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Digital piracy: the issue of knowledge of the institution of copyright law

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Abstract

Motivation: The motivation for considering the familiarity of Polish people with copyright law came from previous studies signalling that familiarity to possibly be low. If this conjecture proves true, it will affect the correct interpretation of what digital piracy is by Poles. This, in turn, can lead to problems in designing surveys to measure digital piracy.
Aim: The article adopted two research objectives. The first is factual, the second methodical. The first objective is to try to confirm the claim of low knowledge of the institution of copyright law among Poles. The second objective is to try to establish the usefulness of the heuristic Importance Index and the method of clustering similar averages for determining significant differences in the distributions of the evaluations of illegality regarding the forms of copying due to demographic characteristics.
Results: As a result, the survey showed that the claim that Poles demonstrate low level of knowledge regarding the copyright law is valid. While not all situations involving the copying of information goods are interpreted incorrectly, the public is overwhelmingly unable to determine whether particular forms of copying are legal or illegal. The study also found that the social group that most harshly labels particular forms of copying as illegal are those with a university education. At the same time, their harsh judgment does not mean that they correctly interpreted the forms of copying in question as illegal.

Keywords: digital piracy; copyright; clustering of similar averages
JEL: B52; C18; K24; L82; L86

1. Introduction

The problem of digital piracy is particularly relevant to industries involved in the production and distribution of information goods (Poort et al., 2018). These industries have been facing the phenomenon of unauthorised copying since the advent of the first cinematographs (Solomon, 2011), with the concept being broader than digital piracy, as it includes any activity involving "the exact reproduction of original works not authorised by their author" (Czetwertyński, 2022, p. 4). Historically, the phenomenon of reproducing the works of others has evolved, taking a form characteristic of the era, stage of cultural development and level of available technology (Johns, 2009). Technology has been particularly important in this regard, as its development, particularly in the field of copying machines and digitisation, enabled the development of new forms of reproduction of works, which in an economic perspective are referred to as information goods (Varian, 2000).

Digitisation and the very rapid growth of the Internet have led to the emergence of such phenomena as file-sharing, private copying (in its new global iteration) and piracy, which has crystallised over time as "digital". All of the mentioned phenomena belong to a broader set of activities — the aforementioned unauthorised copying. However, while unauthorised copying, by definition, does not have a pejorative meaning (Stallman, 2010) and, furthermore, is inherent in the fundamental assumptions of the bipolar nature of institution of copyright law (Czetwertyński, 2017b), digital piracy itself has an evidently negative meaning. Much of this is due to the fact that it is implicitly intended to negatively affect the financial performance of copyright owners or lead to undeserved profits for the entities engaged in piracy.

Defining the scope of activities that can be classified as digital piracy proves quite difficult. This is due to the fact copyright law does not explicitly define such a concept. Gopal et al. (2004, p. 90) defined digital piracy as "the illegal act of copying digital goods — software, digital documents, digital audio (including music and voice) and digital video — for any reason other than backup without explicit permission from and compensation to the copyright holder". This definition was generalised by Morris and Higgins (2010, p. 470) by stating that digital piracy "refers to the act of illegally acquiring some form of digital media through digital file sharing (…) or through illegal downloading". In contrast, Johns (2009, p. 6) defines piracy (in general, not just digital piracy) as: "commercial violation of legally sanctioned intellectual property". In principle, all three approaches are based on the legal solution, and therefore the legality of copying. Thus, they refer to the formal institution of copyright law.

This can be treated as a starting point in the attempt to define what digital piracy is, its dimensions, society's attitudes pertaining to it and its impact on the economic health of the industries involved in the production and distribution of information goods.

Among the range of problems that are associated with digital piracy, from an institutional point of view, or more precisely at the level of formal institutional governance, the issue of regulations defining the illegality of forms of copying is paramount. In this regard, the specific regulations that define what is allowed and what is not allowed are, of course, specific issues. However, this is primarily a legalistic view, and while it does affect both social (albeit according to the adage *ignorantia iuris nocet*) and economic actions, this article focuses on a different problem.

Namely, while the concept of piracy (including digital piracy) is generally familiar to the broad public, there are a number of reasons to believe that the knowledge of what digital piracy actually is may be insufficient. This is precisely due to the key issue of illegality and legality of copying practices.

It should be noted that copyright is not as "natural" as property right over a tangible object — that is, over non-information goods. Property law is more intuitive in nature. It does not have the bipolarity that is so important in copyright law, which combines the interest of the author with the public interest (Czetwertyński, 2017a, 2017b). Consequently, one may infer that the public is not sufficiently familiar with the provisions contained within this law. The actual issue, however, is not the mere letter of the law, but the practice of daily copying, which is either permitted or prohibited.

While knowledge of specific legal provisions is of little importance from the point of view of society as a whole — it is not necessary to know which section of which code prohibits the theft of a woman's purse on the street; yet a general distinction of what is allowed and what is not allowed is required. The lack of such knowledge, in purely practical terms and in everyday matters, will lead to the emergence of pathologies and possible abuse situations. It can also lead to the expansion of digital piracy with its negative repercussions or, conversely, to the exploitation of an advantage by copyright holders and the restriction of access to information goods.

This article has two primary research objectives. The first objective is to try to confirm the claim of low knowledge of the institution of copyright law among Poles. This objective is factual in nature and is to be accompanied by the inference process: (1) regarding the assessments of the illegality of various forms of copying by Polish people; and (2) regarding how these assessments vary by demographic characteristics.

The second objective of the article is to try to establish the usefulness of the heuristic Importance Index and the method of clustering similar averages for determining significant differences in the distributions of the evaluations of illegality regarding the forms of copying due to demographic characteristics.

To achieve the factual objective, it became necessary to answer the following research questions:

1. Which forms of copying information goods do Poles consider to be legal and which — to be illegal?

2. Which social groups (distinguished on the basis of selected demographic characteristics) differ significantly in their assessment of the legality of different forms of copying?

To try to answer these questions, research material collected from 1,500 respondents was used, who were asked to determine which of the proposed situations of copying various copyrighted works are legal and which are illegal.

2. Literature review

The quantitative cross-section of digital piracy research is well illustrated in the study by Fleming et al. (2017) pertaining to the methods used to analyse its different variations. Research regarding digital piracy is usually reduced to one of four dimensions: legal, economic, social and axiological (Czetwertyński, 2022, p. 12). Three main monographs on the issue can be distinguished in the literature (Czetwertyński, 2019; Johns, 2009; Mueller, 2019), with only two being of global scope (Johns, 2009; Mueller, 2019). It should be emphasised that none of these monographs contain empirical research but provide a theoretical framework and fall into the hypothetical-deductive paradigm. Empirical studies, on the other hand, are largely limited to attempts to determine the level of digital piracy or other forms of piracy (media, Internet, etc.). The most extensive and largest empirical study in this area was carried out by a team from the University of Amsterdam in collaboration with Ecorys (Poort et al., 2018), acquiring survey data from nearly 35,000 respondents in 13 countries. The important conclusions of this study, not including the convincing estimates of the level of digital piracy, mainly concern the fact that this phenomenon has a significant impact on industries involved in the production and distribution of information goods. It would seem that this conclusion is trivial, yet this was the first such large-scale and cross-sectional study that substantiates this fairly common-sense statement with the application of the scientific method. Other significant empirical research can be found in industry reports conducted by the Business Software Alliance (2002, 2003, 2009, 2012), and later by the Business Software Alliance and IDC Corporate USA (2009). In addition to studies by organisations that are the direct representative of specific industries, one can also find reports from consulting firms. Among the more well-known reports are the reports by Ernst & Young Advisory (2017) and Ernst & Young et Associés (2018)[1], conducted in France, Deloitte (2017), or PwC (2014) — both conducted in Poland. The study conducted by Deloitte (2017) was of particular interest, as the analyses sought to demonstrate the impact of digital piracy on national accounts (lost GDP, lost jobs and losses to the Treasury from informal trading). The cited reports are just a small sample, as in fact — initiatives are being established in most developed countries to make the effort to measure

[1] They are *de facto* the same entity.

piracy in various industries (e.g. in Spain it would be Lacoalición (2020)[2] or, in Poland — Centrum Cyfrowe (Digital Centre) (Filiciak et al., 2012)). Another significant contribution was provided by the report commissioned by The American Assembly by Karaganis and Renkema (2013), demonstrating the formation of the so-called "copy culture", in which all forms of sharing information goods are commonplace. The studies presented in the reports described above use empirical data, but their main purpose is not to formulate laws to provide a theoretical basis to explain the process of unauthorised copying, including digital piracy, but to demonstrate the level of the phenomenon and make an arbitrary evaluation of it. The studies by Filiciak et al. (2012) and Karaganis and Renkema (2013) may be an exception, as they formulate scientifically interesting conclusions. First, regarding the informal circulation of culture (information goods in the nomenclature of this article), and second, regarding the formation of a new culture (copy culture), and with it, new habits of sharing content and works that are protected by copyrights.

Empirical research of a purely academic nature (a certain exception to this is the cited study by Poort et al. (2018), as despite being financed by Google Inc. — now Alphabet Inc., it was carried out by academics, mostly in the legal field), focus largely on sociological, psychosocial or behavioural dimensions. The dominant research base in academic papers on digital piracy is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Fleming et al., 2017). It is a theory from the field of psychology, specifically behaviourism, which enables us to explain human behaviour. Among the foundations of this theory are the subjective norms that a person considers binding (Ajzen, 1985). Ajzen (1991, p. 182) clearly formulates a behavioural pattern affected by attitude, subjective norms and behavioural control. The norms aspect is a link between the approach based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the approach typical for sociologists, which is based on the analysis of the formation of culture. Notable in this regard is the study by Svensson and Larsson (2009), which showed that at the beginning of the 21st century, Sweden lacked social norms governing the circulation of information goods that were consistent with existing law.

Their research can be taken as a premise for inferring that not only were social norms lacking, but legal norms were largely unknown. Another clue that allows us to make such a conjecture is the research of Brown (2014, p. 130), who writes that "DP [digital piracy] may be subject to confirmation bias — that is, they will tend to favour information consistent with their existing belief that piracy is a victimless crime". Such an error may arise precisely due to the inconsistency between the convictions regarding legal regulations and the social norms that define the circulation of information goods.

Direct studies on copyright awareness are not conducted, especially in the context of digital piracy. However, one may find such studies indirectly. For example, Potyrała and Tomczyk (2021) examining the lifelong learning process of Polish teachers, noted that their knowledge of copyright law was poor.

[2] The reports have been published since 2010.

In their research, they used the EFA method, and the factor related to knowledge of copyright law can be considered alarming. Similarly, in a study by Czetwertyński (2022), on the level of piracy in general, EFA analysis provided some reason to conclude that the knowledge of copyright law among Poles is poor. Interestingly, the study showed that respondents were not so much unaware of what was prohibited, but rather unaware of what was allowed. This is important because Polish copyright law has a highly developed institution of fair use, which allows a significant degree of freedom to exchange information goods without the author's permission.

3. Methods

The lack of studies on the knowledge of copyright law in Polish society is a clear research gap. It leads to two fundamental errors in the formulation of any study of digital piracy levels based on surveying respondents. The first problem of survey research is that it is difficult for respondents to determine whether their actions should be classified as digital piracy. As a reminder, the definition of digital piracy is based on unauthorised copying, bearing in mind that what is unauthorised, or even illegal, for one party is no longer necessarily unauthorised for another party to the copying process. To express this in a very colloquial and simplistic way — in specific cases the copier does not violate copyright, but the person who makes the work available for copying does. As a result, the very nature of copyright is complicated, and the average respondent has not studied copyright law in detail at any stage of their life (Czetwertyński, 2022). The second problem with determining the level of piracy is comparing survey data and contrasting them in terms of the legality of various practices. This is due to the fact that even researchers of the subject of copyright in strictly legal terms, have some doubts regarding the interpretation of the legal provisions (Barta & Markiewicz, 2017; Dudek, 2013; Gienas, 2008). It should also be borne in mind that the Polish legal order does not include all the solutions characteristic of, for example, EU law (Laskowska, 2017), and the Polish institution of fair use seems to be more liberal than the institution of fair use in, for example, Anglo-Saxon law. As a result, designing a survey to measure, or in fact estimate, the level of piracy is a difficult task.

In an attempt to confirm the popular claim of low familiarity with institution of copyright law among Poles, it is first necessary to determine which forms of copying Poles consider to be legal and which — to be illegal. At the same time, the issue pertains more to practical knowledge of copyright law, which is highly important from the point of view of the research procedure. Therefore, the issue does not pertain to specific regulations, but to being able to define what is allowed and what is not allowed — even in a fairly general way. This approach is primarily due to the fact that the survey questionnaire was directed at a group of respondents intended to reflect the representativeness of Polish society. Since the survey itself was conducted using CAWI, this is rather a picture

of a representative group of Internet users. It was therefore decided to create a questionnaire as readable as possible for the layman, although from the point of view of a copyright lawyer it would be judged inaccurate. The trade-off between the readability and the reduced accuracy of the questions arises precisely due to the fact that the respondents are not knowledgeable and are unfamiliar with legal nomenclature, which could result in a complete misunderstanding of the questions and a lack of valid results. The questionnaire was designed to answer the first research question, namely: which forms of copying information goods do Poles consider to be legal and which — to be illegal?

The questionnaire itself was divided into 3 groups of questions. The first group consists of one question for self-assessment of knowledge of copyright law on the five-point Likert scale. The second group of questions consisted of seventeen situations that the respondent was asked to identify as illegal or legal. The five-point Likert scale was also used for this purpose. The third group of questions concerned the self-assessment of knowledge of particular concepts indirectly related to digital piracy, as well as the institution of copyright law. The use of the Likert scale was considered reasonable, due to the fact that the situations presented could, firstly, be interpreted differently, and secondly, could create uncertainty in respondents. Applying the "yes/no/do not know" distinction would lead to an increase in the "do not know" answer as a "safe" answer. The introduction of the division into "certainly yes/rather yes/do not know/rather not/certainly not" allows the respondent to "take the risk" of opting for a particular yes/no option — albeit in a cautious manner — by grading "certainly" and "rather". In this way, an effort was made to obtain a survey as sensitive as possible to the smallest manifestations of the actual judgments of the respondents.

The research material used to try to answer the research questions posed was obtained from the second group of questions (concerning various situations related to the copying of information goods). In order to answer the second research question (namely: Which social groups (distinguished on the basis of selected demographic characteristics) differ significantly in their assessment of the legality of different forms of copying?), grouping of similar averages was used, according to the method by Markowska et al. (2021). The grouping was subjected to the Importance Index, calculated from a numerically recoded Likert scale. Symmetric coding with variable intensity was adopted. The middle answer (neutral — "do not know") was assigned the value of "0". The extreme answers ("certainly yes" and "certainly not") were assigned the values of "3" — positive or negative. Intermediate responses ("rather yes" and "rather not") were coded as the value of "2" — also with a positive or negative sign, respectively. The Importance Index is a quotient, where the divisor is the average of the values of the responses coded in the manner described above and the number three. Thus, it can take values from –1 to 1. Table 1 provides a detailed description of the response coding and the corresponding Importance Index value.

The resulting Importance Index for the various situations presented to respondents was calculated for selected groups of respondents. They were identified by demographic characteristics. Table 2 shows the distribution characteristics of the survey sample details used to make the divisions.

The grouping of the Importance Index was carried out according to the method of grouping similar averages. The two largest differences, between the Importance Index in ascending order, distinguish three groups with different intensity of the studied characteristic.

In the case of this study, as a result of the method used, it will be demonstrated which group significantly differs from others in determining the legality (illegality) of the given situations of copying particular information goods. This will show which groups have significantly different opinions regarding the legality of copying practices. This provides an opportunity to interpret which groups are the most and least familiar with the issues of copyright law.

Data collection took place in March/April 2022 using Computer-Assisted Web Interview (CAWI). The survey sample size was 1,500 respondents.

4. Results

The results of the conducted survey questionnaire should begin by showing the basic distributions of responses. The first question concerned self-assessment of knowledge of copyright law. Table 3 shows the distribution of responses to this question.

As can be seen, the answer "average" clearly prevails, i.e. a safe answer of a moderate nature.

The detailed responses that relate to particular situations can be divided into four groups and presented in an aggregated fashion. Group I includes five situations, described as follows:

- I.1. It is illegal to watch movies and TV series, listen to music or audiobooks from unauthorised (pirate) streaming services.
- I.2. It is illegal to download movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) via peer-to-peer networks (e.g. the so-called torrents).
- I.3. It is illegal to download movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) from file hosting portals (e.g. from chomikuj.pl or freedisc.pl).
- I.4. It is illegal to download movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) from unauthorised(pirate) streaming services.
- I.5. It is illegal to download movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) from authorised streaming services (such as Netflix or Spotify), using special software, without the service's permission.

Table 4 shows the distributions of illegality ratings for the situations described above.

Group II consists of another 4 situations formulated as follows:

- II.1. It is illegal to download software (copyrighted) via peer-to-peer networks.

– II.2. It is illegal to download software (copyrighted) from file hosting portals.
– II.3. It is illegal to download video games (copyrighted) via peer-to-peer networks.
– II.4. It is illegal to download video games (copyrighted) from file hosting portals.

The situations listed above, unlike Group I, involve software, with video games also being software. Nonetheless, it was deemed appropriate to separate the two, particularly because the studies by Bayraktar & Tomczyk (2021) and Tomczyk (2021), pertaining to minors, found that video games are treated differently by respondents than application software. At the level of questionnaire preparation, it also seemed logical that other age groups, especially older, would diversify the two types of software as different. It was assumed that this would be due to a certain trivialisation of information goods for entertainment. Table 5 shows the distribution of the opinions of the respondents regarding the legality of the situations described.

Group III (as well as Group IV) contains a description of situations involving the exchange/copying of works in the form of information goods between family members and close friends. Group III included situations involving information goods that are traditional works, thus excluding software. In addition, a variant related to the source of copied information goods was included, which is of particular importance in the context of the lack of the representation of the regulation on the separate treatment of works from illegal sources in Polish law. The Polish legal system lacks this distinction, the result of which is that the source of origin is irrelevant to the end individual, copying from a family member or close friend (Barta & Markiewicz, 2017; Laskowska, 2017).

Group III includes the following situations:
– III.1. It is illegal to copy from a family member files of movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) that they have legally purchased.
– III.2. It is illegal to copy from a family member files of movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) that they have downloaded from unauthorised (pirated) sources.
– III.3. It is illegal to copy from a close friend files of movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) that they have legally purchased.
– III.4. It is illegal to copy from a close friend files of movies and TV series, music or books (including audiobooks) that they have downloaded from unauthorised (pirate) sources.

Table 6 shows the distribution of the assessments of the respondents regarding the illegality of the situations described.

Group IV concerns software — again with video games treated separately. In this group, the essence is the division between copying from a family member and from close friends. The following situations were presented to respondents in this group:
– IV.1. It is illegal to copy software (copyrighted) from a family member.
– IV.2. It is illegal to copy video games (copyrighted) from a family member.

– IV.3. It is illegal to copy software (copyrighted) from a close friend.
– IV.4. It is illegal to copy video games (copyrighted) from a close friend.

Table 7 shows the distribution of the assessments of the respondents regarding the illegality of the situations described.

Since all situations were formulated in such a way as to *de facto* ask respondents whether particular forms of copying are illegal, they can be summarised. This would reflect the general view of the respondents regarding the illegality of copying information goods. The Importance Index values for each situation were collected in Table 8 and graphically presented in Charts 1–4.

As can be seen in Table 8 and Charts 1–4, all instances of the Importance Index have a positive value. This means that, in general, respondents felt that all the presented situations demonstrate the characteristics of illegal copying. On the other hand, the intensity is relatively low, as the value of the coefficient never exceeds the level of interpretation "certainly illegal". However, analysing the aggregate values, it should be assumed that respondents tend to think that the situations presented can be classified as digital piracy.

An analysis of the aggregate results (included in Table 9) and detailed results (included in Tables 10.1–10.17) shows relatively few significant differences across groups. Basically, given that Importance Index instances take on clearly positive values, the analysis is to determine which situation is significantly more illegal for a given group. Thus, to the highest degree, watching movies and TV series, listening to music or audiobooks from unauthorised (pirated) streaming services is considered illegal by middle-aged respondents with a college education. Importance Index values do not exceed the interpretation limit of "certainly illegal", and are above 0.5, which is a relatively high value in this study. The responses of the respondents to situation I.2 show the greatest variation. This situation differs from situation I.1 in the source of acquisition of the works. In this case, the source is peer-to-peer networks, specifically the popular "torrents". This form of copying of information goods is attributed to a higher degree of illegality by men, individuals with primary or higher education, living in cities with more than 200,000 residents and with a net income of more than PLN 3,000. Situation I.3, on the other hand, concerning the acquisition of works from hosting sites, is no longer characterised by such clear diversification. This time, women and individuals with secondary education and higher education consider such actions more illegal. Situation I.4 and I.5, on the other hand, concerns the downloading of works from streaming services, which are generally not designed for this purpose. If the service is a pirate source, individuals with higher education and living in cities with populations between 200,000 and 500,000 consider such activity more illegal. In addition, they are also those with incomes above PLN 500, which, given the size of the group, is insignificant information. If, on the other hand, the services are legal, a high degree of illegality is more often observed in residents of larger cities (between 100,000 and 500,000 residents).

The second group of situations concerned software and video games. In situation II.1, the subject was software downloaded via peer-to-peer networks. They were considered more illegal by individuals with higher education, living in large cities (more than 200,000 residents) and with incomes above PLN 1,000. In Situation II.2, when the source was file-hosting portals, they included individuals with higher education and young, between the ages of 18 and 34. Situation II.3, concerning video games downloaded via peer-to-peer networks, was considered significantly more illegal by men, individuals with primary education and the most affluent individuals, with incomes above PLN 3,000. In situation II.4, when the source of the download was file hosting portals, the differences in the degree of illegality of such copying were demonstrated by men. Looking at the aggregate Importance Index (see Table 8), it was generally considered less illegal to download video games than software.

Group III of the situations presented to respondents involved works copied from family members and close friends. Situation III.1 was considered more illegal by young individuals (25 to 34 years old) and residents of larger cities (cities with populations between 200,000 and 500,000). Situation III.2, on the other hand, was considered more illegal by individuals with secondary and higher education and incomes above PLN 1,000. The difference between these situations (III.1 and III.2) was the source of the copied works. In Situations III.3 and III.4, the difference from Situations III.1 and III.2 was the subject from whom one received the work to be copied (a family member was replaced by a close friend). Responses to situation III.3 showed no significant variation at all among the groups surveyed, and in situation III.4, those who considered it more illegal to copy pirated files from a close friend were individuals with higher education and those with a net income of more than PLN 1,000. The important information is that in situations where the files came from legal sources, the Importance Index was low (both aggregate — see Table 8; and detailed — see Table 10.10 and Table 10.12).

The last group of situations again involves software and video games, this time copied from a family member or close friend. In situation IV.1, when software is copied from a family member, individuals with secondary and higher education and residents of large cities (200,000 to 500,000 residents) were more stringent in assessing legality. In the case of video games (situation IV.2), these were middle-aged and older individuals (over 45 years old), also with secondary and higher education and incomes above PLN 1,000. In the case of analogous situations, but when the source for copying was a close friend rather than a family member, individuals with higher education and net incomes above PLN 1,000 considered the given situations significantly more illegal. At the same time, it is worth noting that all situations were generally considered by respondents to be rather illegal (see Table 8).

5. Discussion

The analysis of the results, using the applied method, shows that the diversification of the significance of differences in the determination of situations as legal or illegal is relatively low. The differences are statistically insignificant for characteristics such as gender, age, and place of residence. Differences occurred a mere 4 times out of 17 situations. The level of net income, on the other hand, although it often appeared as a differentiator of responses, contributed virtually nothing, as it divided the survey sample very asymmetrically. In case of a situation where the Importance Index was higher in the group of individuals with a net income of more than PLN 1,000, it meant that more than 85% of respondents were inclined to evaluate a given situation as more illegal than the other 15%. Education turned out to be by far the most important demographic characteristic, with higher education appearing most frequently. Furthermore, the Importance Index was always highest in this group, even though the method of similar averages showed that the similar group was made up of individuals with higher and secondary education.

The previous section reviewed the survey results, but did not address the correctness of the responses. It was found that those with higher education considered the situations in question more illegal than the rest of the respondents. The question, however, is whether they have done so correctly. As written in the introduction, the situations described do not have one absolute answer. However, it is possible to assume which should be statistically evaluated as more and which as less legal.

Situation I.1 should be considered rather legal, if not certainly legal. While the content is not illegal, watching from pirate streaming sites is not, for the viewer. Respondents generally considered it rather illegal (the second highest Importance Index value in this group — see Chart 1). Individuals with higher education were the group recognising, unlike other groups, that this is precisely the practice that is rather illegal.

Of the situations aggregated in Group I, situation II.2 is the closest to illegal activity, as it involves downloading via peer-to-peer networks, which, as a rule, when downloading files, simultaneously shares them (i.e., distribution without permission occurs). The situation, however, ranked in the middle of the pack in terms of illegality ratings, although it appears that it should be in first place. Again, individuals with higher education were the most stringent, a judgment that should be considered accurate. On the other hand, for the other situations in this group, the assessment was not correct, and individuals with higher education considered situations rather legal, rather illegal.

The second group of situations, on the other hand, is a group in which the activities described are certainly illegal or rather illegal. This is because it applies to software (including video games, as legally there is no difference on this issue). It would be expected that downloading the software would be considered illegal, since its interpretation as downloading a backup copy or downloading without

use is rather unlikely. In general, respondents correctly identified these situations, although it would seem that the Importance Index should be higher — even if from the range of interpretations rather illegal, then in the upper limits. Significantly, it was lower for video games than for software. This result is not surprising, as in general video games are treated with more leniency — which is clearly incorrect. In this group of situations, individuals with higher education were also more stringent, but did not avoid the mistake of judging video games as inferior goods under copyright law.

In contrast, the results pertaining to the situations collected in Group IV were very positive, compared to other groups. What is clear in this case is that copying from a family member or close friend is considered neutral, as long as the copied work originates from legal sources. Although the interpretation of Importance Index is "do not know" and its value is positive, it is clearly lower than those occurring in other situations. *De facto* copying of works from a family member and close friends is legal and an important part of the institution of copyright (Barta & Markiewicz, 2017; Gienas, 2008; Johnson, 1985). Individuals with higher education were not distinct from other groups in this case. The same group of situations also included a question regarding copying pirated works from a family member or close friend. In this case, respondents were again inclined to consider such an activity rather illegal, and those with higher education were significantly more stringent here. In fact, there is no such distinction in Polish law, and the original source of the works is irrelevant. Although such a distinction exists in EU law, it has not been introduced in Poland (Barta & Markiewicz, 2017; Laskowska, 2017).

The situations described in Group IV, on the other hand, are rather illegal or even certainly illegal, as they involve software and video games. In this group, respondents showed greater accuracy of judgment and individuals with higher education were again more stringent in this case — which should be considered correct. Interestingly, for this group of situations, no distinction between software and video games was observed, which was the case in Group II.

6. Conclusion

The conclusions of this study can be divided into two groups. The first group is factual in nature. From the point of view of the demographic characteristics studied, only education differentiates the responses in a significant manner. Individuals with higher education are stricter and consider the situations in question more illegal. Interestingly, the survey did not indicate age, even though it seemed that this characteristic should be significant. However, it should be taken into account that despite the strict judgment of individuals with higher education regarding the legality of individual situations, their accuracy is not correct every time. There is certainly an intensification of the assessment, but the sign of the value of the Importance Index is the same as for the entire group. Furthermore, for situations III.1 and III.3 (which were evaluated as "do not

know"), individuals with higher education were more stringent than those with primary and basic vocational education, who were closer to the correct answer. Therefore, one should be inclined to conclude that other criteria for division should be sought than just education, and that the remaining demographic characteristics using the proposed method are of little significance.

Another factual conclusion is that, in general, knowledge of copyright law in its practical dimension is insufficient. Admittedly, it should be noted that there is a change in the Importance Index value in the case of copying from family members and close friends, but in other rather legal situations (mainly group I), the respondents did not provide an accurate assessment. This seems to apply to situations that are relatively new or related to technical aspects. This includes downloading content from streaming platforms, using peer-to-peer networks (which are far less popular now than they were a decade ago) and dividing software into application and entertainment. An assumption can be made here that the public awareness of practices that are *de facto* permitted or not permitted (not to use the phrase legal and illegal) is stuck in the era before the sudden development of ICT technologies.

The second group of conclusions, which can be described as methodological, should include comments regarding the method itself. Presenting the results of the survey in the form of the table without further analysis reveals that, in the sample, more situations are treated as rather illegal that as rather legal. We can, therefore, note the general outline of the knowledge of copyright law in its practical dimension. The application of the Importance Index and its use in the method of searching for similar averages indicated education as a significantly differentiating characteristic and further determined the severity of the assessment of the legality of the situation. This gives hope that the method used has heuristic value and can be used in other intensity studies.

This article paves the way for further research, pointing to the need to look for characteristics other than the demographic characteristics discussed here to differentiate and single out social groups that are practically familiar with copyright law and are able to distinguish what is digital piracy and what is not (usually fair use, private copying or an activity not covered by case law as prohibited).

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Appendix

Table 1.
Response coding

Response	Coded value	Importance Index
certainly yes	3	[+0.8333; +1.000]
rather yes	2	[+0.333; +0.833)
do not know	0	(–0.333; +0.333)
rather not	–2	(–0.833; –0.333]
certainly not	–3	[–1.000; –0.833]

Source: Own preparation.

Table 2.
Distribution of the research sample

Characteristic	N	Total (%)
gender		
female	780	52.0
male	720	48.0
age		
18–24	170	11.3
25–34	326	21.7
35–44	392	26.1
45–54	254	16.9
55–64	215	14.3
65 and more	143	9.5
education		
primary and lower secondary	26	1.7
basic vocational	159	10.6
secondary	694	46.3
higher	621	41.4
size of the place of residence		
village	294	19.6
city up to 19999	157	10.5
city from 20000 to 99999	357	23.8
city from 100000 to 499999	203	13.5
city from 500000 and above	221	14.7

Source: Own preparation.

Table 3.
Question 1: How would you rate your level of knowledge of the copyright law?

Response	N	Total (%)
very poor	102	6.8
poor	273	18.2
average	733	48.9
good	329	21.9
very good	63	4.2

Source: Own preparation.

Table 4.
Distribution of the assessments of illegality of the situation in group I

Response	Question I.1		Question I.2		Question I.3		Question I.4		Question I.5	
	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)
certainly yes	664	44.3	480	32.0	338	22.5	703	46.9	431	28.7
rather yes	461	30.7	457	30.5	465	31.0	463	30.9	348	23.2
do not know	174	11.6	364	24.3	386	25.7	204	13.6	252	16.8
rather not	141	9.4	149	9.9	254	16.9	91	6.1	204	13.6
certainly not	60	4.0	50	3.3	57	3.8	39	2.6	265	17.7

Source: Own preparation.

Table 5.
Distribution of the assessments of illegality of the situation in group II

Response	Question II.1		Question II.2		Question II.3		Question II.4	
	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)
certainly yes	439	29.3	327	21.8	452	30.1	338	22.5
rather yes	411	27.4	434	28.9	440	29.3	456	30.4
do not know	493	32.9	536	35.7	444	29.6	517	34.5
rather not	119	7.9	156	10.4	125	8.3	138	9.2
certainly not	38	2.5	47	3.1	39	2.6	51	3.4

Source: Own preparation.

Table 6.
Distribution of the assessments of illegality of the situation in group III

Response	Question III.1		Question III.2		Question III.3		Question III.4	
	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)
certainly yes	237	15.8	626	41.7	273	18.2	609	40.6
rather yes	403	26.9	456	30.4	388	25.9	473	31.5
do not know	339	22.6	249	16.6	353	23.5	258	17.2
rather not	365	24.3	100	6.7	355	23.7	89	5.9
certainly not	156	10.4	69	4.6	131	8.7	71	4.7

Source: Own preparation.

Table 7.
Distribution of the assessments of illegality of the situation in group IV

Response	Question IV.1		Question IV.2		Question IV.3		Question IV.4	
	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)	N	Total (%)
certainly yes	483	32.2	497	33.1	518	34.5	525	35.0
rather yes	492	32.8	502	33.5	511	34.1	514	34.3
do not know	320	21.3	306	20.4	307	20.5	281	18.7
rather not	137	9.1	128	8.5	100	6.7	120	8.0
certainly not	68	4.5	67	4.5	64	4.3	60	4.0

Source: Own preparation.

Table 8.
Importance Index values for each situation

Situation	Importance Index	Interpretation
I.1	0.5842	rather illegal
I.2	0.4562	rather illegal
I.3	0.3184	do not know
I.4	0.6333	rather illegal
I.5	0.3507	rather illegal
II.1	0.4218	rather illegal
II.2	0.3409	rather illegal
II.3	0.4407	rather illegal
II.4	0.3660	rather illegal
III.1	0.1742	do not know
III.2	0.5749	rather illegal
III.3	0.1960	do not know
III.4	0.5760	rather illegal
IV.1	0.4911	rather illegal
IV.2	0.4969	rather illegal
IV.3	0.5273	rather illegal
IV.4	0.5244	rather illegal

Source: Own preparation.

Table 9.
Level of illegality in each group

Situation	Gender	Age	Education	Place of residence	Net income
I.1	–	55–64	higher	–	–
I.2	men	–	primary and higher	cities over 200,000 residents	over PLN 3000
I.3	women	–	secondary and higher	–	–
I.4	–	–	higher	cities between 200,000 and 500,000 residents	over PLN 500
I.5	–	–	–	cities between 100,000 and 500,000 residents	
II.1	–	–	higher	cities over 200,000 residents	over PLN 1000
II.2	–	18–34	higher	–	–

Situation	Gender	Age	Education	Place of residence	Net income
II.3	men	–	primary	–	over PLN 3000
II.4	men	–	–	–	–
III.1	–	25–34	–	cities between 200,000 and 500,000 residents	–
III.2	–	–	secondary and higher	–	over PLN 1000
III.3	–	–	–	–	–
III.4	–	–	higher	–	over PLN 1000
IV.1	–	–	secondary and higher	cities between 200,000 and 500,000 residents	–
IV.2	–	45–65+	secondary and higher	–	over PLN 1000
IV.3	–	–	higher	–	over PLN 1000
IV.4	–	–	higher	–	over PLN 1000

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.1.
Question I.1

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.5603	0.3049	0.4846
	men	0.5282		
age	18–24	0.5294	0.0530	**0.0420**
	25–34	0.5358		
	35–44	0.5153		
	45–54	0.4934		
	55–64	0.6543		
	65+	0.5921		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3590	0.1246	**0.0078**
	basic vocational	0.4675		
	secondary	0.5543		
	higher	0.5620		
place of residence	village	0.5011	0.3662	0.1749
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.4947		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.5696		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.5386		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.6048		
	city over 500,000	0.5448		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.1961	0.5475	0.2981
	PLN 500–1000	0.5686		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.5335		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5704		
	over PLN 3000	0.5438		
	refused to say	0.4350		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.2.
Question I.2

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.5603	0.3049	0.4846
	men	0.5282		
age	18–24	0.5294	0.0530	**0.0420**
	25–34	0.5358		
	35–44	0.5153		
	45–54	0.4934		
	55–64	0.6543		
	65+	0.5921		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3590	0.1246	**0.0078**
	basic vocational	0.4675		
	secondary	0.5543		
	higher	0.5620		
place of residence	village	0.5011	0.3662	0.1749
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.4947		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.5696		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.5386		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.6048		
	city over 500,000	0.5448		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.1961	0.5475	0.2981
	PLN 500–1000	0.5686		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.5335		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5704		
	over PLN 3000	0.5438		
	refused to say	0.4350		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.3.
Question I.3

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.2491	**0.0410**	**0.0144**
	men	0.3157		
age	18–24	0.3431	0.2739	0.1454
	25–34	0.2740		
	35–44	0.3061		
	45–54	0.2520		
	55–64	0.2961		
	65+	0.1841		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.2179	0.1045	**0.0272**
	basic vocational	0.1782		
	secondary	0.2781		
	higher	0.3135		

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
place of residence	village	0.2370	0.1965	0.0962
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.2038		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.2736		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.2906		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.3333		
	city over 500,000	0.3346		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2000	0.9323	0.7552
	PLN 500–1000	0.2863		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.2631		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.2842		
	over PLN 3000	0.3039		
	refused to say	0.2561		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.4.
Question I.4

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0,6141	0,6476	0,8050
	men	0,6014		
age	18–24	0,6686	0,2327	0,2066
	25–34	0,5890		
	35–44	0,5808		
	45–54	0,5801		
	55–64	0,6667		
	65+	0,6154		
education	primary and lower secondary	0,4487	**0,0010**	**0,0000**
	basic vocational	0,4759		
	secondary	0,6037		
	higher	0,6532		
place of residence	village	0,5522	0,2097	**0,0540**
	city up to 20,000 residents	0,5711		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0,6256		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0,6026		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0,6667		
	city over 500,000	0,6231		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0,3500	0,1488	**0,0314**
	PLN 500–1000	0,6157		
	PLN 1000–2000	0,6193		
	PLN 2000–3000	0,6326		
	over PLN 3000	0,5934		
	refused to say	0,5244		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.5.
Question I.5

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.1902	0.4189	0.4836
	men	0.1579		
age	18–24	0.1902	0.2035	0.2776
	25–34	0.0941		
	35–44	0.1786		
	45–54	0.1549		
	55–64	0.2481		
	65+	0.2541		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.2692	0.7790	0.2976
	basic vocational	0.1593		
	secondary	0.1585		
	higher	0.1927		
place of residence	village	0.1077	**0.0230**	**0.0230**
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.2059		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.1401		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.2693		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.2896		
	city over 500,000	0.1095		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.1333	0.5156	0.6605
	PLN 500–1000	0.3333		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.1511		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.1755		
	over PLN 3000	0.1742		
	refused to say	0.1341		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.6.
Question II.1

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.3791	0.1967	0.0756
	men	0.4167		
age	18–24	0.4667	0.1945	0.2105
	25–34	0.4121		
	35–44	0.3988		
	45–54	0.3241		
	55–64	0.3876		
	65+	0.4196		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3974	**0.0008**	**0.0000**
	basic vocational	0.2809		
	secondary	0.3670		
	higher	0.4605		

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
place of residence	village	0.3311	**0.0223**	**0.0224**
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3439		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.3959		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.3711		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.4676		
	city over 500,000	0.4639		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	–0.7778	0.1207	**0.0372**
	PLN 500–1000	0.2941		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.3546		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.4126		
	over PLN 3000	0.4470		
	refused to say	0.3821		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.7.
Question II.2

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.3103	0.9981	0.4909
	men	0.3102		
age	18–24	0.3686	0.0819	**0.0213**
	25–34	0.3548		
	35–44	0.3078		
	45–54	0.2507		
	55–64	0.3271		
	65+	0.2261		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3077	0.1177	**0.0359**
	basic vocational	0.2075		
	secondary	0.3170		
	higher	0.3290		
place of residence	village	0.2823	0.1963	0.1039
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.2293		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.2969		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.3596		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.3575		
	city over 500,000	0.3296		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2500	0.7966	0.6568
	PLN 500–1000	0.3098		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.2819		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.3104		
	over PLN 3000	0.3409		
	refused to say	0.3171		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.8.
Question II.3

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.3872	**0.0456**	**0.0055**
	men	0.4458		
age	18–24	0.4216	0.6075	0.5574
	25–34	0.4346		
	35–44	0.4158		
	45–54	0.3583		
	55–64	0.4465		
	65+	0.4172		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.5256	0.0839	**0.0126**
	basic vocational	0.3166		
	secondary	0.4150		
	higher	0.4364		
place of residence	village	0.3821	0.3610	0.1912
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3461		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.4276		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.4138		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.4359		
	city over 500,000	0.4602		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.3333	0.3590	**0.0423**
	PLN 500–1000	0.3333		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.3971		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.4204		
	over PLN 3000	0.4588		
	refused to say	0.3699		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.9.
Question II.4

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.2983	**0.0150**	**0.0210**
	men	0.3699		
age	18–24	0.3784	0.3547	0.3082
	25–34	0.3262		
	35–44	0.3427		
	45–54	0.2690		
	55–64	0.3721		
	65+	0.3193		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.4359	0.4789	0.1543
	basic vocational	0.2809		
	secondary	0.3295		
	higher	0.3451		

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
place of residence	village	0.3107	0.5337	0.5388
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3036		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.3585		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.2857		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.3725		
	city over 500,000	0.3420		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2167	0.5039	0.3687
	PLN 500–1000	0.2784		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.3366		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.3111		
	over PLN 3000	0.3729		
	refused to say	0.3374		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.10.
Question III.1

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.0705	0.9826	0.9852
	men	0.0713		
age	18–24	0.1255	**0.0008**	**0.0070**
	25–34	0.2025		
	35–44	0.0476		
	45–54	0.0039		
	55–64	0.0341		
	65+	–0.0559		
education	primary and lower secondary	–0.1410	0.3152	0.3392
	basic vocational	0.0210		
	secondary	0.0845		
	higher	0.0773		
place of residence	village	0.0601	**0.0542**	0.0811
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.0531		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.0672		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.1018		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.1840		
	city over 500,000	–0.0187		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.3667	0.2463	0.2233
	PLN 500–1000	0.1255		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.0229		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.0936		
	over PLN 3000	0.0631		
	refused to say	0.0772		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.11.
Question III.2

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.5419	0.3998	0.8475
	men	0.5162		
age	18–24	0.4824	0.6571	0.4234
	25–34	0.5358		
	35–44	0.5145		
	45–54	0.5236		
	55–64	0.5504		
	65+	0.5921		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.4487	**0.0034**	**0.0000**
	basic vocational	0.3983		
	secondary	0.5159		
	higher	0.5819		
place of residence	village	0.4943	0.1453	0.0822
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.4331		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.5369		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.5353		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5837		
	city over 500,000	0.5659		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.3167	**0.0256**	**0.0020**
	PLN 500–1000	0.4431		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.5359		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5756		
	over PLN 3000	0.5236		
	refused to say	0.3821		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.12.
Question III.3

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.0949	0.3992	0.3575
	men	0.1250		
age	18–24	0.1137	0.6348	0.6284
	25–34	0.1585		
	35–44	0.0910		
	45–54	0.0840		
	55–64	0.1318		
	65+	0.0536		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.0513	0.4696	0.4236
	basic vocational	0.0650		
	secondary	0.0932		
	higher	0.1412		

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
place of residence	village	0.0748	0.8403	0.8739
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.1231		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.1242		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.1084		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.1508		
	city over 500,000	0.0858		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.1667	0.9138	0.9322
	PLN 500–1000	0.1922		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.1005		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.1061		
	over PLN 3000	0.1010		
	refused to say	0.1138		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.13.
Question III.4

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.5406	0.4362	0.6648
	men	0.5171		
age	18–24	0.5373	0.8703	0.5494
	25–34	0.5256		
	35–44	0.5111		
	45–54	0.5118		
	55–64	0.5535		
	65+	0.5734		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3462	**0.0000**	**0.0000**
	basic vocational	0.3732		
	secondary	0.5067		
	higher	0.6023		
place of residence	village	0.5181	0.2169	0.3498
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.4607		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.5042		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.5205		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5973		
	city over 500,000	0.5659		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2667	**0.0042**	**0.0012**
	PLN 500–1000	0.3569		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.5351		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5612		
	over PLN 3000	0.5564		
	refused to say	0.4146		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.14.
Question IV.1

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.4380	0.8108	0.6545
	men	0.4306		
age	18–24	0.3471	0.4338	0.4987
	25–34	0.4294		
	35–44	0.4422		
	45–54	0.4436		
	55–64	0.4775		
	65+	0.4476		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3846	**0.0300**	**0.0165**
	basic vocational	0.3103		
	secondary	0.4337		
	higher	0.4691		
place of residence	village	0.3549	**0.0335**	**0.0101**
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3928		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.4622		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.4368		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5294		
	city over 500,000	0.4291		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2500	0.3399	0.0854
	PLN 500–1000	0.3922		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.4199		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.4512		
	over PLN 3000	0.4646		
	refused to say	0.3455		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.15.
Question IV.2

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.4650	0.4162	0.9251
	men	0.4398		
age	18–24	0.3098	**0.0425**	0.1451
	25–34	0.4642		
	35–44	0.4583		
	45–54	0.4869		
	55–64	0.4775		
	65+	0.4848		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.3974	0.0597	**0.0085**
	basic vocational	0.3417		
	secondary	0.4524		
	higher	0.4842		

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
place of residence	village	0.3866	0.2264	0.0745
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.4395		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.4725		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.4778		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5143		
	city over 500,000	0.4378		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2000	0.0814	**0.0193**
	PLN 500–1000	0.3765		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.4379		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.4833		
	over PLN 3000	0.4798		
	refused to say	0.3496		

Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.16.
Question IV.3

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.4863	0.9449	0.4476
	men	0.4843		
age	18–24	0.4157	0.2385	0.1377
	25–34	0.4703		
	35–44	0.4736		
	45–54	0.4843		
	55–64	0.5488		
	65+	0.5408		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.5000	**0.0151**	**0.0008**
	basic vocational	0.3501		
	secondary	0.4890		
	higher	0.5153		
place of residence	village	0.4887	0.1601	0.1711
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3715		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.4986		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.4959		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5339		
	city over 500,000	0.4826		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2333	0.1169	**0.0319**
	PLN 500–1000	0.3804		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.4894		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5082		
	over PLN 3000	0.4798		
	refused to say	0.3496		

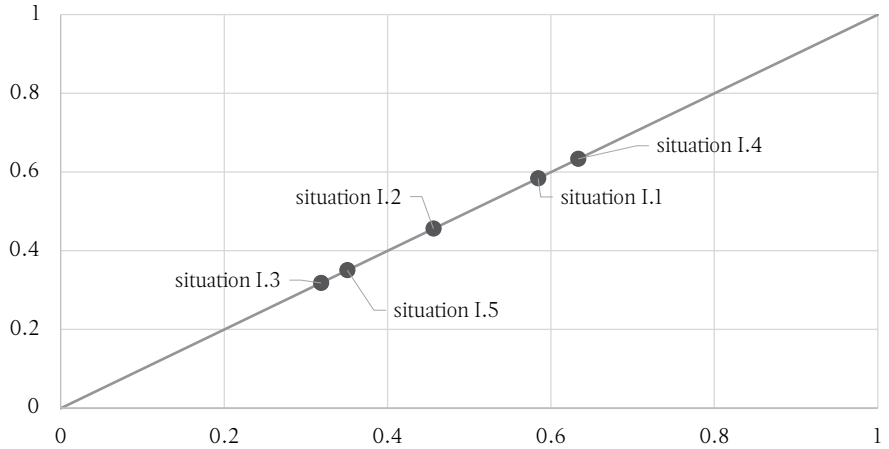
Source: Own preparation.

Table 10.17.
Question IV.4

Variable	Variant	Importance Index	p-value from the parametric test	p-value from the non-parametric test
gender	women	0.4799	0.7206	0.3459
	men	0.4907		
age	18–24	0.4098	0.2537	0.2222
	25–34	0.4785		
	35–44	0.4770		
	45–54	0.4751		
	55–64	0.5349		
	65+	0.5548		
education	primary and lower secondary	0.4615	**0.0078**	**0.0006**
	basic vocational	0.3501		
	secondary	0.4789		
	higher	0.5276		
place of residence	village	0.4717	0.2328	0.2213
	city up to 20,000 residents	0.3864		
	city with 20,000 to 100,000 residents	0.4930		
	city with 100,000 to 200,000 residents	0.4926		
	city with 200,000 to 500,000 residents	0.5415		
	city over 500,000	0.4950		
net income per household member	up to PLN 500	0.2833	**0.0270**	**0.0040**
	PLN 500–1000	0.3216		
	PLN 1000–2000	0.4869		
	PLN 2000–3000	0.5232		
	over PLN 3000	0.4949		
	refused to say	0.4106		

Source: Own preparation.

Chart 1.
Distribution of Importance Index for situation I

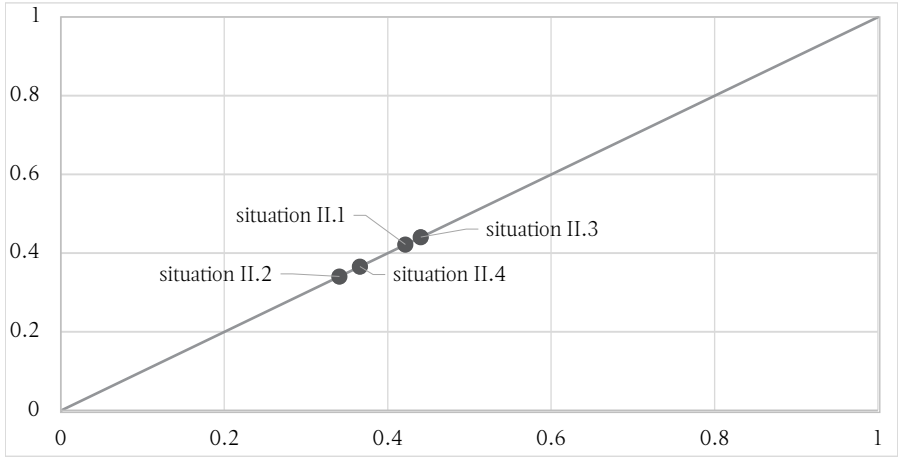


Note:

X-axis — Importance Index value, Y-axis — Importance Index value.

Source: Own preparation.

Chart 2.
Distribution of Importance Index for situation II

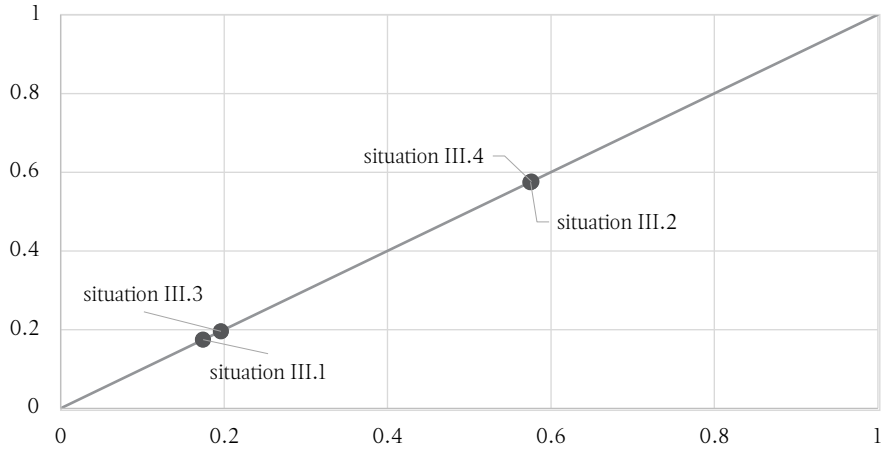


Note:

X-axis — Importance Index value, Y-axis — Importance Index value.

Source: Own preparation.

Chart 3.
Distribution of Importance Index for situation III

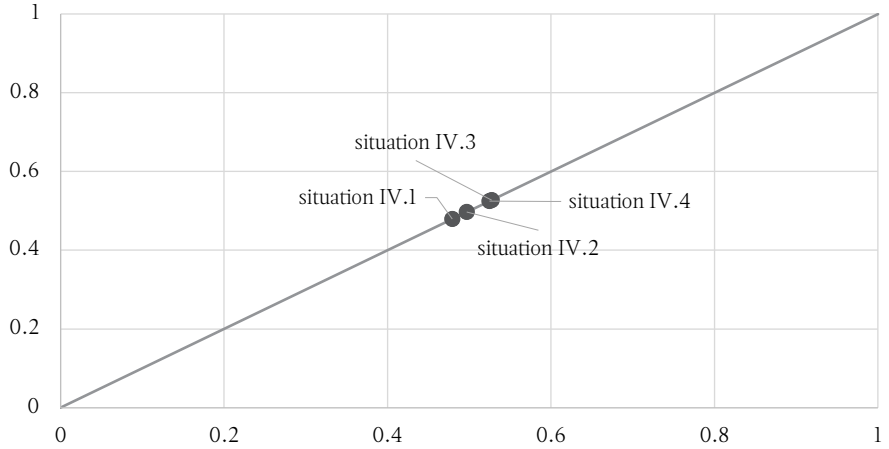


Note:

X-axis — Importance Index value, Y-axis — Importance Index value.

Source: Own preparation.

Chart 4.
Distribution of Importance Index for situation IV



Note:

X-axis — Importance Index value, Y-axis — Importance Index value.

Source: Own preparation.