavioural strategies required to accomplish desired goals or to tackle

adversities separating an individual from reaching one's full potential (Wise and Trunnell, 2001). At this point, it would also be recommendable to highlight the importance of perceived resemblance between a model and an observer, as the degree of likeness plays a fundamental role in behavioural modelling. The potential of using the vicarious experience as an efficacy-building apparatus relies immensely on the similarity between observed behaviour and desired outcomes a person wishes to produce. Bandura (1997) postulates that the greater the perceived similarity between an individual and a model, the more persuasive his or her successes and failures will be. Turning now to the notion of social persuasion, the assurance regarding one's capabilities may also emanate from the faith other people express in an individual's ability to perform successfully. It may seem therefore that the concept in question is Bandura's attempt to address the volume of influence a person's significant others may exercise over the quality of one's proceedings. Reddan (2015) suggests that verbal reinforcement is effective in enhancing and maintaining a sense of agency if the desired outcome is within realistic boundaries. With this in mind, genuine encouragement, gradually increasing an individual's confidence in the sufficiency of his or her coping abilities, may indeed contribute to developing well-established efficacy beliefs provided such feedback is supplied by people a person considers influential. The last source of agency beliefs, emotional cues, concerns the impact of somatic messages conveyed as the result of physiological and emotional states a person experiences. Damasio et al. (1991) outline that emotional reactions human beings experience, in no small margin, shape the decision-making processes. Much in a similar vein, Bandura (1997) declares that it is not the sheer intensity of experience but rather human interpretation of a state that influences our actions. Whereas positive emotional cues evoked by the possibility to perform an action would encourage persistence and boost one's efficacy beliefs, ruminative thoughts are believed to hamper the likelihood of successful performance. More specifically, self-efficacy may be amplified by reducing the extent to which negative feelings of anxiety or stress impact the performance of a person.

Having completed our discussion upon the concept of self-efficacy, let us now focus on yet another concept which is of tremendous importance for this paper, namely career indecision. The term, in its essence, refers to a broad array of difficulties an individual may experience when making a vital decision regarding his or her career. Chartrand et al. (1994) define career indecision as a developmental problem within the career maturation process that has its origin in the lack of information about one's self. Notably, such issues may arise not only prior to the decision-making processes but also when a person is already pursuing a well-defined, specific career path. Even though, initially, career indecision was viewed as a one-dimensional dichotomy, with people being described as either capable or incapable of making proper career decisions, the notion is now regarded as a multi-faceted phenomenon, with taxonomy including aspects of cognitive, personal, and emotional nature. The lack of decisiveness may stem from various sources, however, it seems logical to assume that people assured of their own capacity to succeed would experience fewer issues embracing a demanding career path. With the scope of our research in mind, in the sections below, our attention will be devoted to scrutinising the extent to which well-developed agency beliefs can counteract the lack of decisiveness amongst vocationally active students of English as a foreign language as well as the impact of self-efficacy on the academic performance of the aforementioned group.

3. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

On the basis of the theoretical discussion, one can observe that there has been some effort to explore the exact nature of correlation between self-efficacy and performance in a variety of settings, including academic performance (Lane and Lane, 2001; Artino, 2012) and vocational contexts (Betz and Voyten, 1997; Creed et al., 2005). The studies in question rendered sufficient evidence to account for the claim that indeed well-established agency beliefs can leverage one's performance even in the case of particularly troublesome undertakings. Bearing in mind that self-efficacy is hardly a one-dimensional concept, one would expect that the notion coined by Bandura may stimulate a person's proceedings in both contexts simultaneously. The review of relevant literature, however, revealed that such multipurpose examinations, combining these two crucial fields of human functioning, are currently scarce. In efforts to partially remedy the aforementioned gap, the present study aims at exploring the shape of self-efficacy beliefs amongst vocationally active students of English as a foreign language and assessing the influence of such beliefs on the results attained by the group. On these grounds, we may move towards the formation of the following three research hypotheses:

- 1) There exists a direct correlation between a well-developed sense of self-efficacy and academic performance;
- 2) Individuals with positive self-efficacy beliefs are less likely to experience negative rumination with regards to vocational activities;
- 3) People are capable of extending agency beliefs stemming from one source to other domains they deem relevant for experiencing the feeling of success.

3.1. Sampling

The data collection took place from May to June 2019 and the sample of this study was composed of 72 vocationally active individuals currently employed at one of the major corporate businesses in Rzeszow. In order to ensure that our group was homogenous in its nature, all participants were, at the time of the inquiry, pursuing a Bachelor's degree in English Philology. The subjects were assured that their participation was to be voluntary and that it would not affect their final grade in any way. The sample group consisted of 33 (45,83%) male and 39 (54,16%) female subjects, with the age range between 20 to 38.

3.2. Instruments

Participants' sense of self-efficacy was appraised through a standardised version of the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) test derived from Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The instrument consists of 12 forced-answer questions and subjects are requested to record their agreement with each item along a 5-point scale suitable for Likert-Type scale analysis. The tool intends to measure different facets of human agency and is based on positively construed sentences, with the total amount of five possible answers ranging from 'not at all true' to 'exactly true'. On top of measuring the general level of efficacy, the questionnaire scrutinises participant's level of resourcefulness, attitude towards adversities, and effort expenditure tendencies. The test was chosen not only due to its extensive flexibility in measuring different aspects of efficacy beliefs but also due to the availability of large corpus of results, with the mean score oscillating around 0.88 for the individuals aged 20 to 50. The internal consistency of the instrument in this particular research project was 0.84.

In order to better comprehend students' perceived difficulties in anticipating their career path, we have decided to adopt the Career Indecision Scale (CIS) initially developed by

Germejis and De Boeck (2002). The primary version of the tool consists of 17 items, which are further divided into three sections dedicated to exploring various realms of indecisiveness related to career choice, namely information problems, valuation issues, and outcome expectations. The extensive scope of the instrument allows a researcher to approach the problem at hand in a rather holistic manner, however, its most dominant application is to measure the degree of indecision displayed by a subject. In a manner similar to the previous psychometric test, responses are recorded on a 5-point Likert continuum, with grades ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The analysis of the effectiveness of the scale by Germejis (2002) provides a mean Cronbach's alpha between 0.83 and 0.84. The current sample produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.892 for the entire scale, whereas the three dimensions of the career indecision identified before that is information problems, valuation issues, and outcome expectancies provided alpha coefficients of 0.792, 0.767 and 0,801 respectively.

The academic efficiency of participants was assessed during the final practical English exam. During the assessment, four standard criteria were taken into consideration, namely writing ability, the range and accuracy of vocabulary, the correctness of grammar, and the shape of spoken skills. Such an integrated approach allows a researcher to conduct a relatively consistent and objective assessment of language proficiency as opposed to evaluating a single domain of a target language. Bearing in mind the setting of the test, the assessment procedure was loosely based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages description of level C1.

3.3. Data evaluation and results

To ensure the accuracy of our data, the reliability of the instruments employed for the purpose of this study was measured by determining the scores of Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Following this stage, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was applied to peruse the nature of the relationship between our variables. The choice of the correlation method was not coincidental; the results of the Shapiro-Wilk normality test unveiled for our data to be far from typical in a normally distributed population. Table 1 below presents the findings of the test in detail.

Table. 1. Shapiro-Wilk normality test

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	Df	Relevance
General Self-Efficacy (1-5)	.924	72	.025
Career indecision (1-5)	.812	72	.000

It should be noted that although a similar scoring procedure was applied in the case of both instruments, for the Career Indecision Scale, the answers were reverse graded. To be more specific, whereas in the case of the GSES a high score is equated with a well-developed sense of self-efficacy, a similar score in the CIS test possesses rather negative connotations and indicates the presence of ruminative thoughts and the lack of decisiveness with regards to the prospective vocational endeavours. Whilst the mean score

on the GSES was 44.34 and would indicate firmly established agency beliefs, the analysis of the CIS test provided the result of 23,12 which would, under normal circumstances, lead to the conviction that the majority of the participants were not beset by self-doubts in the domain under scrutiny. The outcomes of the two psychometric tests distributed to our subjects were further explored through Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. Table 2 below offers a concise summary of the test results.

Table. 2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

		Career indecision (1-5)
level of General Self-Efficacy (1-5)	Spearman's correlation	.794
	Correlation coefficient	.000
	N	72

The data gathered in the table above seem to support the existence of a strong correlation (0,794) between a high sense of personal agency and the lack of ruminative thoughts yielded by the necessity to define one's future career path. On an additional note, the results stemming from our examination were found to be statistically relevant, indicating that a boost to one's self-efficacy beliefs would be simultaneously followed by a decrease in the likelihood of negative career-related rumination.

Moving on to the last quantitative component of our inquiry that is the correlation between agency beliefs and the success of academic pursuits, the results were, once again, in accord to the study's hypotheses and it was of no surprise that the average result of the academic test was 84.5/100. Specifically, it appears that a high score was more typical for those individuals who reported possessing well-developed agency beliefs, with the Spearman coefficient of 0.847. Similarly to the former item, the results were found to be relevant from the statistical standpoint. The findings are summarised in Table 3 below.

Table. 3. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

		Academic performance (0-100)
level of General Self-Efficacy (1-5)	Spearman's correlation	.847
	Correlation coefficient	.000
	N	72

The primary intent of the present study was to expand on a possible correlation between the state of efficacy beliefs, academic results, and the lack of decisiveness in the context of occupational pursuits. The quantitative part of the investigation provided sufficient evidence to account for the validity of the claim that such a correlation indeed exists. On these grounds, it is possible to draw an unyielding conclusion that, in the population under scrutiny, the value of self-efficacy aids individuals in developing coping strategies adequate in counteracting numerous adversities emerging from the pursuits of both academic and vocational nature. In the following section, we shall turn to presenting and discussing the implications of the results.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The rationale behind this investigation was to scrutinise the extent to which positive self-efficacy beliefs contribute to developing coping efficiency in two significant realms of human existence, namely academic and occupational setting. The quantitative part of the project seems to render this hypothesis accurate as self-efficacy was found to facilitate a person's performance in both domains. One may assume that, regardless of the source of origin, high personal agency beliefs permeate all aspects of human existence and, consequently, the capacity to overcome adversities developed in one domain overlaps on an individual's ability to succeed in other fields crucial for a person. Surprisingly though, the closer analysis of the results stemming from our questionnaires proves otherwise; although the majority of participants reported well-anchored beliefs as to their capacity to manage the vocational demands, some respondents lacked certainty whether this would indeed contribute to achieving academic success. This, in turn, indicates that in terms of agency building, the population under analysis is generally more inclined to seek mastery in their occupational pursuits rather than academic education. A tentative suggestion here might be that as our research group was predominantly composed of young adults, our subjects are more favourably disposed towards extrinsic reinforcements provided by the successful performance at work and have a lesser need to display efficiency in the academic setting. Having in mind the time limitations of our project, there is most definitely a need for larger-scale studies allowing a researcher to investigate this feeling of inadequacy in-depth and determine whether this lack of the capacity to adjust one's efforts in the vicinity of taxing circumstances is a result of the concept of self-efficacy being domain-specific or, for example, the lack of guidance as to how to properly employ coping strategies from one field to the other.

The analysis of the CIS test brings forth another noteworthy observation in terms of the source from which career indecision stems. Some respondents included in the study admitted that they do not possess a clear-cut vision of their desired future vocational activity. Although the group was relatively young and somewhat satisfied with their present working experience, the issue at hand does not only pose an intriguing dilemma for further research work but, more importantly, pinpoints the significant need of the group for career counselling. Additionally, developing agency through experiencing mastery is the most potent source of efficacy beliefs, however, it is also far from being straightforward. Even though some human beings may be fully capable of achieving success in a specific domain, people frequently require initial guidance before self-propelling properties of self-efficacy are activated. Thus, on top of incorporating self-efficacy building techniques to an academic curriculum, it would be recommendable to include elements of career counselling, allowing

students to explore the available work opportunities in which they can exercise mastery and utilise their potential to the fullest extent possible.

The present study was initiated in an endeavour to examine the extent to which a well-developed sense of efficacy facilitates one's performance in the academic setting and reduces the lack of certainty when undertaking decisions crucial for the vocational pursuits. The results yielded by our investigation appear to prove the presence of the presumed correlation, as the mean score of the group was well within the boundaries of the mass corpus data. One of the most interesting findings is that, in the population under scrutiny, a high sense of efficacy in one domain does not seem to pervade other realms crucial for a person but rather our subjects develop their beliefs individually in each aspect of functioning. This outcome, however, may be partially caused by the composition of the sample. Overall, the most important conclusion to be drawn here is that larger-scale longitudinal examinations are still required to investigate the exact impact of efficacy beliefs on various domains of human existence, so that the notion may be better employed as a performance facilitator.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOSOCIAL WORKING CONDITIONS AND THE ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF STUDENTS

The present article describes research findings about students' entrepreneurial intentions, defined as an intention of starting one's own business. The main purpose of the research was to identify the relation between the assessment of entrepreneurial work and entrepreneurial intentions. In addition, the research assessed the psychosocial risks related to working as an entrepreneur and examined key individual and socio-demographic variables related to attitudes regarding entrepreneurial work. The results showed that participants believe that entrepreneurial work has a high level of psychosocial risk. The results also showed that there are some weak yet statistically significant correlations between the index of entrepreneurial psychosocial working conditions and the level of intention of starting one's own business and the probability of becoming an entrepreneur within five years.

Keywords: business, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurship, psychosocial working conditions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The process of starting own business is considered as an intentional activity preceded by making a decision about starting an entrepreneur's career (Krueger, Reilly, Carsrud, 2000), therefore forming an entrepreneurial intention, considered as an intention to start own business. The literature shows a deep consideration over the widely-considered intentions, in particular the factors that shape them (Krueger, Reilly, Carsrud, 2000; Luthje, Franke, 2004; Sieger, Fueglistaller, Zellweger, 2011; Gasse, Tremblay, 2011; Solesvik, 2013). It is a reason for identifying not only various sets of determinants, but also their effect on forming an intention to become an entrepreneur. Among the factors studied, it is worth paying attention to the way the entrepreneur's work is perceived. It can be assumed that the perception of its characteristics and conditions is an additional element of assessing the attractiveness of the entrepreneur's work, whose influence on the entrepreneurial intentions was also analyzed (Linan, Fayolle, 2015; Barba-Sanchez, Atienza-Sahuquillo,

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2017). The research findings also showed that “starting, and running one’s own business is connected with high risk and stress and requires a lot of time and funds” (Piróg, 2014). The assessment of characteristics and conditions related to the entrepreneur’s work may be connected with a risk related to choosing a certain activity in the labor market, which always leads to the occurrence of certain profits, but also to a wide range of potential losses or negative consequences (Mills, Pawson, 2006). The last aspect is of special importance in case of starting a business activity, as the potential losses affect not only the entrepreneur as an individual, but also the employees and the environment in which the company operates. Therefore the assumption that the risk of being an entrepreneur is high may result in insufficient formation of the entrepreneurial intentions, and consequently the resignation from this way of developing a professional career.

2. PSYCHOSOCIAL RISK, STRESS AND WORK REQUIREMENTS

One of the types risk that is currently deeply analyzed in the literature is the psychosocial risk associated with working conditions. In broad terms, adopted in the PRIMA-EF project, “a psychosocial risk connected with work concerns those work designing and managing aspects, and also social and organizational contexts of work, that can cause mental or physical injuries” (Leka, Griffiths, Cox, 2009: 11). The characteristics of work environment can also include the context of work, therefore the aspects such as the organizational culture, the roles inside the organization, career development, decisions and control range or the interpersonal relations at work, work subject, and in particular: work conditions, equipment, undertaken tasks’ conditions, workload, tempo of work or time distribution (Cox, Griffiths, Rial-Gonzalez, 2006).

The connection between psychosocial working conditions and psychosocial risk can be considered as a stress mechanism (Widerszal-Bazyl, 2009). The significant models that can explain the formation of stress at work are the following: job demands-control (JD-C) Karaska, demands-control-support (DCS) Johnson and Hall, effort-reward imbalance (ERI) Siegrista, and also job-demand resources (JD-R) Demerouti and Bakker (Derbis, Baka, 2011; Potocka, Waszkowska, 2013; Schaufeli, Taris, 2014). All of them consider demands as a significant element of the stress formation process³. Assessment of the level of demands is also an essential element of tools prepared to measure the stress level at work. The following can be enumerated as the examples⁴: Psychosocial Job Conditions Survey (hereinafter referred to as PWP), the ERI Survey in the Polish adaptation by Widerszal-Bazyl and Radkiewicz – the demands are listed therein in scale of Work Involvement (Effort), Job Features Survey (hereinafter referred to as KOCP) and Individual Job Rating Survey (hereinafter referred to as KSOP) created by Dudek and his coworkers, Short Scale for Stress Measuring at the workplace (Polish adaptation – Dudek and Hauk), Workplace Stress Measuring Survey, Psychosocial Risk Scale Survey by Merecz and her coworkers, or even Copenhagen Psychosocial Survey in the Polish adaptation by Widerszal-Bazyl (Cieślak, Widerszal-Bazyl, 2000; Dudek, Waszkowska, Merecz, Hanke, 2004; Potocka, 2012; Mościcka-Teske, Potocka, 2014; Orłak, Gołuch, Chmielewski, 2014; Fila, 2016;

³ Considering the individual perception of job demands, it can be connected both to demands – challenges and obstacles (Mockało, Widerszal-Bazyl, 2018).

⁴ Research described in the article was conducted in Poland, with use of a tool written in Polish, therefore considering stress-measuring tools, only the Polish tools or the Polish-adapted ones were mentioned.

Widerszal-Bazyl, 2017). The demands – both real and abstract – can therefore be of great importance when making a decision about the career path as high requirements can potentially lift the psychosocial risk. According to the Job Demand resources model, that kind of risk can be reduced with suitable resources – both the individual ones and those at the workplace. However, to achieve that, an individual has to possess such resources and the knowledge on how to use them (Potocka, Waszkowska, 2013; Kaczmarska, Curyło-Sikora, 2016).

Both the manager's and the entrepreneur's jobs are closely related in terms of being considered as stress-causing and connected with numerous psychosocial risks, and therefore burdened with high psychosocial risk (Basińska, 2005; Żemigąła, 2007; Biegańska, 2008, Wróblewska, 2013; Syper-Jędrzejak, 2014). As a consequence, this may be a potentially dissuasive factor in choosing such career path, particularly considering the individuals entering the labor market, including the university graduates (Arent, Walczyna, 2014a; Walczyna, Arent, 2014).

3. METHODOLOGY

The research presented herein is a part of a bigger project concerning the conditions of the entrepreneurial intentions among the Polish university students. The research tool used therein had been verified and adjusted during the previous pilot research (Arent, Walczyna, 2014a; Arent, Walczyna, 2014b; Walczyna, Arent, 2014). The presented results were developed based on the second part of the project, which was created on the grounds of the "W" scale, used in the Psychosocial Job Conditions Survey (Cieślak, Widerszal-Bazyl, 2000). The assessment of demands that are connected with managing one's business was performed based on 17 items (Cronbach's alpha value – 0.872). The responses were scaled using the five point Likert scale showing that the respondents "Strongly agree" (5) to "Strongly disagree" (1) with a given statement in relation to their business activity.

The group of students surveyed was differentiated in terms of the major (Management vs technical studies), but also other sociodemographic factors, such as gender, age, citizenship, place of residence, university, grade, work experience or entrepreneurial traditions. It was stated (Arent, Walczyna, 2018) that all of them could correlate with both entrepreneurial intentions (the main aim of the research) and the assessment of demands connected with the entrepreneur's work.

The following were used as the leading research questions:

1. How the respondents assess the psychosocial risk connected with the entrepreneur's work?
2. What variables (individual, socio-demographic) differentiate the perception of the entrepreneur's work?
3. Does the correlation between the psychosocial risk awareness and the students' business intentions exist?
4. What is the correlation between the assessment of the psychosocial entrepreneur's work conditions and the entrepreneurial intentions of the students in short and long periods of time?

The research was conducted in the years 2016-2017 on a sample of 729 students (727 questionnaires were qualified for the final analysis). During the first phase the students of Management from three universities based in Lublin: Lublin University of Technology (PL), Maria Curie Skłodowska University (UMCS) and The John Paul II Catholic

University of Lublin (KUL) took part in the survey. During the second phase, the students of technical majors were surveyed. The research sample's characteristics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The research sample's characteristics

Variable	Data
Gender	Female – 59.3% Male – 40.7%
Age	22 y.o. and less – 31.5%; 23–25 y.o. – 64.1%; 26 y.o. and more – 4.4%
Citizenship	Polish – 93.4%; other – 6.6%
Place of birth	Village – 46.9%; town (less than 200k citizens) – 27.0%; city (more than 200k citizens) – 26.1%
Business experience in family	Yes – 34.8%; no – 65.2%
Job status during survey*	Contract of employment – 7.6 %; civil law agreement – 25.9%; own business – 1.6%; unemployed – 64.9%
University	PL – 71.1%; UMCS – 19.1%; KUL – 9.8%
Grade	Undergraduate – 44.7%; Graduate program – 55.3%
Major	Management – 48.8%; technical studies – 51.2%

* The three first categories were combined in further calculations presented herein

Source: own study based on the survey results.

4. RESULTS

Basic descriptive statistics for the specific characteristics of the entrepreneur's work are listed in Table 2.

The obtained data indicate that the work of the entrepreneur is perceived as being associated with high requirements that, in the absence of resources or the skills to use them properly, can generate high levels of stress and other associated risks. This applies mainly to the belief that negligence of one's responsibilities can lead to serious consequences, a sense of responsibility for employees, the need for numerous social contacts, as well as the responsibility for fixed assets. The obtained means vary between 4.18 and 4.29 and the mode is equal to 5. Similar means (from 4.15 to 4.23) but with the mode of 4 were obtained for the statements that the entrepreneur's work demands high concentration, making financial decisions connected with the business' functioning, cooperation with authorities and other public institutions, solving complicated problems and planning actions for a long time ahead. The lowest marks were obtained by the statement about demand for breaking rules for the sake of maintaining effectiveness (mean 2.76, mode 3).

The U Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to check which variables differentiate the perception of the individual work's characteristics that make up for the psychosocial working conditions of the entrepreneur. Table 3 shows the significance level *p* of the observed differences.

Table 2. Assessment of the Entrepreneur's Psychosocial Working Conditions

Characteristic's number	Specification	Descriptive statistics				
		Mean	Valids	Mode	Mode size	Standard deviation
1	Need of working overtime and on free Saturdays	3.99	725	4	306	0.989
2	Demand for high concentration	4.23	725	4	366	0.530
3	Demand for good memory	3.99	725	4	335	0.764
4	Demand for solving complicated tasks	4.15	725	4	310	0.739
5	Demand for planning one's actions for a long time ahead	4.15	725	4	314	0.690
6	Demand for making financial decisions considering one's business	4.21	725	4	328	0.647
7	Responsibility for the fixed assets	4.18	725	5	300	0.751
8	Responsibility for the employees	4.25	724	5	326	0.717
9	Negligence in one's work can lead to serious consequences	4.29	725	5	351	0.682
10	Demand for making fast or (and) risky decisions	4.06	724	4	300	0.772
11	Demand for having high qualifications	3.50	724	4	234	1.194
12	Demand for constant learning of new things	4.12	725	4	329	0.727
13	Demand for being creative	4.10	725	4	292	0.765
14	Demand for contacting other people frequently	4.23	724	5	330	0.769
15	Demand for cooperating with authorities and other public institutions	4.17	725	4	298	0.734
16	Demand for breaking the rules for the sake of completing one's tasks	2.76	724	3	233	1.366
17	Demand for resolving numerous social conflicts at the work environment	3.69	725	4	304	0.991

Source: own study based on the survey results.

Table 3. Differentiation of perception of the entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions (PWP)

Characteristic's number	Specification	Differentiating variable*					
		Gender	Citizenship	University	Grade	Work during studies	General Experience
1	Need of working overtime and on free Saturdays		0.0000	0.0431		0.0031	0.0024
2	Demand for high concentration	0.0003					
3	Demand for good memory	0.0150				0.0002	0.0000
4	Demand for solving complicated tasks	0.0102				0.0003	0.0001
5	Demand for planning one's actions for a long time ahead	0.0363	0.0477				
6	Demand for making financial decisions considering one's business	0.0001	0.0004	0.0504		0.0014	0.0051
7	Responsibility for the fixed assets	0.0003	0.0037		0.0113	0.0273	
8	Responsibility for the employees	0.0158			0.0319		
9	Negligence in one's work can lead to serious consequences		0.0132	0.0111	0.0118	0.0168	0.0351
10	Demand for making fast or (and) risky decisions	0.0008					
11	Demand for having high qualifications	0.0145				0.0105	0.0312
12	Demand for constant learning of new things	0.0005			0.0328	0.0090	0.0132

Table 3 (cont.). Differentiation of perception of the entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions (PWP)

Characteristic's number	Specification	Differentiating variable*					
		Gender	Citizenship	University	Grade	Work during studies	General Experience
13	Demand for being creative	0.0002	0.0185	0.0330	0.0017	0.0056	
14	Demand for contacting other people frequently			0.0007	0.0006		
15	Demand for cooperating with authorities and other public institutions	0.0009		0.0046	0.0161	0.0177	
16	Demand for breaking the rules for the sake of completing one's tasks	0.0008	0.0000	0.0507	0.0014		
17	Demand for resolving numerous social conflicts at the work environment					0.0084	0.0099

* Table does not include variables that do not contribute or insignificantly contribute to the differentiation of the entrepreneur's work perception

Source: own study based on the survey results.

The variable that mostly contributes to the perception of the entrepreneur's work is gender. Women consider that kind of job as connected to the high psychosocial risk – statistically crucial differences apply to 13 out of 17 analyzed statements. No differences were noted only for the statements number 1, 9, 14 and 17. The students who took up a job while studying at the university evaluated the psychosocial risk connected to 11 characteristics of working as an entrepreneur. No differences were found for statements number 2, 5, 8, 10, 14 and 16. The variable of studies grade differentiates 8 characteristics. Each of them (items number 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16) got more points from the graduate students (Master's Degree). The assessment of seven characteristics was differentiated by the following variables: citizenship, university and general experience. The influence of working status during the evaluation and the place of residence differentiated the assessment to a very low extent. The former differentiated the assessments of statements 3 and 4, while the latter – only of the statement number 4. No statistically significant influence of age and business traditions was noted.

The variable that was considered as the one that could possibly differentiate the entrepreneur's work perception was the academic major. Based on the assessment's results,

the statistically significant differences were observed only for the assessment of three demands related to the entrepreneur's work: 1, 16 and 14. The statements 1 and 16 were assessed higher by students of Management, whereas the statement 14 was assessed higher by the students of technical studies.

The analysis of the characteristics of the entrepreneur's work according to the adopted variables also indicated those statements in which the greatest variation occurred (Table 4).

Table 4. Characteristics of the entrepreneur's work with the highest number of differentiating variables

Characteristic's number	Specification	Differentiating variables
1	Need of working overtime and on free Saturdays	Citizenship, University, major, work during the studies, general experience
4	Demand for solving complicated tasks	Gender, place of residence, work during the studies, general experience, working status
6	Demand for making financial decisions considering one's business	Gender, citizenship, University, work during the studies, general experience
9	Negligence in one's work can lead to serious consequences	Citizenship, University, grade, work during the studies, general experience
13	Demand for being creative	Gender, citizenship, University, grade, work during the studies

Source: own study basing on the survey results.

In turn, the assessment of statements 2 and 10 turned out to be differentiated only on the basis of gender, and the statements 5, 8 and 17 were differentiated by two variables, respectively: gender and citizenship, gender and degree of study, as well as work during studies and general experience.

The above detailed analysis of the assessment of the entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions was generalized by creating an index of perception of entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions (hereinafter referred to as IPWP). It was created by the summing up the points that were assigned by the survey respondents to every statement related to working as an entrepreneur (Babbie, 2007). Its value varies between 17 (when the respondents' answer to all the statements was 1 – strongly disagree) and 85 (when the respondents' answer to all the statements was 5 – strongly agree). Interpretation of scale is intuitive – a higher result means perceiving the entrepreneur's work as being associated with greater psychosocial risk. For the purposes of the interpretation, the following psychosocial risk assessment ranges were created: 17–38 – low psychosocial risk, 39–61 – moderate psychosocial risk, 62–85 – high psychosocial risk.

Table 5. Index of perception of the entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions

IPWP point value	Interpretation	Degree			
		Number	Cumulative number	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
17-38	Low	1	1	0.1%	0.1%
39-61	Moderate	150	151	20.6%	20.8%
62-85	High	569	720	78.3%	99.0%
shortages	-	7	727	1.0%	100.0%

Source: own study based on the survey results.

The results show that the respondents consider the entrepreneur's work as connected to high psychosocial risk. In order to check the differentiation level of general assessment of demands connected to the entrepreneur's work determined by the variables listed in Table 1 herein, the U Man Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted (Table 6).

Table 6. Differentiation of perception of the entrepreneur's psychosocial working conditions index

Variable	Category	Number of valids	Sum of ranges	U	Valid Z
Gender	Female	427	164226.00	52263.00	3.756367***
	Male	293	95334.00		
Regular work	Yes	284	112554.00	51740.00	3.731630***
	No	436	147006.00		
Apprenticeship and internship	Yes	550	203951.00	41074.00	2.396152*
	No	170	55609.00		
General experience	Bigger	352	136267.00	55397.00	3.361116***
	Lower	368	123293.99		
Grade	Undergraduate	321	109846.00	58165.00	-2.118900*
	Graduate	399	149714.00		

* $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own study based on the survey results.

Among the analyzed variables of the PWP index, some statistically significant differences were found for the following variables: gender, regular work during studies, apprenticeship and internship, general experience. In terms of psychosocial conditions, the entrepreneur's work was assessed as associated with higher demands by: women, people working regularly during studies (regular job, contract of specific work, contract of mandate), people undertaking extra trainings and courses, respondents whose work experience can be evaluated as wide, as well as the Master's level students. The variables that do not differentiate the perception of entrepreneur's work are: citizenship and current employment status (uneven distribution of the variable in both cases), business traditions, major, place of residence and age.

Based on the survey results, the following entrepreneurial intentions of the respondents were defined: the level of interest in starting a business and the probability of starting a company in two time perspectives: within the next two and five years from the survey (Table 7).

Table 7. The level of interest in starting a business

Variables ⁵	Number of valids	Mean	Mode	Mode number	Standard deviation
Level of interest in starting own business	725	3.80	4.00	357	0.942
Probability of starting own business within the next two years	704	2.78	3.00	211	1.193
Probability of starting own business within the next five years	706	3.76	4.00	315	0.920

Source: own study based on the survey results.

Nearly half of the respondents stated that they were “interested” in starting their own business, and 1/5 declared it to a high degree. Such result should be considered good. Entrepreneurial intentions measured by the probability of starting own business are higher in a five-year perspective, though. The cumulative percentage for both “likely” and “very likely” responses for the two-year perspective is 27%, and for the five-year perspective – nearly 64%. The study of the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and the psychosocial working conditions index (IPWP) using Pearson's correlation coefficient is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Value of the Pearson's correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) between the psychosocial working conditions index (IPWP) and the entrepreneurial intentions

Variable	Pearson's r	p
Level of interest in starting own business	0.091932	<0.05
Probability of starting own business within the next two years	0.050814	n.m.
Probability of starting own business within the next five years	0.100677	<0.05

Source: own study based on the survey results.

The obtained results show the existence of indistinct (very weak) yet statistically significant correlations between the IPWP and the level of interest in starting own business and the probability of starting own business within five years. There is no connection between the IPWP and probability of starting own business within the next two years (correlation is very weak and not statistically significant)⁶.

⁵ All of the variables were evaluated using the Likert scale. In case of the first statement – the respondents were stating one's own interest in starting own business from 5 – very interested to 1 – not interested. In case of the probability: from 5 – very likely to 1 – not likely.

⁶ The power of linear dependence was interpreted with use of the following scale: = < 0.2 weak correlation, > 0.2- =< 0.4 clear but weak correlation, > 0.4- = < 0.6 moderate, > 0.6- = < 0.8 significant, > 0.8 ideal and very strong correlation (Kowal 2011).

5. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Summing up the obtained results, it should be stated that the entrepreneur's work is perceived by students as burdened with high psychosocial risk, requiring constant attention and concentration, combining high responsibility for decisions both in the financial and human-related terms. Such picture concerns both the specific work characteristics (13) and the IPWP Index created on their basis. However, it is not homogeneous. The variable that differentiates the perception of the entrepreneur's work to the highest extent is gender⁷. Women assess this type of work as more stress-causing. It seems that this variable could be important both in the biological aspect (sex) and sociocultural one (gender), which is connected with socialization and functioning stereotypes in a certain society (Mandal, 2003; Królikowska, 2011). "Therefore it should be considered not as a straight bipartite demographic variable, but as a wide and hard to define context and social construct, considered both as an individual aspect and cultural one" (Mandal, 2003). In this respect, it is certainly worth undertaking further research and in-depth analysis.

Another important variable differentiating the perception of the entrepreneur's work at the level of some specific characteristics (11) and the IPWP was regular work during studies. The respondents who used to work or were working regularly when taking part in the survey perceived the entrepreneur's work as associated with a greater psychosocial risk. It should be assumed that in the course of their professional career they had had the opportunity to observe the work of entrepreneurs and stressors that they had encountered, which made the picture more realistic. This interpretation is also supported by the perception of the entrepreneur's work as more stress-causing by the Master's level students (8 characteristics, IPWP) and with more professional experience (7 characteristics, IPWP). What is surprising, however, the current status of employment turned out to be the only variable that minimally differentiated the perception of the entrepreneur's work (2 characteristics). This certain inconsistency is most likely due to the fact that some respondents who declared working during their studies may not be working currently (e.g. due to resignation from work in order to focus on the preparation of the diploma thesis). Therefore, each respondent assigned to the same group can significantly differ from other ones. Surprisingly, the traditions of entrepreneurship in the family do not differentiate the perception of the entrepreneur's work. This in turn may result from the overall high assessment of the requirements related to the work of the entrepreneur. Similarly, age does not differentiate the perception of the entrepreneur's work. It seems that this is related to the relatively small diversity of respondents as all of them de facto belong to one cohort. In addition, studies conducted among managers indicate that age is not a variable that differentiates the level of the experienced stress (Jabłkowska, Borkowska, 2005).

The field of study (major) slightly differentiated the perception of the entrepreneur's work (3 characteristics). However, it should be noted that the students of technical faculties assessed the statement "Demand for contacting other people frequently" higher than other respondents. This difference may result from the fact that the Management studies attach greater importance to the education of the so-called soft skills, as well as differences in the perception of the desired work environment ("work with machines" – "work with people") at the stage of choosing the field of study.

⁷ Also in the studies of K. Jabłkowska and A. Borkowska related to the elevated stress level at work and the professional burnout it turned out that gender was a differentiating factor of experienced stress level (Jabłkowska, Borkowska, 2005).

The university is a variable that differentiated the perception of the entrepreneur's work with respect to its 7 characteristics. However, they are difficult to interpret unequivocally due to differences in sample sizes within individual universities and due to the diversity of respondents from the Lublin University of Technology – the respondents came from two different fields of study – Management and technical studies. Thus, the variable “field of study” seems more reliable and easier to interpret. It should be noted, however, that the students from the Technical University obtained the highest result in relation to the statement “Demand for contacting other people frequently”, which is in line with the differences observed with respect to the variable “field of study”.

A unique feature of the Lublin educational market is the growing presence of students from across the eastern border. Among the respondents there were 48 respondents who had citizenship other than Polish. Due to the high disproportion between the number of students with Polish and other citizenship, one should beware of far-reaching caution in formulating conclusions. However, it is worth considering the differences observed. It seems that they should be interpreted with regard to the cultural differences, different experiences related to the observation of the entrepreneurs and the socio-economic and legal environment in the country of origin. This applies, *inter alia*, to statement 16 (“Demand for breaking the rules for the sake of completing one’s tasks”), where a higher score was given by the foreign students.

The last of the analyzed variables, *i.e.* the place of residence, did not differentiate the perception of the psychosocial working conditions of the entrepreneur neither in relation to the entire index, nor some specific characteristic. As the respondents are the students of the last year of both undergraduate and graduate studies, it seems likely that any differences could be lost due to several years of living in the same environment.

The practical aim of the research presented herein is to identify the factors that have positive impact on the entrepreneurial intentions. However, the analyzes carried out do not indicate a relationship between the assessment of the psychosocial working conditions and the entrepreneurial intentions (statistically significant correlations at the level of 0.1 in case of general interest in running their own business and starting it within five years). This may lead to the conclusion that the respondents at the current stage of career planning do not consider this factor. This can be explained by the relatively small professional experience of students of general academic courses. Although almost half of the respondents (49%) were qualified to a group with a high level of professional experience due to the continuous work during their studies (including work in a family business), only 12 respondents had their own experience in running a business. The age of the respondents may also have considerable impact on the results, as it is more connected with the focus on values such as leadership and taking up challenges than security or stabilization (Lubrańska, 2016).

The obtained results show possible ideas for further and more in-depth research. This applies not only to deepening the research on identifying the reasons for differentiating the assessment of the psychosocial working conditions of the entrepreneur, but above all the confrontation with how entrepreneurs assess their work in this area. Only then will it be possible to indicate the directions of possible actions that could favor the entrepreneurial attitudes of students.

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