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Transformations in marketing on contemporary market

Przeobrażenia w marketingu na współczesnym rynku

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Introduction

The articles in this volume of the journal raise the issues related to transformations in marketing on the contemporary market. The aim of the publication is to present the issues in the context of marketing trends, including changing the way of building relationships, the use of information technology in relationship management, communication tools, online marketing, and the use of social media. The consequence of this objective is the structure of this journal consisting of two parts:

1. Creation and management of relations on the contemporary market.
2. Transformation of marketing in the era of technological evolution.

The authors of the publication describe the issues in a variety of ways, which contributes to the fact that the information presented may be useful to a wide audience. The results of the theoretical considerations and research are presented by different authors from numerous academic centers in Poland. Their publications have shown individual and multi-threaded approach to the issues discussed. The editors would like to thank all the authors for the articles, for making the effort, and for the preparation of original scientific papers touching on the current topics.

Creation and management of relations on the contemporary market

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Use of strategic marketing management tools in contemporary enterprises

JEL codes: M10, M30

Keywords: strategic management, strategic marketing, management tools

Abstract. This article aims at a brief presentation of problems with the use of strategic marketing management tools in enterprises, which are becoming a basic category of strategic management. The author has resigned from analysing specific management solutions and focused mainly on theoretical issues with a wide scope of reference. First, the author presents a terminology network, which is slightly disregarded in the Polish literature. Next, the author makes an attempt to outline basic problems, including the problems connected with the preferences of managerial choices and the advantages of their proper use. The author's comments are intended to trigger further detailed empirical research.

Introduction

The quickly changing modern and complex business environment makes it even more difficult for enterprises in the market to conduct their activities. The enterprises face even greater requirements and are forced to be active (Andruszkiewicz, 2007). It can be noticed that the increase of the degree of strategic plans usage correlates positively with the increase of environment instability (Brews, Purohit, 2007). This, in turn, is a presumption that their character will evolve all the time.

A basic task of strategic management is to build and maintain competitive advantage of an enterprise, which should make it possible to achieve above-average results of its business activities. Although, in practice, most organisations will never achieve this, the competitive advantage concept will still beat other theories of effectiveness (Powell, 2001). Thus enterprises should strive to build competitive advantage and, in fact, they succeed. As Haffer (2003) rightly points out, succeeding in the accomplishment of one's strategic targets is possible owing to development of competitive advantage by an enterprise, and this is the sine qua non of success.

What is important from the point of view of this article, the most significant component of strategic management (a core of strategic management) is still strategic marketing (Andruszkiewicz, 2007). It is extremely difficult to draw a dividing line between a marketing strategy and other strategies comprising a general strategy of an enterprise. Their elements overlap and complement one another creating a new value for an organisation (Vardarajan, Clark, 1994). The most significant elements of a marketing strategy include its tools and, specifically, their selection and development (Rutkowski, 2012).

As Altkorn (2001) rightly points out, the basis of marketing management is permanent adjustment of an organisation to environment, and this, in turn, constitutes one of the greatest cotemporary challenges for managers. Thus the theses stating that the role of marketing in the strategies of contemporary enterprises will be growing, are justified. However, its shape will still evolve and the preferences regarding the use of strategic marketing tools will change.

The paper briefly describes problems with the use of strategic marketing management tools in contemporary companies. This article is based on an extensive review of domestic and foreign literature. The author's comments are intended to trigger further detailed empirical research.

Strategic marketing management tools − basic issues

First, several comments have to be made on the term of "strategic management tools." It will be treated collectively in this article. The use of this notion has to be associated inevitably with resignation from investigations into the scope of similarities and differences between basic management terms such as methods, techniques, concepts, or approaches. Acceptance of this method of reasoning results from pragmatics, which is dominant in management sciences being a field strictly connected with business practice. In such fields, there is no single and commonly adopted opinion explaining what "strategic management tools" really are. Table 1 presents some examples of definitions.

Table 1

Examples of definitions of 'strategic management tools'

Author	Definition
Clark (1997)	"numerous techniques, tools, methods, models, frameworks, approaches and methodologies which are available to support decision making within strategic management"
Stenfors, Tanner, Haapalinna (2004)	"heterogeneous group of products designed to support organizations in dealing with the complex demands of competitive markets and the quest to create and maintain strategic advantage"
Afonina, Chalupsky (2012)	"different tools which support managers in all phases of strategic management – from the strategic analysis phase, through the strategic choice to implementation"
Knott (2006)	"this term is used to encompass full range of concepts, ideas, techniques and approaches that structure or influence the strategic thinking, strategic decision-making and strategy implementation activity"

Source: Clark, 1997; Stenfors, Tanner, Haapalinna, 2004; Afonina, Chalupsky, 2012; Knott, 2006 (as cited in Afonina, Chalupsky, 2012).

The above-mentioned definitions allow to state that the discussed category should be treated widely, and the basis for qualifying to its collection is always a feature of their potential influence on each stage of the strategic management process. A basic subgroup of the above includes strategic marketing tools (Armstrong, 2006). This term may be understood as including all the methods and techniques which support formulation and realisation of a marketing strategy of an enterprise.

Research suggests that managers use such tools to support situation analysis and evaluation of strategic choices (Jarzabkowski, Kaplan, 2015). Strategic management tools have become a key element to achievement and supporting competitive advantage in the condition of unstable economic and political environment (Afonina, Chalupsky, 2013). The benefits of strategic management tools can be summarized as: claimed to solve practical problems, designed for executives to help them to analyse environment, make a decision, provided diversity by creating point of views, can be adapted to a wide range for strategic tasks, facilitating social interaction between strategy participants (Afonina, Chalupsky, 2013).

Nowadays, strategic marketing tools have gained special significance in connection with the increase of significance of marketing functions in enterprises. This has effects on the already mentioned turbulent business environment and, in particular, the dynamic and unprecedented development of its technological dimensions. Moreover, the increasing competitive fight makes managers look for new and more effective methods of understanding consumers, creating tailored products and more efficient and effective distribution or communication with customers (Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders, Wong, 2002). Rosa (2012) indicates that, as a result of changing conditions, marketing undergoes atomisation and there is a violent growth in demand for new marketing tools in the changing environment. In such turbulent times, the orientation of buyers has to be transformed into the orientation on strategy.

The use of strategic marketing management tools

Traditionally, the structure of marketing includes four most important elements such as a product, price, distribution, and promotion. In fact, the elements make it possible to divide more detailed tools into groups in a logical manner. There are hundreds of them in management sciences. Thus marketing strategy comprises several tool strategies (Penc-Pietrzak, 1999) in which managers apply marketing tools. They shape a manner in which a general strategy of an enterprise is developed. A model process of the strategy formation should be based on several stages, i.e. identification of problems, diagnosing of environment and inside of an organisation, development and selection of strategic variants, and realisation of a strategy (de Wit, Meyer, 2007). The stages constitute further criteria of division of tools, however, the blurred character and already indicated overlapping of the functions of an enterprise make it difficult to separate unambiguously some marketing tools from others.

Marketing activity tools and their hierarchy and structure result from a certain conduct chosen by an enterprise (Rutkowski, 2012). Every tool has its own strengths and weaknesses. To succeed, managers must understand the effects (and side effects) of each tool, then combine the right tools in the right way (Rigby, Bilodeau, 2007). It is certain that some management tools should be used for specific purposes, and have desired effects. In a pragmatic and classical approach to management, any activities undertaken are to lead to the accomplishment of assumed targets. They may include financial or non-financial targets.

Tassabehji and Isherwood (2014) suggest that a complete description of strategic management tools utilization in business practice requires research on a few specific fields, which should be analysed in stages. First, authors point at the need to investigate what tools are used. Further, research could be conducted into what strategic tools are used for communication, validation, or generation of innovative strategies. Then, there is a need to investigate the factors that might impact the use of strategic tools, including firm performance, firm size, centralization/decentralization, duration of planning, and environmental instability. The majority of researches that have been conducted on strategy tools focused more on what strategy tools are used than on why or how they are applied. Hence, the reasons for the use of strategy tools are still a little known topic (He, Antonio, Rosa, 2012).

Development of information technologies, including the Internet, modifies strategic marketing management all the time. The scope of very specialised marketing tools available is still expanding. On the one hand, it allows for solving a series of problems in a more effective manner, improves the quality of internal and external communications, makes it possible to learn more about customers' demands, or establish more durable relations with the same. However, on the other hand, there are a lot of serious issues, which often disappear in the day-to-day managerial routine. Any marketing management tools, not only the new ones, tend to be implemented with latest fashions. They may be imposed by a business partner or even implemented unknowingly.

The use of strategic management tools depends not only on the material properties, nor on the intended design of a tool, but also on the context and the interpretations of the actors who may use them in creative and unpredictable ways (Jarzabkowski, Kaplan, 2015; see also Faraj, Azad, 2012; Jarzabkowski, Pinch, 2014). It is scientifically proved, that managerial tools, which are familiar and easy to use, require no training or specific competence to understand and apply them (Jarzabkowski, Kaplan, 2015; Frost, 2003).

Slightly different thesis was formulated by Gunn and Williams (2007). These researchers noted that the use of strategic management tools by managers depends on the way of their education. They found that academically trained managers use the tools heavily reliant on theoretical frameworks, and that professionally trained managers most often use the tools associated with industry. The use of strategic management tools depends also on other criterion, such as awareness. Managers can be stakeholder or competitor aware. Some scholars demonstrate that there is no real difference in utilization between a country and business sector in which the managers operate (Tassabehji, Isherwood, 2014).

Using tools may enable managers to feel more rational in their strategic choices (Pondy, Frost, Morgan, Dandridge, 1983). Jarzabkowski and Kaplan (2015) correctly pointed out that employees have more or less freedom to select a tool depending on their position in the hierarchy. The growth of an employee's rank also leads to the increase of independence of his/her selection. Research relating to users of strategic instruments focus mainly on senior managers, who, as a general rule, are the most autonomous group in enterprises. It is obvious that they do not use personally all the solutions implemented in an organisation due to a lot of other obligations. This problem is observed particularly in the case of methods of business environment analysis for the purposes of marketing strategy. However, they do make strategic choices as based on results obtained. Therefore, it seems that greater research attention should be devoted to the users of strategic tools who are not involved in decision-making processes.

Additionally, the literature indicates that choices of tools are often undeliberate, and have a routine character in the practice of an organisation (Feldman, Orlikowski, 2011). Therefore, it is not possible to establish rational prerequisites for selection of the same, nor associate them unambiguously with the purposes which they are to serve. Depending on the organizational culture, one deals with a weaker or stronger willingness to implement changes.

On the other hand, implementation of strategic tools in enterprises supports the growth of awareness, which helps to decrease the risks connected with making some decisions, determination of priorities in large enterprises, and delivery of a model for assessment of relative significance of various business portfolios (Aldehayyat, Anchor, 2009).

Another issue relates to the 'correctness' of use of the tools in managerial practice. This includes a manner of use of a given method, technique, etc. which is correct from a scientific point of view, complies with model steps and suggestions of authors of the same. Unfortunately, relative flexibility of use of strategic tools makes us doubt in cognitive abilities relating to the above.

In summary of this part of the article, it is necessary to agree with Eppler (2000), who notices that managers will have to rely more and more on their interpretation, analysis, and questioning skills than on their prior knowledge and experience, as their environment becomes increasingly turbulent.

Summary

The role of marketing in contemporary strategic management will continue to grow under the influence of dynamics of changes in business environment. Classical strategic marketing management tools become insufficient for succeeding in the market. A large number of available solutions, limited cognitive abilities of managers, or simply a lack of time often lead to the implementation of concepts, methods, or techniques of operation without deep consideration of their adequacy in a given area or in unawareness of other method of operation, which can be potentially better. Their number will continue to grow, above all, due to development of new technologies.

To sum up, managers should be recommended to reflect on strategic marketing managements tools implemented and used by an enterprise. Such tools should be adjusted to the needs of a specific enterprise and, above all, be effective. It should be remembered that implementation of the best solutions available will never be sufficient for an enterprise to succeed.

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Wykorzystanie instrumentów strategicznego zarządzania marketingowego we współczesnych przedsiębiorstwach

Słowa kluczowe: zarządzanie strategiczne, marketing strategiczny, instrumenty zarządzania

Streszczenie. Celem niniejszego artykułu jest zwięzłe przedstawienie problematyki wykorzystania instrumentów strategicznego zarządzania marketingowego w przedsiębiorstwach, które stają się obecnie podstawową kategorią zarządzania strategicznego. Zrezygnowano z analizy konkretnych rozwiązań zarządczych i skupiono się głównie na zagadnieniach teoretycznych o szerokim zakresie odniesienia. W pierwszej kolejności zaprezentowano nieco pomijaną w polskiej literaturze siatkę terminologiczną. Następnie podjęto próbę zarysowania podstawowych problemów w zakresie podejmowanej problematyki, w tym zagadnienia związane z preferencjami wyborów menedżerskich oraz korzyściami płynącymi z ich właściwego zastosowania. Poczynione uwagi w zamierzeniu autora mają stanowić przyczynek do dalszych, szczegółowych badań empirycznych.

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Text and images in promotional materials − what type of information is important for customers?

JEL code: M31

Keywords: shop newsletters, eye tracking research, perception of a product offer

Abstract. In promotional materials, such as shop newsletters, the visual message is used more and more often, while shortening the descriptions of products. Although the image often attracts attention first, it may not necessarily maintain it and not always allows to assess the quality of the product. In the case of technological products, technical specification seems to be particularly important in the process of purchase decision-making. Simultaneously, its appearance seems to be a feature of minor importance. In this study, two types of newsletters were compared: containing large images and short descriptions, and containing small images and long descriptions. Participants were asked to read the offer and evaluate the attractiveness of the products. The aim of this study was to compare the assessment of the attractiveness depending on the length of description and the size of the images, as well as a comparative analysis of the visual exploration of both types of newsletters based on eye tracking data.

Introduction

Marketers often claim that nowadays we are living in a pictorial era, especially in the area of marketing communication. Nearly every ad, regardless of its type (printed, television, or Internet), consists of huge, colorful images whose aim is to convince us on the emotional level about the benefits of a certain product or service.

The message is usually pretty simple, often limited to a recommendation given by a physically attractive and well-dressed person. But is this really all we need to make up our mind and buy the product? To some extent, in the case of advertisements, it might be enough only to catch one's attention and present a certain product in order to make people aware of its existence and build positive associations. However, in the case of shop newsletters, their aim is rather to deliver more detailed information about the current offer, so customers can make sure it meets their expectations. Especially regarding the electronic devices, their specification is crucial and, for the majority of customers, more important than its appearance.

In this experimental study, two versions of promotional materials were compared, both of them related to technological products. One of them contained large images of the products and short descriptions, and the other one contained relatively small images and extended descriptions. The visual exploration path was recorded for every participant using eye tracking mobile device. It seems that there are minor differences in the field exploration depending on the configuration of elements on promotional materials, but there are also some patterns of exploration that emerge and are quite consistent regardless of the type of visual stimulus.

Theoretical background

Relatively little is known about the perception of text and images in marketing materials. Although a lot of research is conducted in this area, often times using eye tracking devices, it is usually carried out for private companies, and the results are not available to the public. Probably, the first published study aiming at uncovering the processes accompanying the visual exploration of marketing materials was undertaken by Rayner, Rotello, Stewart, Keir, and Duffy (2001). In this study, participants were told to imagine they had just moved to England and needed to buy a car or a skin lotion, depending on the instructional condition. They were exposed to 24 different advertisements, 8 car ads, 8 lotion ads, and 8 others. What they found is that the average fixation duration and the average saccade were longer on the pictures than on the text. What is more, for the large text, fixations were shorter than for the small one, and the saccades were longer. Regarding the scan path, the participants tended to look first at the big print, then move to small print, and finally explore the pictures contained in the ad. Sometimes before moving to the small print, they made a short fixation on a picture. The participants were also asked about their preferences for the ads, and, as it turned out, they disliked ads with no picture or with too much text.

Apart from this study, there are two others, which also refer to the processes of perception of a material consisting of text and images, although they are not embedded in the context of marketing. One of them, conducted by Carroll, Young, and Guertin (1992) applies to visual exploration of cartoons. It revealed that text and image processing are rather separated than interweaving events. Besides, the image examination usually came after the text processing, and was associated with longer average fixations. What is interesting, unlike in other experiments, the saccades tended to be shorter during image inspection than during text reading.

Another study which used text with images as a stimuli was performed by Hegarty (1992a, 1992b). The results showed that the image inspection usually came after the text reading, which is consistent with the results of Carroll et al. (1992) and Rayner et al. (2001). What is more, the final image inspection was longer and more global than the earlier ones.

The present study, as those discussed above, contained materials with text and images, but in the form of shop newsletters. What is more, the size of images and descriptions was manipulated in order to check for potential differences in the visual field exploration. Newsletters were printed and presented in the form they usually appear in the shop, which provided quite natural conditions.

Method

39 students of Poznan University of Economics participated in the study, 20 of them were female. Their age ranged from 18 to 24, with the average of 21. They were given a printed shop newsletter form an electronic store. It consisted of a big company logo at the top and four different products with a picture, logo, description, and a price. It included a game console, computer, smartphone, and tablet. Half of them received a newsletter with big pictures and short product descriptions, and the other half − a newsletter with small pictures and long descriptions. In the former condition, the area covered by pictures was about 16% of a whole newsletter and about 5% was covered by descriptions, while in the latter − 10% was covered by pictures and 10% by descriptions. Other parts of the newsletter remained the same in both conditions.

The task was to look at the newsletter and choose one product which participants would like to give as a gift to a close person. Then, they were asked to fill out a short questionnaire. It consisted of questions about the chosen product, the factors that influenced their decision (picture, description, price, the ability to purchase in installments, brand, other), and the perceived attractiveness of all the products on a 10-grade scale. While looking at the newsletter, their eye movements were recorded using a mobile eye tracking device with 60 Hz sampling frequency.

Results

Mann-Whitney test was performed in order to look for potential differences in the product attractiveness evaluation depending on the size of the images and descriptions. No differences were found between the big images condition (game console: $M = 7.00$, $SD = 1.80$; computer: $M = 6.05$, $SD = 2.10$; smartphone: $M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.78$; tablet: $M = 6.95$, $SD = 2.17$) and the small images condition (game console: $M = 7.65$, $SD = 1.14$; computer: $M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.84$; smartphone: $M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.92$; tablet: $M = 6.25$, $SD = 1.94$). Also, a chi-square analysis did not reveal any significant differences in the participants' choice. For four products (game console, computer, smartphone, and tablet) the number of participants who had chosen a particular product in the big images condition was: 7, 1, 2, and 9 respectively. In the second condition: 13, 0, 1, and 6. Similarly, there were no significant differences in declared factors that determined the participants' decision. In both groups, the participants stated that the most important factor for them was the image of a product. The multivariate ANOVA was performed in order to look for a potential impact of the image/description size and the type of stimulus (image, description, price, logo, shop logo on the top) on the eye movement characteristics. All the images formed one AOI group, as well as all the product descriptions, prices, and logos. There were no significant differences in the eye movement characteristics depending on the size of images/descriptions. There were, however, significant differences in a few eye movement characteristics depending on the AOI group. AOI groups differed in normalized dwell time (which is dwell time in milliseconds divided by the area of coverage) [$F(4) = 7.26$, $p < 0.05$]. Post hoc Turkey HSD test revealed that normalized dwell time was significantly longer (more than twice) for the product descriptions than for the images. Next highest value, just after the descriptions, was reached by the prices followed by the logos. The lowest value of normalized dwell time was achieved by the shop logo placed on the top of the ad. There was also an effect of AOI group on the sequence (the order in which a particular area was noticed) [$F(4) = 6.69$, $p < 0.05$]. For the pictures, it was smaller (they were noticed earlier) than for the product descriptions with a difference of 1.3. The average sequence was as follows: picture, logo, price, shop logo, and description. The number of revisits differed as well, depending on AOI group [$F(4) = 7.61$, $p < 0.05$], and was significantly lower for the shop logo than all the other groups. There was, however, no significant difference between the descriptions and pictures in the number of revisits. The number of fixations was AOI group dependent [$F(4) = 3.24$, $p < 0.05$], and was significantly lower for the shop logo than for the prices and descriptions, although there were no differences between the descriptions and pictures. The last variable which differed between various AOI groups was the average fixation duration [$F(4) = 4.44$, $p < 0.05$], which was significantly lower for the shop logo than for the descriptions, prices, and logos. All the eye movement characteristics which differed significantly depending on the AOI group are presented in Table 1, with their mean and standard deviation values. Figure 1 presents the visual stimuli used in this study – an example of a shop newsletter in two research conditions with obtained heat maps superimposed.

Table 1

Eye movement characteristics for each AOI group

AOI group	Normalized dwell time [ms/coverage]		Sequence		Revisits		Fixation count		Average fixation duration [ms]	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Descriptions	84 855	87.1	3.6	1.2	8.14	6.3	24.8	22	215.9	61.1
Pictures	40 143	32.7	2.3	1.2	11.4	8.2	21.5	16.8	205.2	47
Prices	69 656	98.4	2.6	1.4	9.62	9.1	28.2	35.9	220.3	54.8
Product logos and names	47 129	39	2.6	1	9.61	5.7	20.3	14.1	229.1	64.6
Shop logo	7 208	8.66	3.4	1.8	2.81	2.9	9.87	11	177.9	44.2

Figure 1. Shop newsletter in two research conditions with heat maps revealing the concentration of fixations on the product descriptions

Source: own elaboration.

Discussion

Summing up, it appears that the shop newsletter visual exploration pattern remains quite stable irrespective of the size of the images and descriptions included. Moreover, the configuration of its elements does not influence the final product choice and the evaluation of the products attractiveness. Independently from the size of the newsletter elements, people tended to spend most of the time reading the descriptions of the products. Those descriptions, however, were usually studied carefully at the very end, preceded by a quick gaze on the picture, price, and logo. Those results are contrary to the previous findings (Carroll et al., 1992; Hegarty, 1992a, 1992b; Rayner et al., 2001), where text reading preceded image exploration. Another discrepancy is the duration of average fixation, which in this study was slightly, although insignificantly, longer for the text than for the images. The participants tended to fixate shortly, but repeatedly, on the images (as the number of revisits for the images was highest). It might mean that although the information contained in the product image is simple and does not involve much processing, it is quite important for the customer.

The pattern that reappeared in this study is the big print exploration preceding the small print exploration. People usually read the big shop logo, product logos, and prices before moving on to the small print descriptions.

In general, those findings seem to support the hypothesis stating that as far as electronic devices are concerned, the technical specification is very important, and there is no need to worry that customers will not read it. Precise descriptions will surely deliver the information that customers need, which might fasten their decision-making process, and instead of searching for the information on the Internet, they may go directly to the shop to make a purchase. Consequently, replacing the parts of descriptions with bigger and bigger pictures, a trend which has been evident lately in promotional materials, seems to be unjustified, as it does not entail greater involvement (longer fixations) or better product evaluation. There is, however, a certain amount of time that people are ready to spend on reading product descriptions. In the study performed by Rayner et al. (2001), the participants read the same amount of text, regardless of its length. What is more, when it came to ad evaluation, they reported feeling overwhelmed by too much text in the ads. In general, people report a bigger preference for images, they also claim that images have more impact on their decision than a description has. It is questionable, however, to what extent their statements correspond to their behavior. Future market research embedded in natural shop conditions may reveal whether the configuration of elements in promotional materials influence real purchase decisions.

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Tekst i obraz w materiałach promocyjnych – jaki typ informacji jest ważny dla klienta?

Słowa kluczowe: materiały promocyjne, badania okulograficzne, percepcja oferty produktowej

Streszczenie. W materiałach promocyjnych, takich jak np. gazetki sklepowe, coraz częściej korzysta się z przekazu wizualnego, minimalizując jednocześnie liczbę informacji o produktach. Choć obraz często przykuwa uwagę w pierwszej kolejności, niekoniecznie może ją utrzymać i co ważne, nie zawsze umożliwia dokonanie oceny jakości produktu. W przypadku urządzeń technologicznych specyfikacja techniczna zdaje się być szczególnie istotna w procesie podejmowania decyzji o zakupie. Jednocześnie ich wygląd wydaje się być cechą o mniejszym znaczeniu. W przedstawionym badaniu eksploracji poddano dwa rodzaje gazetek promocyjnych: zawierające duże obrazki i niewiele treści oraz zawierające małe obrazki i dużo treści. Uczestnicy mieli za zadanie zapoznać się z ofertą sklepu i dokonać oceny atrakcyjności produktów. Celem badania było dokonanie porównania w ocenie atrakcyjności zależnie od ilości treści oraz wielkości obrazków, a także analiza porównawcza sposobu eksploracji wzrokowej obu typów gazetek promocyjnych na podstawie danych okulograficznych.

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Responsible sponsorship as an element of building positive relationship with the environment

JEL code: M31

Keywords: responsible sponsorship, building relationships, corporate social responsibility (CSR)

Abstract. In the era of increasing competitiveness, the thing that distinguishes manufactures from each other is the mean in which they communicate with customers. By observing the change-based dynamics of consumer trends, it can be noted that companies regarding in their marketing campaigns initiatives of social or ecological nature, gather greater recognition. More and more, common form used for achieving competitive advantage and building positive relationships with customers is to implement socially responsible sponsorship. This paper brings closer to the essence of responsible sponsorship and demonstrates examples of responsible marketing initiatives; furthermore, it is indicated that by applying such type of practices, it is possible to achieve tangible economic and social benefits.

Introduction

Nowadays, companies are more than ever before forced to face competition. When the quality and prices of products are comparable, what distinguishes individual manufactures from others is the way in which they communicate with the market. Nowadays, gaining customer loyalty and confidence is an essence of any smart business entity (Kotler, Keller, 2012).

Long lasting and close relationships with customers allow companies to obtain a lot of advantages related with communication enhancement, company's image improvement, and the increase of profits as well (Wiśniewska, 2015). It is required that a company needs to distinguish itself among other participants, and to create a positive and unique identity in the minds of buyers in order to act efficiently in the market (Datko, 2012).

By observing the dynamics of change in trends of consumer behaviours, it can be noticed that the most frequently occurring feature is the responsibility for social and natural environment. An increase in maturity and consumer awareness, along with constantly increasing social and ecological awareness, lead to the situation in which the companies considering in their business operations also the initiatives of social and environmental nature, gain a growing number of loyal and dedicated customers. An increasingly popular form of achieving competitive advantage is to use socially responsible sponsorship in marketing campaigns, which brings to the company not only social benefits, but it also facilitates the way to increase its profits.

The objective of this paper is to describe closer the nature of responsible sponsorship, and to demonstrate its growing meaning for building positive relationships with the environment. The paper presents case studies of responsible marketing initiatives, and demonstrates that by applying this type of practices, tangible economic and social benefits can be achieved.

Social responsibility vs. relationship with environment

Together with the growing importance of the global consumerism and ecology movements, ethics and corporate social responsibility become a big topic in many companies. The idea of modern marketing is to undertake by companies a responsibility towards the global environment. Due to the increasing problems of social, ecological, and economical nature, none of progressive companies will ignore the raising trend in adopting more ethical and responsible practices concerning the issues of care for natural environment. The companies that adopt their social and environmental initiatives in the company's mission are perceived as they are making good and promoting crucial values, which results in gaining a group of committed and loyal customers (Armstrong, Kotler, 2015).

A key strategy for building long lasting customer relationships is to develop strategies to increase customer value more than other companies, and to assure customer satisfaction (Armstrong, Kotler, 2015).

A 2011 global consumer study by Cone Communications found that only 6 percent of consumers agreed with the philosophy that the role of business in society is to 'just make money,' and as many as 81% of consumers in 10 countries declared that – in their opinion – corporate social responsibility goes beyond gaining profits (Figure 1) (Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012).

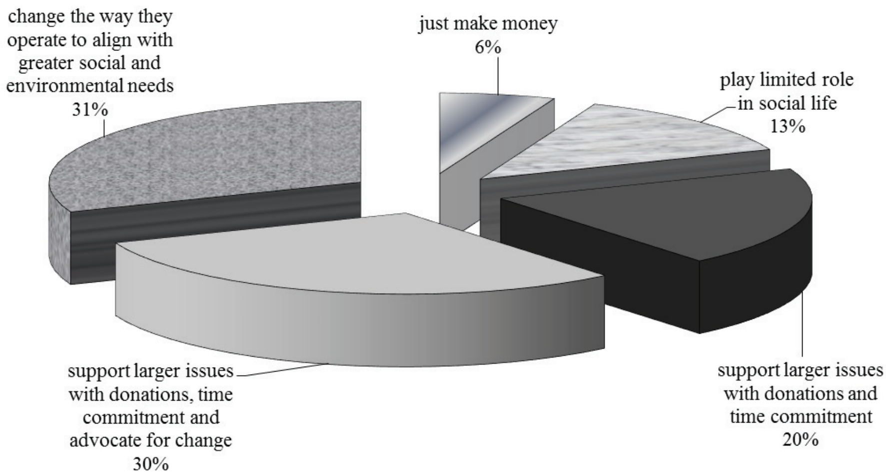

Figure 1. Role of business in supporting social initiatives

Source: Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012, pp. 13–14.

By observing the phenomena occurring during the last decade, it can be concluded that companies are increasingly eager to engage themselves in social initiatives. According to a 2011 report by KPMG, as much as 95 percent of companies of the Global Fortune 250 reported their activities concerning corporate responsibility (Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012). In turn, according to a report by CSR Europe, two out of five clients express their preferences to buy a product promoting 'doing good' initiatives, and one out of five is able to pay more for such a product. In accordance with a research study conducted by ARC Rynek i Opinia – Market Research Company – Poles are positively assessing the sponsorship of charity actions, which are endorsed by 78 percent of respondents (Datko, 2012).

Responsible sponsorship as an element of modern marketing

Market saturation with traditional advertisement and a decline in its efficiency lead to the situation in which sponsorship is becoming more and more a common form of promotion. Frequently, advertisement is seen as too intrusive and burdensome a message. Sponsorship is a sensitive way of interacting with consumers, and is very often considered as favourable or even valuable. The essence of sponsorship is "Do good and talk about it," which indicates on its bilateral nature being characterized by two functions, namely communication and support (Jefkins, Yadin, 1998).

According to T. Griffin (1993), sponsorship is a promotion mean which uses company's or brand's associations with a social, cultural, or sports event in such a way that it leads to benefits from exploiting the commercial potential linked with this event and this initiative.

Emotion based sponsorship promotes its brand by its direct association with the business being sponsored. For example, as a result of sponsoring charity undertakings, such attributes can be transferred as: care, attention, responsibility, etc. (Datko, 2012).

Considering the fact that companies are more and more aware of the need to become socially responsible partners, the use of sponsorship is becoming more common. Responsible sponsorship can be understood as a formal financial, material, or service-based support for non-profit undertakings targeted at an increase in sales of products (Datko, 2012). According to Datko (2012), the following forms of responsible sponsorship can be distinguished: corporate philanthropy, corporate citizen, and eco-sponsorship.

Corporate philanthropy, according to Adkins (1999), involves the use of money, techniques, and marketing strategies to support important social issues, while developing own business at the same time. Business entities in the society define it as commercial initiatives thanks to which the company and charities establish a partnership relation between themselves in order to achieve mutual benefits.

The attitude of 'corporate citizen' means a socially responsible business entity which participates usually in supporting public sector institutions (such as children's homes, hospitals, or theatres) or especially gifted individuals (i.e. researchers and students). This trend manifests itself as multidimensional and permanent cooperation with a non-profit sector (Datko, 2012).

Eco-sponsorship refers to the actions financed by a sponsor to support the initiatives directed on the environment protection and restoration of the natural environment (Datko, 2012).

Responsible sponsorship in practice

The growing intensity among companies to adapt to social initiatives causes that many firms recognize the signals sent from the environment, and implement various kinds of marketing initiatives of a charitable nature.

In 2008, Starbucks decided to adopt global responsibility regarding the influence on the natural environment. The main objectives which guided this challenging undertaking were: compliance with principals of ethics by acquiring raw materials, services in favour of the environment, and involvement in community issues. The result of these wide-ranging initiatives was the emergence of Starbucks Company on the 47th place of the Fortune 500 − the list of the companies which in 2010 recorded the fastest growth. In turn, *CR Magazine* listed the company on the top of Best Corporate Citizens (the first place in the industry sector) (Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012).

Another company which thanks to social involvement acquired improved relationships with the environment is Johnson & Johnson. The key area in which the company is socially engaged and gains successes is the campaign supporting professional development of nurses. Research studies (Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012) carried out in educational centres for nurses in the United States indicate that 84% of the institutions covered by the J&J campaign acknowledged an increase in the number of applicants and students. In 2010, the campaign received prestigious President's Award of Transforming the Image of Nursing from the National League for Nursing (NLN), for permanent efforts to build a positive image of nursing. The Company was also recognized for its strong commitment to innovative initiatives promoting employees and communities, and was honoured with the Ron Brown Award for Corporate Leadership (2004–2005) (Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012).

Another example of a company which uses social sponsorship is TOMS Shoes. For every pair of shoes sold, the company provides another pair of shoes for a child in need. This company's initiatives obtained a great deal of attention, and, when in 2009 AT & T company mentioned it in their advertising campaign, TOMS Shoes Company gained free publicity worth several million dollars (Mycoskie, 2011).

Table 1 demonstrates social sponsorship initiatives used by Starbucks and Johnson & Johnson.

Concluding, the most important benefits that can be obtained by applying responsible sponsorship in marketing campaigns are following (Datko, 2012):growing interest among investors and social support, customer attraction and retention, enhancing loyalty of customers and stakeholders, improving relationships with community and local authorities, increasing confidence and strengthening the authority, raising competitiveness and creating company's positive image, increasing the level of organizational culture, increasing motivation and loyalty among employees.

Table 1

Sponsorship initiatives by Starbucks and Johnson & Johnson

Examples of sponsorship social initiatives	
Starbucks Coffee Company	
Description	Example
promoting social issues by means of sponsorship	encouraging representatives of food industry to serve beverages in reusable or recyclable cups and containers (involvement in Earth Days and Cup Summits)
the level of cash or in nature donations being made dependent on the amount of sales or other actions undertaken by a customer	donations for worldwide implemented water projects related to selling Ethos Water in Starbucks shops
direct financial support for non-profit organizations or charitable initiatives	grants for founding youth education in the field of environmental protection
Johnson & Johnson Company	
Description	Example
fostering social initiatives by enhancing the message, fundraising, and attracting volunteers	development and sponsoring a multimedia campaign creating the image of nursing as a profession
transferring a percentage of overall earnings to a particular case, depending on the level of revenues or other actions undertaken by a customer	transferring $ 1 as scholarships for nurses for downloading a single image on a website
direct financial support for non-profit organizations or charitable initiatives	support for events with fundraising for scholarships and nurses continuing medical education

Source: own elaboration based on Kotler, Hessekiel, Lee, 2012.

Conclusions

The article is an attempt of stating the nature of responsible sponsorship in the context of building relationships with the environment. Responsible sponsorship initiatives of Starbucks Corporation and Johnson & Johnson Company were described, as well as benefits were indicated which result from making these types of practices.

By observing the growing awareness and increased level of social and ecological sensitivity among consumers, it can be stated that forms of responsible sponsorships will gain more and more recognition. These increasingly frequent businesses are expected to contribute “for a better tomorrow” and to assume responsibility that goes beyond the generated profits. Consumers are more willing to submit their loyalty and money to the companies which are coincident with their values and are honest with the things they make. Companies, by undertaking their initiatives, contribute to solving social issues, gain superior reputation, and build better relationships with the environment.

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Odpowiedzialny sponsoring jako element budowania pozytywnych relacji z otoczeniem

Słowa kluczowe: odpowiedzialny sponsoring, budowanie relacji, społeczna odpowiedzialność biznesu (CSR)

Streszczenie. W dobie narastającej konkurencji, tym, co może odróżnić producentów od siebie jest sposób, w jaki komunikują się z klientami. Obserwując dynamikę zmian wśród trendów konsumenckich można zauważyć, że firmy uwzględniające w swoich kampaniach marketingowych inicjatywy o charakterze społecznym lub ekologicznym cieszą się coraz większym uznaniem. Coraz popularniejszą formą uzyskiwania przewagi konkurencyjnej oraz budowania pozytywnych relacji z klientami jest stosowanie sponsoringu odpowiedzialnego społecznie. W artykule przybliżono istotę odpowiedzialnego sponsoringu i przedstawiono przykłady odpowiedzialnych inicjatyw marketingowych oraz wykazano, że stosowanie tego typu praktyk umożliwia osiągnięcie wymiernych korzyści ekonomicznych i społecznych.

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Relationships matter – towards understanding university–industry links

JEL codes: M15, M30, P36
Keywords: relationships, university, industry, links, value, creation

Abstract. The main aim of this paper is to better understand the influence of relationships on the value created within university–industry links. Organizational and environmental differences (OED) between a university and a company create one of the main sources of barriers in their cooperation. The author suggests that the quality of the relationships may mediate the OED influence on the co-created value. The variables identified in three groups, i.e., organizational and environmental factors, the value created, and the quality of relationships, contribute to creating a relationships management model within the university–business networking.

Introduction

Cooperation between companies and scientists can bring a significant increase in research leading to the introduction of new products. These, in turn, will drive further research in order to obtain innovation. The specificity of the university−business relationship is mainly due to more ambitious research, high risk of achieving planned results, more complex networks, and interactions occurring in it. The role of relationship management in commercialization processes is to create bilateral value. It has also been noticed that organizational and environmental differences (OED) create one of the main sources of barriers in cooperation between universities and companies. The author suggests that relationships may mediate OED effects on creation of value in academia–business partnerships. This paper presents the results of a literature review exploratory study, supported with primary research results, which demonstrates key elements in three groups of variables: 1) organizational and environmental differences, 2) value created for universities and companies, 3) key relationship quality characteristics.

Literature

University–industry links and their impact on innovation processes have been an object of analyses of many researchers in management studies, technology transfer and policy, economics of innovation, and sociology (Agrawal, 2001; Foss, Gibson, 2015; McMillan, Hamilton, 2003; Mowery, Nelson, 2004). Several frameworks have been suggested to study different dimensions of university–industry links (Perkmann, Walsh, 2007). Some researchers have studied the concept of relationship marketing in commercialization processes (Siegel, Waldman, Link, 2003; Siegel, Waldman, Atwater, Link, 2004; Plewa, Quester, 2005; Plewa et al., 2013; Trzmielak, Grzegorczyk, 2010; Grzegorczyk, Trzmielak, 2015). Tijssen (2006) has divided the evolution of university–industry links (UIL) collaborative relationships into three stages: relationship-oriented, product-oriented, and business-oriented. There are different types of links with universities at different stages. Some studies have captured and defined different types of university–industry links, but they have not characterized the relationships in depth nor provided the assessments of impacts and consequences (D'Este, Patel, 2007; Perkmann, Walsh, 2007; Carayol, 2003; Cohen, Nelson, Walsh, 2002; Caloghirou, Tsakanikas, Vonortas, 2001; Lee, 2000; Mansfield, 1995).

Methodology

The secondary evidence was derived from a comprehensive survey of peer-reviewed empirical articles using the Web of Science and EBSCO Business Premier. A simplified version of the process underlying a systematic literature survey (Tranfield, Denyer, Smart, 2003) was used to filter and summarize the results. The paper also presents the results of the primary research conducted in a form of an online survey mirroring a series of target groups: scientists and entrepreneurs in Poland, two developing EU countries (the Czech Republic and Hungary), two developed EU countries (Norway and France), the USA, and Canada. In 2014, an online questionnaire has been sent by e-mail to 10,000 respondents from two target groups: scientists and business representatives in Poland, four EU countries, and the United States. The research population was created according to the criteria of an institution: a scientific research institution and enterprise from a chosen sector.

An additional criterion for the selection of companies was experience in cooperation with research centers and innovation. From the 10,000 sample, we received 554 answers. The survey yielded a response rate of 5.54%. After removing the cases with missing data, the results presented here are based on a final N of 361 responses.

Results and discussion

Value created by university−industry links

As market exchanges take place, all the parties involved in relationships expect to gain value (Ulaga, 2003). Sheth and Parvatiyar (2002) argue that value creation is a core issue in relationship marketing. According to some scholars, value is subjective as a single product or service will have a different value for different buyers, or even for the same user under different circumstances. Some authors see value as a value-in-exchange process, some as value-in-use, some as both. According to Gummeesson (1994), value creation is possible only when a good or service is consumed. In UIL, the value is co-created through interaction between an inventor and a company buying or using technology or research results. According to Möller and Svahn (2006), "value is conceived through relationship itself." Relationship marketing assumes that both parties in a relationship must benefit from it to continue in the long run. It means that partners review the benefits they receive and the sacrifices they invest to maintain it.

Several types of value were identified in the primary data. The research conducted among researchers and entrepreneurs from Poland, four other European countries, Canada, and the USA, shows that for companies the most important is an access to experts, gathered knowledge, and the creation of new technologies (Table 1). Additionally, Polish companies pay more attention to the improved image of an organization than the respondents from other countries in the survey.

Table 1

Hierarchy of cooperation effects (%)

	SciencePL	BusinessPL	ScienceInter	BusinessInter
Access to new ideas	25.4	23.1	52.4	62.8
Creation of new technologies	25.4	29.6	42.8	69.8
Improved image of organization	40.9	55.7	66.6	44.2
Access to new sources of funds	24.3	32	61.9	40.5
Knowledge gathered	50.7	33.9	57.1	72.1
Improved international cooperation	19.4	25.5	60	60
Improved competitive position	26.9	37	52.4	62.8
Access to experts	29.9	39.6	57.2	72.1

Source: own elaboration.

Scientists also evaluate highly the improved image, and additionally, appreciate an access to additional funds. An access to industry experts and knowledge is seen as important in terms of bringing new ideas and making the research more practical (Table 1).

This research supports other studies. Some researchers describe the value perceived by entrepreneurs including: financial gain, acquisition of knowledge and technologies, access to talent and facilities, public awareness and image, generating new ideas, relevant topics, and sharing of networks. From the researcher's perspective, the key values created include: development and use of technology, financial gain, financial support for students, strategic positioning, image and word of mouth, and sharing of networks.

Organizational environment difference

Many studies underline the differences in the organizational environments and cultures between a university and industry as an important source of barriers in cooperation. The author of the study identified the following relationship barriers:

- passive attitude of scientists towards cooperation with enterprises,
- lack of openness of researchers to the business needs,
- no reaction of scientists to offers from businesses,
- low communication skills of researchers,
- lack of implications of scientific results in business activities.

The above were pointed by entrepreneurs from four European countries, the USA, and Canada. Among the negative factors that lie on the side of entrepreneurs, as pointed out by the researchers, was unavailable offers of entrepreneurs. These factors result from misalignment of goals and reward systems (Smith, Barclay, 1997).

To create the relationship management in commercialization processes model four OED dimensions have been taken into consideration after Plewa and Quester (2005). These include: (1) motivations, (2) time orientation, (3) market orientation, and (4) organizational bureaucracy and flexibility. Researchers and entrepreneurs have different motivations that result in a 'commercial' versus 'knowledge creation' view. It can also be described as an outcome- versus process-oriented approach. Companies are always interested mainly in cooperation outcomes that solve their problems, as well as financial gain, while academic promotion is based on research performance and publications. This creates motivational differences. It is also important to note that university scientists are also motivated by personal financial gain. Of particular importance for faculty involvement are the terms of the university royalty distribution formula that determines the fraction of the licensing revenue allocated to the inventor being a faculty member (Siegel et al., 2003; Siegel, Waldman, Atwater, Link, 2004).

Companies and universities differ also in terms of time orientation in two aspects: 1) adherence to deadlines and 2) time frame (Cyert, Goodman, 1997). The key issue for companies is "time-to-market" as it determines products chances on market. Researchers usually have time frames determined by research grants. A further barrier in the value creation process is the lack of market orientation at universities, and high bureaucracy.

Relationships

Research on university–industry links traditionally has focused on the transfer of intellectual property. However, some authors suggest that the links vary according to what can be called "relational involvement" between universities and industrial organizations (Schartinger, Rammer, Fischer, Frohlich, 2002). Thus "relationships" are defined as links with high relational involvement. It includes situations where individuals and teams from academic and industrial context work together on specific projects, and produce common outputs (Perkmann, Walsh, 2007). These are opposed to mobility and transfer links, as those of lower relational involvement, limited to transferring generic skills or formal IP transfer activities. Perkmann and Walsh (2007) differentiate between the generic category university–industry 'links' for defining the various ways in which publicly funded research potentially benefits industry and the economy (Salter, Martin 2001), from the relationship–intensive links named "relationships." An interesting question arises: how do the quality of relationships and level of relational involvement influence the value created in university–industry cooperation?

Relationship quality can be regarded as a metaconstruct composed of several key components reflecting the overall nature of relationships between companies and consumers. There is a general agreement that satisfaction with the partner performance, trust, and commitment to the relationship are the key components of a relationship quality (Baker, Simpson, Siguaw, 1999; Palmer, Bejou, 1994; Smith, 1998). According to Plewa and Quester (2005), trust and commitment tie the parties of the relationship, and can be named as linkage mechanisms. In particular, trust emerged as the essential element of UILs, with many researchers underlying its crucial role for the relationship success.

The empirical study conducted also shows trust among the most significant relationship drivers in all the participating countries (Grzegorczyk, Trzmielak, 2015). However, one may notice that Polish respondents underestimate the role of trust. It is also shown that the respondents from developed countries, with high innovation rates, rate relationship drivers higher than the respondents from Central and Eastern Europe, who are more concerned about the functional benefits of cooperation. Both academics and entrepreneurs rank very high the existence of mutual understanding of each other's needs and commitment.

Conclusions

In order to build a model of relationship management in university–industry links, three groups of variables were identified:

1. Organizational and environmental differences: motivations, time orientation, market orientation, and organizational bureaucracy and flexibility.
2. Value created: financial gain, acquisition of knowledge and technologies, access to talent and facilities, public awareness and image, generating new ideas, sharing of networks, development and use of technology, strategic positioning, and image and word of mouth.
3. Relationship quality: trust, commitment, and communication.

Further research should concentrate on creating and empirically testing the model. A hierarchy regression analysis should be used to check if relationship quality moderates the influence of organizational and environmental differences on the creation of value in university–industry links.

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Relacje mają znaczenie – w kierunku zrozumienia powiązań między uczelniami a przemysłem

Słowa kluczowe: relacje, uniwersytet, biznes, powiązania, wartość, kreacja

Streszczenie. Głównym celem artykułu jest lepsze zrozumienie, w jaki sposób relacje wpływają na wartość kreowaną w ramach współpracy uczelni z biznesem. Różnice organizacyjne i środowiskowe między uczelnią a firmą stanowią główne źródło barier współpracy. Autorka stawia hipotezę, że jakość relacji moderuje wpływ tych różnic na współtworzoną jakość. Zidentyfikowane zmienne w trzech grupach, takie jak: czynniki organizacyjne i środowiskowe, kreowana wartość oraz jakość relacji, stanowią wkład w stworzenie modelu zarządzania relacjami w ramach powiązań między uczelnią a biznesem.

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Social media as a relationship marketing tool of modern university

JEL codes: M31, P36

Keywords: relationship marketing, trends in marketing of higher education, social media, higher education

Abstract. The aim of the article is to present selected aspects of university activities in the sphere of development of relations with its stakeholders, with particular emphasis on students, and with the use of social media as a key communication platform in the online space. The starting point for the analysis of the undertaken subject is to present the essence of relationship marketing in relation to higher education institutions as a result of adaptation and evolution of the marketing of these market players, as well as current trends in higher education marketing. In the article, secondary sources and the authors' research have been used, the object of which was to identify the scope, intensity, and professionalism of the activities of university in the area of social media.

Introduction

The concept of relationship marketing, which is one of the most popular management concepts of today's organizations, has won the dominant position also in the sector of higher education, which is the result, on the one hand, of the complex conditions of the functioning of modern universities and related with it uncertainty and unpredictability of action, and on the other hand, of the benefits that the above concept provides to the organizations operating in this environment and its stakeholders. When applying the concept of relationship marketing, universities adapt tools which are successfully used by companies, including the modern tools of the Internet communication with the market, among which social media play the prominent role next to the website.

Social media are variously defined in the literature. For instance, according to van Dijk (2013) "the guiding idea of social media is that of creating the content and sharing it with other users, i.e. community. It can be argued that social media allow for free communication between different communities in the network. Thus, the network society is the social group in which there is a specific structure of social and media networks, shaping the behavior of individual users at all levels."

According to Mróz-Gorgoń and Peszko (2016),"social media is a network community communication channels, allowing for the exchange of information, but also interaction or integration between network users (Internet users), or Internet users and brands. Published information is available to all users or to selected groups and undergo less or more social control."

A few years ago, until the academic year 2006/2007, Polish universities which, at that time, were not affected by the problem of demographic decline, did not have to be interested in and invest in the modern tools of creating relationships with the environment. Social networking sites were considered by the university authorities neither as important nor effective area of building and maintaining relationships with stakeholders. Currently, the use of these communication channels, which are an integral part of everyday life of candidates, students, or graduates, has become an indisputable necessity.

The aim of the article is to present selected aspects of university activity in the sphere of development of relations with its stakeholders, with particular emphasis on students, with the use social media as a key marketing communication area of these entities with the market, in the online environment.

Relationship marketing as a result of universities marketing evolution

Marketing of higher education as a separate discipline emerged in the United States in the mid-80s of the last century, as a result of unfavorable demographic trends. According to Kotler and Fox (1995, pp. 11–12), universities in the US and in Western Europe went through a series of steps of their adaptation of treating marketing as a promotion, by segmenting the market, implementation of marketing research, positioning the university, the strategic dimension of marketing, and relationship marketing (referring to the relationship with the students), and then incuding other groups of beneficiaries (Bjørkquist, 2007; Kuzu, Gökbel, Güleş, 2013; Mainarde, 2010).

Taking into account similar, but a significantly time shifted process of adaptation of marketing at Polish universities, one should also pay attention to:

– a larger increase in interest of the university authorities and opinions of students on didactics, academic teachers, and their satisfaction with the studies (e.g. due to unfavorable demographic changes), implying the implementation of formal research in this area,
– intensive efforts to adapt the "product" (majors) to the expectations of the candidates, students, and the labor market,
– interest in the needs and expectations of all stakeholders of the university, and the desire to maintain a stable and win-win relationships which reflect the essence of relationship marketing.

Relationship marketing as for the higher education institution can be defined as the totality of activities of universities, whose aim is to create long-term and strong partnerships with individual groups of its stakeholders (including candidates, students, alumni, employees, business representatives, local authorities), which are based upon the satisfaction of individual groups, and as its consequence –"exceptional loyalty" (expressing a positive attitude and behavior, being reflected, among others, in the conscious continuing cooperation and recommending the university) (Hall, 2014).

The idea of relationship marketing seems to be still, according to the analysis of Western literature related to the subject, the guiding idea in the management of modern universities. However, the tools used within this idea are changing, as well as the means and methods of achieving the objectives and the personal scope of the relationship. They concern all − internal and external stakeholders, and not just university students.

Trends in higher education marketing

One of the most important trends in marketing of universities and their branding is the fact that they have become the subject of greater attention and interest of University authorities than in previous years (*Trends in higher education*…, 2014).

"Many universities have hired marketing professionals from the corporate world and invested significant time and money to create strong institutional brands" (*Trends in higher education*…, 2014). In some cases, such as at Northwestern University in the US, this has meant creating Chief Marketing Officer (CMO) positions, and making brand creation and marketing campaigns a core function of the institution (Morrison, 2013).

Information technologies are the most important area of innovation and growth in university marketing with special attention to recruitment. Trends in marketing of universities and their use reflect in (Noaman, 2012; Joly, 2012; Dixon, 2012; *Trends in higher education...*, 2014):

– responsive (intuitive and easy to navigate) website design, that can be viewed on multiple devices and platforms,
– search engine optimization (SEO) − administrators want their institutions to receive a prominent spot in search engine results, particularly Google,
– use of web analytics – universities are relying on data-driven analytics to determine who, how, and where they are reaching their audiences,
– mobile development – universities are making greater investments in having a mobile presence (not only mobile versions of websites, but also making a greater amount of course content mobile-friendly),
– CMS and CRM systems – universities are relying more heavily on content management and customer relations systems (CRM systems are especially important tools for admissions professionals engaged in outreach to prospective students).

Modern universities do not use the full potential of information technology. This includes the area of social media. As it results from the research conducted by University of Massachusetts Dartmouth, almost all universities take advantage of the selected forms within both marketing and non-marketing nature of daily activity (*Trends in Higher Education…*, 2014).

Social Media as the dominant tool for creating relationships with students

Nowadays, the priority role of students as stakeholders, from a marketing point of view, is the result of many causes, including primarily the impact of their opinion on the university image, which is one of the most important of its assets, but also on the decisions of candidates associated with the choice of university. Sharing opinions among students, universities recommendations, or discouraging to take studies is now very popular, quick, and easy, thanks to social networks and blogs.

Social media are of particular importance among university inbound marketing tools. Both in Western countries and in Poland, they are now a key component of the university communication with stakeholders. According to Chwiałkowska (2013), being on Facebook and intensive communication (mostly with students) is now a standard at Polish universities, and positive effects of communication on this and other sites are reflected by the fact that the average rate of user involvement ("the number of people who talk about it") is many times higher than the same indicator for companies profiles.

As presented in the results of research carried out for the purpose of doctoral dissertation of one of the authors, as early as in 2013, most universities used social media, with Facebook as the most popular as it was on 96.4% of the main sites of Polish universities (there are also several units that had an account on Facebook, but did not have a tag on their website). The second social medium, which can be found on 32.3% of the sites of universities, is YouTube, serving as a place to post short commercials of these units, now also materials from the ceremonies, from classes or for classes. The third type of social media, with 18% interest was Twitter (Peszko, 2013).[1] The results of the research "Universities in social media 2014 "*Report of Fanpage Trends* – Sotrender –in the category *Universities*, a Facebook profile was present in 100% of public universities and 95% of private universities, a YouTube channel − 75% of public universities and 47% of private universities, and a Twitter account − 58% of public universities and 15% of private universities (*Uczelnie w social*..., 2014). In subsequent years, the popularity of social media continued to grow. Apart from these media, other forms of social media have gained popularity among universities, i.e. Instagram, Google+, GoldenLine, Linkedin, as well as, to a lesser degree, Flickr, and Snapchat last year.

Further research, completed in 2013, whose objective was to analyze the use of social media as a channel of communication with key stakeholders, shows that students in general are satisfied with how the university profiles are run.

However, they expect more scientific, research, and related to business content, as well as the possibility of internships and jobs. Their expectations also apply to an access to lectures, teaching, and educational materials. They also expect that the profile of the university on Facebook will be the source of information on initiatives in individual departments, careers of graduates, activities of student organizations, and development opportunities offered by individual faculties. They expect reports from student exchange programs and effective communication with the university, including greater availability to the deans' offices and employees (Chwiałkowska, 2014).

The quoted research results do not indicate how many of these communication tools and social media have been used in building relationships with the students or potential candidates. The authors decided to check how social media influence building relationships, whether universities skillfully take advantage of social media in this area, and what differences are in the way of creating relationships in social media by the most popular in the year 2015/2016 universities, and by other universities not belonging to the above leaders.

[1] The results of research conducted within the framework of the dissertation of K. Peszko.

The analysis included selected universities, commonly chosen by candidates in the academic year 2015/2016, i.e. 16 public universities and 15 private universities, supervised by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (MSHE) (*Tegoroczni maturzyści*..., 2015).

Table 1

Selected statistics of social media – public universities

Universities	Facebook – fans	Twitter – tweets	Instagram – the number of posts	YouTube – subscriptions	Google+ – followers	GoldenLine – followers	Linkedin – the number of contact
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Uniwersytet Warszawski	45 307	0	0	1036	0		0
Uniwersytet w Białymstoku	8315	0	0	16	0		0
Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu	16 638	0	0	332	0	27 238	0
Uniwersytet Jagielloński w Krakowie	8481	968	261	1226	283	0	0
Uniwersytet Łódzki	19 651	3567	60	280	15	27 384	0
Uniwersytet Marii Curie--Skłodowskiej w Lublinie	32 267	3037	0	0	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Szczeciński	16 201	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach	20 772	4910	210	5071	296	0	247
Uniwersytet Rzeszowski	8442	1049	93	161	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Warmińsko--Mazurski w Olsztynie	30 372	123	112	1033	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Kardynała Stefana Wyszyńskiego w Warszawie	13 884	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Jana Kochanowskiego w Kielcach	3571	246	0	100	0	0	0
Politechnika Warszawska	25 135	1234	220	55	0	0	310
Akademia Techniczno--Humanistyczna w Bielsku-Białej	6240	1132	0	41	0	0	0
Politechnika Gdańska	12 512	0	96	609	0	0	231
Politechnika Krakowska im. Tadeusza Kościuszki	19 529	0	161	102	0	0	0
Akademia Górniczo-Hutnicza im. Stanisława Staszica w Krakowie	9888	1129	391	1175	0	27 919	0
Politechnika Łódzka	12 791	1361	138	17	0	0	0
Politechnika Opolska	6167	0	97	208	317	0	0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Politechnika Poznańska	13 883	48	0	12	17	0	0
Politechnika Wrocławska	15 349	10 600	391	8232	1167	0	0
Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny w Krakowie	20 765	0	0	210	17	22 950	0
Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny we Wrocławiu	20847	353	245	41	63	11 018	257
Akademia Pedagogiki Specjalnej im. Marii Grzegorzewskiej	9695	473	25	118	8	0	54
Akademia im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie	4533	339	0	0	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny im. Komisji Edukacji Narodowej w Krakowie	12 105	516	0	101	0	4154	0
Szkoła Główna Gospodarstwa Wiejskiego w Warszawie	28 817	0	0	376	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Rolniczy im. Hugona Kołłątaja w Krakowie	7861	0	0	76	0	0	0
Uniwersytet Przyrodniczy w Lublinie	9943	0	0	62	110	0	0
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. Jerzego Kukuczki w Katowicach	3861	0	0	0	0	0	0
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. Eugeniusza Piaseckiego w Poznaniu	10 131	0	0	182	0	0	0
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie	4949	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: own elaboration.

Table 2

Selected statistics of social media – non-public universities

Universities	Facebook – fans	Twitter – tweets	Instagram – the number of posts	YouTube – subscriptions	Google+ – followers	GoldenLine – followers	Linkedin – the number of contact
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Akademia Finansów i Biznesu Vistula	15 767	1760	0	342	94	0	24

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Akademia Humanistyczna im. Aleksandra Gieysztora w Pułtusku	1909	0	0	0	0	0	0
Akademia Leona Koźmińskiego w Warszawie	14 968	1750	459	576	0	0	465
Europejska Szkoła Wyższa w Sopocie z siedzibą w Sopocie	700	0	0	2	3	0	0
Krakowska Akademia im. Andrzeja Frycza Modrzewskiego w Krakowie	7934	63	0	0	0	0	0
Krakowska Wyższa Szkoła Promocji Zdrowia w Krakowie	1933	0	0	28	0	0	0
Podkowiańska Wyższa Szkoła Medyczna im. Zofii i Jonasza Łyko w Podkowie Leśnej	776	2	0	206	0	0	0
Polsko-Japońska Akademia Technik Komputerowych	6268	0	3	179	2	0	0
Społeczna Akademia Nauk z siedzibą w Łodzi	5435	0	0	76	0	0	0
SWPS Uniwersytet Humanistycznospołeczny z siedzibą w Warszawie	47 214	2081	0		0	0	320
Szkoła Wyższa im. Pawła Włodkowica w Płocku	2533	0	0	22	0	0	0
Uczelnia Łazarskiego w Warszawie	9337	1906	0	89	5	0	0
VIAMODA Szkoła Wyższa z siedzibą w Warszawie	31 801	0	296	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Administracji Publicznej imienia Stanisława Staszica w Białymstoku	4578	0	0	7	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa w Gdańsku	6877	1109	0	226	0	0	0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa w Poznaniu	8754	1100	0	226	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa w Toruniu	5820	1091	0	226	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa we Wrocławiu	12 978	1082	0	226	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Biznesu i Przedsiębiorczości w Ostrowcu Świętokrzyskim	743	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Ekonomii i Innowacji w Lublinie	4770	0	0	9	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Finansów i Zarządzania w Warszawie	4507	0	0	81	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Handlowa im. Króla Stefana Batorego w Piotrkowie Trybunalskim	752	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Zarządzania "COPERNICUS" we Wrocławiu	549	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Zarządzania z siedzibą w Rzeszowie	11 014	839	1	848	51	0	47
Wyższa Szkoła Menedżerska w Białymstoku	91	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Menedżerska w Warszawie	2126	0	0	5	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Przedsiębiorczości i Administracji w Lublinie	2081	30	0	19	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Techniczna w Katowicach	3258	0	38	0	11	0	0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Wyższa Szkoła Wychowania Fizycznego i Turystyki w Białymstoku	76	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wyższa Szkoła Zawodowa Łódzkiej Korporacji Oświatowej w Łodzi	43	4	0	0	0	0	0

Source: own elaboration.

The universities not found on the above list were selected for the sake of comparison. The sampling of public universities was made using the list of public universities supervised by the Minister responsible for higher education (excluding higher vocational schools). In the case of private universities, the list was based on a record of the POL-on (only universities with status *active* were included). A random number generator was applied, and in the case of public universities – 16units were drawn, and in the case of private universities – 15. In total, 62 universities − 32 public universities and 30 private universities were analyzed. Social media such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, Google+, GoldenLine, Linkedin, Snapchat, Flickr, and Pinterest were accepted for the analysis. The selected social media were analyzed between 4 and 10 April 2016.

The adopted criterion of the analysis included, depending on the capabilities of a media channel, among others, being up to date, the share of comments, number of likes/ tweets/pins, number of followers, fans, views, subscriptions, and opinions reviews.

As the analysis shows, all of the examined universities have a Facebook profile. The universities that do not have a current account or place the information only from time to time, usually at least weekly or monthly, have a much smaller number of fans, and thus less or no likes at all. The study group included 6 such universities. The seventh university, which did not observe a significant amount of fans and likes, published information discouraging interaction, in the form of messages about events at the university, and most of them were not directly connected with the students. Importantly, one of the universities, which also updates its profile occasionally and does not have a significant amount of fans, has more likes in the places where the content and photos directly affect students. In other cases, these were single clicks. In this group, there is no university from the list of the most frequently chosen by the candidates within a list of MSHE, all of them are private universities.

The universities which are placed high by MSHE ranking are more willing to undergo evaluation; only three did not start this kind of functionality − one public and two private schools. In the overall assessment, more and more universities start this functionality. It is particularly popular among the recognized university, whose students are willing to share their opinion.

A half of the analyzed schools have a Twitter account. They belong to both the group of the top universities and the units not very popular among the candidates. All but 4 post the latest information. The leading position in terms of tweets, likes, and observers is taken by Wroclaw University of Technology with the number of 10,600 tweets, 5,923 likes, and 3,944 observers.

YouTube is the second social media channel most frequently used by universities. All the schools from the list of the most popular units have an account, with as many as 5 of them not having a link to the media on the official website, and 3 of them not updating the information. Unfortunately, as many as 8 universities highly valued by candidates do not have a current record. These are often materials posted with a half-year, a year, and a longer delay. As for the updated materials, they were displayed 100 to 499 times. In the case of private universities – the University of Social Psychology and Humanities and Social University based in Warsaw, and in the case of public universities – Wroclaw University of Technology, have currently the largest number of views and subscribers. The University of Social Psychology reached as many as 7,715 subscriptions, and Wroclaw University of Technology 8,232 subscriptions. It is puzzling why the University of Silesia in Katowice, recording 5,071 subscribers, does not have updated information, taking into account the impact of such possibilities – the possession of the accounts on Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram that also have visible results of the recipients' interest in the form of fans, likes, comments etc.

It should also be noted that in the case of comments on YouTube, a part of the universities blocked this possibility for viewers.

Within the analyzed universities, public schools to a greater degree used Instagram as a tool to promote the university. Most of the visitors of this medium are observers, neither commenting nor liking. The study showed that it is not the number of posts that matters, but the idea how the photo was taken and placed. Then the followers are willing to comment and identify themselves with a certain place or situation.

Google+ has a similar number of accounts, it very often serves as a link to the YouTube channel, and information there is not updated. Only 8 universities run an active account in the social media, with only Wroclaw University of Technology having more than 1,000 followers.

Snapchat was not a very popular channel among the students of the surveyed universities or their potential candidates. Among the respondents, only 3 public universities placed the information about their account on their pages or on Facebook, and they use this form of communication to interact, combining Snapchat with Facebook so that the actions completed there are more fixed.

In the context of other social media used by the universities, Flickr is used by: Kozminski University in Warsaw, Social Psychology University, Social and Humanities University based in Warsaw, Jagiellonian University in Krakow, and the University of Lodz; and Pinterest by: Warsaw University of Technology and Wroclaw University of Technology. The number of students who know and use these media is not great, however, showing an increased interest in this area. These are not the tools that could provide a permanent, long-term interaction with recipients.

It is also worth paying attention to the use of social media such as GoldenLine and Linkedin − mainly used for contact or obtaining information on graduates. These individuals, through their professional achievements, can encourage others (both candidates and other students) to choose a college or become more involved in their educational process. Unfortunately, only six public universities, including: the University of Adam Mickiewicz in Poznan, the University of Lodz, the University of Mining and Metallurgy of Stanisław Staszic in Cracow, the University of Economics in Krakow, Wroclaw University of Economics, and the Pedagogical University of National Education Commission in Cracow, have a current account on GoldenLine. They can boast of a large group of people observing them and the timeliness of the information they publish. The account on Linkedin is a bit more popular. There are 12 colleges, with only 6 of them having a number of contacts above 200, and 5 of them publishing news, besides the information about the college .They include only two private universities: the University of Social Psychology and Kozminski University in Warsaw, and three public universities: the University of Silesia in Katowice, Warsaw University of Technology, and the University of Gdansk. Wroclaw University of Economics has only information, but commands are placed additionally. With the exception of the University of Silesia, these are the institutions most often chosen by the candidates in 2015.

The analysis shows that universities do not fully exploit the possibilities of social media in building relationships. There is a growing interest in owing a variety of accounts on social media channels (as compared to the research conducted in 2013 in terms of the analyzed universities), but not all of them are up to date and run in an efficient and effective manner. Public universities to a greater degree, regardless of the preferences of the candidates, use the potential of social media. In the case of private universities, well-managed social media are the characteristics especially of those universities that are most often selected by candidates, including the Higher School of Banking and Kozminski University. These schools have a current account on at least three basic portals, such as Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube.

Analyzing social media in the above universities, we can observe difficulties in encouraging the visitors to interact − comment on or like the posts, photos, and videos.

The study relates only to apart of the Polish market of higher education, however, it allows to draw interesting preliminary conclusions regarding the activity of universities in social media. However, the research is the basis for further in-depth studies that are undertaken by the author of the article.

Conclusions

Demographic decline forces universities to more active communication, with a particular emphasis on the activities online. Apart from the need to have a professional website, the activity and professionalism in social media are essential, as they enable the university and its stakeholders to achieve a number of important benefits, including:

– lower communication barriers of users associated with a sense of greater anonymity,
– the possibility of „closer relationship" of individual stakeholder groups and their deeper relationship with the university,
– rapid flow of information (opinions, experiences, advice, and recommendations) between the university and different stakeholders, particularly important for the candidates seeking information about studies on the first and second level of studies and for choosing a major of study,
– the possibility to increase recruitment for the first year of study (according to some research the candidates acknowledge that the presence of universities on Facebook and how they interact with users have an impact on the final decision about which university they chose[2] (Washenko, 2014),
– the possibility for university staff to obtain some useful information on the functioning of the university, the problems, the causes of discontent, the proposed changes, popularity of universities, reactions of users of this medium on the actions taken, loyalty to the university, the involvement of students.

[2] According to research carried out in 2013 by Drake University on newly enrolled students, for one-fifth of them, the actions of universities in social media prevailed when deciding on the choice of university.

Professionalism of activities in social media requires, among others, knowledge, experience, and creativity in this area, but also making right decisions about the number and types of portals. As follows from the results of deliberations within the "Social Media in Higher Education Roundtable Discussion" with some of the brightest minds in the industry (*Social media demographics*..., 2015), it is better for the university to act professionally on a few selected portals than exist on all not giving them enough attention and time. This is due to the low number of people usually employed to run social networks at universities. The choice of portals should depend mainly on demographic profile of their users, taking into account age, gender, income, place of residence, and level of education.

According to the research carried out by the authors, the universities which are chosen most often by the candidates have their current account on at least three channels of social media. Within this group, the social media are supported slightly more by public universities than the private ones. They have the activity of their loot and observers, and they work on interaction.

In the case of some universities outside the list, 6 universities have problems with timeliness on the primary channel of social media – Facebook. There are some universities that, despite having accounts, have no current information. Private universities note from 0 to 3 individual social media, and public ones from 1 individual to 5 active accounts. There are universities that work very rapidly and take care of the interaction, use different types of media channels, but, unfortunately, dominate those which use mainly Facebook.

One can say that universities are aware of the importance of social media, therefore, they decide to set up accounts and implement them in action, but not all are able to take full advantage of this medium. This may be due to the lack of knowledge on how to manage the interaction on a particular channel. One may also notice that some universities replicate messages, which sometimes does not correspond to the functionality of the social medium.

For the 'generation Z', social media are one of the main ways of communication, and hence higher education in order to reach this group must work dynamically in this area. The surveyed universities, especially those from the group of universities preferred by candidates, but also from outside of the list (in this group – mainly public ones), are on track to efficient and effective management of social media.

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Media społecznościowe jako narzędzie marketingu relacji współczesnych uczelni

Słowa kluczowe: marketing relacyjny, trendy w marketingu szkół wyższych, media społecznościowe, szkolnictwo wyższe

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest zaprezentowanie wybranych aspektów aktywności uczelni w obszarze kreowania relacji z jej interesariuszami, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem studentów, przy wykorzystaniu mediów społecznościowych jako kluczowej płaszczyzny komunikacji w przestrzeni online. Punktem wyjścia do analizy podjętego tematu jest zaprezentowanie istoty marketingu relacji w odniesieniu do szkół wyższych jako efektu adaptacji i ewolucji marketingu tych podmiotów rynku, jak również aktualnych trendów marketingu szkół wyższych. W artykule wykorzystano źródła wtórne oraz badania autorek artykułu, których przedmiotem była identyfikacja zakresu, intensywności i profesjonalizmu działań uczelni w płaszczyźnie mediów społecznościowych.

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Logistics customer service on the example of courier companies

JEL code: M30

Keywords: logistics customer service, customer, competition, courier companies

Abstract. Logistics customer service is nowadays one of the basic tools of competition among companies. Keeping it in accordance with the preferences of customers may result in a group of loyal and satisfied customers. Services of courier companies are nowadays ubiquitous to the individual customer, however, with different availability. Based on the websites of the three courier companies, the author made a comparison of service offerings for individual customers based on the basic elements of logistics support. Finally, a group of elements that are necessary in the process of ordering courier service by an individual customer was created.

Introduction

Customer service is a very broad term in the literature, and in the area of marketing and logistics, one can find multiple approaches to the topic. This article aims to isolate elements of logistics, customer service in the process of ordering courier service through the websites of selected courier companies, and then to formulate a list of properly shaped elements.

Logistics customer service – theoretical background

Customer service in the aspect of logistics which focuses primarily on the areas of physical distribution of goods, realized according to the rule 7W (the right product, the right amount, the right condition, the right place, the right time, the right price, the right customer) (Matwiejczuk, 2006, p. 30). The most common is the understanding of the logistics, and customer service as:

- activities carried out regularly in order cycle (e.g. the preparation of documentation, physical implementation and settlement of deliveries, communicating with customers, repairing damage and errors in deliveries),
- offered service standards, which are measured and evaluated on each of the stages,
- management philosophy, which consists of the activities of enterprises to their customers, i.e. subordination of all the activities and products demands and the needs of the users (Kisperska-Moroń, Krzyżaniak, 2009, p. 74).

The whole process of customer service can be divided into three phases: pre-trade, trading, and post-trade. This division corresponds to the process approach to customer service. In this approach, firstly – the manager should prepare the strategy for customer service, the appropriate procedures, infrastructure, and employees; secondly – treatment operation as a part of the customer services; thirdly – all the activities that take place after the completion of the primary process (Cichosz, 2010, p. 80).

Detailed elements included in each phase are shown in Figure 1.

Customers generally attach importance to certain elements of logistics support. According to Kisperska-Moroń and Krzyżaniak (2009, pp. 77–86), the most important are:

1. Delivery time – the time counted from the date of order to the receipt of the shipment/goods by the person making the order. On-time delivery is influenced by various "concepts of time," such as:
   - time for the receipt / transfer of orders (influenced by the way of communication with the customer and the forms of submitting an order – letter, e-mail, telephone, etc.),
   - the time for preparing the information contained in the order (depending on the document workflow , which consists of checking the creditworthiness of customer, registration of orders, preparation of documentation, e.g. the order of release, invoice, bill of lading),
   - the time for preparing the ordered products for shipment (it consists of handling work – searching, moving, completing, packing, and loading the means of transport),

– the time for the transport of the ordered products to the customer (time from loading the means of transport to delivery to the destination and unloading),
– the time of delivery of the ordered products to the customer (the time from the discharge of the goods to delivery to the customer, it is a part of the transport time).

Shorter delivery times and greater convenience of ordering goods can be caused by the following: a quick response to the order/customer inquiry, a competent employee of the company in contact with the customer, efficient preparation of calculations, terms of the order, the simplicity of the order form, etc.

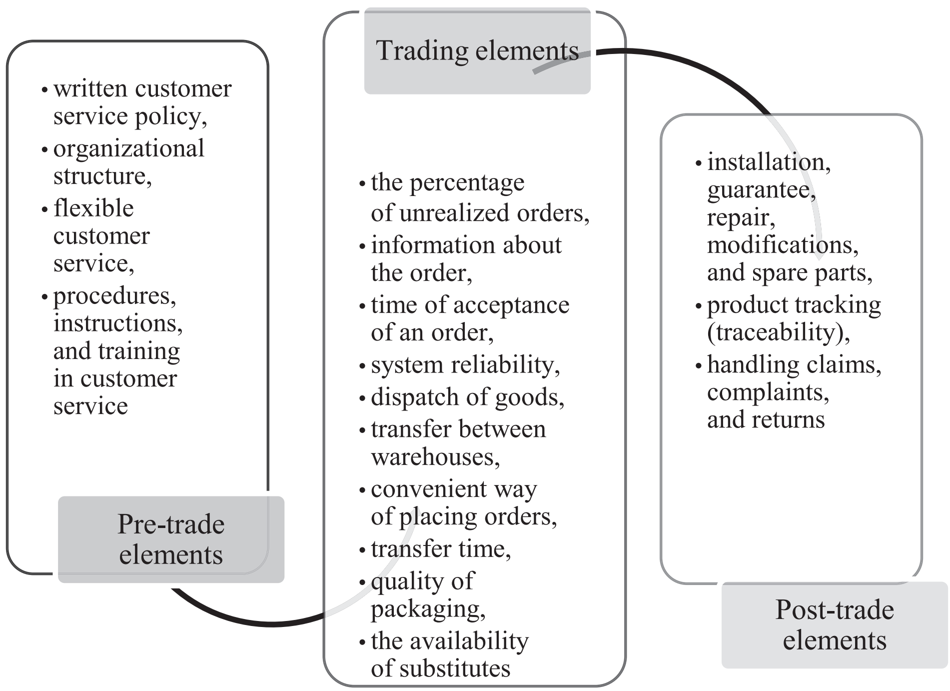

Figure 1. Phases of the logistics customer service

Source: Own elaboration based on: LaLonde, Zinszer, 1976, pp. 272–282.

2. Availability of products from the warehouse, which means that the products are in the store when the customer needs them. The size of the stock is determined on the basis of demand forecasts and various methods of stock replenishment.

3. Setting standards for product availability − estimating that the offered level of availability of the product is sufficient for the customers. It examines how many units the client needs and how many is available in the store.
4. Flexibility of supply − the ability to meet special requirements or operate in unexpected and emergency situations. It is to adjust the time of day, the size range of the product, and the method of delivery to the customer's needs. High flexibility in customer service proves its excellence. The examples of situations requiring high flexibility include:
   – one-time or occasional adjust to work service to the emergency needs of selected customers, e.g. emergency service orders, backlog, expressways,
   – providing service to an individual customer's needs, e.g. price labeling, packaging,
   – sudden, emergency supplies of spare parts,
   – support of dangerous materials and waste that threaten the environment.

   Regularly informing the customer about any delays in the implementation of the order is a sign that the company depends on the client.
5. Frequency of the supply − the number of deliveries in a given period of time (a day, month, or week). The frequency of deliveries are affected by the type of the product and delivery system adopted between suppliers and customers. The number of on-time deliveries is considered to be one measure of the level of customer service.
6. Timeliness − the compliance with previously agreed delivery time. Numerous delays can have an impact on the growth of inventories at customers and create a negative image of the company at customers.
7. Delivery accuracy − this is delivering goods to a client without any mistakes.
8. Completeness of the supply − delivery of exactly what was ordered by a customer in a particular state and quantity. The lack of even one thing in an order is regarded as unrealized in terms of completeness.
9. Reliability of supply − contains the elements described above: delivery accuracy, completeness delivery, and timeliness. Reliability means that the supply will not have any damage, and the invoice will be issued properly at the right place, product, and quantity. Not all aspects of reliability can be specified and measured. The term 'reliability' is meant as the ability and willingness to provide customers with accurate information about the status of the contract, the commitment of suppliers or vendors to keep delivery schedule, and the obligation to notify a customer of any problems with delivery.

10. Irregularities in the delivery of products are related to errors perpetrated during delivery, such as damage to the product or the wrong choice of the product made by the customer. Emerging errors can be divided into:
    - in the office − e.g. in the accounts,
    - procedural − e.g. products shipped, but not shown in the records or products sent to the wrong recipient,
    - in the store − in the statement of the order in shipments,
    - reception of the delivery − wrong customer, product, quantity.
11. Order OTIF (on-time, in-full, error-free) − order executed perfectly, where all of these elements come together. Each of them must satisfy the customer exactly as agreed with him.
12. Elements and standards of after-sales services of the product − the company should continue logistics service after the sale of the product e.g. the customer receives spare parts, installation, and repairs, handling returns and rapid withdrawal of products from the market, the use of which proves to be dangerous (medicines, toys, etc.).

Marketing is the process of exploring the customer's needs, satisfying them, and creating. Logistics is here a tool to meet customer's needs in terms of the place, time, and quality of service. The reason for such a large interdependence of marketing and logistics is the customer orientation. (Ławicki, 2005, p. 152).

Logistics customer service in logistics companies

A comparative analysis of courier companies was conducted from the point of view of an individual customer who wants to send a domestic packet. All the elements available on the websites of the surveyed companies were taken into account. The analyzed companies include DHL, UPS, and DPD, as shown in Table 1. Due to the fact that in the assessment of the courier service not all of the elements listed above can be evaluated, only selected elements of logistics support are subject to the analysis.

Table 1

Comparison of courier companies in terms of selected elements of the logistic customer service

Assessed element	DHL	UPS	DPD
1	2	3	4
Easy to find on the Internet shippinginformation for individual customers	difficult; one must find a bookmark called ‘parcel,’ with the information for individual customers and business clients; on the home page, there is a link which can be used to make international shipping	easy; on the main page there is a link to prepare the shipment and open menu; can be sent by a customer registered in UPS or an unregistered customer	easy; mainly due to the design of the website; there is a reference to the subpages – to order a courier to individual customers, where it is step by step presented what the process of sending a package looks like
A convenient way to place orders	comfortable; the customer has the opportunity to benefit from individual packages, depending on the size or weight of the broadcast package; when customer selects a specific package, he/she can add a variety of services, choose a place of delivery or order receiving parcel from a courier from any place; the prices of services are visible	comfortable, but long; a customer must enter a lot of data and also needs to choose the type of services, e.g. UPS today express or UPS express SVER today; the lack of explanation of the differences between the services. Price is compared and selected individually by the customer; time consuming	comfortable; a customer must first enter the code of the town where he/she wants to post the parcel, give its weight, and enter the code from the image. Then a window with a price is visible and a customer can carefully select further options for shipping and payment
Forms of ordering	Using the online form or a call center, a courier can be ordered to home; on the website, in the section for individual customers, there is no information whether a parcel can be posted at stationary points	form online; no information about other opportunities of shipping	form online; a map of stationary points for receiving and sending a parcel is also indicated, it can be easily searched by the postal code of a village
The need to register a user account	no	no	no

1	2	3	4
The time of ordering	2 min	5 min	2 min
Declared delivery time	the lack of such information while ordering a specific package; only when the package is timely, there is opportunity to choose delivery hours	the lack of such information when ordering a specific package	the lack of such information when ordering a specific package
System reliability	worked properly	worked properly	worked properly
Tracking parcel	a standard service	a standard service	a standard service
The flexibility of deliveries	many choices	many choices	many choices
Communication with the courier company	customer service, on-line form, contact by e-mail, contact with management of DHL Parcel, frequently asked questions	customer service, e-mail, phone contacts to branches in Poland, UPS support options: frequently asked questions, an overview of the topics	call center, contact form on the website
Handling claims and complaints	a downloadable complaint form	no special contact in the matters of complaint	a complaint form as a separate icon on the website

Source: own elaboration based on: *DHL*; *UPS*; *DPD* (2.03.2016).

Each of the analyzed courier companies has its own system of customer service, however, many of the analyzed elements are shaped similarly.

Conclusions

The comparative analysis of the offers of the largest Polish courier companies has identified the most important elements which should be included in every web page that the customer can easily use to send a parcel. These list should contain:

1. The website should be readable. The fewer links on the main page the better. Building a website in "tiled" style (DPD) makes this website clearer for clients.
2. A reference for individual customers should be included on the home page.
3. A convenient way of ordering is part of the decision making to use the services of a particular company or not. If it appears to the client simple and intuitive, then the consumer will decide. If there is a long form to complete (UPS), this discourages the customer to enter all the data. A visualization method

of ordering is also important for the customer. The most convenient way of ordering a courier is offered by DHL company, because it requires filling only a few form fields. Package weights and sizes are shown graphically, along with a brief description, and a customer only has to choose the proper options. Next, some additional services can be selected, their price is shown, and a client can print the confirmation of sending the parcels.

4. The more opportunities, forms of ordering a courier and shipping, the better for a client. Most opportunities and facilities are offered on DHL's website (an online form, ordering a courier to home, and a call center). An interesting solution, offered on DPD's website, is a map with stationary points for receiving and sending packages. The combination of all the described facilities and amenities would offer numerous options and benefits for the customer.
5. No need to register a user account in order to post a package is a huge simplification and convenience for a customer.
6. None of the websites gives information on delivery time when placing an order. Perhaps, the courier companies assume that the average delivery time is 24–48 hours, nevertheless, the customer should see this information when ordering.
7. Reliability and the promptness of operation influence customer's satisfaction.
8. In order to build a competitive edge over others, the company must adjust to customer needs and to provide as much choice as possible in terms of the services offered. Therefore, it is important for companies to offer a wide range of facilities of this type, and, even by means of regular market research, to check whether there are new customers' needs.
9. The way of communicating with a company presented by DHL or UPS is sufficient. The purchaser has many opportunities to contact with the company.
10. Whether the client will return to the company in the future, depends on conducting an efficient complaint process. Therefore, the company's website should have a separate bookmark for the issues of complaint, so that the customer does not have to search for other bookmarks, frequently asked questions, etc., to settle the matter.

The elements described above are part of logistics and customer service, and their shape has a direct impact on customers' decisions. By adapting the web pages to the needs of customers, the enterprise receives a tool in the fight for customers. Their proper conduct can win with the competition, and, as a result, help to build a group of loyal customers.

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Logistyczna obsługa klienta na przykładzie firm kurierskich

Słowa kluczowe: logistyczna obsługa klienta, klient, konkurencja, firmy kurierskie

Streszczenie. Logistyczna obsługa klienta (LOK) jest w obecnych czasach jednym z podstawowych narzędzi walki konkurencyjnej między firmami. Prowadzenie jej zgodnie z preferencjami klientów może skutkować grupą lojalnych i usatysfakcjonowanych klientów. Usługi firm kurierskich są dziś wszechobecne dla indywidualnego klienta, jednakże z różną dostępnością. Na podstawie stron internetowych trzech firm kurierskich dokonano porównania oferty usług dla indywidualnego klienta w odniesieniu do podstawowych elementów LOK-a. Ostatecznie stworzona została grupa elementów, które są niezbędne w procesie zamawiania usługi kurierskiej poprzez klienta indywidualnego.

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The importance of trust and loyalty in financial institutions in financial decision-making process of households

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Keywords: trust, loyalty, consumer, financial decisions

Abstract. The purpose of this article is to show the importance of some behavioral factors, namely trust and loyalty in the process of financial decision-making of households. The article defines the important concepts, such as: financial decisions, loyalty, and trust. Furthermore, it describes the methodology and results of primary research conducted in Poland among 622 respondents for their loyalty to the financial institutions, and the impact of loyalty to the choice of the bank and its offer. In addition, the results of primary research are compared with secondary research conducted by Ernst & Young.

Introduction

Households make financial decisions that are influenced by many factors. These factors include, among others, trust and loyalty to financial institutions. In the era of constant change and an uncertain macroeconomic environment, the importance of these factors increases when it comes to decisions concerning savings, investment, or credit. The aim of the article is to show the importance of some behavioral factors, namely trust and loyalty, in the process of financial decision-making by households. The article contains both the results of primary research conducted in Poland among 622 respondents for their loyalty to the financial institutions, and the impact of loyalty to the choice of the bank and its offer. In addition, the results of primary research were compared with secondary studies conducted by Ernst & Young (2014).

Theory

Speaking about decision making, one should always be aware of the entity that makes decisions, the very act of making a choice, and the decision's subject, that is the task of decision making, a decision-making situation. The entity that makes decisions is called a decision maker. He or she makes a choice of future behavior (out of possible behaviors) and is responsible for his or her decision. In practice, this means being aware of the consequences of their choices (favorable or unfavorable for them) since by taking a certain decision one agrees at the same time to its effects and the results of this choice (Markowski, 2000, pp. 379–402). A decision maker, to which the article is dedicated, is the household. Household can consist of single or multiple persons, and those belonging to it do not have to be family relatives. In the literature, there are many definitions of the concept of household which draw attention to its various features and functions (Pałaszewska-Reindl, Michna, 1986, p. 34; Świecka, 2008; Bylok, 2005, p. 123; Holody, 1971, p. 20).

In the vast majority of decision-making situations, there are no clearly defined procedures and practices leading a decision maker from the beginning of the problem towards the final decision. In literature, one can find different number of presented steps taken before making a decision (Drucker, 1994, pp. 376−394; Samuelson, Marks, 1998, p. 28; Kozielecki, 1986, p. 290). These steps include for example: identification of the decision situation, identification and design of variants of the decision, evaluation and selection of rational variant, creation of conditions for implementation of the decision, and controlling the effects of the decision (Wawrzyniak, 1980, p. 34).

Households undertake many financial decisions, including:

- "management of liquidity − short-term investment decisions and short-term financial decisions,
- long-term financial decisions − housing loans and mortgages, as well as long-term consumer loans,
- long-term investment decisions − classic individual financial investment (stocks, bonds, mutual funds) and non-classic investments (real estate, works of art, derivatives),
- decisions in securing capital − life insurance, health insurance, property insurance and personal insurance,

– retirement decisions − decisions regarding capital formation and retirement decisions regarding the transfer of assets to the immediate family through donations" (Jajuga, 2008).

Factors affecting a financial decision-making process can be analyzed according to various criteria based on the classification of factors influencing the needs and behavior of households. Analyzing the academic achievements (Zalega, 2012; Żelazna (ed.), 2002; Mynarski, 1990; Zalega, 2007; Gajewski, 1992) in terms of the factors influencing the needs and behavior of households which affect a financial decision-making process, internal (psychological, demografic, socio-professional, economic) and external (economic, demografic, socio-cultural, techonological) factors can be distinguished (Musiał, 2014, pp. 33–58).

Trust and loyalty are two important psychological factors affecting a financial decision-making process. Gambetta (1988, p. 216) defines trust as "(...) the subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action that is beneficial or at least not detrimental to consider engaging in some form of cooperation with him."

In the literature, there are examples that a higher level of trust has a positive impact on transactions between consumers and banks (Filipiak, 2013). The second psychological factor which is the subject of the article is loyalty. Defining loyalty requires its presentation in three dimensions: behavioral, cognitive, and emotional (Bednarska-Olejniczak, 2010, pp. 123–124). In terms of the behavioral dimension, a loyal customer is one who is willing to systematically and frequently use the services of a particular institution in a long time. The cognitive approach is characterized by the client as the one who examines and evaluates the characteristics of the offer, considering that it provides him with more value than the offer of other institutions, and on this basis a customer repeats the purchase. In contrast, the emotional approach defines a loyal customer as the one who pays, for example, his advisor to such an extent that in the event of changing a workplace by the advisor, the customer follows him or her too. Based on the above definitions, it can be concluded that loyalty is very complex and it consists of two elements: behavioral (related behavior) and emotional aspect (associated with feelings). On the basis of the main motivations and patterns of behavior, Pietrzak identified six profiles of customers loyalty in financial institutions: loyal because of emotional reasons, because of inertia reasons, loyal because of rational reasons, disloyal because of lifestyle changes, disloyal for rational reasons, and disloyal for the emotional reasons (Pietrzak, 2004; Bednarska-Olejniczak, 2010, pp. 123–124). Identification of individual customers groups from the point of view of their motives and loyalty is crucial to the process of controlling the profitability of relationships with customers for the financial institutions.

Consumer confidence in the institution is one of the factors contributing to building a positive relationship with customers, thus increasing their loyalty to the institution. Satisfied customers recommend the service of the institution to their friends, contributing to the acquisition of its new customers.

Methodology of research

In terms of empirical study, in the period from February to April 2015, the Authors conducted a survey among 622 clients of commercial banks in Poland, using an electronic questionnaire (CAWI) and a paper questionnaire (PAPI). Assuming a permissible error of 4%, 600 respondents should be examined (Kaczmarczyk, 2011, p. 87). In order to obtain the required number of correctly completed questionnaires, 1154 respondents have been reached, however, correctly completed surveys came only from 622 respondents, and only the results of the correctly filled questionnaires were analyzed.

Among the respondents, 71.06% were women (442 persons), while 28.94% − males (180 persons). The vast majority of the respondents (72.2%) were clients of banks aged from 18 to 34 years. The second largest group of the respondents were aged between 35 to 49 years, while the least numerous group consisted of the respondents over the age of 50 years. In terms of education, by far the largest group consisted of the respondents with higher education (70.58%).

The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions, and 3 questions characterizing the respondents (age, sex, and education). The selected results of the survey will be presented further on in this article, and will be compared with the results of other authors.

Findings

Bank customers have been asked to indicate the factors which they consider to be the most important in banking services. The respondents could indicate minimum 1 answer and up to 3 answers. More than a half of the respondents (56.43%) indicated the price of products and services as the most important factor in banking services. For 38.59% of the respondents, the quality of banking products and services is the most important factor. 33.60% of the respondents indicated a rate of customer service. 31.99% of the respondents indicated the availability of many products in one place. For 29.42% of the surveyed customers, a professional adviser who can answer questions is the most important factor in banking services.

In the study, the customers were asked to indicate the factors which guided them in choosing a bank. The respondents could indicate minimum 1 and maximum 3 answers. 42.44% of the respondents indicated the price of banking products and services as the factor which guided them in choosing a bank. The location of a bank in close proximity to the place of residence or work is an important factor for 33.28% of the respondents. 31.51% of the respondents indicated a number of free ATMs at the disposal of a bank, while for 31.35% of the respondents, an opinion of family and friends was the decisive factor in choosing a bank.

In the study, the respondents were asked to specify their level of satisfaction with banking services offered by their bank. 48.55% of the respondents declared that they are satisfied with most of the services offered by the bank, but there are some services that need improvement. 41.64% of the respondents declared their satisfaction with the services offered by the bank. Definitely a smaller group of the respondents are the clients who declared their lack of satisfaction with banking services (9.81%). 5.95% of those customers declared that they would remain its customers despite the lack of satisfaction with the services offered by the bank, and 3.86% of the respondents declared that they would be searching for a new bank.

The next question was to determine the level of customer loyalty to the bank. The respondents could assess their loyalty on a scale from 0 to 10, assuming that 0 means no loyalty, and 10 – a very high level of loyalty to the bank. The average level of loyalty declared by customers amounts to 8.20%. The frequently appearing assessments include: 8 (25.08% of the responses), 10 (20.74% of the responses), 7 (15.92% of the responses), and 9 (12.86% of the responses). Definitely less respondents evaluated their loyalty to banks: 6 (5.63% of the responses), 5 (8.20% of the responses), 4 and 3 (each with 3.22% of the responses), 2 and 0 (1.61% of the responses), and 1 (1.93% of the responses).

In the next question, the respondents were asked to indicate the reason for which they are still clients of the bank. The vast majority of the clients (38.10% of the responses) declared as the reason a high level of satisfaction with the services offered by the bank. 17.36% of the respondents declared their unwillingness to deal with the formalities associated with the process of changing a bank. 17.20% of the respondents, as a reason to remain a customer of the bank, indicated similar offers in all banks, and, therefore, a change in the opinion of the customers is unfounded. 7.40% of the respondents indicated as a reason the location of the bank branch near their workplace. 7.23% of the respondents is related to the bank because of good reviews of the bank and the belief that they guarantee a high quality of services. 6.27% of the respondents declared their loyalty to the bank and the people working in it.

The next question was to identify the motives by which the respondents would be guided, if they decided to change the bank. For 60.13% of the respondents, obtaining information about lower costs and a more favorable offer in the other bank would be the reason for changing the bank. 14.47% of the respondents, as the reason for changing the bank, pointed to obtaining information about a higher quality of services offered in another bank. 12.86% of the respondents said they would have to change the bank if the actual bank's offer did not coincide with the declarations in the ads. 8.04% of the respondents, as the reason for changing the bank, pointed to improper treatment by a bank of family members or friends.

The next question was to identify the customers' feedback regarding the possibility of including in the bank offer a component aiming to increase loyalty among the customers of the bank. For 52.57% of the respondents, such element is reducing the costs of maintaining the account and performing transactions for new clients. 20.26% of the respondents indicated the introduction of loyalty programs with rewards for regular customers as potentially increasing customer loyalty to the bank. For 9.97% of the respondents, additional services offered, such as a personal adviser, could be a factor in increasing customer loyalty to the bank.

The analysis of the results is optimistic for the banking business in Poland. 90.19% of the surveyed customers are satisfied with the cooperation with their bank. The average subjective assessment of loyalty to banks is 8.20 (on a scale from 0 to 10), which is also a very high score. Every fourth customer of bank services in Poland feels connected with their bank on the level that they do not intend to resign from its services, and only less than 2% of the customers say they often change banks because they are looking for the best deals (Pettersen-Sobczyk, 2015).

Discussion

From July to October 2013, a consulting enterprise Ernst & Young conducted a third survey of retail banks customers in 43 countries around the world. The study involved 32,642 bank customers, including 508 from Poland. In Ernst & Young's study, most questions referred to the level of customer confidence in banking institutions, therefore it is a supplement for the research conducted by the authors. The questions were similar in some areas, so it was possible to compare the results with the results of Global Consumer Banking Survey from 2014.

In Ernst & Young's study, the respondents were asked to declare their level of confidence in banks in the preceding 12 months. The collected responses indicate that Poles trust banks more than people in Western European countries. Undoubtedly, the reason for this situation is the stable situation of the Polish banking sector, in the context of the financial crisis of the recent years. The increased by 14% confidence, as compared to the year before the study, is a good forecast for the banks in Poland.

In Ernst & Young's study the respondents were asked to declare their level of trust in their main bank. The vast majority of Poles have confidence in their main bank, but it is at a moderate level. A small percentage of Poles, only 6%, declare a minimum level of trust, or the lack of it. The answers to this question overlap with the replies of the respondents in the authors' study, in which the customers declared their loyalty to the main bank (customer loyalty is the result of confidence in the bank and satisfaction with banking services). An interesting issue is the reason why customers declared high confidence in the banks. 65% of Polish customers, as the reason for a high level of confidence in the main bank stated the possibility of withdrawing funds, 60% − financial stability, 48% − the way of communication with customers, 48% − the way the customer is treated, while 42% − security procedures in the bank. Among the reasons why customers declared a low level of confidence in banks, the largest proportion accounted for the customers indicating the level of charges (65%), followed by the level of interest rates on deposit products (50%), the way the customer is treated (42%), the level of interest rates on loans (40%), and the quality of advice obtained (28%).

Despite the relatively high level of customer confidence in banks in Poland (in comparison to Western European countries), only every third customer would recommend their bank to others. However, the differences in the answers of the respondents in Poland, Germany, and Western Europe are insignificant.

The most interesting is the comparison of the answers of the respondents surveyed by Ernst & Young (2014) with the answers of the respondents surveyed by the authors of the study, concerning the reasons why the customers decided to start cooperation with their bank (open an account). The results of both studies are similar in this regard. The most important factor influencing the decision to cooperate with the bank is the price of banking services and products. The answer was given by 44% of the respondents in the Ernst & Young's survey, and by nearly 43% of the respondents in the authors' study. In Ernst & Young's study, the respondents were also asked to identify the reasons why they decided to close their accounts in one bank and start cooperating with another. For 27% of the Polish respondents, the costs and charges associated with running an account were the factor influencing their decision to end cooperation with the bank.

Conclusions

To sum up, it can be said that:

- Poles have more confidence in banks than customers in Western Europe,
- every third Pole would willingly recommend their bank, and almost every second Pole had previously a problem and the solution provided by the bank was satisfying,
- the most important issue influencing customer decisions about opening accounts and the purchase of new financial products is their price.
- Moreover, the analysis of the research shows that:

– despite the outgoing uncertainty in the markets, banks should continue to invest in the quality of customer contact and image activities,
– banks should use their satisfied customers as their 'lawyers' on the market, and should minimize the percentage of unsatisfied customers. It seems to be crucial for customer acquisition,
– banks should pay special attention to the pricing of its products and services, in the context of the perception of the market,
– building loyalty among the 'self-sufficient' customers will be a challenge for banks. The key factor seems to be improving communication in terms of the product range and development of new tools for self-management.

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Rola zaufania i lojalności do instytucji finansowych w procesie podejmowania decyzji finansowych gospodarstw domowych

Słowa kluczowe: zaufanie, lojalność, konsument, decyzje finansowe

Streszczenie. Celem niniejszego artykułu jest podkreślenia znaczenia wybranych czynników behawioralnych, czyli zaufania i lojalności w procesie podejmowania decyzji finansowych przez gospodarstwa domowe. W artykule zdefiniowano istotne pojęcia, takie jak: decyzje finansowe, lojalność i zaufanie. Ponadto opisano metodykę oraz wyniki badań pierwotnych przeprowadzonych w Polsce wśród 622 respondentów dotyczące ich lojalności wobec instytucji finansowych oraz wpływu tej lojalności na wybór banku i jego oferty. Wyniki badań pierwotnych zostały porównane z badaniami wtórnymi przeprowadzonymi przez Ernst & Young.

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Trust in effective relationship management on the procurement market

JEL code: L14

Keywords: trust, business relations, experience with the product, business needs, emotional needs

Abstract. The aim of this article is to present the results of research concerning farmers' trust in the manufacturers of crop protection chemicals. The authors examined farmers' level of trust in the three groups of manufacturing companies: innovative companies, generic companies, and hybrid companies. The results show that the highest level of trust in the crop protection chemicals market is ascribed to the innovative companies. This high level of confidence is influenced, above all, by previous positive experience of the farmers with the product or manufacturer, the scale of the marketing activities of such companies, the number of their products available on the market, and the on-site customer support regarding decision making during shopping.

Introduction

The aim of this article is to present the results of research concerning farmers' trust in the manufacturers of crop protection chemicals. The authors examined farmers' level of trust in the three groups of manufacturing companies: innovative companies, generic companies, and hybrid companies.

During the research that was conducted from November to December 2015, there were surveys carried out with the CATI technique on the sample of 1,019 farmers. The target group were farms with a surface area above 15 ha. The applied sampling method was quota sampling, with the sampling distribution consistent with the GUS 2013 data, and it covered 205–271 farms.

Trust as a business phenomenon, despite the fact that recently it has been carefully analysed, still cannot find its place in the research literature regarding crop protection chemicals. This market has crucial, from the research point of view, characteristic conditioning. A farmer makes a decision whether to purchase a product or not on the basis of his/her previous positive experience related to the application of the product (Stajszczak, 2011b, pp. 472–481).

The results of the research conducted show that the highest level of trust on the crop protection chemicals market is ascribed to the innovative companies. This high level of trust is influenced, above all, by previous positive experience of the farmers with the product or manufacturer, the scale of the marketing activities of such companies, the number of their products available on the market, and the on-site customer support regarding decision making during shopping.

The size of this article does not allow for the elaboration on all of the aspects concerning this topic. Thus the authors concentrate on the selected and important subjects. They include: the influence of trust on the relationships, experience concerning the product, and the degree of satisfying business and emotional needs by the trading partners.

Trust as a vital factor in business relations

For a few years, trust has been lying in the centre of interest of the researchers who analyse business relationship management. Table 1 presents a review of the most crucial definitions of the concept of trust.

Table 1

Selected definitions of the term 'trust'

A belief that the other party's word is reliable or credible (honesty)	Buttle, Maklan (2015)
A belief that the other party has the necessary expertise to perform as required (competence)	Buttle, Maklan (2015)
Trust is a bet in which the subject is the uncertain, future actions of other people	Sztompka (2007)
Trust is the expectation on the other party's capability, goodwill, and self-reference, which needs to be confirmed by experience	Blomqvist, Staehle (2004)

Expectation held by an agent that its trade partner would Behave in a mutually acceptable manner	Sako, Helper (1998)
Trust is a mechanism by which actors reduce the internal complexity of their system of interaction through the adoption of specific expectations about the future behaviour of the other by selecting amongst a range of possibilities	Luhmann (1979)

Source: authors on the basis of: Grudzewski, Hejduk, Sankowska, Wańtuchowicz, 2009.

A characteristic feature, common for these selected definitions, is the fact that trust is prior to the transaction, it consists of a conviction about the reliability of the other party before the actual confirmation of such credibility takes place through the application of a product. The authors of these definitions point to the phenomena accompanying trust, such as: honesty, credibility, and goodwill.

Trust is especially important on the markets where the quality of the product can only be verified after a long time since its purchase, and, at the moment of making a decision, a client does not have a perfect knowledge of this product (Forlicz, 2001). In such conditions, the client forms his/her purchase preferences on the basis of previous experience with a salesperson or a manufacturer, or he/she develops an idea concerning this product on the basis of the incomplete information that is available, for example packaging or a name that is easy to remember (Wanat, 2010).

Such markets involve mostly procurement markets, for example agricultural supply stores. This market has essential, from the research point of view, characteristic conditioning that regards farmers' purchase decisions (Stajszczak, 2015). Farmers rarely make their purchase decisions without taking into account the appearance and visual attributes of a product. They do this mostly on the basis of previous positive experience with a product or a manufacturer, or on the basis of a belief that this product will function as expected. In this very case, trust is a bet that concerns the future effectiveness of the product. On such a market, these are the qualities of a relationship − trust level and shared values − that decide about the success (Stajszczak, 2012).

Figure 1 presents the scheme of establishing relationships on a B2B market on the basis of trust, which later develop into relationships based on positive business and emotional experience. By experience, one should understand interactions related to business transactions (products, special offers, channel for reaching a customer, sales efforts, and price/quality level), and actions in the emotional sphere. Such an experience, once it is positive, leads to contentment and satisfaction with fulfilled needs. Satisfaction with the relationship is fundamental in building loyalty understood as readiness for negotiations and openness to exchange arguments. The thing that combines all the next steps is communication (Tarabasz, 2007).

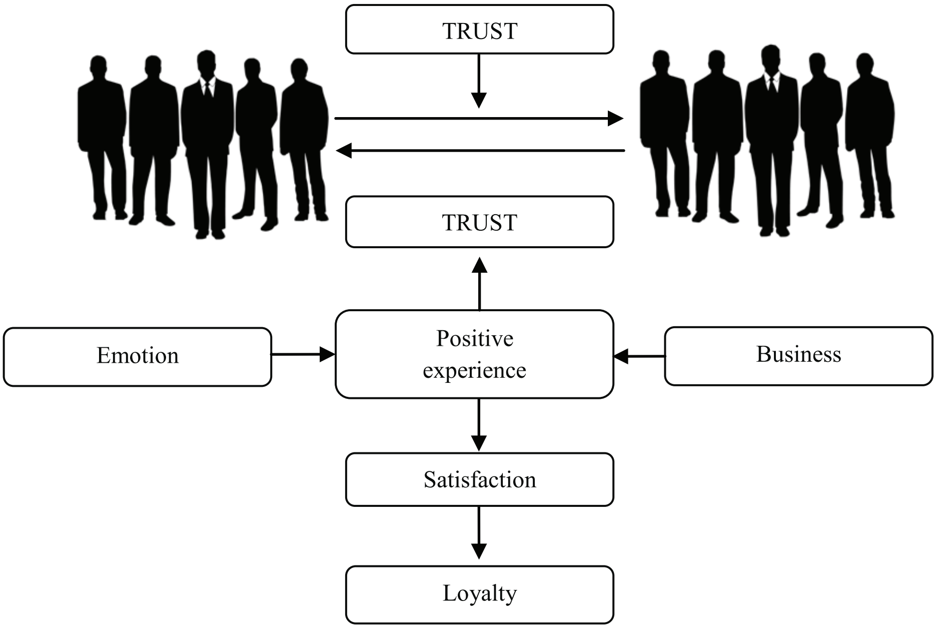

Figure 1. Trust in establishing relationships on a B2B market
Source: own elaboration.

On the market connected to crop protection chemicals, there are three groups of manufacturing companies, namely: innovative companies, generic companies, and hybrid companies. Innovative companies, also known as research and development companies, are the ones which meet new needs or the old ones, but through the application of a new active substance (biologically active), new formula, or new application method. They bring a new and unknown aspect to the agricultural practice. Generally, they are subject to patent protection. Generic companies are the ones which have not developed, discovered, or patented any active substances, and their products do not have any licence or any other exclusive rights, however, they do have the same biologically active substance as the original products, but it is derived from another source. Moreover, their chemical composition is the same or very similar to the original one (similar processing aids and solvents), and they can be interchangeable with the original (innovative) products. Hybrid companies offer a range of products that are a combination of generic and innovative products. The proportion of these products is different depending on the company.

From the marketing viewpoint, both research and development companies and generic companies offer the same basic product and the same primary benefit. They fulfil the same need at the level of a physical product (functional), but they address different motivations and values. Besides, they realise different psychophysical characteristics (symbolic) of the product. Figure 2 illustrates the 'means--end' model by Antonides (Antonides, Van Raaij, 2003, p. 160), which presents the significance of functional and symbolic characteristics in the product realisation of the values.

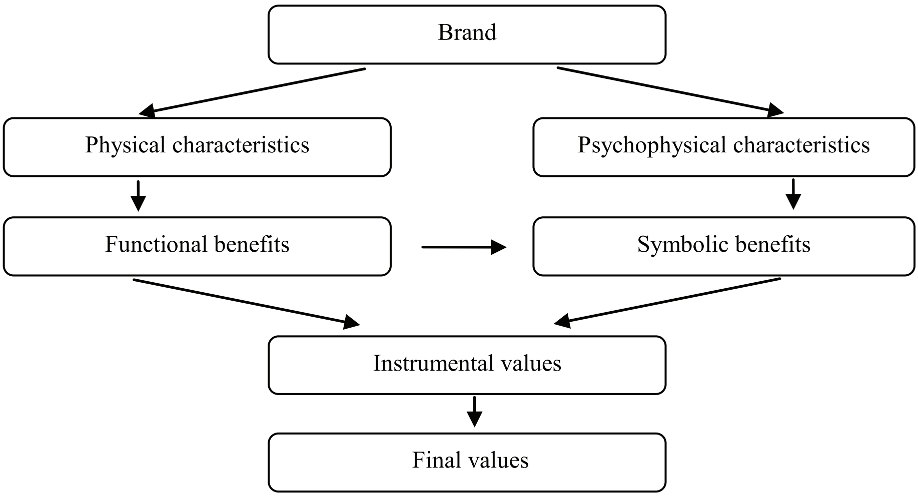

Figure 2. The concept of physical (functional) and psychosocial (symbolic) characteristics of the product in realisation of the values for the customer

Source: Antonides, Van Raaij, 2003, p. 160.

By means of the analysis of the product characteristics that are desired by the customers on the crop protection chemicals market, one can conclude that customers expect greater effectiveness, greater speed, and broader scope of activity from the innovative products. On the other hand, generic products are expected to be cheaper. Original products provide a greater sense of security while generic products give the sense of maximising savings (Stajszczak, 2011a).

Once trust is taken into account, it turns out that through choosing a group from which products will be purchased, a farmer has to calculate his/her trust. He/she makes a choice whether to stay with the more expensive original product or take a risk and buy the much cheaper product, which has never been used before by the individual.

Testing method

The presented study is a part of a research project run by the authors, that deals with building a relationship on the crop protection chemicals market. The authors were interested in how farmers' trust in various groups of crop protection chemicals is built.

The subject of the research was farmers' trust in the manufacturers of crop protection chemicals and their previous experience with the application of the products of these manufacturers. The companies on the market were divided into three groups: innovative (incl. Bayer, BASF, Syngenta), generic (incl. Cheminova, Helm, Sarzyna) and hybrid – the companies that offer both types of products (incl. Adama, Arysta, Belchim). These companies form three discrete strategic groups that employ different product and pricing strategies, as well as the strategies concerning customer relationship management.

Farmers and the employees of agricultural supply warehouse were surveyed. These surveys were carried out from November to December 2015 on the sample of 1,019 farmers. They were conducted with the CATI technique (computer-supported interviews held on farms). The target group were the farms with a surface area above 15 ha. The researchers are interested in the opinions of the farmers operating on such areas (15 ha is the threshold of commercial farms), and those exceeding 50 ha as a minimal size of developmental farms.

The applied sampling method was quota sampling (area of voivodeship) with the sampling distribution consistent with the GUS 2013 data, and it covered 205−271 farms.

Research results

The results of the research are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Assessment of the level of trust depending on the membership of the strategic group (%)

Company group	High level of trust	Lack of trust	Previous positive experience	Support from the store and warehouse employees	Supported brand awareness	Market shares
Innovative companies	62	11	80	26	47	65
Hybrid companies	49	15	15	6	25	15
Generic companies	45	16	10	4	22	20

Source: own elaboration.

The results of the research show that the farmers put their trust in the innovative companies (62%) that also have the largest market share – 65%. Only 11% of the farmers declare the lack of trust in such companies. As far as hybrid companies are concerned, once their market share equals 15%, a high level of trust is declared by 49% of the farmers. On the other hand, a high level of trust in generic companies (market share equals 20%) is declared by 45% of the farmers. 15% of the farmers declare the lack of trust in hybrid companies, and 16% of the farmers do not trust generic companies. As many as 80% of the farmers declare previous positive experience with the products purchased from the innovative companies, whereas experience with the products from hybrid and generic companies is relatively low – 15% and 10%, respectively. 26% of the farmers notice the support provided by the store and warehouse employees only in the case of innovative companies. As far as hybrid and generic companies are concerned, such support is declared by 6% and 4% of the farmers, respectively. The level of supported brand awareness is also the highest in the case of innovative companies and it amounts to 47%. As far as hybrid and generic companies are concerned, it equals 25% and 22% of the farmers, respectively.

Conclusions

The highest level of trust on the crop protection product market is ascribed to the innovative companies. This high level of trust is influenced, above all, by previous positive experience of the farmers. This is due to the fact that the quality and effectiveness of these chemicals can be identified only after its application (i.e. after some time since the purchase).

The fact that the farmers declared the highest trust in innovative companies (which are on the market for a longer period than the generic and hybrid ones, and which have the highest market share) results from brand awareness (measured here as supported brand awareness), that is the result of marketing activities undertaken by innovative companies and the number of products available on the market.

The support of the store and warehouse employees during shopping is also significant for building trust in the brand, and it is present mainly in the case of innovative companies. It is due to the fact that stores have strong and long-lasting relationships with innovative companies that partially finance these stores' operations.

The results are coherent and indicate the significance of trust during farmers' decision making regarding the purchase of a crop protection product.

Summary

The presented results concerning farmers' trust in the three groups of the companies producing crop protection chemicals (innovative companies, generic companies, and hybrid companies) explicitly indicate that the highest level of trust is ascribed to the research and development companies. This high level of confidence is influenced, above all, by previous positive experience of the farmers with the product or manufacturer, the scale of the marketing activities of such companies, the number of their products available on the market, and the support provided by the store employees during farmers' decision making.

For the managers, the above conclusions point at the necessity of developing an attractive range of products and supporting it by means of appropriate marketing activities. Thus the authors realise that there is the need for further research covering the identification of the effectiveness of particular marketing tools that serve building trust.

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Zaufanie w skutecznym zarządzaniu relacjami na rynku zaopatrzeniowym

Słowa kluczowe: zaufanie, relacje biznesowe, doświadczenie produktu, potrzeby biznesowe, potrzeby emocjonalne

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest zaprezentowanie wyników badań na temat zaufania rolników do producentów środków ochrony roślin. Autorzy zbadali poziom zaufania rolników do trzech grup firm producenckich: firm innowacyjnych, generykowych i hybrydowych. Wyniki badań pokazują, że najwyższym poziomem zaufania na rynku produktów ochrony roślin cieszą się firmy innowacyjne. Na ten wysoki poziom zaufania wpływają przede wszystkim: wcześniejsze pozytywne doświadczenia rolników z produktem lub producentem, skala działań marketingowych firm innowacyjnych, liczba ich produktów dostępnych na rynku oraz wsparcie ze strony sklepów przy podejmowaniu decyzji rolników o zakupie produktu.

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Customer knowledge valuation model based on customer lifecycle

JEL code: M31

Keywords: customer knowledge, customer knowledge management, customer knowledge valuation, customer knowledge valuation model, customer lifecycle

Abstract. Customers can create value for firms in a variety of ways. Four of them are parts of customer relationship management (CRM), and mentioned as customer engagement value (CEV) components. The first component is customer lifetime value (CLV); the second is customer referral value (CRV); the third component is customer influencer value (CIV); the fourth component is customer knowledge value (CKV). There are a lot of works concerning the particular CEV element estimates, such as CLV, and recently also CIV or CRV. However, it is important to notice that there is no work on how to estimate CKV. Based on the observations above, finding a model to estimate CKV would be relevant and interesting.

Introduction

Assessing the value of customers based solely upon their transactions with a firm may not be sufficient, and valuing this engagement correctly is crucial in order to avoid undervaluating and overvaluating customers. Customer knowledge value is beyond direct transactions value (Kumar et al., 2010, pp. 297–310). The aim of this study is to present the theoretical background of the concept of customer knowledge and customer knowledge management approaches, and customer knowledge valuation model proposition based on a customer lifecycle theory. To obtain our results, we reviewed the literature, and the character of this paper is conceptual. The proposed model consists of two dimensions – the type of value created and customer lifecycle phase allowing for the assessment of the stream of customer knowledge value in every phase.

Customer knowledge concept

In this paper, we define knowledge as a "fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluation and incorporating new experiences and information" (Davenport, Prusak, 1997). Customer knowledge is understood as the knowledge *from* customers in opposite to the knowledge *about* customers (Gebert, Geib, Kolbe, Brenner, 2003, pp. 107–123; Lee, Cheung, Lim, Sia, 2006, pp. 289–303) and the knowledge *for* customers (Zanjani, Rouzbehani, Dabbagh, 2008, pp. 277–281), and it differs in terms of its character. The difference between these types of knowledge is that the knowledge *from* customers is about the issues that are related to a product or services, in opposite to the knowledge *about* or *for* customers that can be used to assist the customer in making a purchase decision (García-Murillo, Annabi, 2002, pp. 875–884). In this paper, we are concerned with knowledge *from* customers.

In the CLV literature, customer knowledge dominates as a stream of value that customers provide to a firm, and is a component of customer lifetime value. It manifests in indirect-monetary contributions such as information, cooperation, and innovation value. Information value consists of monetary information benefits subtractive of information costs, and is referred to as 'net basis'. The effects of innovation and cooperation value arise from know-how transfer or product, and process innovations stimulated by lead users, for example in the context of customer integration programs (Bauer, Hammerschmidt, 2003, pp. 47–67; Bauer, Hammerschmidt, 2005, pp. 331–348).

Knowledge resides in customers like experience and insights about the products or services (Lee et al., 2006, pp. 289–303). Customers possess knowledge about product ranges, such as compatibility between computer hardware components or the efficacy of specific drugs in treating complaints, and about the wider context and marketplace into which products and services are delivered (Rowley, 2002, pp. 500–511). Customer knowledge data is based upon "Feedback", "Discussion Board", and "Member Data" (Zanjani, Rouzbehani, Dabbagh, 2008, pp. 227–281). Knowledge from a customer is the kind of knowledge (also data or information which can be analyzed, interpreted, and eventually converted into knowledge) that the company attains in order to enhance its products and services (Zanjani et al., 2008, pp. 227–281). Customer knowledge is an expression of customer experience and creativity, and it is about gaining, sharing, and expanding the knowledge of (inside) the customer – individual or group experiences in applications, competitor behavior, possible future solutions, etc. (Gibbert, Leibold, Probst, 2002, pp. 1–16). Knowledge from customers is a customer's knowledge of products, suppliers, and markets.

The diversity of understanding the customer knowledge concept leads to the conclusion, that customer knowledge can be viewed as an entity with distinctive attributes that can be deconstructed and analyzed in detail or viewed as an integrated whole. The former perspective is epistemological, and the latter one – ontological. Epistemological knowledge management models, therefore, view knowledge as an entity that can be deconstructed into discrete, relevant attributes, based on the epistemological foundation held by the modeler. Ontological knowledge management defines knowledge solely through its relationships with a constructed universe of discourse, encompassing all the dimensions that are relevant to the modeler. Ontological knowledge managers view knowledge as a "black box: with undefined inherent characteristics. Ontological knowledge management frequently uses modelling dimensions which include a process dimension, an agent dimension (individual vs. group) and a financial dimension. (Gebert et al., 2003, pp. 107–123).

Based on the above considerations, we can say that customer knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and an expert insight that provides a framework for evaluation and incorporating new value for a firm. The firm uses this value to enhance the value for different stakeholders, especially customers.

Customer knowledge management

In this paper, customer knowledge management (CKM) means managing knowledge *from* customers. CKM is the strategic process by which cutting-edge companies emancipate their customers from passive recipients of products and services to empowerment as knowledge partners (Gibbert et al., 2002, pp. 1–16). Using customer experience and creativity in the areas of gaining, sharing, and expanding knowledge leads to indicating five styles of CKM – prosumerism, team-based co-learning, mutual innovation, communities of creation, and joint intellectual property (Gibbert et al., 2002, pp. 1–16). Their common characteristic is understanding the customer as an active knowledge partner, but in each of these areas customer knowledge value is not explicitly explained.

Fang (2008, pp. 90–104) notes that customer knowledge management can occur through the customer participation process. Customer participation can be defined as the extent to which a customer is involved in the manufacturer's new product development (NPD) process, and it delineates customer participation along two specific dimensions: customer participation as an information resource (CPI) and customer participation as a codeveloper (CPC). CPI involves activities such as sharing information with the manufacturer during the NPD process. In contrast, CPC refers to the extent to which firm customer task involvement constitutes a significant portion of the development tasks (Fang, 2008, pp. 90–104).

CKM also occurs as customer knowledge development, which is the development of customer preference understanding, and has been identified as a key prerequisite for a new product success (Kumar et al., 2010, pp. 297–310). Customer knowledge development is a process of developing and understanding a customer's new product preferences that unfolds through the iteration of probing and learning activities across stages of the prelaunch phase of new product development (Lynn, Morone, Paulson, 1996, pp. 8–37 as cited in: Joshi, Sharma, 2004, pp. 47–59). Probing activities include the deployment of new product ideas, concepts, and prototypes among target customers, and learning activities entail the analysis of a customer feedback and the development of subsequent probes based on the analysis (Hargadon, Sutton, 1999, pp. 157–166; Leonard, Sensiper, 1998, pp. 112–132 as cited in: Joshi, Sharma, 2004, pp. 47–59).

The conceptual model for customer knowledge valuation

The above mentioned customer knowledge concepts and customer knowledge management patterns provide for a wide variety of CK interpretations, but they seem to be hard to implement in a context of valuation. Since CKM is a part of CRM, we implement a customer lifecycle theory to identify CKV fields. Customer lifecycle is the primary construct in CRM. It determines and organizes the logical flow of thinking about customer value understood as value *from* customers (CLV). Dividing customer relationships with a firm into phases, allows for identification of value streams in each phase (Kumar, 2008; Blattberg, Getz, Thomas, 2001). The assumption that customers share their money and knowledge with a firm, leads to the conclusion that the customer lifecycle theory may be useful in the area of knowledge *from* customers valuating.

According to the customer lifecycle theory, we can identify three types of customers as knowledge providers. These are: prospects, regular, and past customers. An additional category is 'users,' who are not going to be customers, but they know the product/service and they have a sharing potential as knowledge distributors.

A variety of customer knowledge usability types allows for the indication of a variety of CK domains in two dimensions. The first refers to its value to a firm or a customer, and the second refers to the customer lifecycle phase. Table 1 presents a conceptual model of customer knowledge valuation.

Table 1

A conceptual model of customer knowledge valuation

Customer / Field	Prospect	Regular	Past	Users (non-customers)
Firm				
Product/service				
information	opinions, suggestions as a tester	opinions, suggestions as a customer	opinions, suggestions as a former user	opinions, suggestions
co-creation	product/service developing process direct participant	product/service developing process direct participant	*potentially negligible*	*potentially negligible*
Process				
information	opinions, suggestions as a tester	opinions, suggestions as a user	opinions, suggestions as a former user	opinions, suggestions
co-creation	product/service developing process direct participant	process developing direct participant	*potentially negligible*	*potentially negligible*
Customer				
prospect	co-involvement	co-involvement		education
regular	co-involvement	co-involvement		education
past	*potentially negligible*	re-purchase motivating	*potentially negligible*	*potentially negligible*
value for users (non-customers)	potentially negligible	potentially negligible	potentially negligible	education

Source: own elaboration

In terms of value to a firm, prospects give opinions and suggestions as testers. They are not regular customers yet so their opinions may be limited because of their knowledge and experience. They may be involved in the product development process as direct participants, especially in the field of Internet products or services. In terms of value for customers, co-involvement is possible, especially for prospects.

For regular customers, their opinions are not so valuable because of knowledge and experience. There is probably no value that they may deliver to past customers, as well as their opinions probably have no value for users who are not customers yet.

The potential of regular customer knowledge value is higher than prospect's because of their experience. Their opinions and suggestions are probably more valuable than prospects, and their willingness to be a co-creator may be stronger and explicit. In terms of value for customers, their co-involvement may be strong if their experiences are positive. However, their knowledge and experience are rich, and with a proper dose of motivation, would be more frequent. Moreover, regular customers may play a role as re-purchase motivators for former customers.

Past customer knowledge has limited utility because the level of involvement in relationships with a firm rapidly decreases. Customers terminate their relationship with a firm because they are unsatisfied, or their needs have ended. In both situations, positive involvement is unlikely The most likely scenario is benevolent indifference. Singular opinions and suggestions are possible, but with the risk of being value destructors.

Users (non-customers) are people who use a product/service, but they do not need or want to be customers, i.e. specialized software users. In fact, they may be active as information providers via blogs or forums, especially creating value of education. Their goals may be different than a firm's – they may want to build their position in a particular society as specialists in a particular area (e.g. statisticians using specified statistical software).

Summary

The aim of the study was to present a theoretical background about the concept of customer knowledge and customer knowledge management approaches, and customer knowledge valuation model proposition, based on a customer lifecycle theory. Customer knowledge, as a value generator, needs its measuring system. This system may consists of two dimensions – the type of value beneficiary and their activities, and a customer lifecycle phase. Such an approach captures every knowledge-based value stream from every type of customers. Each of the elements characteristic for a specific type of a customer has particular metrics. They have their financial and nonfinancial dimensions. The first possible research purpose is to identify the character of a stream − a value creator or destructor. The second one is to identify the financial valuation of particular value streams. Joining marketing and intellectual capital theory with financial measuring tools may be interesting and lead to interesting and relevant results.

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Koncepcyjny model wyceny wiedzy klienta oparty na cyklu życia klienta

Słowa kluczowe: wiedza klienta, zarządzanie wiedzą klienta, wycena wiedzy klienta, model wyceny wiedzy klienta, cykl życia klienta

Streszczenie. Klienci tworzą wartość dla przedsiębiorstwa w różny sposób. W ramach zarządzania relacjami z klientem (CRM) występują cztery sposoby tworzenia wartości, które składają się na wartość zaangażowania klienta (*Customer Engagement Value – CEV*). Pierwszym z nich jest wartość życiowa klienta (*Customer Lifetime Value – CLV*); drugim jest wartość rekomendacji generowanych przez klienta (*Customer Refferal Value – CRV*); trzecim – wartość wpływu społecznego klientów (*Customer Influencer Value – CIV*); czwartym zaś wartość wiedzy klienta (*Customer Knowledge Value* – CKV). Istnieje wiele prac dotyczących CLV i CRV a także, ostatnio, CIV, lecz nie ma prac dotyczących CKV. Stworzenie modelu umożliwiającego pomiar wiedzy klienta w przedsiębiorstwie może stanowić istotny wkład do nauki.

Cytowanie

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Transformation of marketing in the era of technological evolution

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E-services: concept, specificity, and marketing elements to create their value

JEL codes: M31, 033, L81

Keywords: e-services, e-services marketing, customer value

Abstract. These days we can observe a rapid growth in the development of e-services. The fact that a new type of services is provided and consumed using an Internet-based or electronic system is of great importance to the marketing strategy. In the article, the authors discuss the nature and specificity of e-services, as well as propose five key elements of marketing strategy which can be used to create value to customer. These five key elements are as follows: architecture of an e-service system, information, e-service quality, social network, and brand. The article is conceptual in nature. In order to achieve the aim pursued, the method of critical analysis of literature was used. Moreover, all three methods of reasoning − induction, deduction, and analogy − were employed.

Introduction

One of the main trends in contemporary global economy is ongoing growth in importance of services, both in the economies of particular countries and in the international perspective. In the second half of the twentieth century, services began to be the most important sector of the economies of most developed countries. At the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries, this process has accelerated as the result of the rapid development of technology and growing importance of innovation. The service sector emerged as the sector which easily adapts to changes in the turbulent environment, is more resistant to periodic changes in economic conditions than the sector of material production, and responds easier to new trends by the assimilation of technical and organizational innovations and new knowledge. As a result, the service sector is becoming more diverse internally, and also, due to technological progress, the structure of services is changing. Some services are disappearing completely, others appear and flourish (Olszański, Piech, 2012). Services which are developing particularly rapidly are electronic services, also called e-services.

This rapid development of e-services results in the growing interest of researchers who describe them from different perspectives and in different contexts. In consequence, there is no consensus as to how e-services are defined and classified. Moreover, there is a lack of one universal comprehensive proposition how to use marketing to create their value. Admittedly, some proposals in this field can be found, but they are largely of an exploratory nature. Given the specificity of e-services, it can be assumed that the elements of marketing strategy (used on offline service market) need to be redefined and broadened to face the new digital reality. This article, which is conceptual in nature, has the major purpose of contributing to the literature by discussing the nature and specificity of e-services, as well as giving the proposition of key marketing elements to create value to customer. In order to achieve the aim of the article, the method of critical analysis of literature was used. Moreover, all three methods of reasoning – induction, deduction, and analogy − were employed.

The concept and characteristics of e-services

The market of e-services both in Poland and in the world is growing rapidly covering all sectors and all areas of the traditional market. It has been indicated for at least several years that in the perspective of the next few years e-services will have the greatest growth potential in the conditions of modern economy. (*Rozwój*..., 2012; Olszański, Piech, 2012). These days e-services are not only one of the most dynamic activities in the field of practice, but also represent one of the main areas of theoretical interest (Batagan, Pocovnicu, Capisizu, 2009, pp. 372–381; Ojasalo, 2010, pp. 127–143). The growing interest in the area of e-services has been reflected in the growing number of publications in which e-services are considered from different perspectives and in different contexts.

Although e-services have stirred a heated debate, it is difficult to propose one universal definition for them. These definitions have been changing with time because of the dynamic nature of the environment in which they are formed and developed (Flis, Szut, Mazurek-Kucharska, Kuciński, 2009; Hofacker, Goldsmith, Bridges, Swilley, 2007, pp. 13–44; Rust, Kannan, 2003, pp. 37–42; Kelleher, Peppard, 2009). Given these definitional difficulties, it can be assumed that e-service is such a service that meets at least six conditions listed in Table 1.

Table 1

The basic characteristics of e-services

Provided via the Internet or an electronic network
Accessible to customer with the use of an electronic device: computer, mobile phone, other mobile devices, internet enabled TV set
Provided in a fully automatic or partially automatic way
Characterized by customization and personalization, i.e. by adaptation to users and their preferences
Provided at a distance and do not require the presence of both parties at the same time and in the same place
Independent of the devices that create, store, and deliver them

Source: Surjadjaja, Ghosh, Antony, 2003; Hofacker, Goldsmith, Bridges, Swilley, 2007; Batagan, Pocovnicu, Capisizu, 2009; Flis, Szut, Mazurek-Kucharska, Kuciński, 2009; Kelleher, Peppard, 2009; Olszański, Piech, 2012; *Rozwój*..., 2012; Batko, Billewicz, 2013.

As mentioned above, e-services have been developing dynamically. Their evolution, among other things, is conducive to development and introduction of new forms of Internet connection, the improvement of network performance, and an increase in the number of Internet users. Additionally, the factor that positively influences the popularity of e-services (both on supply- and demand-side) is their specificity (cf. Table 1 and Table 2).

Table 2

E-service characteristics conducive to their popularity, both on supply- and demand-side

the ease of interaction and building better relationships with customers	no time and location barriers (both while providing and using e-services)
the ease of personalization and customization in ‘real-time’ depending on the unique context and requirements of customers’	flexibility in terms of how and on what device each e-service is performed

Source: Hofacker et al., 2007; Batagan et al., 2009; Flis et al., 2009; Kelleher, Peppard, 2009; Olszański, Piech, 2012; *Rozwój*..., 2012.

E-services vs. traditional services

When writing about the differences between e-services and traditional services, the authors usually highlight the attributes that make them different: no human intervention on the other side and the provision at a distance (Flis et al., 2009). However, these differences can be considered in a more in-depth way. Hofacker et al. (2007) for this purpose refer to four commonly-cited properties of traditional services i.e. (1) intangibility, (2) heterogeneity, (3) inseparability of production and consumption, (4) perishability − described earlier by Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1985); and to a 'nonownership' dimension − characterized e.g. by Lovelock and Gummesson (2004). The characteristics of e-services from the perspective of the five properties mentioned above are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

E-services from the perspective of five commonly-cited properties of traditional services

Property	Considered properties in reference to e-services
Intangibility	In comparison to traditional services, e-services are even less tangible.
Heterogeneity (as a variability in quality)	E-services are more homogeneous than traditional services because they are not labor intensive (from the point of view of the firm), and so do not incur so much risk of human error. However, it does not exclude variability as the result of e-services customization and personalization, as well as the variability added by the consumer's software configurations, preferences, and hardware environment.
Inseparability of production and consumption	In contrast to traditional services, e-services production and consumption are separated (in space and time).
Perishability	E-services, being an algorithm, offer an excellent example of an exception, as it can be stored indefinitely by the firm or consumer. Delivered by software, e-services can be consumed over and over again without being used up. E-services are even too easy to be inventoried, i.e. they are non-excludable in supply which means that management cannot prevent consumers from copying, storing, and exchanging them.
Nonownership	In the case of e-services (as it is in traditional services) there is no transfer of ownership.

Source: own elaboration on the basis of Hofacker et al., 2007.

All distinctions presented above make e-services become a specific category of services. The differences between traditional services and e-services can be also summarized as shown in Figure 1.

Traditional services	Intangible	⟺	Intangible, but need tangible media	E-services
	Cannot be inventoried	⟺	Can be inventoried	
	Inseparable consumption	⟺	Separable consumption	
	Cannot be patented	⟺	Can be copyrighted, patented	
	Heterogeneous	⟺	Homogeneous	
	Cannot be copied	⟺	Can be copied	
	Cannot be shared	⟺	Can be shared	
	The use equals consumption	⟺	The use does not equal consumption	
	Based on atoms	⟺	Based on bits	

Figure 1. E-services vs. traditional services

Source: Hofacker et al., 2007.

Additional differences between traditional and e-services are indicated by Ojasalo (2010). As the author notices, in traditional services, only people − the employees − are involved in the interface of the service encounter, whereas in e-services, ICT or employees mediated by the Internet are involved in it. In traditional services, customers can experience the service by using all their senses, whereas during the e-service encounter, customers are restricted to hearing and viewing. Moreover, traditional services are restricted by distance and opening hours, whereas in the case of e-services, these barriers do not exist.

E-services classification

As it is hard to mark one commonly accepted definition of e-services, there is a lack of standard classification in this field. The additional obstacle to systematize these issues is the emergence of 'official' definitions and 'official' classifications of e-services which are used for the sake of funding programs for e-service providers. Such definitions are often created exclusively for a particular program and, therefore, do not always include all types of e-services, but only those that are covered by subsidies (Flis et al., 2009). In addition, some difficulties in the description and classification of e-services result from the fact that new types of e-services continue to be developed, and the phenomenon of providing e-services on the Internet is extremely dynamic.

E-services are categorised in various ways by different researches. For example, some researchers divide them considering whether the technology helps to create a new e-service (technology-based e-services) or an e-service is enhanced by technology (technology-enabled services) (Olszański, Piech, 2012). Some researchers use simple classification of e-services for individuals and e-services for organizations (Batagan et al., 2009). There are also authors who distinguish three types of e-services (Hofacker et al., 2007): (1) e-services which are complementary to existing offline services and goods; (2) e-services as virtual substitutes for classic existing services; (3) uniquely new core e-services that do not and generally could not exist as offline services. The most common classification is based on the business activity in which the e-service is applied although there is no one widely accepted way to classify e-services using this criterion. Taking that into consideration, various authors indicate e-services such as: e-business , e-education, e-communication, e-tourism, e-finance, e-culture, e-administration, e-health, etc. (e.g. Batagan et al., 2009; Flis et al., 2009; Batko, Billewicz, 2013). Additionally, e-services are categorized in terms of the type of the side which is engaged in the e-service interaction (business, customer, and administration). Taking it into account, the authors describe a few different models of e-services, such as: B2B, B2C, C2C, C2B, B2A, A2B, C2A, A2C, A2A (Batagan et al., 2009; Olszański, Piech, 2012; Batko, Billewicz, 2013).

Marketing elements to create e-services value

Nowadays, the cornerstone of marketing is creating and delivering value (Doyle 2000; Kotler, Jain, Maesincee, 2002; McDonald, Keegan, 2002). According to AMA (*Definition…*, 2013), "marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large." The assumption that the value of the company depends on the lifetime customer value (LTV) stands at the basis of the value-based marketing concept (Doyle, 2000). LTV, which means the total amount of net profit which a customer will generate for a company over the life of a relationship, is closely related to customer value (also described in the literature by terms 'value to customer' or 'perceived customer value').

Although customer value is defined in many different ways (Doligalski, 2013), in frequently used definitions the authors agree that it can be estimated by the perceived surplus of all the benefits over all the costs (e.g. Zeithaml, 1988; Smith, Colgate, 2007; Doligalski, 2013; Robinson, 2015). According to Zeithaml (1998, p. 14), customer perceived value is "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given." In turn, Grönroos (2006, p. 155) argues that "value is perceived by customers in their everyday activities and processes and in interactions with suppliers or service providers when consuming or making use of services, goods, information, personal contacts, recovery and other elements of ongoing relations." It means that there are many value elements that affect the costs and benefits of the offering in the customer's business (Anderson, Narus, 1998).

Customer value is a multidimensional category. According to previous research, there are two main types of value that are indicated to be the primary motivation of online shopping: utilitarian and hedonic (Chen, Tsai, Hsu, Lee, 2013). Others indicate that, especially in the era of social media and wireless technology, three dimensions of value can be distinguished: business value, perceived value, and social value (Robinson, 2015). Moreover, as more and more authors argue, currently, organizations interact and co-create value with consumers and other stakeholders (Prahalad, Ramaswamy, 2004; Grönroos, Voima, 2013; Brzustewicz, 2014; Ranjan, Read, 2016). The recent technologies development has caused that, especially on e-services market, the role of consumers in co-creating value is growing (Heinonen, 2006; Heinonen, 2009; Ahrar, Rahman, 2012; McCormick, 2013; Elsharnouby, Mahrous, 2016). As Heinonen (2009, p. 190) states, "value is not something that is delivered to the consumer; rather it is created by the consumer when using the service, i.e. value-in-use."

Given the fact that customer perceived value is considered an important factor for profits and competiveness (Doyle, 2000; Grönroos, 2011; Doligalski, 2013), the fundamental questions that each e-service company should pose to itself are as follows: 'What are our e-services actually worth to customers?' 'What steps will we need to take to create the value that is unique?' According to the literature on the subject, only the products of high perceived value can attract customers and retain their loyalty (Zeithaml, 1988; Doyle, 2000; Yang, Peterson, 2004). In view of the foregoing, the knowledge about how e-service companies can create and deliver value to customers is of great importance.

The review of the literature shows that the marketing elements that are used to create value on e-service market vary from the instruments which are applied in traditional services (Table 4). In general, a change of approach from traditional marketing to e-marketing is clearly visible. It means that to create the value to customer on e-services market, traditional marketing needs to be redefined and broadened to face the new reality.

In traditional services marketing the value to customer is created by integrating three components: core product, supplementary services, and delivery processes (Lovelock, Wirtz, 2007). In contrast, in e-services marketing the core product turns into e-product, supplementary services change into online tools, and the delivery process evolves from the physical distribution to the electronic channel (Ghorbani, 2014). Bearing that in mind, e-services marketers should take into account a new specrum of components when creating customer value. As it is seen from Table 4, each listed element can be assigned to one of five key compounds of marketing strategy to create e-services value: architecture of an e-service system, information, e-service quality, social network, and brand.

Table 4

The key elements of marketing strategy to create e-services value

Author	The key elements
Rust, Kannan (2003)	information products, customization, one-to-one marketing, 2-way dialogue, information flows, satisfaction focus, customer profitability, customer equity
Botha, Bothma, Geldenhuys (2008)	market segmentation, one-to-one marketing on the Internet, marketing website, market research, database marketing
Lewicki (2012)	architecture, information, offer, community, brand
Chen, Tsai, Hsu, Lee (2013)	ease of use, responsiveness, information quality, visual appearance, clarity of layout, order fulfilment, reliability, emotional benefit
Ghorbani (2014)	e-product, supplementary e-services, electronic channel
Mata, Quesada (2014)	web 2.0, online social networks, viral marketing, social commerce
Robinson, Jr. (2015)	social network, decentralization/collaboration, mashup/personalization

Source: own elaboration.

Architecture is the main element that enables a contact between the customer and e-service provider. According to Kelleher and Peppard (2009), when designing e-service website, three elements should be considered: information creation, search and quality, and the support of dialogue between customers and the organization. The creation of value in this field depends on such components as easy navigation, solutions to sort and search information, customization scope, or the arrangement and the artwork of the website (Lewicki, 2012).

The information regarding e-services, the company, and all the processes to acquire an e-service, plays an important role in customer value creation. Studies have shown that detailed and high quality information not only influences loyalty intentions, but also partially mediates the relationship between perceived e-service quality and perceived value (Pearson, Tadisina, Griffin, 2012).

There is a lack of consensus concerning the notion of e-services quality. Chen et al. (2013) argue that e-services quality includes all factors related to the process of service delivery. In turn, Fassnacht and Koese (2006) distinguish environment quality, delivery quality, and outcome quality. According to the latest research, e-services quality, as it is in traditional services, has an impact on customer's perceived value and loyalty (Chen et al., 2013).

The social network, as the main tool in building relationships between customers and companies, as well as between customers, plays a significant role in solving customer's real time problems (Robinson, 2015). In addition, when using social media (blogs, forums, social networks, video and photo sharing, or virtual worlds), companies can promote e-service to customers, and encourage consumers to co-create value. As the platforms of two-way communication, social media enable dialogue and conversations.

A successful e-service brand is a result of all the above listed activities. The use of social media and two-way dialogue allow companies to engage customers in the process of interaction with e-service brand. When recognizable online, e-brand can be one of the most important sources of customer value (Lewicki, 2012; Doligalski, 2013).

Summary

One of the main trends in contemporary economy is ongoing growth in importance of e-service sector. This rapid development of e-services results in growing interest of researchers who describe them from different perspectives and in different contexts. In consequence, there is no consensus as to how e-services are defined and classified. These definitions and classifications have been changing with time because of the dynamic nature of the environment in which e-services are formed and developed. The obstacle to systematize these issues is also the emergence of 'official' definitions and 'official' classifications of e-services, which are often created exclusively for particular funding programs offered at a given time and in a particular country for e-service providers. Furthermore, there is no agreement among various authors regarding how to use marketing to create e-services value. The review of the literature shows that marketing elements that are used to create value on traditional service market do not correspond to the specificity of e-services. To create the value to customer on e-services market, traditional marketing needs to be redefined and broadened to face the new digital reality. Bearing that in mind, marketers should take into account a new specrum of components when building the value of e-services. As it is shown in the article, these elements can be assigned to one of five key compounds: architecture of an e-service system, information, e-service quality, social network, and brand.

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E-usługi: pojęcie, specyfika oraz marketingowe elementy tworzenia ich wartości

Słowa kluczowe: e-usługi, marketing e-usługi, wartość dla klienta

Streszczenie. Aktualnie sektor e-usług jest jednym z najdynamiczniej rozwijających się obszarów gospodarki. Fakt, że usługi tego rodzaju są dostarczane za pomocą Internetu lub innych sieci komputerowych w dużym stopniu determinuje specyfikę i zakres elementów strategii marketingowej wykorzystywanej przy budowaniu ich wartości dla klienta. W artykule autorzy omawiają zarówno pojęcie i specyfikę usług elektronicznych, jak również proponują pięć kluczowych elementów strategii marketingowej, które powinny być rozważane podczas tworzenia wartości dla klienta na tym specyficznym rynku. Elementami tymi są: architektura systemu e-usług, informacja, jakość e-usług, sieci społecznościowe oraz marka. Artykuł ma charakter koncepcyjny (eksploracyjny). Dla osiągnięcia założonych celów wykorzystano metodę krytycznej analizy literatury oraz główne metody rozumowania logicznego – indukcję, dedukcję i wnioskowanie przez analogię.

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Advertising in digital games targeted to children

JEL codes: M31, M39

Keywords: advergaming, advertising in digital games, in-game advertising, children

Abstract. The article is an attempt to systematize and describe ways to reach out with the marketing message to children through games. Based on a review of the literature, the attempts to organize forms of advertising in digital games (advergaming) were made. The paper also tries to identify the research areas arising from the use of these advertising activities for a specific subsegment of the market of young consumers – children.

Introduction

Marketing communication on the Internet is a relatively new area of research. Its development in the practical sphere – diversity of forms and action models – makes the Internet an integral part of integrated communication activities, and Internet users are now customers of many Internet-based marketing techniques. One of the most attractive target groups are young consumers, especially due to their large experience in the use of the Internet, resulting from both the frequency of staying online and range of online activities. Despite the common characteristics of the representatives of this segment, such as experience in the use of new technologies and the Internet, one should be aware of the diversity resulting from development conditions. The specific subsegment are children who are exposed to the increasing number of marketing messages targeted at them in the electronic media, especially the Internet (Hofmeister-Tóth, Nagy, 2011). The activities addressed to them include a series of forms and tools, including interactive games, competitions, or websites with attractive graphics (Hofmeister-Tóth, Nagy, 2011; Budzanowska-Drzewiecka, 2015). The development of forms of advertising in new media creates different opportunities to target children, including the fact that games have become an important channel of communication.

Advergaming represents a rapidly evolving sector comprising of embedded commercial messages within the content of retail-accessible video games and online electronic games. As emphasized by the authors of report *Game Industry Trends: Kids 2014* (2014), children's games are not the most profitable segment of virtual entertainment, but very important due to the nature of the target group. It stems from their intellectual and emotional immaturity, which is the direct cause of ethical concerns associated with addressing ads to them, placed in the characteristic communication channel.

The study based on the literature of the subject attempts to systematize issues connected with using games as a medium of advertising aimed at children. Based on the available literature, the author indicated the main areas and directions that require further exploration.

Conditions of attractiveness of games as a medium of advertising

The proliferation of online games has given advertisers a new format to reach consumers with marketing messages (Lee, Park, Wise, 2013). Computer games have now become a channel of communication through which one can reach a wide range of players. The use of advertising activities in the games constitutes a dynamic field of marketing communications (Mitręga, 2013). Although for a long time they were considered entertainment for younger players (especially boys), one can find people with very different social characteristics among players. While the perception is that games are the domain of children and teenagers, their scope is significantly wider, also on the Polish market. According to the research report *Game Industry Trends. Electronic entertainment market in Poland*, players can be found in every social group, regardless of age, education, or place of residence (Draszanowska, Sroka, 2013). Poles frequently benefit from traditional video games, although the significance of this form decreases in comparison to the results of previous studies. More and more Poles are turning to games on tablets and social networking sites. These preferences are related to the gender of the respondents – men prefer traditional video games. According to the results described in the report, players are aware of the placement of advertising in games. In all demographic groups surveyed, they declared that they very often encounter ads. Perhaps their excess can explain the negative feedback on them. The majority of the players declared that it was annoying and unnecessary. A negative attitude to advertising in games was declared by a smaller proportion of respondents, as compared to earlier studies (Draszanowska, Sroka, 2013). Approximately $^{2}/_{5}$ of players can also see the positive aspects of the placement of ads in games, which, in their opinion, translates into a lower price, and does not disturb the game. $^{1}/_{4}$ of the respondents even think that advertising in games makes the game more attractive. The more favourable attitude is the characteristic of men and younger people involved in the study (15–18 year olds).

Games are also played by the youngest participants of the market, both boys (58%) and girls (42%), regardless of age (*Game*..., 2014). According to the research results, the older the child the more often they play computer games. 12% of parents play games together with their children aged 7 to 12 years. This percentage is reduced to 7 in the case of the children from 13 to 16 years of age, and then to 2% in the group of children aged from 17 to 18 years. It means that in the case of school children, parents in most cases do not control the advertising message addressed to them in this communication channel. Children often decide to purchase a game, and are invited to its selection by the peer group.

In addition to reaching out to a diverse group of customers using computer games, including children, other factors also contribute to their attractiveness as a channel for marketing communication. One of them is the increasing number of messages addressed to recipients in the traditional media, but also on the Internet, which definitely makes it difficult to attract their attention. What makes the game stand out as a communication channel, is its interactivity and elective involvement of the recipients of the message. Advergames in particular – as a type of interactive advertising – generate interactivity between brands and games through consumers'active participation, and, additionally, combine a branded message with an entertainment message (Lee, Choi, Quilliam, Cole, 2009; Lee et al., 2013). The player is often heavily involved in the course of the game, so as Mitręga (2013) writes, the player does not only engage attention, but there are also emotions that should support the reception of the advertising message, if it is properly placed in the game.

Forms of advertising in digital games

Companies are increasingly using advertising in digital games in their marketing communication strategy. This trend started in the eighties, when marketers started to embedded product placements in video games as an early type of advergaming (Aarnoutse, Peursum, Dalpiaz, 2014). However, the term 'advergame' (advertising game) was introduced to marketing literature by Tony Giallourakis in 2000 (Kiraci, 2014). According to researchers, it is still poorly understood (e.g. Mitręga, 2013; Terlutter, Capella, 2013; Dahl, Eagle, Báez, 2009). Dahl et al. (2009) underline the lack of integrated theoretically-grounded research regarding the effects and effectiveness of forms of advergaming on any target group. The knowledge based on the results of the research is still fragmented, and the problems with comparability of the results for advergaming are associated with a non-uniform definition of forms of advertising in digital games.

In the literature, there are many typologies of activities known as advergaming. For example, Purswani (2010) distinguishes 'advergames' (interactive video games with brand logo as a part of the character, or visible in the background), 'sponsorship of events' (e.g. tickets to real life events via the game), and 'adverworlds' (interactive worlds designed to inform consumers about their products). However, the division into 'advergames' and 'in-game advertising' (IGA) is the most popular (e.g. Winkler, Buckner, 2006; Hofmeister-Tóth, Nagy, 2011). IGA occurs in the games created independently of the built-in ads (Lee et al., 2013). It can be compared to the product placement in standard, non-interactive media, which distinguishes it from advertising games. Advergames are custom online games designed specifically for a brand, in which the brand often plays a central role. Advergames are an evolved form of product placement where the game itself is centralized around the brand rather than the brand placed in the game (Hofmeister-Tóth, Nagy, 2011).

Terlutter and Capella (2013) complement the categorization further by distinguishing 'advertising in social network games' as a third form of action, especially important for young audiences. The proposed division is associated directly with the nature of the game. However, it does not fully explain the possibilities of placing ads in their content. Research on advertising in digital games has focused on IGA and advergames with only scarce attention devoted to advertising in social network games (Terlutter, Capella, 2013). Advertising in social network games is the most recent but growing form of advertising in games (Terlutter, Capella, 2013). What sets them apart is the fact that they are played on social networks, which can be connected with specific reasons for playing them. Terlutter and Capella (2013) citing Yee (2006) emphasize that through them players might want to build relationships with friends. Moreover, the reasons may be teamwork and/or competitive play, role-play identity, and escape from reality.

In the case of IGA, the content about the brand can be placed in a game in a subtle or in a prominent manner, or may be visible during loading times of the game (Terlutter, Capella, 2013). The advertising content can be static (static IGA) or dynamic (dynamic IGA), which is associated with their different features.

Static ads, due to the fact that they are a permanent element of the game, do not require a continuous access to the Internet, but also allow for modifications after the game has been launched (Terlutter, Capella, 2013). Dynamic advertising allows periodic introduction of advertising to the game chosen, or planning advertisement in a certain game group, e.g. directed to a similar segment of buyers (Mitręga, 2013).

Although in the literature there are various definitions of advergames, their review allows for identification of the most important attributes. They:

- are free online games located on the brand website, because their job is to achieve higher traffic on brand websites (Terlutter, Capella, 2013),
- contain persuasive messages relating to the offer (brand or/and product), which is the integral component of the game (Kiraci, 2014),
- are funny, highly enjoyable, and create a context for associating the brand with positive semantic features,
- are easy and offer quick rewards, typically allow for short playing time.

Therefore, they seem to be a good way for marketers to target children (Hofmeister-Tóth, Nagy, 2011). Children may play an online advergame as many times as they want to, and, therefore, are exposed to the brand multiple times (Mallinckrodt, Mizerski, 2007).

The interactivity and elective involvement of advergames makes them different from many other forms of advertising (Dahl et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013). According to Winkler and Buckner (2006), advertising of brand/product can be integrated into a game to various degrees of immersion: associative, illustrative, and demonstrative (Table 1).

Table 1

Types of advergames based on the levels of integration of the brand/product with game

Forms of advergames		
Associative	Illustrative	Demonstrative
advertising is not associated with the game mechanics advertising is simply displayed in the background lack of interaction	advertising associated with the game mechanics brand exposure is not related to any brand/product characteristics players interact with the advertising embedded in the advergame	advertising associated with the game mechanics advertising (brand/product) appears in natural context players can interact with the brand's features

Source: based on Chen, Ringel, 2001 as cited in Lee, Park, Wise, 2013; Winkler, Buckner, 2006.

Depending on the degree of interactivity of the advertising elements presented, it is possible to achieve a variety of purposes, even though the earlier studies by

Buckner and Winkler (2006) reported that the use of advergames is more effective in the case of the previously known players of the brand. Presenting the brand by means of illustrative or demonstrative elements of the game may result in the increase of awareness of the new brand among consumers. The use of the above advergames by companies allows for achieving diverse goals. Illustrative or demonstrative advergames raise the awareness of the new brand among consumers (Ho, Lin, Yang, 2011). In contrast, associative advergames can strengthen the desire to buy a product of the advertised brand.

Advertising in digital games targeted to children – areas for further research

Advertising in digital games is rapidly growing, but is also a controversial (particularly in the case of targeting children) form of marketing communication. Because of the fact that it is a new and constantly evolving form of marketing communication, as an area of research, it needs further exploration allowing not only for the search of the general conditions of its effectiveness, but also for formulating the conditions of its use in reaching out to specific target groups.

The specific group of recipients of advergaming are children. Reaching out to them through this channel of communication requires not only an analysis of its efficacy as an advertising tool, but preventing its potentially harmful effect on children (Aarnoutse et al., 2014; Budzanowska-Drzewiecka, 2015). The studies on the in-game advertising targeted to children are often focused on advergames. The researchers focused on analyzing the content of advertising games, rarely on the perception of their commercial context by children (An, Jin, Park, 2014; Rozendaal, Buijzen, Valkenburg, 2012; Mallinckrodt, Mizerski, 2007). This is an important area since due to the specific development conditions – the lack of cognitive or critical thinking skills – children may not have the competence to properly identify the intention of placing ads in games. According to the Persuasion Knowledge Model, the players who are not aware of the advertising embedded within the games, are more vulnerable to the effects of persuasive messages contained in them (Dahl et al., 2009), which can lead to disorderly perception of specific product categories by children. As indicated by the results of the research, emphasizing the advertising nature of the game does not raise persuasiveness, but produces a more negative attitude to the game in children (Panic, Cauberghe, de Pelsmacker, 2013). This is confirmed by the specific characteristics of advertising games, which can be a contribution to comparisons with other forms of advertising. In addition, it is important to refine the analysis by referring to specific forms of advergaming. In one of the first studies carried out on children (aged 9 to 12) focusing on advertising in social network games, it was shown that despite fairly good knowledge of the advertising, they yet held uncritical attitudes toward it, and the most important predictors of children's desire for the advertised brands in these games were a low critical attitude and high peer influence susceptibility (Rozendaal, Slot, van Reijmersdal, Buijzen, 2013).

The area that needs a further analysis is the specification of the diversity of involvement in the game, and thus the effectiveness of advertising in games depending on the age and sex of the child. The researchers showed that the effects of advergaming are moderated by the age of the child. In the case of gender, the results suggest that girls are likely to stop playing video games at the beginning of early adolescence, whereas most boys continue. The games which are attractive to girls even after the age of 12 are 'pink games.' One study explaining the involvement of girls in pink games, found that identification with the characters of the game is important in explaining their motivation to play (van Reijmersdal, Jansz, Peters, van Noort, 2013). It also showed that the age of the girl affects identification negatively, but it is not related to the most important motive in playing pink games − social interaction (van Reijmersdal et al., 2013).

Some children play games under the supervision of parents. Thus their attitudes and knowledge can be both the limitation and factor increasing the efficiency of the use of advergaming.

Conclusion

The research on the conditions and the effects of advergaming aimed at children is one of the more recent research areas related to online communication, due to their potential social consequences. The overview of the research results confirmed the need for further exploration, although the proposed suggestions for further research indicate only the fundamental issues that can be a contribution to further research (Table 2).

Table 2

Basic groups of conditions in the study of advergaming targeted to children

Characteristics of ads in games	Characteristics of children	Characteristics of parents
type of advertising in digital game degree of prominence degree of interactivity degree of congruence (brand/game)	age and gender cognitive capabilities level of advertising literacy susceptibility to peer influence experience in playing	attitudes of parents towards games knowledge of advertising in digital games the level of control of the content of games that children play engaging in interactions with children while playing

Source: own elaboration.

They are not the exhaustive analyses of the subject. They show that it is still not entirely clear what effects of in-game advertising are on children, especially in comparison to other forms of marketing communication. It seems reasonable to deepen the analysis taking into account the specific forms of advergaming. Bearing in mind that children as a segment are a diverse group, the next accented area is the analysis of the impact of in-game advertising depending on the specific individual circumstances, including age, sex of the child, and their knowledge of advertising and its persuasive character. What is also important when analysing the effectiveness and possible consequences of in-game advertising aimed at children, are the attitudes of parents.

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Działania reklamowe w grach komputerowych skierowane do dzieci

Słowa kluczowe: *advergaming*, reklama w grach komputerowych, dzieci, reklama w grach

Streszczenie. Artykuł jest próbą systematyzacji i opisu sposobów docierania z komunikatem marketingowym do dzieci przez gry komputerowe. Na podstawie przeglądu literatury podjęto próbę uporządkowania form reklam umieszczanych w grach (*advergaming*). Starano się zidentyfikować obszary badawcze wynikające ze stosowania tych działań reklamowych do konkretnego subsegmentu rynku młodych konsumentów – dzieci.

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Transfer of information in the purchasing processes of generation Z – usage of virtual vs. real channels and its marketing implications

JEL codes: D12, D8

Keywords: decision-making process, information transfer, generation Z behavior

Abstract. The paper presents survey results regarding the usage of virtual vs real channels of communication by members of generation Z (those born after 1994). We compare the frequency of information acquisition and transfer at different stages of the purchasing process, as well as characterize the general use of the two types of channels.

Introduction

The goal of the article is to present sources and methods of collecting and sharing the information used by the members of generation Z in their decision-making processes. On this basis, we aim to compare the use of virtual and real channels in the various phases of these processes, as well as to shortly characterize the young people more heavily using these channels. The basis of the presented information are the results of a survey conducted in the school year 2013/2014 on a sample of 933 junior high school and secondary school students from the Silesia province.

The results show that there are differences as far as the use of virtual and real channels of information transfer by generation Z is concerned, however, they are noticeable only when we consider particular stages of the process. If analyzed globally, the use of online and real channels throughout the whole process is much more similar. At the beginning of the buying process, the members of generation Z use mostly Internet sources. While making decision, they use both types of channels with comparable frequency, and when ending the process by sharing information about the purchased product, they are more eager to spread the word in real life than online.

Literature review

Generations are comprised of people who share a similar age and stage of life, have been shaped by similar conditions, technologies, and important events they have lived through. All these factors influence their opinions, habits, motivations at work, as well as their desire for certain products, and other preferences.

The generation born after 1994 (some mention 1990, cf. Pawłowska, 2016) until 2004 is referred to as Generation Z. It is the first truly 21st century generation, described also as global, social, visual, and technological (*Generation Z…*, 2016). They were born into the crisis period of terrorism, global recession, and climate change. But, at the same time, they are the most connected, educated, and sophisticated generation ever. They are true 'digital natives', comfortable with e-mail, texting, and computer applications, able to adopt advances in technology more quickly than others (McCrindle, 2016). This is also a highly consumerist generation. They are exposed to brands and advertising as no other generation before. On the one hand, they feel sensible enough to resist any influences and persuasion, but, on the other hand, they unconsciously follow promotions and fashion trends (Pawłowska 2016).

There is a huge interest in this generation as in the coming years its members will enter the labor market and start contributing to the economy and the society (Rusak, 2016; McCrindle, 2016). However, long before joining the workforce, they have entered the market as consumers. And in comparison to previous generations, it is obvious that the way their decisions are made is significantly different.

A typical decision-making process consists of five phases: recognition of need, search for information, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase evaluation, and behaviors (Sowa, 2006). However, contemporary consumers are changing the way they research and buy products. They increasingly use information actively obtained from others (e.g. via word-of-mouth, WOM), from companies and media, both in real life and online. They can do it since the cost of acquisition of information is still decreasing, while the number of accessible sources of information is constantly increasing (Sowa, 2013).[1]

For consumers representing generation Z, it is obvious that they check many different sources and use diverse ways to obtain necessary data. They are also used to providing feedback about what they have purchased or experienced in the post-purchase phase. However, we still need to know more about the details of their purchasing processes, i.e. which channels of communication they actually use.

In Poland, generation Z includes almost 4.4 million people and represents over 11% of the society (as of June 30, 2015; GUS, 2016), which is a considerable number of consumers whose market habits and preferences are still being shaped and are not very well recognized. Learning more about them, including the ways in which they purchase products, is critical for all the marketers.

Research methodology

To characterize the sources and methods of collecting and sharing information used by the members of generation Z, we used a survey method and self-administered structured questionnaire. We collected the data in the school year 2013/2014 from the sample of 933 junior high school and secondary school students, learning in 14 different schools in the Silesia province. A convenience-based sampling procedure was used and the questionnaires were distributed in the classrooms during lessons. There were 522 (55.9%) girls and 411 (44.1%) boys in the sample. The majority (82%) of respondents were studying in schools located in large cities, and 18% in small towns. The structure of the sample in terms of the respondents' gender and education level is presented in Table 1.

In order to measure the popularity of youth consumer behaviors connected with information transfer, we developed a questionnaire following a comprehensive review of the relevant literature. The problems addressed here were measured directly by using two multiple-item scales, where respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of some specified informational behaviors representing particular stages of the purchasing process.

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[1] These observations opened the way for the new concept of so called 'consumer's decision journey' which assumes, for example, that a buyer forms impressions of brands from certain 'touch points' such as advertisements, news reports, conversations with family and friends, and his own product experiences (Court, Elzinga, Mulder, Vetvik, 2009). Unfortunately, a very limited scope of this paper makes it impossible to present details of this concept. For more information see: Sowa, 2013.

Table 1

Sample characteristics

Class/school	Girl	Boy	Total
1st class of junior high school	12.1	16.1	13.8
3rd class of junior high school	12.6	22.4	16.9
1st class of high school	37.4	32.1	35.0
3rd class of high school	26.6	19.2	23.4
1st class of vocational school	5.4	5.4	5.4
3rd class of vocational school	5.9	4.9	5.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: own elaboration on the basis of survey results.

We considered four basic aspects of the information transfer and usage: gathering general information about the product prior to the purchase, collecting actual users' opinions, making a final decision on the basis of the collected information, and sharing opinions about the purchased product. Since our intention was to compare the use of real and virtual channels of information transfer by young consumers, there were corresponding (pairs of) questions for all the examined behaviors in both scales. In each pair, one question was referring to the activity performed with the use of Internet, and the other one to the activity undertaken in real life. Additionally, in the case of sharing opinions online, we separately analyzed sharing with friends (via instant messaging or social media) and sharing with general community of users (via forums or comparison or review sites).

The frequency was measured on an ordinal scale as the number of times the behaviors were performed within the previous year. The response options included: *never*, *1–3 times*, *4–10 times*, and *more than 10 times within the previous year.* To analyze the data, we used descriptive statistics, contingency tables, as well as adequate non-parametrical tests and relationship coefficients.

Results

Generally, the collected data (Figure 1) allow for the observation which is rather obvious and consistent with the theory, i.e. that the intensity of information transfer is different at different stages of the buying process. Young consumers are the most active while collecting information at the beginning of their 'decision journey.' Among the analyzed behaviors, the most frequent ones relate to the search and alternative evaluation. On average, ca. 60% of the respondents used both types of channels at least 4 times within the previous year in order to move through these stages.

At the stage of making a purchase decision, the frequency of the use of information is lower, and spreading information in a post-purchase evaluation phase is even less frequent. However, regarding this phase, the actual intensity of information transfer depends on the channel that is used by the members of generation Z.

And so we come to the main conclusion resulting from the study: as we expected, there are important differences in the frequency of particular informational behaviors (information collecting and spreading) depending on whether the behavior is performed via Internet or in real life. The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (Table 2) prove that in all the analyzed cases except one these differences are statistically significant.

**I – via Internet, R – in real life*

Figure 1. Frequency of selected generation Z behaviors connected with information transfer during the purchasing process

Source: own elaboration on the basis of survey results.

Table 2

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test Statistics

Tested pairs of variables:	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
walking around the shops before making a purchase, to compare prices, conditions of sale, etc. vs gathering information on the Internet about the product that one wants to buy	–9.543[a]	.000
questioning friends and family about the products they would recommend vs reading online user reviews/opinions	–9.895[a]	.000
making purchase decisions based on the opinion of family and friendsvs based on the opinions collected on the Internet	–.794[a]	.427
sharing one's opinion about the purchased product with friends and family in real life vs sharing via instant messaging, social networking	–9.946[b]	.000
sharing one's opinion about the purchased product with friends and family in real life vs sharing via forums, comparison shopping websites, review sites, etc.	–17.482[b]	.000
sharing one's opinion about the purchased product online via forums, comparison shopping and review sites vs sharing with friends via instant messaging, social networking	–13.642[a]	.000

[a] Based on positive rank. [b] Based on negative ranks

Source: own elaboration on the basis of survey results.

On the basis of the collected data, we may state that:

1. While searching for both general information about the product and actual users' opinions and recommendations helpful in evaluating the alternatives, the members of generation Z more frequently use virtual channels than real ones ($Z = –9.543$, $p<0.001$ and $Z = –9.895$, $p < 0.001$ respectively). Around 2/5 of the respondents declared that they had collected information via web (39%), and read reviews and opinions of the users online (42.1%) more than 10 times within the previous year, and another 20% declared that they had done it 4 to 10 times. At the same time, only 24% of the respondents declared that they had actually walked around the shops 10 times or more within a year in order to compare the prices and conditions of sale, and 20% declared they had never done it. Also, questioning friends and relatives in real life about the products they would recommend is significantly less frequent than finding opinions online. Only 20.4% of the respondents did it 10 or more times within the previous year.

2. On the other hand, when it comes to sharing their opinions about the purchased products, generation Z seems to be much eager to do it in real life than to inform their friends online. There is a significant difference between the frequency of traditional (personal) and virtual WOM realized by the respondents ($Z = -9.946$, $p < 0.001$). The difference is even greater if we compare spreading opinions via face to face contacts with writing online reviews and comments via forums or comparison websites accessible for the whole community ($Z = -17.482$, $p < 0.001$). Within the previous year, as many as 56.1% of the respondents talked at least 4 times to their friends and family about the products they purchased, while only 36.8% shared their opinions via social media or instant messaging, and 20.3% via forums and review sites with the same frequency. At the same time, a considerable group of the respondents never shared their opinions online, neither via social media with their friends nor via review sites/forums with the general users' community (30.3% and 54.5% respectively). The difference between the frequency of the respondents' online activity via social networking and via forums and comparison sites also proved to be statistically significant ($Z = -13.642$, $p < 0.001$).
3. The only exception mentioned above referred to making purchase decisions based on the opinions collected from friends and online. It occurred that there is no statistically significant difference between the frequency of using these two types of information sources for making the purchase decision ($Z = -.794$, $p = .427$). However, a percentage of the respondents whose decisions were based on the opinions collected via virtual channels with the highest frequency (10 times or more within the previous year) is visibly higher than the respective share of the surveyed who made a decision on the basis of their friends' and family's opinions (26.7% and 18.9% respectively).

An additional goal of the analyses was to characterize young consumers preferring virtual channels over real ones and vice versa. For this purpose, we constructed an index of usage of both types of channelsin the buying process.[2] For each respondent, we obtained one number ranging from 4 to 16,[3] with a higher number showing a higher frequency of usage of the particular channel. On this basis, we distinguished 3 classes of respondents: light, medium, and heavy users[4] of the channels.

[2] We recoded the frequencies indicated by the respondents using the following system of coding: *never*=1, *1 to 3 times*=2, *4 to 10 times*=3, *more than 10 times within the previous year*=4. Then we cumulated them to obtain one number reflecting the overall frequency of using a virtual/real channel.

[3] To make the indexes comparable for both channels, we excluded one statement from the scale regarding virtual channels, i.e. the item ref. to sharing opinions via forums and comparison sites.

[4] Light users obtained 4 to 8 pts, medium users 9 to 12 pts, heavy users 13 to 16 pts.

The results of the analysis show that,when estimating globally, the representatives of generation Z are indeed more eager to use online channels to collect and spread information. While the share of light users of virtual and real channels israther similar (28.8% vs 31.4%), there are more heavy users of online channels than those who most frequently use real channels (33.9% vs 25.7%). Additionally,the mode and median for the real channels usage index are lower than for the virtual one ($Mo_r = 8$, $Md_r = 10$, and $Mo_v = 10$, $Md_v = 11$ respectively).

Despite the above notions, we can state that the difference between the real and virtual channels usage is not as large as we expected. However, what is more important, we discovered that there is a statistically significant relationship between the frequency of usage of both types of channels as measured by the constructed indices. The respondents who use one type of the channels more frequently, also use the other one more intensively ($r_S = .42$, $p < 0.001$). In fact, the groups of the respondents who definitely prefer one channel over the other (score high on one index and low on the other one) are very small (51 persons preferring virtual channels and 26 preferring real ones).

We also checked the demographics of the heavy users of both types of communication channels. It occurred that there are only several statistically significant relationships, e.g. there are more heavy real channels users among girls than among boys (28.3% vs 22.9%). On the other hand, boys seem to be slightly more eager than girls to use virtual channels (but this relation was not significant). The propensity to heavily use Internet during the buying process is rising with student's age, and, as a consequence, with their grade, as well as with the education level of a respondent's mother (not father though). Finally, for both channels, the share of heavy users was almost twice higher among the students living in urban areas than among those living in rural areas.

Marketing implications of the obtained results

The above results suggest that despite the constant connectedness of generation Z, real channels of information are still important for its members and one cannot ignore them while preparing a marketing strategy aimed at this group. Informal information (especially users' opinions obtained online) is frequently used during the purchasing processes of generation Z. Unfortunately, young people are more eager to use recommendations offered by others than to transfer their own ones. That is why word-of-mouth marketing should be used in order to motivate these consumers to spread the word, especially to spread it online, since virtual sources are the most sought for at the beginning of their purchasing process.

This also means that e-marketers should ensure that the information about their offer is easily found (SEM tools are crucial here)and properly presented online, even if the company does not sell online. Generation Z is a multi-modal one and therefore it demands the communication tools that engage multiple channels.

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Transfer informacji w procesach zakupowych pokolenia Z – wykorzystywane kanały i ich marketingowe implikacje

Słowa kluczowe: proces decyzyjny, transfer informacji, zachowania pokolenia Z

Streszczenie. W artykule przedstawiono wyniki badań ankietowych dotyczących wykorzystania wirtualnych i realnych kanałów komunikacji przez członków pokolenia Z (osoby urodzone po 1994 roku). Porównano tu częstotliwość wykorzystania i przekazywania

informacji na różnych etapach procesu zakupu, a także scharakteryzowano ogólną skłonność młodych konsumentów do wykorzystania obu typów kanałów.

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Online website in brand creation of online store

JEL code: M31

Keywords: website, brand creation, brand online, online store

Abstract. Online website is one of the basic tools in the process of brand creation. The presence in virtual environment determines the possibility to reach clients. More and more often do they treat Internet as the basic source of information. The aim of this article is to identify the most common elements used on websites in online stores. The study is exploratory. On the basis of empirical study, the authors identified the most important elements and their features in online stores, which can be important for clients.

Introduction

Thanks to the Internet, consumers are able to interact with brands in new ways. Internet technologies and related applications are more and more advanced. Increasingly more organizations are investing heavily in customer-directed online source technologies, which is related to higher costs.

Despite many authors examining different tools used in online stores or online websites, there is a lack of information about what kind of new elements are important for customers, and what kind of features they are looking for. Those elements are important in the context of technology acceptance. They can influence the dimensions of the technology acceptance model (TAM): perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, or other dimensions such as perceived risk. This can lead to higher purchase intention (Green, Pearson, 2011, p. 187).

The aim of this article is to identify the elements which are used in online stores and are important for customers, and show the difference between new and old elements. The authors conducted the empirical study: the online focus groups using the FOCUSSON software to examine those elements.

The results show that customers can identify the differences in new and old elements. The most important for them is to feel save during the online shopping, which can be provided by interaction between the store and the client (e.g. by chatting online or gathering opinions from different users). Moreover, they want to have personalized elements, which will make the process easy and quick.

Literature review and research questions

Many researchers try to identify and examine the role of different elements of an online store which can influence the consumers' behavior. According to Al-Qesi (Al-Qeisi, Dennis, Alamanos, Jayawardhena, 2014, p. 2284), those elements are: web design quality such as technical quality, general content quality, special content quality, and appearance quality. Hedonic features and utilitarian features can influence trust, flow, and e-loyalty (Bilgihan, Nusair, Okumus, Cobanoglu, 2015, p. 669). Hedonic features include: social interaction, positive surprises, fun experience, or imaginery, whereas utilitarian features include e.g.: product selection or product information. Chang (2013, p. 312) proved that interaction tools like human to computer and social interaction can enhance satisfaction and intention to use. Green and Pearson (2011, p. 187) suggest that download delay and interactivity have impact on the perceived usefulness and ease of use. Dou and Krishnamurthy (2007, p. 196) examined what kinds of elements are used on websites. They noticed such major categories as: text content (about company, product, store locator, career info, etc.), multimedia content (pictures, videos, and music), loyalist support, design, synergy with other communication vehicles, or interactivity. Singh (2002, pp. 437–439) proposed such website elements as: personalized Web pages, FAQs, chat room, e-mail and automated responses, help desk, and call centers.

On the basis of the previous research, the authors identified the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: What is important for consumers while shopping online?

RQ2: What kind of elements do consumers identify in online stores?

RQ3: Which elements do consumers perceive as new and old?

RQ4: Which elements of online stores are important for consumers?

Method

To examine different elements used in online stores and their importance for customers, the online focus group study was conducted. The authors used the FOCUSSON (www.focusson.pl) software, which enables researchers to make research via Internet. 5 groups of customers were examined to identify what kinds of elements used in online stores seem to be new and old for them, and which are the most important.

The groups consisted of customers of different ages. Group 1 – below 25 years of age, Group 2 – from 25 to 34, Group 3 – from 35 to 44, Group 4 – from 45 to 54, Group 5 – above 55. The study was conducted in March and April of 2016. The online focus groups were anonymous under nicknames, so the participants and authors could not identify the specific person.

Results

First, the participants were asked to tell what is the most important for them during online shopping. In all the groups, they focused on three elements. First of all, the ease of use of the website was taken into consideration. Customers want the online store to be simple and clear, so that they do not have to think what the next step in an online shopping path should be. Secondly, the usefulness of the website – customers are annoyed when they do not find the information or product they are looking for. Moreover, customers need to feel save while shopping online. They still have a little trust into online shoppers, so they need to see some elements which can enhance their sense of security. According to the technology development, they also want to receive a personalized offer.

In the second step, the participants were asked to identify what kind of elements are usually used in online stores. The most common answers were: shopping cart, forum, product page, opinions, photos and videos, text description, contact form, newsletter, social media connection, most popular products module, blog, browser, discount tools, log-in and registration, payment forms, delivery forms, ads, sorting, colors, and music.

They were also asked to group those elements into new and old. The differences are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

The elements of online store grouped into new and old in the perception of participants

Group	New elements	Old elements
below 25	virtual fitting room, video presentation, virtual assistant, product configurator, social media, online chat, newsletter, product propositions, 3D photos	browser, shopping cart, contact form, product description, photos, discounts, log-in, delivery forms, payment forms, registration, sorting, colors, music, forum, opinions, ads, filtration
25–34	opinions, virtual fitting room, video presentation, virtual assistant, product configurator, social media, product propositions, virtual walk, street view, 3d photos, payment forms	browser, chart, contact form, product description, photos, discounts, log-in, delivery forms, registration, sorting, colors, music, forum, most popular module, filtration, online chat
35–44	opinions, virtual fitting room, video presentation, virtual assistant, product configurator, social media, online chat, newsletter, product propositions, 3d photos, blog, payment forms	browser, chart, contact form, product description, photos, discounts, log-in, delivery forms, sorting, colors, music, forum, most popular module, filtration, ads, language selection, registration
above 45	opinions, virtual fitting room, video presentation, virtual assistant, product configurator, online chat, newsletter, product propositions, 3d photos, blog, language selection, payment forms	browser, chart, contact form, product description, photos, discounts, log-in, payment form, sorting, colors, music, forum, opinions, registration, most popular module, filtration, ads, language selection

Source: own elaboration.

Table 1 shows the differences in the perception of new and old elements of an online store. All of the participants agreed that the virtual fitting room is a new element and might be useful when shopping online, however, they rarely use it because not many stores have this element on their websites. Similarly, they perceive the video presentation as the new element which is very important for them. It enhances the sense of security during online shopping. Customers want to have the possibility to see the product in usage, when it moves. It is also possible by showing the product in 3D, which is also considered as a new element. The virtual assistant is not very common in online shopping, but can be useful for customers. They want to find the information quickly and easily. The online chat is also a very important element for customers, but some of them treat it as the old one (the group aged 25–34). Despite this fact, the online chat with the real person is perceived as one of the most important elements on the website. The social media integration is perceived as a new element for 3 groups, except for the group above 45 years of age. The elements which can enhance personalization on the website, such as the product configurator and products propositions, are also perceived as new elements although the participants noticed that very few stores have this element.

Young consumers, in contrast to other groups, perceive opinions as an old element, as well as payment forms. However, for all the groups mentioned, it is the most important element they take into consideration while shopping online. The newsletter is still perceived as a new element in 3 groups except for the group aged 25–34. The virtual walk and street view were mentioned only in the group aged 25–34. The blog is perceived as new in older groups − above 35.

The browser, shopping cart, contact form, product description, photos, discounts, registration, log-in, sorting, colors, music, forum, delivery forms, and filtration are perceived as old in all groups. They also noticed that they do not pay much attention to the elements such as: colors, log-in, registration, music, or forums. Although the price is an important factor, consumers do not look for discounts tools on the website. The browser is very important while considering the ease of use of the online store, as well as the product description and photos. However, the participants prefer the photos of a product in motion than a static one (e.g. 3D or movie). The groups below the age of 25 and above 35 perceive ads as the old element. For older consumers − above the age of 35 − the most popular module and language selection are the old elements.

Summary

The study showed that although the different groups of the participants notice similar elements on the website, they perceive them in different ways. Therefore, it is important for managers to know about the consumers as well as possible and offer those elements which are significant for them.

The younger groups do not perceive e.g. opinions as the new element. They need the elements, which are more technologically advanced. It is very important for them to find the personalized information about the product and the brand, as well as to have the possibility to share this information through social media. The older consumers perceive more elements as new. It might be caused by the Internet experience they have. For them, the Internet environment is not as natural as for the younger consumers.

Despite the differences, the study showed some elements which are very important for customers in social media. They need to find the information on the product quickly, easily, and safely. That is why they consider such elements as opinions, online chat, or integration with social media as very important. They also want to eliminate the gap between the reality and online environment by receiving product presentation in the 3D or video form.

The knowledge of this perception should be considered by online stores managers or owners during the creation of an online store.

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Wykorzystanie strony internetowej w kreowaniu marki sklepu internetowego

Słowa kluczowe: strona www, kreowanie marki, marka online, sklep online

Streszczenie. Strona www jest obecnie jednym z podstawowych narzędzi kreowania marki oraz komunikacji z klientem. Obecność w internecie warunkuje możliwość dotarcia do klientów, którzy coraz częściej traktują internet jako podstawowe źródło informacji o produktach i przedsiębiorstwach. Celem artykułu jest identyfikacja elementów najczęściej wykorzystywanych na stronach www marek produktów oraz usług. Badanie ma charakter jakościowy eksploracyjny. Na podstawie przeprowadzonych zogniskowanych wywiadów grupowych online, autorki zidentyfikowały najważniejsze elementy występujące w sklepach online oraz ich cechy ważne dla nabywców.

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Multi-channel opportunity management – an exploratory research on the example of tourist industry

JEL codes: D83, M21, M31

Keywords: CRM, lead management, opportunity management, multi-channel dialogue

Abstract. This article examines how opportunity management process is supported through online, telephone, and showroom channels in Polish tourist industry. The research applied a mystery client method in 40 entities. The results of the study indicate that the best performance can be expected as the customer enters the showroom in person, while companies have problems in managing online customer enquiries, and with the continuity of the multi-channel dialogue. This may bring severe losses in marketing conversion, and raises a question of overall proficiency in managing customer relations of entities representing important industry.

Introduction

The 21st century customer is undoubtedly the most demanding one in the history of economy. Living in globally open and competitive market, aware of their rights and equipped with modern communication technologies, they expect an individual approach and tailored offers, partnership in dialogue, or even offer co-creation (Payne, Frow, 2013; Deszczyński, 2016). Therefore, the old rules of transactional marketing and its main tool – one-way mass communication, had to be supplemented by the principles of relationship marketing, at least in the contractual industries (Deszczyński, Deszczyński, 2014, pp. 53–69). The growing role of partnership with customers is a foundation of Customer Relationship Management (CRM). In this context, one of key issues is the proper use of customer data obtained online in offline sales channels, which in most industries are still irreplaceable. Sharing customer insights and transferring data from non-transactional to transactional points of contact is the domain of opportunity management, which is one of the basic CRM processes (Deszczyński, 2012). The aim of this paper is to present the results of research picturing competence in managing customer relations through different channels (online and offline). The emphasis is laid on examining the continuity of multi-channel dialogue, which can only be achieved through coordination of organizational efforts supported by proper ICT application.

The research was carried out in Poznań and Bydgoszcz by eight mystery clients, who contacted 40 different showrooms representing 20 brands. The research design provided approx. two weeks of contacts in four stages, as follows:

- online contact,
- telephone contact,
- showroom visit,
- follow-up after showroom visit.

The research participants were asked to give their contact data freely. In addition, they were to repeat the same questions and express the same interests so that the consecutive servicing persons had a chance to use the information gathered earlier in the process. The performance estimation was based on the promptness of contact, quality of answers (i.e. individually tailored offers, cross- and up-selling proposals), and dialogue continuity (customer identification and offer adjustment to core needs). In every stage of the process, the research participants were evaluating five standards according to pre-defined criteria (1 − standard fulfilled, 0 − standard not fulfilled). The final stage result was made equally of objective and subjective components (max. 5 + 5 points), and the overall result included aggregated evaluations equally distributed among four stages.

The main research conclusions are that companies have severe problems in providing continuity of dialogue with their customers across multiple channels. The best service level was offered in traditional direct contacts, while indirect contacts (preceding and following showroom visits) fell below the expected minimum. Online and follow-up contacts were particularly affected, which can have a negative impact on the conversion rate in the whole sales pipeline, and result both in customer dissatisfaction and business underperformance.

Literature review

Opportunity management (lead management) is an acquisition process aimed at systematic registration and processing of information about a customer interest in a company offer (Baran, Galka, 2013; Deszczyński 2013, pp. 24–32). Opportunity management is usually a multi-stage and multi-channel process as customers almost always initialize the purchasing process of tourist products online or through impersonal contacts (i.e. hotline) before they come to showrooms. For example, recent studies show that approx. 90% of British customers start the purchasing process on the Internet (*Internet zmienia*..., 2015), while 68% of Polish tourists have made up a buying decision upon research made in online social media (*Social Media Customer*..., 2015).

Opportunity management can also be defined as consolidation, qualification, and prioritization of contacts with prospect buyers (Salomann, Dous, Kolbe, Brenner, 2006, p. 26). Thus proficiency in opportunity management positively affects turnover and profit (Rigby, Ledingham, 2004), and can act as an indicator of overall capabilities of a company to implement relationship management. However, companies seem to have problems in utilizing this potential properly. A commercial study of Indidesales.com and Incoho.com showed that 45.1% of companies totally ignore online enquiries (*Omniture...,* 2009). A research concluded by the author of this paper for an automotive industry showed that the cumulated losses in four-stage opportunity management process can account for up to 98% of the prospect buyer base (Deszczyński, Mielcarek, 2015, p. 29). Other sources indicate that companies are losing up to 71% of online leads because of delays in processing the enquires calculated on average for more than 46 hours (Krogue, 2012). Meanwhile, behavioral studies aimed at determining success in qualifying by phone the web-generated leads showed that the odds of contacting the customer in five minutes versus thirty minutes fall hundredfold (*The lead*..., 2007).

While it is reasonable to measure the initial response time and overall success rate, this study aims at examining the performance of the whole opportunity management process, from the first enquiry to personal and follow-up contacts. In this context, the use of multiple communication channels enforces communication process maturity which many companies can be lacking, and, therefore, may not be successful with proceeding leads even if promptly responding to enquiries (Ramos, Vittal, Burris, Reiss-Davis, 2009). The analysis of the competence in maintaining a consistent dialogue with the customer through different channels supported by people and technology, may reveal more about business performance and the roots of competitiveness derived from relationship assets than fractional studies. Therefore, opportunity management as one of CRM processes, can only be successful if balance between strategy, ICT, and organizational alignment is guaranteed (Hart, 2006; Deszczyński, 2011).

Research results

The research results show that even though the Internet with its vast possibilities of communication is a hot topic in discussions of marketing professionals, in business practice the online dialogue is neglected. Figure 1 reveals the massive extend of this disregard. On average, more than half of basic standards in proceeding online leads were not held. Only 15% of the companies managed to achieve ≥ 90% of standards conformity, while 25% did not respond to customers at all. And so online communication channel seems to be rather 'plugged off' in terms of the quality of services and ability to proactively engage customers at a preliminary stage of their interest.

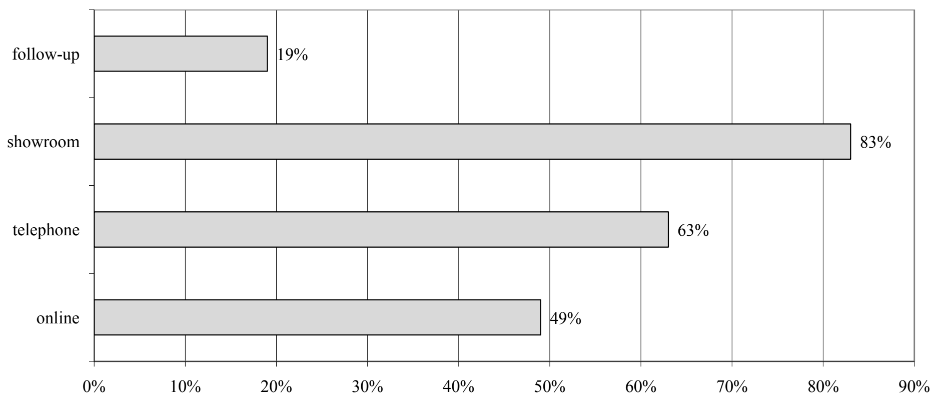

Figure 1. General level of customer servicing performance in a given channel

Source: own elaboration.

The probability of receiving a satisfactory level of services with the use of a telephone channel was significantly higher than after posting an e-mail. The main reason for this is the overall good accessibility (every mystery client managed to obtain a connection) and more informative answers which met the customers' overall expectations (85% of basic questions dealing with price and promotions, and 65% of more detailed questions were answered). As these two initial contact channels are supported by the same group of employees, it came as a little surprise that the average performance in the hotline channel is much better than in the online one.

One can speculate whether e-mail enquiries are generally treated as spam, or telephone contacts are considered as less time-consuming, or they are simply more persuasive in drawing the sales person's attention.

The best performance was achieved in traditional direct contacts in showrooms. It seems that the presence of the customer mobilizes the salespersons to focus all attention on their interlocutors, and that the face-to-face contact gives the best chance for a real interactive dialogue. This enables not only to answer questions (100% of basic questions and 82% of detailed questions answered), but also to pro-actively define the customer's needs and choose the most appealing offer features applying cross- and up-selling techniques (77% and 62% respectively). The gap between the contacts in the showroom and online enquiries, reaching 34%, indicates problems in the initial phase of opportunity management, which must cost companies a lot of efforts to fill in the leaking sales pipelines. The ease of tapping several providers at once makes it possible for customers to consider and choose the offers which are delivered in the most convenient way, without waiting for delayed answers or making renewed contacts.

The same salespersons who scored so well once contacted directly, proved to be totally inactive when it comes to follow-up contacts. The disastrous scale of this indifference reveals their illogical reasoning. While some research show that only 25% of leads in sales pipeline are legitimate prospects (*Lead Nurturing*..., 2014), this cannot be an explanation for the sales persons' disinterest, as the mystery clients taking part in the study were expressing a strong buying interest, though they were to express price objections after receiving a written offer. Such behavior is sometimes called 'brooming.' Salespersons ask a few quick questions looking for quick sales, and too often de-qualify a significant number of prospective buyers (Krogue, 2014). In consequence, if a customer does not make an immediate buying decision, he/she is left with no assistance in fighting his/her doubts, or with the analysis of competing offers. The whole work that the sales person invests in a direct contact (which can be estimated for approx. twenty minutes) is left at the mercy of fortuity, for the sake of saving a couple of minutes for not making an additional phone call. As only one in four sales persons made this extra effort, their chances to make arguments and persuade the customer to their offer are high.

Conclusions − research implications, limitations, and future research

Companies should take a more detailed look at their online communication strategies. While the importance of this channel is obvious, social media is a hot topic among researchers and business professionals, and the discussion on advanced use of Web 3.0 semantic technologies is under way (Murugesan, 2010). As the results of this research show, many entities may still have problems in managing contacts with the customers who directly express buying intentions. Particularly, the lack of competences and motivation of front office employees and customer data integration problems reduce the chances for successful transfer of leads into sales. This builds up a gap in the dialogue at the crossing of online and offline channels, decreases the conversion rates in sales pipeline, and distracts companies' attention from building relationships with the customers in favor of winning new ones. Such an attitude resembles inefficient transactional orientation, and cannot be justified with the common claim stating that most of online contacts are spam.

Another point of reflection should concern the reluctance of sales persons to conduct follow-up contacts. This damaging phenomenon, which according to this research can be responsible for loss of up to 75% of qualified prospects, seems to be resistant to any motivation schemes, training programs, managerial skills, and CRM systems monitoring. As the earlier research focused on overall CRM strategy success factors indicates, in almost every second case, the main reason for such failure may be the lack of commitment and conviction of employees about implementing the changes in an overall customer servicing process (Greenberg, 2004). In this context, performance in managing online leads and follow-up contacts may be treated as a mirror reflecting company's proficiency in other fields of customer service. If it is done poorly at the point so close to sales, it will probably be even worse in complaint management, loyalty management, or other after-sales activities. Hence opportunity management should advance as one of the priorities in top management concern. If one assumed that prospective buyers convert into customers only if offered the best service at every stage, the total losses in opportunity management process would reach 95% of the initial prospective buyer base.

The limitations of this research are twofold. The first obstruction concerns the number of companies in research pool. The investigation of 40 entities in one industry remains a spot check which cannot be representative e.g. for born-online retailers or even traditional B2C industries such as furniture and other consumer durable goods.

The second impediment is taking only a national perspective. Although some brands in the research pool have at least a continental range, local issues could have played a part in the overall performance evaluation. Therefore it would be interesting to apply the same methodology in additional research, which would enable to capture possible national or industrial regularities across Europe and beyond.

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Wielokanałowe zarządzanie szansami sprzedaży – badanie na przykładzie branży turystycznej

Słowa kluczowe: CRM, *lead management*, *opportunity management*, dialog wielokanałowy

Streszczenie. W artykule przedstawiono wyniki badań procesu zarządzania szansami sprzedaży (*opportunity management*) w branży turystycznej w Polsce. Badanie przeprowadzono metodą tajemniczego klienta (*mystery client*) z wykorzystaniem trzech kanałów komunikacji: online, telefonicznego i bezpośredniego. Objęło ono 40 podmiotów (przedstawicielstw touroperatorów i niezależnych biur podróży). Jak ustalono, najwyższy poziom obsługi uzyskiwany jest w bezpośrednich kontaktach w salonach sprzedaży, podczas gdy omawiane firmy mają problemy z zarządzaniem kontaktami online, a także z zapewnieniem ciągłości obsługi we wszystkich kanałach komunikacji. Może to prowadzić do poważnych strat w konwersji marketingowej i każe postawić pytanie o ogólne przygotowanie przedsiębiorstw branży do stosowania koncepcji zarządzania relacjami z klientami.

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Marketing communication instruments used by the retail chain on the Internet[1]

JEL codes: L81, M31, M37

Keywords: marketing communication, social media, retail chain, private label

Abstract. The aim of this paper is to examine the increasing effectiveness of marketing communication in an online environment usage by retailers. The methodology used in the article is based on literature research and Internet resources since those are the most up-to-date information about retailers marketing strategies in Poland. The content of Internet sites and social media profiles was analyzed. The main focus was also kept on the actions that were to result in the increase of private label potential, which is still perceived in Poland as a 'cheaper replacement' of a brand product, meanwhile the skillful usage of available online tools could result in a significant image improvement without high expenses. The retailers are just starting to utilize the potential of social media, although the provided content is not really diversified.

Introduction

The global media landscape has undergone a huge transformation in recent years and with the emergence of social media (referred to as consumer-generated media), tools and strategies for communicating with customers have changed

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considerably (Mangold, Faulds, 2009, p. 357).With the rapid evolution of digital media, the new opportunities for marketing have been created since technology affects not only the way people communicate, but also the type of messaging strategy that organizations are using (Tanner, Raymond, 2012, p. 357). Today, marketing managers can no longer rely completely on a single marketing communication tool, and must choose the right mix of them, from wide and diverse channels through which to send marketing communications to customers (Danaher, Rossiter, 2011, pp. 6–7).

Marketing communication is one of the most stimulating areas in modern marketing (Egan, 2007, p. 15). Challenges of modern market require more and more promotional actions that can be only fulfilled by dialog and interactivity between business and environment (Wiktor, 2013, p. 7). Business provides promotional and informal actions (as well as the means that allows registering and passing the feedback information back), while consumers contribute with the structure of their needs backed by their buying force (Pilarczyk, Waśkowski, 2010, p. 21). Further on, the definition of marketing communication will be interpreted as "the different means that are used by firms to inform and prompt consumers about product and brand" (Kotler, Keller, 2012, p. 510).

The analysis of Internet communication

The social media era gives opportunities to keep a competitive position thanks to the possibility of reaching new customers. This trend influences people's attitudes towards marketing campaigns (Fidelman, 2014, p. 28). The opportunity for novel forms of consumer interaction and the unlimited scope of consumer markets makes social media an attractive alternative or complement to the traditional marketing channels (Coursaris, van Osch, Balogh, 2016, p. 6). This phenomena have transferred into professional practice and academia (Khang, Ki, 2012). Highly popular social media applications attract hundreds of millions of users worldwide, who spend a substantial part of their time on these media daily (sometimes it has become a standard element of their social life – especially among young and middle generation users) so the networking opportunities have opened a whole new domain of peer interaction of social and commercial nature (Drzazga, 2013, p. 107).

Marketing communication has experienced many changes in the recent years (Bajdak, 2013, p. 7). Digital technologies are more and more common, and they appear as a useful tool which opens new, up to this time not reachable, possibilities of actions (Maciąg, 2012, p. 7). The new quality of marketing communication process allows a user not only to consume data, but also to contribute to improving it, since it is not restricted by any economic, social, or political barrier (Kramer, 2013, p. 11). However, media availability, multiplicity, and complexity may result in effective customer message delivery difficulties (Brzozowska-Woś, 2012).

In the face of increasing private label popularity in Europe, the research of retailers marketing activities was conducted. The retailer selection was based on "Top Brand" research made by "Press" and "Press-Service Media Monitoring." The most popular firms in "Retailer chain" category in 1.07.2014–30.06.2015 timeframe were chosen. The ranking of retailers by the number of publications posted online is presented in Figure 1. The first three firms were also the most popular in social media and discussions forums, which are becoming the retailers' natural environment (only on Wizaz.pl forum the analyzed brands were mentioned 19,072 times in one year).

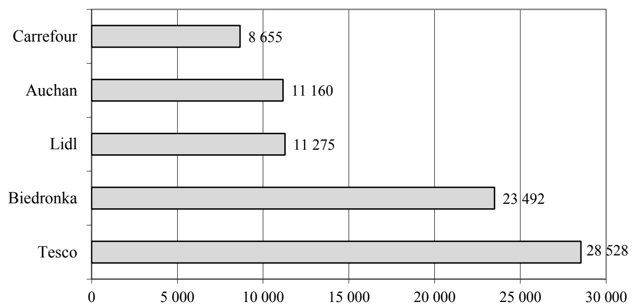

Figure 1. Number of Internet posts concerning particular retailers

Source: own elaboration based on Top Brand 2015 (*Badanie*..., 2016).

Social media

The significance of social media in both practical and academic environment suggests the need for the examination of the current state of social media research content. This study contains the analysis of materials published by the retailers. Last year, nearly half of the companies were using this tool not only for marketing purposes, but also for trade partner communication (*Społeczeństwo...,* 2015). Social media are more and more used in business. According to GUS research, in 2015 in Poland the Internet connection was available for 75.8% of households. Moreover, "We are social media" report reveals that 13 million of Polish people were active social media users. The most widely used services were: Facebook (35% users), Google + (19%), Twitter (10%), Nk.pl (10%), Instagram, Pinterest, Linkedin, and Badoo (5%).Polish retailers are not aware how to effectively use this form of customer communication dialog yet (however, their foreign profiles are updated currently and have much more likes; e.g. for UK Tesco − almost 2 million, Lidl − 1.5 million). Finding official profiles on Facebook was difficult. Biedronka and Auchan do not have official fanpages, but only unofficial profiles started by users in order to display promotional deals. Pages of remaining retailers are up to date, and moderators answer to each negative comment and react immediately (they redirect users to the info line or contact form). The increasing user interest in a promotion deal has an impact on the number of comments or resource shares. Only two retailers are putting pressure on a private label product promotion, advising users to use them while preparing meals or creating their own recipes based on those products.

Table 1

Retailer's fanpage rating in "Detail and consumer trade" category by number of likes on Facebook

Fanpage	Likes	Content	Private label promote	Notes
Lidl Polska	972,148	culinary recipes, tips, promotions	very often, mainly *premium* products	appealing dish images, huge feedback from users posting food they bought or prepared
Tesco Polska	561,786	recipes, tips, games, theme actions	deficiency	single offers, questions to users about their buying preferences
Carrefour Polska	398,399	recipes, contests, tips	mainly in recipes – all of the ingredients	esthetic graphic, interesting content, a lot of positive comments
Biedronka	Informal site (based on Fb users' interests. It is neither associated with the company nor initiated by the people connected with it. Information based on Wikipedia (9,268 likes). However, there is an actual Biedronka's special offers fanpage on Facebook (community – 21,411 likes), last update: August 2015.			
Auchan	Informal site. Lack of Polish fanpage. There are individual hypermarkets fanpages (e.g. Auchan Komorniki − 557 likes, Auchan Swadzim − 199 likes) – messages posted by users only.			

Source: own elaboration as of 19 February 2016.

Social marketing requires not only preparing the well-conceived marketing strategy, but also using a proper tool, adapted to users' needs and expectations. There were difficulties in finding official pages, because most of the retailers did not place links to their social media profiles on the official website. When analyzing the three most popular among users services, only one company was using all of these communication channels. Detailed information is presented in Table 2. Biedronka was noted, however, there is no information about the profile on official Internet site, so there is no certainty that it is the official page.

Table 2

Retailers social media accounts rating

Google+				
Page	Observers	Views		Content
Tesco Polska	81	224,405		recipes from brand website only, attractive food photos, private label products offer
Carrefour Polska	8	85,414		outdated promotional clips only (14 posts)
Instagram				
Page	Observers	Posts		Content
Smaczna Strona Tesco	975	494		attractive food photos, contests, tips
Lidl Polska	18,200	163		esthetic food photos, premium products, questions about favorite users' products
Carrefour Polska	94	8		fit food preparing incentives
Twitter				
Page	Observers	Tweets	Likes	Content
Smaczna Strona Tesco	8,624	14,900	8,673	kitchen tips, culinary recipes
Lidl Polska	413	8	240	events and charity campaigns
Biedronka	146	28	0	brand website links only

Source: own elaboration as of 22 February 2016.

Pinterest

Another communication channel that allows for a dialog with customers and business promotion is Pinterest – a visual bookmarking tool that helps to discover and save creative ideas; a "catalog of ideas" rather than a social network, that inspires users to "go out and do that thing" (Nusca, 2015). This portal allows users to upload, save, sort, and manage images and other media content (called pins) through collections known as a pinboard. It is a new medium that rapidly gains popularity especially amongst young users, however, the business approach towards it has not been shaped yet (Bilińska-Reformat, Reformat, 2014, p. 211). Most of the firms treat it as 'another service' which is used as the information board where the fashion brand can display catalogues of its cloths whereas the furniture brand – its products (Molęda, 2014). Only two of the analyzed retailers are using this tool. Lidl has 40 thematically arranged pinboards (2,716 pins), full of tasty looking dishes, recipes, CRS activities, advices, inspirations, premium products offers, and many more. Tesco also took on the task, and currently owns 650 pins on 45 boards (mostly recipes from their www site and private label product offers).

YouTube

The most popularity in YouTube service (a free video-hosting website that allows members to store, serve, rate, and comment on video content) have unorthodox activities realized by the retailers, the content that was not displayed in traditional media, and the compilations of the best advertisements selected by users. This form of communication is still developing while the number of official channel displays is gradually growing. The majority of uploaded videos are not very popular and have only few comments. Blocking comments inthe content provided by Auchan is very surprising.

Private label promotion materials were added a few years ago and, basically, were not watched at all. The most views have comparative tests made by independent YouTubers, where products of daily usage of different retailers and brands were compared (e.g. fast crisps test – Biedronka, Lidl, or Tesco with more than 70,000 views, or yoghurt test – more than 19,000 views), or the contrast between private label and brand products has been shown (e.g. great ketchup test – more than 930,000 views, brand bars and their fakes – almost 920,000 views, crisps test – more than 488,000 views).

Table 3

Chosen Polish videos titles in YouTube portal with their views

Clip title	Views	Likes	Dislikes	Comments
1	2	3	4	5
Tesco channel: 3,619 subscriptions	20,720,810	**Joined 16.08.2011**		
Inemmited Tesco advertisement	2,364,128	12,178	557	1,372
Tesco realizes clients’ dreams from Santa Claus	1,984,549	113	14	54
Tesco E-shopping – order and receive	1,359,408	21	7	15
KuchniaLidla.pl channel: 16,113 subscriptions	10,754,668	**Joined 18.04.2012**		
Pawel Malecki recipes – Lidl baker’s	426,661	15	2	0
Lidl – Best from Poland, Best from Europe	158,748	223	25	147
Dorota, Karol, and Guests – Lidl’s Cuisine	129,510	11	2	3
Biedronka channel: 5,275 subscriptions	6,017,926	**Joined 16.11.2012**		
Biedronka advertisement – all 29 funny ads	2,643,928	4,523	414	663
Biedronka – potatoes	1,028,863	878	103	170
Biedronka’s TV song – low prices everyday	503,501	451	178	201
Carrefour Polska channel: 580 subscriptions	1,741,099	**Joined 18.01.2007**		
How to make an ecological Easter basket?	157,672	5	0	1
Carrefour spring super prices! Part one	68,556	4	3	0
School puzzle − part one − Monster High	67,780	0	0	0

1	2	3	4	5
Auchan Polska channel: 18 subscriptions	No info	**Joined 30.04.2013**		
Auchan Plock FlashMob	399,026	122	485	X
Auchan Direct advertisement	338,372	0	0	X
Auchan's birthday – Fish festival	146,951	0	0	0

Explanation: symbol (X) – comments to this video have been blocked

Source: own elaboration as of 18 February 2016.

Websites

Brand websites can be used to communicate with the target groups, and as a platform that enables interaction with or between customers (or the collection of individual customer data). Moreover, brand pages can also form attitudes and enforce the positioning of the brand. Therefore websites are essential to sustain or even increase effectively the loyalty of users, being necessary for the maintenance of communication all year round (Pelesmacker, Geuens, van den Bergh, 2007, p. 496). In the ranking of twenty most popular thematic websites in "Business" category in December 2015, one could find three retailers websites. Table 4 presents a list of the most popular retailer sites compared with the mentioned social media sites.

Table 4

Ranking of the most popular websites in business, community, and culture and entertainment categories in 2015

Position	Name	Real users	Range
Business			
12	lidl.pl	2,405,602	9.85%
13	tesco.pl	2,096,196	8.58%
20	biedronka.pl	1,910,704	7.82%
Community			
1	facebook.com	19,372,845	79.31%
6	twitter.com	3,826,124	15.66%
10	pinterest.com	1,908,815	7.81%
Culture and entertainment			
1	youtube.com	18,946,779	77.57%

Source: own elaboration based on Megapanel PBI/Gemius, 2016.

Currently, the most popular information source about ongoing promotions and theme actions from the customer's point of view is a website. Thus there is a need to verify the content and quality of retailers' webpages. Due to the fact that many customers (mainly young segment) use their smartphones or tablets to surf the Internet, the mobile evaluation criteria according to Zarańska (2014) was used.

In Table 5, the most innovative and useful for customer functionalities are presented. All the pages contain hyperlinks to promotional catalogues, deal of the week, and realized CSR actions, and can be accessed by a mobile device (meeting the customer's needs, because the popularity of smartphones and tablets is rising). There is usually a cooking section (only Auchan does not have one) and a section where offered private label products are displayed (all sites apart from Lidl). Tesco stands out with a Fashion section and its own magazine (Auchan has one too). The online shopping is available only in non-discount store websites.

Table 5

Standing out content of retailer websites

Retailer	Notes
Tesco	fruit and vegetable interesting information, nutritional plan – Healthy Appetite, Expert Opinion Club invitation, kids game – supermarket building
Lidl	information for clients tabs including product films and PDF operating manuals
Biedronka	new products offer, TV advertisement records, users products and packages test program, products films – how to use them creatively
Carrefour	content match for the store format
Auchan	contact application form – Client Opinion (request for comments in order to improve the website)

Source: own elaboration.

When looking at the site quality, all the compared pages are quite similar (only Auchan website is subpar). Tesco and Lidl have nicer graphic design and more multimedia materials, while the interface of Carrefour and Biedronka is more user-friendly. The summary of page analysis is given in Table 6.

Table 6

Subjective ranking of website design and functionality

Retailer	A	I	N	F	G	T	C	E	Sum	Notes
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Tesco	10	8	8	8	7	5	10	10	66	automatic opening of subpages in a new window

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Lidl	10	9	6	8	9	3	10	9	64	very small font and irritating advertisement placement
Biedronka	7	8	8	9	9	4	9	8	62	too many background elements, easy to read tabs
Carrefour	5	8	10	9	6	5	7	8	58	well designed theme blocks
Auchan	4	7	10	9	7	4	3	8	52	easy to find information, only the most important tabs

Explanation: The rank from 1 to 5, where: 1 – very bad, 10 – very good; A – general appearance, I – website intuitiveness, N – navigation, F – functionality, G – comprehensible goal, T – technological site, C – content, E – economical attractiveness

Source: own elaboration.

Summary

The challenges of modern market require the marketing activities that allow to engage into dialog between business and environment. New technologies point to the direction of developing marketing communication, which allows for building a positive and recognizable brand image. Using new technologies is necessary for creating a bound and engaged customer. Communication on the Internet creates a possibility for message individualization and creating relations with selected groups of customers, especially with young buyers, because they unconsciously treat the Internet as an integral part of life, which affects their consumption behavior and their shopping activities on the Internet.

The fast adoption of social media applications by the public has forced companies to take notice of this phenomenon, and discover the massive impact that social media has on their business. Internet-based actions, instead of a big financial contribution, require only involvement and innovative ideas. After the initial analysis, one can see that retailers are barely initiating a real dialog. Only two companies (Lidl and Tesco) are active online and open on communication in social media. Managers should realize that nowadays social media are perceived by a consumer as a more trustworthy source of information regarding products and services than the messages transmitted via traditional ways. Polish retailers usually neglect building the positive private label products image, whereas those are more and more popular in Europe. The lack of communicative actions results in precaution towards those products.

In conclusion, as practical implications, retailers should notice that customers are using new technologies in overwhelming numbers and the substantial part of the customer generated content in social media is about brands, businesses, and products images. Having the right customer communication idea, companies can employ it to help to understand market trends, identify potential areas of problems, and, finally, create outstanding marketing actions.

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Narzędzia komunikacji marketingowej stosowane przez sieci handlowe w internecie

Słowa kluczowe: komunikacja marketingowa, media społecznościowe, sieci handlowe, marki własne

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest wskazanie wykorzystania przez sieci handlowe funkcjonalności, którą oferują nowe media w celu zwiększenia skuteczności komunikacji marketingowej przedsiębiorstw. Metodologia badawcza wykorzystana w artykule opiera się na przeglądzie literatury oraz źródłach internetowych jako zasobie informacji o najnowszych strategiach marketingowych wybranych sieci handlowych w Polsce. Analizie poddano treści zamieszczone na stronach internetowych sieci oraz na ich portalach społecznościowych. Szczególną uwagę poświęcono także działaniom mającym na celu zwiększenie potencjału marki własnej, która w Polsce wciąż jest postrzegana jako „tańszy zamiennik" produktów markowych, podczas gdy umiejętne zastosowanie narzędzi dostępnych w Internecie pozwoliłoby na zmianę wizerunku produktów marek własnych przy niewielkich nakładach finansowych. Obecnie sieci handlowe zaczynają już wykorzystywać potencjał, jaki oferują media społecznościowe, jednak zamieszczany za ich pośrednictwem przekaz nie jest istotnie zróżnicowany.

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Country-of-origin effect in professional services – literature review

JEL codes: M31, L84
Keywords: marketing of services, professional services, country-of-origin (COO) effect
Abstract. The objective of this article is to examine country-of-origin (COO) effect in relation to the professional services. The concept of COO has been broadly analyzed in the marketing literature and is strongly supported by a notable amount of empirical work. However, most COO studies have been conducted with respect to products, whereas the impact of COO in service organizations has been relatively lightly researched. The study indicates directions for future research, basing on an analysis of the literature of marketing of professional services.

Introduction

The concept of country-of-origin (COO) effect has been broadly analyzed in the marketing literature, yet research about country of service origin is scarce. As the service economy boosts, country of service origin, attracts more attention than ever before. Using medical tourism services as the context, this article analyzes the existence of country of origin effect in professional service industry. The objective of this paper is to provide an up-to-date extended literature review on country of origin effect in the light of professional services. More specifically, the purpose is to summarize descriptive findings, classify which topics are evident in the literature, and point out the areas where further research is called for. Given the critical nature of these two concerns, this topic deserves greater examination by researchers.

Concerning research methodology, this study supplements the literature conceptually. Scant research has addressed the impact of country of service origin on professional services, therefore, this research, while being exploratory in nature, seeks to address this gap in the marketing and services literatures. This literature review covers most of the citation on the subject and is believed to be comprehensive. The period covered is from 1957 to 2016.

Professional service firms (PSF)

The goal of this part is to develop theoretical propositions that can help further understand the complex phenomenon of professional services. Globally, professional service firms are a rapidly-growing service industry today (Smedlund, 2008), and are more important than other services in today's and tomorrow's Western economies (Toivonen, 2004). Thus the marketing of professional services is a growing area of interest in both academic and professional press (Bloom, 1984; Jones, 1997; Lapierre, 1997; Thakor, Kumar, 2000; Hausman, 2003; Reid, 2008). In general, services such as accounting, legal, and medical are commonly cited as the traditional professions. The nature of the professional services-marketing interface is changing, with many professions facing complexities, such as: managing the impacts of globalisation, dynamism, turbulence, acceleration, rationalisation, connectivity, convergence, ephemeralisation, and consolidation (Daniell, 2006). Hence, there is still little agreement as to which services can be considered professional (Thakor, Kumar, 2000). Gummesson (1978) identified a series of the following criteria that distinguish professional services: service should be provided by qualified people, be advisory, focus on problem solving, be an assignment from the buyer to the seller, and the professional should be independent of suppliers of others goods and services. The professions are often distinguished in terms of possessing systematic theory and professional authority, being sanctioned by the community, being governed by an ethical code, and exhibiting a professional culture (Greenwood, 1957; Thakor, Kumar, 2000). Moreover, the professions offer services that are highly complex, intangible, highly customized, and are created and delivered by highly qualified personnel, over a continuous stream of transactions or service encounters (Jones, 1997; Thakor, Kumar, 2000). In fact, owing to the high degree of customer contact, as well as the level of individual judgment required by the professional, this form of service is considered the most intangible (Jaakkola, Halinen, 2006). Knowledge intensiveness is another distinguishing characteristic of this business, where knowledge has a role both as a resource and as a service sold to clients (Smedlund, 2008). Professionals offer their clients a sophisticated, knowledge-based expertise (Maister, 1993), and the relationships these professionals create with their clients are the medium through which they impart this expertise to solve their clients' problems (Reihlen, Apel, 2007; Walsh, Gordon, 2010). In professional services, as in most services in general, the reason for the highlighted role of the client is related to the fact that the client provides significant inputs into the production process, making the success of the service heavily reliant on client input (Sampson, Froehle, 2006). Ultimately, other characteristic of professionals is that, in the past, many of them did not have to perceive themselves to be sales or market-oriented, but the increasing competition has meant that professionals need to compete aggressively for business (Lapierre, 1997).

Country-of-origin effect

Several streams of literature support the notion that country (i.e. the location where the firm conducts its operations) plays a significant role in determining the outcomes of firms. In this competitive, global market, the accessibility to foreign products and services is improved. In this situation, the role of the country of origin is more significant than before, when only domestic goods were available.

The COO effect refers to the tendency among individuals to infer the quality of a product from its country of manufacture. Many researchers have built upon the definition for the COO effect offered by Nagashima in 1970. He described the COO as "the picture, the representation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history and tradition" (Nagashima, 1970, p. 68). Thus COO is the consumers' overall perception of products from a particular country based on their prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing strength (Roth, Romeo, 1992). For example, products or services from countries with a positive image tend to receive favorable evaluations, which may lead to purchase (Han, Terpstra, 1988). Simultaneously, COO effects are intangible barriers to enter new markets in the form of negative consumer bias towards imported products (Wang, Lamb, 1983). To sum up, the literature regarding COO suggests a general home-country selection bias (Bannister, Saunders, 1978). The effect of COO has been associated with certain conditions, including the buyer's ethnocentric attitude towards COO attributes and his/her underlying cultural values (Han, Terpstra, 1988). By transferring country related images to products or services, the use of COO effects seems especially useful when other quality cues are missing and/or the brand is not well known.

COO is one of the most researched topics in international marketing literature – more than 1,000 studies have been published including at least 400 issues in academic journals (Roth, Diamantopolous, 2009). Some Authors (Baker, Currie, 1993) even suggested that COO concept should be considered a fifth element of the marketing mix, along with the product itself, its price, promotion, and distribution. However, little empirical research exists concerning the COO effect on services (Javalgi, Cutler, Winans, 2001). This is because the differences in the country of the company and the country of the person providing the service are due to the service characteristic of inseparability and are difficult to hide. Only some scholars focus on the sub-branch of COO study, which is service oriented COO study or Country of Service Origin (COSO).

Country of service origin and country-of-service-origin effect

Service delivery inherently includes customer contact and interaction with employees, so that stereotypes pertaining to the service personnel's national origin may exert a greater overall influence on consumer's evaluations of services than on their evaluations of tangible goods (Mattila, 1999). Furthermore, an empirical study by Harrison-Walker (1995) found that selection of a service provider is dependent on the interaction between service provider's nationality and consumer's nationality, with consumers generally favoring same-nationality service providers. This might be even clearer in the context of professional services.

COSO, a natural progression to the COO literature, can be used as a cue by the consumers who engage in stereotyping rather than objective evaluation of a service (Thelen, Honeycutt Jr, Murphy, 2010). It refers to consumer perceived image derived from the service level related to one country, or the capability of firms of that country to provide satisfying service experience, so it affects consumers' evaluation of the service (Zhang, Wang, Xie, 2013). COSO may affect evaluation to a greater extent comparing to that on goods. The following definition is offered for COSO: the opinion held by domestic consumers of the general service level associated with a country, and the ability of service providers from that country to provide a quality service experience (Thelen et al., 2010). Most of the study in this area lies in the fields of cross-country marketing and culture studies. To sum up, considering services, the COO is an essential carrier of information for consumers (Ahmed, Johnson, Ling, Fang, Nui, 2002) which affects their assessment of purchase risk (Michaelis Woisetschläger, Backhaus, Ahlert, 2008) and purchase intentions (Harrison-Walker, 1995; Morrish, Lee, 2011). Moreover, it serves as a cue from which consumers make inferences about a product and product attributes, such as evaluation of quality or performance. Consumers infer the attributes to the product based on a country stereotype and experiences with products from that country.

Relationships between COO and PSF

In this part, the existence of COO effect in professional service industry will be described, using medical tourism services as the context. Medical tourism refers to the travel of people to another country for the purpose of obtaining medical treatment in that country. As other medical services, medical tourism services are professional services. There are many interesting findings within this subject. First of all, the results of research show that the COO dimensions apply to the assessment of medical services. It has been proved in Korea that the political, relative, and economic images do not have as significant influences on tourism service and trust in health service quality as the national image (Kim, Choi, Oh, 2009).

Considering the purchase of medical services and attendant high risk which becomes even higher when the location of the service provider is outside the consumer's place of residence, it is important to acquire some information about the particular medical service to reduce such risk. Among other sources, such information can be also provided by the image of the COO (Boguszewicz-Kreft, Magier-Lakomy, Janiunaite, 2016).

Research also show that the COO effect is strongest on older consumers and those who do not know much about the product or product type, and weakest on the consumers who are well-informed or more familiar with the service (Schweiger, Otter, Strebinger, 1997). It is crucial in terms of medical services, because of discrepancy in knowledge between a service provider and customer.

As it was showed above, many factors contribute to the country's image, including the country's economy. Most countries with a positive COO effect are highly industrialized, developed countries extent of technological advancement of a country. The countries that are less economically developed tend to have a negative country image and a negative COO effect. In comparison to the services from the countries of negative COSO image, the services from the countries of better COSO image are more often perceived of higher service quality. This also implicates medical tourism because the recent trend is for people to travel from developed countries to third-world countries for medical treatments because of cost consideration. However, the study conducted by Michaelis et al. (2008) showed that a positive COO effect leads to a higher level of initial trust only in the case of a risky service.

Conclusion

The service sector contributes to a major part of the GDP of the most developed countries, while the share of services of the total export of these countries is comparably low (Peters, 2011). With regard to the use of COO effects, the special service characteristics create challenges for professional service companies, e.g. by the inseparability of service provision and consumption. In particular, the factors influencing the crucial customer–provider relationship, such as language or cultural aspects, are considered more critical at services than at products (Capar, Kotabe, 2003). Furthermore, the intangibility of services results in challenges for consumers to compare offers in advance, as a simple inspection whether the service is of high or low quality is not possible (Bharadwaj, Varadarajan, Fahy, 1993).

By reviewing different literature, it can be concluded that there are many factors that have an impact on the relations between COO effect and professional services. Service companies are forced to support a positive consumer perception of their services. As it has been proved, COO effect plays a pivotal role as the indicator of international competitiveness of professional services firms.

Limitations and further research implications

The theoretical framework presented in this paper offers a comprehensive set of research propositions for empirical validation. The lack of empirical verification as limitation of the paper, can be addressed in future empirical studies.

There are also the areas where future theoretical research is called for. For example, identification of how the COO, in the context of professional services where there is a huge knowledge discrepancy, can affect the perceived quality of services, can be valuable.

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Rola efektu kraju pochodzenia (COO) w usługach profesjonalnych − przegląd literatury

Słowa kluczowe: marketing usług, usługi profesjonalne, efekt kraju pochodzenia (COO)

Streszczenie. Koncepcja efektu kraju pochodzenia (COO) była wielokrotnie opisywana i analizowana w literaturze marketingowej. Zdecydowana większość prowadzonych w tym zakresie badań dotyczyła produktów materialnych, natomiast zjawisko pozostaje stosunkowo słabo rozpoznane w marketingu usług, a zwłaszcza usług profesjonalnych. Artykuł ma charakter teoretyczny, a jego głównym celem jest analiza zależności pomiędzy efektem kraju pochodzenia a marketingiem usług profesjonalnych. Sformułowane wnioski, oprócz przeglądu dotychczas dostępnej wiedzy, określają również przyszłe kierunki badawcze w tym zakresie.

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The meaning of smartphones for marketing communication

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Keywords: mobile marketing, smartphone, mobile marketing communication

Abstract. The paper is a review of secondary sources presenting the importance of mobile marketing communication on the contemporary market. A special attention is paid to the use of smartphones in marketing communication, both from the sender's (organization's) and receiver's (customer's) points of view. The paper discusses various approaches to mobile marketing communication, some analyses from Polish market (case studies), and proposes a structure of tools for mobile marketing communication.

Introduction

The marketing communication has been going through constant changes due to the extensive penetration of smartphones or other mobile devices, such as tablets. The smartphone (or smart phone) combines telephone services with computer services in a single device (Soukup, 2015, p. 1). Coinciding with the widespread adoption of 3G and 4G smartphones among consumers, mobile marketing has increasingly become a staple tactic in brands' advertising and promotional efforts (Rohm, Gao, Sultan, Pagani, 2012, p. 485). Mobile media are compelling channels for digital marketers and advertisers due to their potential to support one-to-one, one-to-many, and mass communication both cheaply and effectively

(Watson, McCarthy, Rowley, 2013, p. 840). Mobile devices are virtually ubiquitous, having reached mass penetration with users integrating devices into their daily lives at a breathtaking pace. For instance, the market penetration of smartphones in Poland has reached 58% in the first half of 2015 and the average time of using the device is close to 3 hours (Mikowska, 2015).

Mobile marketing communication uses an entirely new medium − a smartphone. A 2009 study of 8,000 mobile phone owners living in urban areas of Canada, Denmark, France, Malaysia, the Netherlands, the Philippines, Russia, Singapore, Taiwan, the UK, and the US found that "people tend to classify the mobile phone differently [from] mainstream media like television, radio, print, outdoor and even the internet. Most people do not think of phones as a media platform at all" (Loechner, 2009).

The paper's objective is to propose a structure of tools for mobile communication of organizations with their customers with the use of smartphones. In realizing this objective the mobile marketing and mobile marketing communication are defined, as well as the concept of a mobile device. In the second part of the paper, the conceptual framework of tools for mobile communication is discussed, including examples from the Polish market.

The paper is based on the analysis of secondary sources and case study analysis.

The main outcome of the paper is the conceptual framework of tools for mobile communication, allowing comprehensive approach for mobile marketing communication.

Defining mobile marketing and mobile marketing communication − literature overview

The mobile communication is a part of mobile marketing actions. The mobile marketing is a relatively new term, and there is still a discussion in the literature on the proper definition of mobile marketing. The simplest definition of a mobile marketing is just the use of a mobile device (such as smartphone) in marketing activities. Over the years, the understanding of mobile marketing evolved into modern approaches emphasizing the following characteristics:

a) the use of mobile device, such as smartphone, tablet, etc.,
b) interactive communication,
c) the use of features offered by mobile devices, such as:
– the geographical localization,
– the ability to run programmes (apps),
– online purchasing,
– augmented reality.

Table 1 presents various approaches for defining mobile marketing.

Table 1

Approaches to defining mobile marketing

No.	Definition of mobile marketing	Source
1	Mobile marketing is the marketing on or with a mobile device, such as a smart phone	Heikki, Matti (2005)
2	Mobile marketing constitutes of any marketing activity conducted through a ubiquitous network to which consumers are constantly connected using a personal mobile device	Kaplan (2012)
3	Mobile marketing is a set of practices that enables organizations to communicate and engage with their audience in an interactive and relevant manner through any mobile device or network	Mobile Marketing Association
4	Mobile marketing is a set of programs and practices that firms employ to communicate and engage, in an interactive manner, with consumers and enable them to access information, download content, or purchase products on mobile devices	Gao, Rohm, Sultan, Pagani (2013)

Sources: as indicated in the table.

According to Tähtinen (2006, pp. 152–164), some academics and most practitioners (primarily represented by communications from the Mobile Marketing Association) have been using the term ‘mobile marketing’ primarily for the actions referring only to the communications aspects of marketing. Using the term ‘mobile marketing’ to describe actions that are primarily communications, creates the potential for confusion (Holland, 2010, p. 19).

Therefore there is a need to distinguish between these two terms. In relation to traditional marketing, where marketing communication is a part of marketing actions, the same approach could be used for mobile marketing. Therefore the mobile marketing communication should be the proper term for describing the phenomenon of communicating via mobile devices. Since a common definition of marketing communication, as proposed by Wiktor (2013, p. 2) is “a set of measures and actions by which a firm transmits information (message) to the market,” the similar definition can be proposed to mobile marketing communication.

The author proposes the following definition: the mobile marketing communication is a part of mobile marketing actions, focusing on transmitting the integrated and interactive message from organizations to their stakeholders, with the use of mobile devices.

The mobile marketing communication mix is comprised of following communication tools:

– sms, mms, and push notifications,

– display ads, including graphical and video ads,
– app based communication,
– in-game communication,
– location based communication,
– augmented reality enchasing communication.

The abovementioned mix of mobile marketing communication, with accompanying examples is discussed in the second part of the paper.

Another important aspect of proper understanding the mobile marketing communication is the purpose of it. As in the case of the traditional marketing communication, there is a simple purpose of an undertaken action: to inform, persuade, and remind receivers about the sender and, therefore, to shape the market demand. Since information is often a core product of many Internet based companies, there may arise confusions whether a particular action is the end product or a promotional activity. The way of distinguishing them is the purpose: when the actions intend to inform, persuade, or remind about the sender − it is marketing communication.

The mobile marketing communication mix - sms, mms, and push notifications

The very first attempts to use mobile marketing communication were SMS (short message service) and MMS (multimedia messaging service). With the development of apps for smartphones the push notification was also used. Push notifications are a way for an app to send information to the user even when an app is not at use. However, earlier studies in the pre-smart phone era, where the main means of marketing communication was via text or MMS messages, have shown that consumers perceive mobile marketing communications to be variously irritating, an invasion of privacy, and intrusive. This, in turn, calls into question their effectiveness as a marketing channel (Watson et al., 2013).

The modern usage of this tool focuses mainly on informing customers and keeping them up to date with the purchasing process, rather than on advertising. The good examples are:

– in health services − the text message reminding about the scheduled time of visit,
– in logistics services − the text message informing about the delivery of a package.

The mobile marketing communication mix - display ads, including graphical and video ads

Display advertisement on smartphones are a graphical form of advertising, placed on websites and in apps, usually with the possibility of transition to address of the advertiser after tapping. It may occur in many different forms, also with the use of advanced technology, which allows animation, motion, or video content. Typical forms of display advertising are small Internet banners (graphical form of advertising, traditionally in the form of a rectangle, with all its variants), video advertising, advertising on the electronic map, and others (Gracz, 2016).

The display advertising is usually a part of an app or a website. As other forms of such advertising, it is often considered irritating and intrusive by the smartphone users. Nevertheless, it is one of the most often used tools for advertising online. It is estimated that mobile app install ads accounted for 30% of all mobile advertising revenue in 2014, and will top $4.6 bn in 2015, and over $6.8 bn by the end of 2019 (Hoelzel, 2015).

The mobile marketing communication mix − app-based communication

Global Industry Analysts Inc. has predicted that the world-wide mobile advertising market will reach $18.5 billion by 2015, while the total global mobile applications market will be worth $25 billion (*World mobile*..., 2010). These data present the importance of apps for mobile marketing communication. Mobile phone applications (apps) are specific mobile marketing tools designed for the interchange of information, networking, and leisure (Kuan-Yu, Yu-Lun, 2012). Taylor, Voelker and Pentina (2011, p. 60), define mobile apps as small programs that run on a mobile device and perform tasks ranging from banking to gaming and web browsing. This definition is nowadays inaccurate, as mobile apps can be large programs, yet the basic function is the same.

Besides the possibility of presenting display ads, mobile apps play a much more important role in mobile marketing communication. According to Bredican and Vigar-Ellis (2014, p. 235), mobile apps present value to users in following key areas: mobility (the user can conduct business anytime and anywhere), flexibility (users can engage in other activities such as travelling while conducting business or transactions), ease of use, speed with which information can be accessed (a well-made app can provide a far better user experience than even the best websites), convenience (as the smartphone tends to be within an arm's length of the user for long periods of time), security (they provide safe storage of personal data so that users can save time), entertainment or stress release (e.g. via games apps), assistance for users (e.g. time management − calendar or scheduling, navigation and trip planning via maps and local information), as well as offline access to content, or perform functions without a network/wireless connection.

Therefore the main usage of mobile apps is not as a medium for advertising but as a sophisticated tool for communication and relations.

The mobile marketing communication mix − in-game communication

Mobile game are mobile apps designed for entertainment. The special use of the games for mobile marketing communication is creating a game with the use of company's visual identification (e.g. logo, colors, layouts, etc.). Such games entertain users and increase their relation with a brand. Games matter more than just a way to pass the time, they represent a window onto a rapid cultural change and an ecosystem dominated by the smartphone. They also offer, if not a new, then a changed mode of communication, as gamers interact with each other in ways different from their previous behaviors (Soukup, 2015, p. 23).

A good example of a game as mobile marketing communication targeted to children are "Gry Kubusia" − games with the use of brand of popular juice in Poland, combining entertainment and long exposure to company's logo and visual indentification.

The mobile marketing communication mix − location-based communication

Location Based Mobile Marketing (LBM) refer to more than just location-based advertising – as marketing can include things such as locally targeted content, messaging, etc., and may or may not be advertising related. In other words it is a localized distribution of advertising content. It may occur in a form of a display ad or a push notification when the user approaches certain area.

The mobile marketing communication mix − augmented reality

There are already many apps offering augmented reality for smartphones. These apps allow the incorporation of hyperlinks with maps, news, and other geocoded or sensor information. The good example of augmented reality is the Visit Szczecin app, that offers, among others, extended information on the city's most attractive tourist locations with the use of apps and QR codes, or the application of Pekao S.A. bank, whose app offers localization of ATMs with the use of smartphone's camera.

Conclusion

The proposed framework of mobile marketing integrated communication mix, including sms, mms, and push notifications, display ads, including graphical and video ads, app based communication, in-game communication, location-based communication, and augmented reality enchasing communication, constitutes the base of tools possible to be used in mobile communication. They offer a wide range of possibilities for both the sender and the receiver. They can and are used by various entities: companies, government and self-government organizations, and individuals. Each type of a company may use them, including traditional companies and Internet-based companies. The right mix of mobile communication tools should be integrated and prepared in a way that maximizes customer's acceptance.

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Znaczenie smartfonów dla komunikacji marketingowej

Słowa kluczowe: marketing mobilny, smartfon, mobilna komunikacja marketingowa

Streszczenie. W artykule, bazując na źródłach wtórnych, przedstawiono znaczenie mobilnej komunikacji marketingowej na współczesnym rynku. Szczególny nacisk położono na użycie smartfonów w komunikacji marketingowej, zarówno z punktu widzenia nadawcy (organizacji) jak i odbiorcy (klienta). W artykule przedstawiono różnorodne podejścia do mobilnej komunikacji marketingowej, wybrane przykłady (case study) z rynku polskiego oraz zawarto propozycję struktury narzędzi mobilnej komunikacji marketingowej.

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Use of social media by public transport operators

JEL codes: R49, M19

Keywords: social media, public transport operator, urban public transport, ICT

Abstract. Social media are commonly used by organizations to achieve various means. This paper aims on shortly describing both the information-communication technologies (ICT) solutions used in urban public transport systems and social media. In the article, the potential application of social media for public transport operators are discussed on the grounds of the existing literature from this field and conducted analysis. The analysis included presence of three Polish public transport operators in social media.

Introduction

Modern information-communication technologies (ICT) including social media are widely used by organizations in various ways, e.g. better use of existing resources, improving the quality of services, and better alignment of offered products to the needs of customers. In this paper, the potential use of social media by public transport operators (PTO) are considered, especially those concerned with providing appropriate (real-time) information to the passengers and acquiring information from passengers. The importance of ICT solutions for urban transport systems is briefly described, then social media and the ways they can be used to create additional value for enterprises are presented. The aim of the article is to investigate the social media usage by PTO on the example of three Polish PTO.

Both literature research and a content analysis of PTOs' social media profiles were used.

The results point that the potential application of social media is not yet commonly used by PTOs, and is mostly limited to providing information to the public (especially passengers using urban public transport).

The use of ICT in urban transport services

In this subchapter, the general types of the ICT-based solutions used in urban transport will be shortly described in order to highlight their importance. The development of information technology and data transferring, as well as their increasing availability, make the innovative solutions that improve the quality and efficiency of public transport more and more commonly implemented (Boschetti, Maurizi, Cré, 2014). There are many ICT-based solutions allowing for the increase in sustainable urban mobility and the improvement of urban transport system effectiveness. Naming some of the more popular ones like: car sharing, ride sharing, integrated fare management, real-time traffic management, real-time traffic information, p2p car rental, bike sharing, or personal travel assistance applications, shows how ICT-based solutions have become an important part of urban transport system. Unfortunately, the widespread use of ICT-based solutions can be limited by the existing urban transport infrastructure and often high costs of implementation (Mikulski, 2011). In the following part, different examples of the ICT-based solutions for the urban transport system will be briefly described.

The ICT-based solutions aimed at improving the effectiveness of existing urban transport infrastructure are usually doing it by increasing the transport system integration. The integration of urban public transport can be of varied range, and apply to the selected elements of the whole system, such as a common tariff--ticket system, a common information system, unified standards of provided services, or a common transfer and stopover infrastructure. (Lubieniecka-Kocoń, Kos, Kosobucki, Urbanek, 2013). The integration of a public urban transport system is beneficial for both PTO and passengers, especially when it includes integration of charges for other (not only transport) services (Urbanek, 2015). The ICT-based solutions make the sharing of the vehicles easier or, in some cases, facilitate this kind of services. The systems basing its operations on sharing of the vehicles can both be operated by different subjects (commercial, public and in rare cases private entities) and consist of fleets of different vehicles (most commonly bikes and cars) (Cichosz, 2013).

The common use of ICT solutions for urban transport systems allows to gather large amounts of data about particular vehicles, lines, or passengers' flows.

Those data do not only facilitate better management of the existing infrastructure and vehicles (e.g. predicting the demand for the bikes in a particular docking station), but also can be used as a foundation for developing various purpose applications. The applications for supporting a decision-making process are the most commonly used type, both by PTO and passengers. From the PTO point of view, they can be used for analyzing the data about the current behavior of passengers, and, basing on that, to make predictions and decisions about the future shape of a transport system (e.g. concepts like Flexible Transport Services or Demand Responsive Transport (Mulley, Nelson, Teal, Wright, Daniels, 2012)) or the results of the currently applied measures (Pensa, Masala, Arnone, Rosa, 2014). Passengers use an application supporting a decision-making process to better plan their route and choose the modes of transportation (Vitale, Festa, Guido, Rogano, 2014).

The applications encouraging passengers engagement into the co-creation of public transport services are gaining more recognition among the PTO. Passengers are given access to different kinds of applications allowing them to share the information that may be valuable to both the PTO and other passengers (Graaf, Veeckman, 2014). This type of application may also be used to tap into the innovative potential of the urban community in order to work on the existing issues, and gain a better insight into the needs of the particular groups within a community (e.g. seniors) (Schlingensiepen et al., 2015).

Next, the author will focus on the social media, their potential uses by enterprises – especially in the case of the PTO.

Social media in urban transport services

It is very hard to define the term 'social media' as it covers a broad category of Internet-based applications based on the technological and ideological foundations of Web 2.0 (Kaplan, Haenlein, 2010). The common characteristics of social media is the possibility to create various types of content by the users (among others: wikis, blogs, shared photos and videos, and tags), which other users use, propagate, comment, share, change, and tag among their social networks. Social media began as mostly customers phenomena, but currently are widely used by organizations (commercial, non-profit, and public) for both internal and external communication. Organizations took to using social media not only for communication but also for other types of activities, such as: solving complicated problems, searching for innovative solutions, and many others. Different ways in which social media may be used to add value through various internal functions of organizations are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Different ways in which social media can add value for enterprises

Organizational functions		Across entire enterprise	
Product development	to derive customer insights	Enterprise-wide levers (social media as organizational technology)	to improve intra- or inter-organizational collaboration and communication
	to co-create products		
Operations and distributions	a leverage to forecast and monitor		
	to distribute business processes		
Marketing and sales	to derive customer insights		
	for marketing communication/interaction		to match talent to tasks
	to generate and foster sales leads		
	for social commerce		
Customer service	to provide customer care via social technologies		
Business support	to improve collaboration and communication; to match talent to tasks		

Source: Chui et al., 2012, p. 8.

Use of social media is crucial for some parts of the urban transport system. Various vehicles sharing systems would not be able to develop so quickly without applying social media to solve the trust issues among the participants of particular schemes. People using both p2p car-sharing programs (e.g. RelayRiders) and car-pooling schemes (e.g. Blablacar) were reluctant to allow strangers use their private vehicles or to undertake a journey with drivers they did not know. Applying social media-like solutions allowed not only to negotiate the trust issues, but also to promote this type of behavior (that may have many positive influences on urban mobility, lowers the costs of travel, and impacts on the environment) and make it more effective (Stephany, 2015).

Research conducted in 2012 by the Transportation Research Board among the US and Canada's PTO shows that in the case of the PTO (that are a core of many urban transport systems), the use of social media is not yet widespread (Transportation…, 2012). The main results of that research concerning the reasons for using social media, barriers to social media use, and recommendations based on PTOs' experience with social media use are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Reasons, barriers, and recommendations for using social media by PTO

Reasons	Barriers	Recommendations
timely updates, informing the public, citizen engagement, employee recognition and recruitment, entertainment for passengers	resource requirements, managing employee access, responding to online criticism, accessibility, security, archiving and records retention, user privacy, changing social media landscape	keep social media in perspective, consider the organizational impacts, identify the real costs, find the right voice, 'listen, listen, listen,' respect the strengths of social media, have fun, just get started

Source: Transportation…, 2012.

Also, the literature research into the use of social media by PTOs are not very encouraging. Most works up to date have focused either on using social media as an information tool (concerning both the real-time passenger information and more general information about PTO or its schemes) or a promotional and CR measure (Gal-Tzur, Grant-Muller, Minkov, Nocera, 2014b). Recently, the second area of research into the potential use of social media by PTOs is becoming more popular – using the social media as a source of potentially valuable information. Social media can be used in two ways, namely as a tool allowing a better access to the targeted research audience (Efthymiou, Antoniou, 2012) or as the vast reservoir of information that can be tapped by applying Data Mining technologies (Gal-Tzur et al., 2014a).

Considering the limited scope of ways in which social media are reported to be used by PTOs, in comparison to the potential ways of creating added value for enterprise, mentioned in Table 1, in further part of the paper the author focuses only on the informational and promotional uses of social media.

Examples of the use of social media in Polish urban transport services

Three Polish PTOs were chosen for the content analysis of their official websites and official social media profiles.[1] Those include Public Transport Authority of Warsaw (ZTM Warszawa), Wrocław (MPK Wrocław), and Silesia Agglomeration (KZK GOP). The official websites were analyzed in order to identify what type of ICT-based solutions are used by a particular PTO, and in what social media they are active. The results are presented in Table 3.

[1] The analysis was conducted during the last week of March, 2016.

Table 3

Types of ICT-based solutions and social media used by the selected PTOs

Category	ZTM Warszawa	MPK Wrocław	KZK GOP
ICT based solutions in use			
Integrated e-ticketing system	City Card	Urban Card	ŚKUP
Park & ride	yes	yes	no
Bike share	Veturilo	WRM	City by bike
Mobile tickets	yes	yes	yes
Real time passenger information	yes	yes	yes
Social media presence			
Facebook	yes	yes	yes
Twitter	yes	yes	no
Instagram	yes	yes	no
YouTube	yes	no	no

Source: own elaboration based on the data retrieved from: *ZTM Warsaw*, *MPK Wrocław*, *KZK GOP*.

All PTOs that were subjected to the analysis are using various ICT-based solutions aimed at improving both the urban mobility and the effectiveness of the urban transport system. The time of implementation varies between PTOs, e.g. Warsaw City Card has been in use since 2001 (Zakonnik, 2010) whereas the ŚKUP card was implemented only last year (in 2015). Also the scope of offered services (e.g. the number of available docking-bays for bike sharing schemes) varies between the analyzed PTOs.

There are also differences between the PTOs concerning their activity in social media. The most active PTO is ZTM Warszawa. It has profiles in four different social media networks and the highest number of followers. When analyzing the content of different profiles, one can notice diversity in terms of the kind of information published on various social networks. The Facebook account is the core one used for providing information (concerning the urban transport system that may be of use to the public) and interaction with passengers and other Facebook users (reposting photos and videos that fit with the theme of an urban transport system, posting information about events, and so on). Twitter is used to provide information about unexpected events such as e.g. train delays or car accidents blocking particular routes. Photographs are mostly posted on Instagram, and videos on the YouTube channel. The videos available through the YouTube channel are well prepared (e.g. sign-language version) and cover various topics concerning an urban transport system (e.g. progress on metro construction or how to use Veturilo system). The presence of MPK Wrocław in social media is slightly less visible (without the YouTube channel), but follows the same pattern as ZTM Warszawa: Facebook profile as a core and tool for providing information and engaging with the public, Instagram for posting photos, and Twitter for providing timely information about unexpected events. KZK GOP's presence in social media is limited only to Facebook profile, and mostly provides only information for passengers.

Conclusion

The implementation of various ICT-based solutions is increasing in popularity among PTOs not only in case of the solutions aimed at improving the overall effectiveness of the transport system and urban mobility, but also when it concerns providing better information for public (especially the passengers using urban public transport). Literature research imply that the use of social media by PTO is not as widespread as in the case of commercial organizations, and that the potential applications are more limited (mostly to providing information, promoting, and trying to engage in dialog with the public). The content analysis conducted on the example of three Polish PTOs has shown that PTOs vary in the scope of the social media they are present at and the types of materials published. In all the analysed cases, the PTOs used social media to provide public with appropriate information about their activity and its influence on the use of urban transport system However, the scope and timeliness of provided information greatly differed (from timely tweets about train delays to artistic vintage photos of old-time urban transport modes). The recommendation for including social media in the activities of PTOs are mostly the same as in the case of other organizations. Creating a Facebook profile is not everything. It is a good beginning, but the decision about further engaging with social media should not be taken lightly, as it will demand both resources from a PTO and close integration with other strategies already in use within the organization.

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Wykorzystanie mediów społecznościowych w publicznym transporcie miejskim

Słowa kluczowe: media społecznościowe, organizator transportu publicznego, miejski transport zbiorowy, ICT

Streszczenie. Media społecznościowe są wykorzystywane w różnych celach przez podmioty rynkowe. W artykule pokrótce przedstawiono wykorzystanie ICT w miejskim transporcie zbiorowym, media społecznościowe oraz ich potencjalne zastosowania w działalności organizatorów publicznego transportu miejskiego. W artykule przeanalizowano także wykorzystanie mediów społecznościowych przez wybranych polskich organizatorów publicznego transportu miejskiego.

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Non-technological innovation creation process in the creative sector

JEL codes: M31, M39 M20, M29

Keywords: non-technological innovation, marketing innovation, social innovation, creative sector

Abstract. Technological and non-technological innovations are highly interconnected. The commercialization of technological product innovations often requires the development of new marketing methods. There is a growing need to reconcile the global discourse around the cultural and creative industries, with the needs of the local community to build both creative places and initiatives. Creation of social innovation will contribute to building social capital which refers not only to the institutions and relationships, but also to the norms that shape the quality and quantity of a society's social interactions.

Introduction

Technological innovations are usually associated with product and process innovation, whereas non-technological innovations are generally associated with organizational and marketing innovations. Technological and non-technological innovations are highly interconnected, as shown by firm-level innovation data (*Technological*..., 2015).

The ambiguity of the concept of innovation provides many opportunities for its interpretation. This aspect offers the possibility of examining innovation on many levels, in a way convenient for many customers. Thus it brings the opportunity to grow economies through innovation and creative skills, not only through scientists and researchers, but also other members of societies, in different forms, not only technological developments, but also social (Olejniczuk-Merta, 2013).

Process of creation of nontechnological innovation

The broad definition of innovation includes four types of innovation: product, process, marketing, and organizational innovation. Product innovation and process innovation are closely related to technological innovations. Non-technological innovations refer to marketing innovation and organizational innovation which are defined as follows (Hyard, 2014):

- a marketing innovation is the implementation of a new marketing method involving significant changes in product design or packaging, product placements, product promotion, or pricing,
- an organizational innovation is the implementation of a new organizational method in the firm's business, workplace organizations, or external relations.

By analyzing models of innovation, we can see that innovation is not only the result of the evolution of economic phenomena, but also social processes involving people on many levels and from different backgrounds, not only in economical approach. We can observe rapid development of the concept of innovation in a social context. Just as a general term, innovation and also social innovation is defined broadly and in many ways.

According to the European Commission's concept, social innovation means developing new ideas and services, with the participation of public and private stakeholders, including a civil society, to better solve social problems and improve social services. Considering the social innovation wider in general, it should be interpreted as new ideas, products, or models for the actions that meet societal needs, and create new social relations and cooperation between different interest groups in a society (Kwaśnicki, 2013).

Social innovations are a special type of innovation which fits in non-technological innovation as a separate type of innovation which is not based on technology. In the opinion of the European Commission, actions in the context of social innovation can be used on the issues presented in Figure 1 (*Social innovation*, 2013):

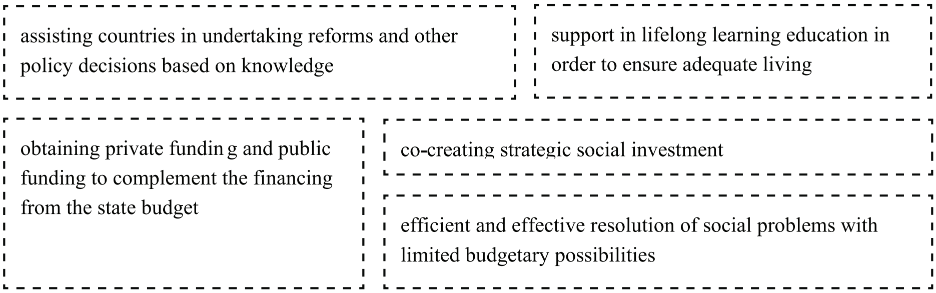

Figure 1. Possible areas of social innovations application

Source: *Social innovation*, 2013.

It is noted that in order to ensure sustainable development, a socially, economically, and environmentally new idea at social policy, health, and employment policy is necessary. It is therefore necessary to develop an innovative approach towards education, training and skills development, supporting entrepreneurship, development of cities, regions, and many other issues. Social innovation can be an appropriate solution in this area. Social innovation will play a crucial role in addressing several key areas presented in Figure 2.

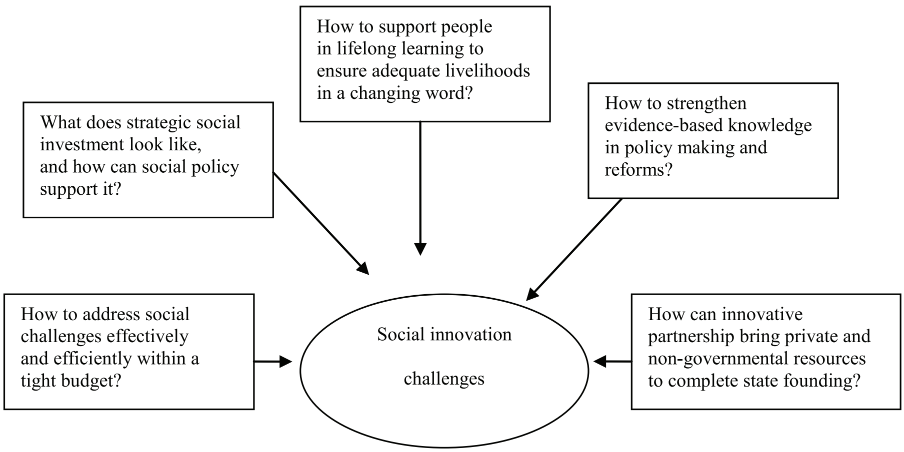

Figure 2. Social innovation challenges

Source: *Social innovation* (2013).

Development of social innovation, particularly in the long term, can reinforce social attitudes among scientists, politicians, and business practitioners so that they can operate at various levels in the conditions of greater confidence in each other. Development of social innovations enhances in companies corporate social responsibility activities and the concept of shared value, which is a measurable business value by identifying and addressing the social problems that intersect with their business. Shared value can be also used in marketing communication.

The process of creating social innovation is not particularly entrenched by numerous methodological requirements. According to the European Commission, social innovativeness measures those activities that are based on the original use of the resources shown in Figure 3.

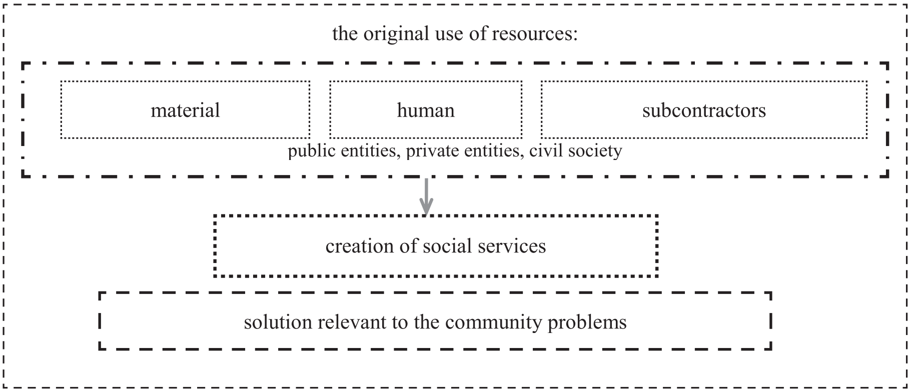

Figure 3. The process of creating social innovations

Source: own elaboration based on: Olejniczuk-Merta, 2013, p. 21.

A characteristic feature of social innovation should be no restrictions in proposing new solutions. They should break the existing schemes, should be innovative in their approach to solving social problems. This may involve the use of both proven solutions for new social groups or an activity area, as well as fresh, and even experimental solutions for well-known but still important issues (Dąbek, 2015). From year to year, more and more examples of social innovation both in the European Union as well as in Poland can be observed (*Social innovation*, 2015).

Sustainable development can be achieved not only through innovations in the field of technology or the economy, but also in the social activities directed to residents. Thus in the model approach for creating social innovation, activities of several entities are needed (entire communities, not just private or public entities, but also local activists, workers, municipal institutions, NGOs, and all the local stakeholders). Each project which aims to improve community life can be socially innovative, it only depends on the creativity of its executors. In order to promote development and implementation of social innovation, more and more programs appear to offer local and national support.

Still, there is a need for gaining understanding in the area of theoretical, empirical, and policy foundations for developing the field of social innovation in Poland. The aim should be to identify what works in terms of measuring and scaling innovation, engaging citizens, and using online networks to maximum effect in order to assist policy makers, researchers, and practitioners working in the field of social innovation (*The theoretical, empirical*..., 2015).

Social innovation in the creative sector

Creative industry covers actions which stem from individual creativity and talent, and which are both potential wealth and employment creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property rights (*Podwójna ochrona*..., 2015). The creative sector has been recognized for several years as the sector that is going to be a motor for development in Europe, being also one of the largest employers in Europe.

Creativity is crucial not only for marketing activities, but also for the whole sector, and contributes actively to the creation and development of social innovations. What is more, the creative sector includes in its scope a number of industries that can naturally create social innovations based on the novelty, the use of new media, art, and social inclusion.

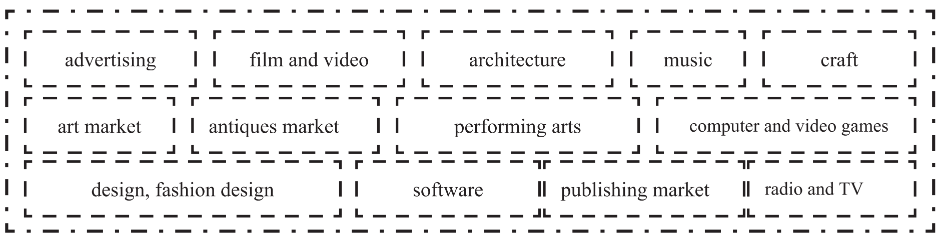

Figure. 4. Areas included in the creative sector

Source: own elaboration based on: Roodhouse, 2006.

Multidimensionality is needed for development of innovation, social innovation, as well as in the creative industries so that they can become an instrument of multiple layers of socio-economic development. The role of interaction design and interaction designers in social innovation is very important, and should cover the areas of activates creating creative communities, collaborative services, collaborative consumption, sustainability – ecological, social, and economical, designing networks, policy, and governance. Creative industries have social, economic, and cultural aspects, as well as the one related to sustainable development, which is presented in Figure 3.

The social aspect: creative industries are gaining more and more influence on the level of employment in the region; depending on the state of development in the country, this sector may constitute 2–8% percent of all employment; one cannot also overlook the role played by these industries in equalizing social stratification and overcoming cultural differences; in addition, there is also a link between the creative sector and education.
The economic aspect: trade in the creative sector is becoming an increasingly important branch of world trade; global export of visual arts in recent years has increased dramatically.
Sustainable development: environment as well as cultural capital also need to be protected; the creative sector is also in its ideas environmentally friendly because it is based on people and their ideas rather than on raw materials or land, and usually it is less dependent on heavy industry infrastructure.
The cultural aspect: creative industries are a bridge that connects culture and economics; on the one hand, they are culture factor, on the other hand, they are the way by which that culture affects the economy and society.

Figure. 3. Dimensions of the creative industries

Source: *Przemysły kreatywne*, 2015.

Social innovation, through its interdisciplinary and innovative character, is present in the creative sector entities not only in theory, but also in practice. This connection can be observed through the application of design thinking tools in the development of social innovations. This application is relatively natural because successful implementation of innovative solutions in the social space cannot be done without empathy and a thorough understanding of the needs of society (*Design thinking*..., 2014).

Designers have traditionally focused on enhancing the look and functionality of products. Recently, they have begun to use design techniques to tackle more complex problems, such as finding ways to provide low-cost healthcare or environmentally friendly production. Businesses were the first to embrace this design thinking approach, and nonprofits organizations are beginning to adopt it too (Brown, Wyatt, 2010).

Many social enterprises already intuitively use some aspects of design thinking, but most stop short of embracing the approach as the way to move beyond today's conventional problem solving. Certainly, there are impediments to adopting design thinking in an organization. Perhaps the approach is not embraced by the entire organization, or maybe the organization resists taking a human-centered approach, and fails to balance the perspectives of users, technology, and organizations.

Conclusions

Creativity plays a fundamental role not only in marketing innovation, but also in all the non-technological as well as in social innovation. Creative spill-over is a process by which the interactions between artists, creative professionals, industries, and/or cultural organisations contribute to economic and/or social innovation in other sectors of the economy or society. The spill-over process takes place when creativity originating from culture, creative professionals, and industries influences innovation in the sectors where culture and creative professionals do not usually evolve. Spill-over is about the processes questioning rigidity and contesting the systematic, relying on the unpredictable or unwanted surprises born from the meeting of diverse skills and competences (*Impact of culture on creativity*, 2014).

It is an imperative that all countries take advantage of their creative industries and do their part to strengthen the greatest assets of the industries – people, through offering policy guidance, entrepreneurial training, and marketing programs, sharing best practices of other countries, and financing creative industry start-up companies (Farmakis, 2014).

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Proces kreowania innowacji nietechnologicznych w sektorze kreatywnym

Słowa kluczowe: innowacje nietechnologiczne, innowacje marketingowe, innowacje społeczne, sektor kreatywny

Streszczenie. Innowacje technologiczne i nietechnologiczne są ze sobą silnie powiązane. Komercjalizacja innowacji produktowych będących innowacjami technologicznymi wymaga często rozwoju nowych metod marketingowych, czyli właśnie innowacji nietechnologicznych. Istnieje rosnące zapotrzebowanie na pogodzenie potrzeb oraz działań sektora kultury i branży twórczej z potrzebami lokalnych przedsiębiorstw, jak i samych społeczności lokalnych. Twórcze inicjatywy, w tym tworzenie innowacji nietechnologicznych, mogą czynnie przyczyniać się do wprowadzania zmiany innowacyjnej oraz budowy społecznie odpowiedzialnego biznesu i lokalnego kapitału społecznego.

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